

**LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT
OF ACADEMIC STAFF MEDIATED AND MODERATED BY JOB
SATISFACTION AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AT
KYAMBOGO UNIVERSITY, UGANDA**

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**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH
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DECLARATION

I, Joshua Kimata Kato, declare that this Research Dissertation entitled: “Leadership behaviours as significant predictors of organisational commitment of academic staff at Kyambogo University: The mediating role of job satisfaction and moderating role of emotional intelligence” is my original work which has never been submitted for any award.

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APPROVAL

This Dissertation on “Leadership behaviours as significant predictors of organisational commitment of academic staff at Kyambogo University: The Mediating role of job satisfaction and moderating role of emotional intelligence” was supervised with our guidance and is now ready for examination with our approval.

Signature.....

Date.....

Associate Professor Wilson George Kasule

Signature.....

Date.....

Dr. Wilson Mugizi

DEDICATION

I dedicate this piece of work to three people. First, to my beloved Dad, the late George Wilson Kimata for the great role you played in inspiring me to excel and advance academically during the formative age of my life. Secondly, I dedicate the same work to my beloved Mum Oliver Nagendo for the academic advice you gave me especially during such a tender age as an orphan. To Mr Emmanuel Ssentongo, I dedicate to you this piece of academic work as I wish you the best in your academic journey.

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TABLE OF CONTENT

APPROVAL	iii
DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	v
TABLE OF CONTENT	vi
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
ABSTRACT	xvi
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.0 Introduction.....	1
1.1 Background to the Study.....	2
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	14
1.3 Purpose of the study.....	16
1.4 Objectives of the study.....	16
1.5 Hypotheses	17
1.6 Scope of the study.....	17
1.7 Significance of the study.....	19
1.8 Conceptual Framework.....	22
1.9 Operation Definition of Key Terms	23
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	24
2.0 Introduction.....	24
2.1 Theoretical Review	24
2.2 Conceptual Review of Organisational Commitment	33

2.3 Related Literature.....	43
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	114
3.0 Introduction.....	114
3.1 Research Philosophy.....	114
3.2 Research Approach	115
3.3 Research Design.....	115
3.4 Study Population.....	116
3.5 Sample Size.....	117
3.6 Sample Technique.....	117
3.7 Measurement of Variables and Data Collection Instruments	118
3.8 Data Collection Instrument	119
3.9 Common Method Data Bias Control	120
3.10 Research Procedure.....	120
3.11 Data Quality Control.....	121
3.12 Data Management	125
3.13 Diagnostic Tests.....	134
3.14 Data Analysis	142
3.15 Research Ethical Considerations.....	142
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION..	144
4.0 Introduction.....	144
4.1 Response and Adjustment Rates.....	144
4.2 Background Characteristics	144
4.3 Descriptive Results for Organisational Commitment	149

4.4 Organisational Commitment Index.....	162
4.5 Predicting Organisational Commitment using Leadership Behaviours.....	165
4.6 Predicting Organisational Commitment using Leadership behaviours	186
4.7 Descriptive Results for Job Satisfaction	190
4.8 Predicting Job Satisfaction using Leadership Behaviours	203
4.9 Predicting Organisational Commitment using Job Satisfaction	206
4.10 Predicting Organisational Commitment using Emotional Intelligence	209
4.11 Predicting Organisational Commitment using Emotional Intelligence	228
4.12 Predicting Organisational Commitment using Leadership Behaviours Mediated by Job Satisfaction	232
4.13 Predicting Organisational Commitment using leadership behaviours Moderated by Emotional Intelligence	235
4.14 Significant predictors of organisational commitment of academic staff	238
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	242
5.1 Introduction.....	242
5.2 Discussion of the Findings.....	242
5.3 Leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff	246
5.4 Leadership Behaviours and Job Satisfaction of Academic Staff	251
5.5 Job Satisfaction and organisational commitment of Academic Staff	259
5.6 Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff	262
5.7 Job Satisfaction, Leadership Behaviours and Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff	269

5.8 The Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence on the Relationship between Leadership Behaviours and Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff	270
5.9 Conclusions.....	271
5.10 Recommendations.....	273
5.11 Limitation of the study.....	275
5.12 Suggestions for further Research/ Delimitation of the Study	276
5.13 Contribution of the study	277
REFERENCES.....	279
APPENDICES.....	329
APPENDIX A: Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population	329
APPENDIX B: Questionnaire Survey for Full Time Academic Staff	330
APPENDIX C: Ethical Approval.....	341
APPENDIX D: National Council for Science and Technology Approval	343
APPENDIX E: Recommendation for Data Collection	345

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Study Population, Study Sample and Sampling Technique.....	118
Table 3.2: Operationalization of Variables, Instrument, their Sources and Reliability	119
Table 3.3: Testing the Discriminant Validity of the Research Variables using the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Discriminant Assessment	122
Table 3.4: Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	123
Table 3.5: Composite Reliability and Cronbach's Alpha for the Study Constructs	125
Table 3.6: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test for Normality	137
Table 3.7: Multicollinearity	141
Table 4.1: Respondents' Background Characteristics.....	145
Table 4.2: Descriptive Results for Affective Commitment.....	150
Table 4.3: Summary Results for Affective Commitment	152
Table 4.4: Descriptive Results for Continuance Commitment	154
Table 4.5: Summary Results for Continuance Commitment	156
Table 4.6: Descriptive Results for Normative Commitment.....	158
Table 4.7: Summary Results for Normative Commitment	160
Table 4.8: Summary Results for Organisational Commitment.....	162
Table 4.9: Descriptive Results for Directive Leadership Behaviours.....	166
Table 4.10: Summary Results for Directive Leadership Behaviour	168
Table 4.11: Descriptive Results for Supportive Leadership Behaviours	170
Table 4.12: Summary Results for Supportive Leadership Behaviours	172
Table 4.13: Descriptive Results for Participative Leadership Behaviours	174
Table 4.14: Summary Results for Participative Leadership Behaviours	177

Table 4.15: Descriptive Results for Achievement-Oriented Leadership Behaviours	179
Table 4.16: Summary Results for Achievement-Oriented Leadership Behaviours	181
Table 4.17: Summary Results for Leadership Behaviours.....	183
Table 4.18: Structural Equation Model Prediction between Leadership Behaviours and Organisational Commitment.....	188
Table 4.19: Descriptive Results for Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	191
Table 4.20: Summary Results for Intrinsic Job Satisfaction.....	194
Table 4.21: Descriptive Results for Extrinsic Job Satisfaction.....	196
Table 4.22: Summary of Extrinsic Job Satisfaction.....	198
Table 4.23: Summary Results for Job Satisfaction of Academic Staff.....	200
Table 4.24: Structural Equation Model Prediction for Leadership Behaviours and Job Satisfaction	205
Table 4.25: Structural Equation Model for Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment .	208
Table 4.26: Descriptive Results of Self-Awareness.....	210
Table 4.27: Summary Results for Self-Awareness	212
Table 4.28: Descriptive Results for Self-Management.....	214
Table 4.29: Summary Results for Self-Management.....	215
Table 4.30: Descriptive Results for Social-Awareness.....	217
Table 4.29: Summary Results for Social-Awareness.....	219
Table 4.30: Descriptive Results for Relationship-Management	221
Table 4.31: Summary Results for Relationship-Management	223
Table 4.32: Summary Results for Emotional Intelligence	225
Table 4.33: Structural Model for Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Commitment.....	230

Table 4.34: Structural Equation Model for Job Satisfaction, Leadership Behaviours and Organisational Commitment of academic Staff.....	234
Table 4.34: Structural Model for Emotional Intelligence Moderating Leadership Behaviours and Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff.....	237
Table 4.35: Significant predictors of Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff.....	240

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework Showing Significant predictors of Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff	22
Figure 3.1: Overall Summary of Missing Value	127
Figure 3.2: Missing Value Pattern	128
Figure 3.3: Boxplots for Job Satisfaction showing outliers	131
Figure 3.4: Boxplots for Job Satisfaction after removing outliers	132
Figure 3.5: Boxplots for Emotional intelligence showing outliers	133
Figure 3.6: Boxplots for Emotional Intelligence after removing outliers	134
Figures 3.7-3.10, 3.8-3.10, 3.9-3.10, 3.10-3.10: Normality P-P Plots	136
Figures 3.11 and 3.12: Linearity for leadership Behaviours and organisational commitment, Leadership Behaviours and Job Satisfaction	139
Figures 3.13 and 3.14: Linearity for Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Emotional Intelligence.....	140
Figure 4.1: Histogram for Affective Commitment.....	153
Figure 4.2: Histogram for Continuance Commitment	157
Figure 4.3: Histogram for Normative Commitment.....	161
Figure 4.4: Histogram for Organisational Commitment	163
Figure 4.5: Structural Equation Model for Organisational Commitment	164
Figure 4.6: Histogram for Directive Leadership Behaviours	169
Figure 4.7: Histogram for Supportive Leadership Behaviours	173
Figure 4.8: Histogram for Participative Leadership Behaviours	178

Figure 4.9: Histogram for Achievement-Oriented Leadership Behaviours	182
Figure 4.10: Histogram for Leadership Behaviours.....	184
Figure 4.11: Structural Equation Model for Leadership Behaviours	185
Figure 4.12: Structural Equation Model for Predicting Organisational Commitment using Leadership Behaviours.....	187
Figure 4.13: Histogram for Intrinsic Job Satisfaction.....	195
Figure 4.14: Histogram for Extrinsic Job Satisfaction.....	199
Figure 4.15: Histogram for Job Satisfaction of Academic Staff.....	201
Figure 4.16: Structural Model for Job Satisfaction.....	202
Figure 4.17: Structural Equation Model for Predicting Job Satisfaction using Leadership Behaviours	204
Figure 4.18: Structural Equation Modelling Predicting Organisational Commitment using Job Satisfaction.....	207
Figure 4.19: Histogram for Self-Awareness	213
Figure 4.20: Histogram for Self-Management	216
Figure 4.21: Histogram for Social-Awareness.....	220
Figure 4.22: Histogram for Relationship-Management	224
Figure 4.23: Histogram for Emotional Intelligence	226
Figure 4.24: Structural Equation Model for Emotional Intelligence	227
Figure 4.25: Structural Equation Model for Predicting Organisational Commitment using Emotional Intelligence	229
Figure 4.26: Structural Equation Model for Predicting Organisational Commitment using Leadership Behaviours Mediated by Job Satisfaction	233

Figure 4.27: Structural Equation Model for Predicting Organisational Commitment using Leadership Behaviours Moderated by Emotional Intelligence..... 236

Figure 4.27: Significant predictors of Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff 239

Figure 5.1: A Modified Conceptual Model of Leadership Behaviours, Job Satisfaction, Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff were developed. 277

ABSTRACT

The study investigated the topic: Leadership Behaviours as Significant Predictors of Organisational Commitment of the academic staff at Kyambogo University. Specifically, the study examined whether leadership behaviours were significant predictors of organisational commitment, assessed whether leadership behaviours were significant predictors of job satisfaction, examined whether job satisfaction was a significant predictor of organisational commitment, and assessed whether emotional intelligence was a significant predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff. The study also tested the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment, and the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff. Using the positivist research paradigm, the study adopted the cross sectional-correlational research design. Data were collected using a questionnaire survey on a sample of 156 academic staff. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics and structural equation modelling. Overall findings revealed that leadership behaviours, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence were positive and significant predictors of organisational commitment. The findings also revealed that leadership behaviours, participative leadership positively and significantly correlated organisational commitment of academic staff, while directive, participative and supportive were positive significant predictors of job satisfaction of academic staff and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours negatively and significantly correlated with job satisfaction. Further, the study revealed that job satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff but emotional intelligence negatively and insignificantly moderated the relationship between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff. Pertinent conclusions were derived; hence the following recommendations were made in order to enhance organisational commitment of academic staff. Management needs to enhance the implementation of participative leadership behaviours, intrinsic job satisfaction, self-management and social-awareness in order to promote organisational commitment of academic staff. Further, three leadership behaviours namely directive, supportive, and participative leadership behaviours should be enhanced in order to promote job satisfaction of academic staff.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

In the current dynamic working environments and severe competition, organisational commitment of employees is a key determinant of organisational success. This is due to the fact that committed workers are fruitful individuals with greater levels of happiness, faithfulness and responsibility (Hanaysha, 2016). Committed workers exhibit organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) which involves carrying out several voluntary tasks that are important for the organisation. Therefore, such workers are likely to remain with the organisation because they are loyal to it; they share its values and identify with its objectives. In addition, such employees accept organisational change by putting in extra effort to ensure that the change succeeds. These serve as public relations professionals who go above and beyond the call of duty to help the organisation function effectively (Mugizi et al., 2018). In this study, it is conjectured that leadership behaviours influence organisational commitment of academic staff mediated by job satisfaction and moderated and mediated by emotional intelligence. Therefore, based on the path-goal leadership theory, Herzberg two-factor theory and emotional intelligence based performance theory, this study investigated the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff at Kyambogo University mediated by job satisfaction and moderated by emotional intelligence.

1.1 Background to the Study

1.1.1 Historical perspective. The origins of the concept of organisational commitment (OC) can be traced to Becker's Side-Bets Theory advanced in 1960 which asserts that employees are committed to the organisation because of the fear to lose benefits associated with staying and working for an organisation. Such benefits include organisational specific skills, mortgage and status among others which commit an employee to the organisation (Goshen & Swamy, 2014). Mowday et al. (1979) describes organisational commitment as the degree to which an employee identifies with and gets involved in organisational activities. Mowday, further, describes organisational commitment to comprise three aspects namely; strong acceptance, participation and organisational loyalty (WeiBo et al., 2010). Allen and Meyer (1990) posit that employees are committed to organisations because they feel obliged to stay with the organisation and perceive this course of action as the most appropriate and morally justifiable (Grego-Planer, 2020). Allen and Meyer (1990) divide commitment into three different emotional psychological states each of which exhibit employee commitment to the organisation. These are: emotional attachment to the organisation (affective commitment), recognition of the loss associated with leaving the organisation (continuance commitment) and perceived obligation to remain with the organisation (normative commitment).

Globally, organisational commitment is an issue of concern in universities with academic staff exhibiting low organisational commitment. For instance, in the United States of America, about 20 per cent of academic staff in public universities exhibit low continuance commitment by leaving their positions annually (Albaqami, 2016). Yousaf et al. (2014) reveals that 68 per cent of the academic personnel exhibited low affective and normative commitment when they wished to leave their positions in universities. A study by Ha (2018) indicates that 20 per cent of

academic staff in Italy exhibited low continuance commitment by leaving public universities between the years 2008 and 2015. In Asian countries academic staff also exhibit low continuance commitment to the universities as indicated by Rathakrishnan et al. (2016) who observe that 18.18 per cent of academic personnel in public universities in Malaysia exhibit low continuance commitment by leaving for other activities. According to GuiXia and Rashid (2019), 11 per cent of academic staff in public universities in China exhibit low continuance commitment by leaving and, in the same country, about 50 per cent of College academic staff exhibit low affective commitment and normative commitment by not focusing on teaching and research activities but instead take up secondary occupations.

In Sub-Saharan universities, academics also manifest low organisational commitment especially continuance commitment. A study by Mapolisa (2014) reveals that 23,000 academic staff exhibit low continuance commitment by leaving African universities annually for greener pastures. In Ghana by the year 2000 the University of Ghana's medical school experienced low continuance commitment by losing about a half of its academic staff and Perez university in the same country lost about 65 per cent of the academic staff each year which shows low continuance commitment. Yimar et al. (2017) indicates that in Malawi, 15 per cent of academics show low continuance commitment by leaving Universities for other activities in Malawi, and 14 per cent exhibit the same in Zambia. Amani and Komba (2016) reveal that, 70.9 per cent of academic staff show low continuance commitment by leaving universities in Tanzania, 30 academic staff exhibited low continuance commitment when they left Dar-el-Salaam University between 2012 and 2016. Mkulu (2018) points out that of the one million Kenyans that move to developed nations, 40 per cent are academic personnel from Kenyan universities. He, further, observes that 20 per cent of academic staff in public universities leave their profession after three

years and close to 30 per cent after five years. Murage-Macharia and Kanyua (2016) reveal that, 30 per cent of academic staff show low continuance commitment by leaving Kenyan universities for other activities.

In Uganda, a study done at Makerere University by Ssali et al. (2019) reveals that between 2009 and 2013, 26 academic staff exhibited low continuance commitment by leaving the university. The visitation committee on Makerere University (2017) established that approximately 69 academic staff members showed low commitment to continuing their work between 2015 and 2016 at Makerere University. The same committee, further, reported some prevalence of low affective and normative commitment at the university. The problems of low affective and normative commitment at Makerere University included perennial delay in marking of examinations, delayed feedback to students, inadequate attention paid to students' course works and other forms of continuous assessment as well as reluctance by some senior academic staff to invigilate examinations. In addition, some full-time academic staff did not fulfil their teaching obligations and many senior academic staff, especially professors, left most of the teaching at undergraduate level to junior staff. Dungu (2014) indicates that between September and October 2011, over 26 academic staff exhibited low continuance commitment by leaving Mbarara university of Science and Technology and 9 academic staff did the same at Kyambogo University. The Auditor General's report (2018) reveals that 78.8 per cent of the academic staff at Busitema University exhibit low normative commitment by not engaging in research and yet this is one of the core functions of the university academic staff.

Owing to the importance of organisational commitment, several studies have been carried out on it. In Chile, Vera and Anderson (2018) examined labour practices and organisational commitment. In Cyprus, Berberoglu (2018) carried out a study on organisational climate and

organisational commitment. In their study in Lahore College in Pakistan, Batool and Sohail (2022) examined organisational support and job commitment among faculty members. In Nigeria, Njoku et al. (2017) studied personality traits as predictors of organisational commitment among employees in public and private sectors. However, in their study, Nanjundeswaraswamy (2021) examined job satisfaction as mediator between leadership styles and employee commitment. On their part, Saeed et al. (2015) evaluated the moderating influence of emotional intelligence on the link between transformational leadership and employee organisational commitment. Further, Makhathini and Van Dyke (2018) also examined job satisfaction and organisational commitment while Mugizi (2016) studied antecedents of employee commitment of academic staff that were specifically, human resource practices, organisational and personal characteristics.

Nonetheless, most of the studies above were skewed outside Uganda which raises a contextual gap. All empirical literature on organisational commitment did not consider leadership behaviour as an antecedent to it. Even in the study by Mugizi (2016) which was done in Uganda, leadership behaviours as an aspect leading to a conceptual gap in relation to organisational commitment of academics was not his consideration. Besides, none of the studies done in Uganda has been carried out on how job satisfaction and emotional intelligence mediated and moderated organisational commitment respectively. Thus, this study was aimed at relating leadership behaviours and organisational commitment mediated and moderated by job satisfaction and emotional intelligence respectively in a Ugandan university.

1.1.2 Theoretical Perspective. Three theories namely; the path-goal leadership theory (House, 1971), Herzberg's two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1959) and emotional intelligence based

performance theory (Goleman, 1995) formed the basis for the study. The path-goal theory of leadership (1971) informed the leadership behaviours which was the independent variable for this study. The path-goal leadership theory was developed by Evans (1970) and modified by House (1971). The path-goal theory explains how leadership behaviours of direction, encouragement, participation, and a focus on results influence employees/subordinates' satisfaction, performance and organisational commitment (Alanazi et al., 2013). House (1971) asserts that leaders need to manifest four kinds of leadership behaviours namely; directive, supportive, participative and achievement oriented to be able to influence a subordinate's motivation, satisfaction, performance and organisational commitment. The path-goal leadership theory argues that a leader is expected to motivate, guide and influence subordinates to be able to achieve organisational goals and objectives by exhibiting four leadership behaviours of directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours.

Therefore, this study investigated how the four traits of path-goal leadership theory namely; directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours relate to organisational commitment of academic staff. The path-goal leadership theory has the drawback of emphasizing subordinates' motivation in order to improve their performance and satisfaction. However, the path-goal leadership theory fails to explain adequately the relationship between leadership behaviours and subordinate motivation. This is due to the fact that leaders are generally motivated towards results yet it does not require them to utilise the path-goal leadership theory. Further, the path-goal leadership theory is designed to deal with the influence of a leader on employee motivation and pay less attention to the reverse process. However, the path-goal leadership theory only addressed one correlate of organisational commitment which is leadership behaviours and did not address job satisfaction and emotional intelligence variables

which in this study were the mediating and moderating variables respectively. Thus, the two-factor theory was used to address the job satisfaction which was the mediating variable for this study. Further, emotional intelligence based performance theory was adopted to inform the emotional intelligence which was the moderating variable for the study.

The Hertzberg two-factor theory advanced by (Hertzberg, 1959) is also called the two-factor theory advanced in 1959 by Frederick Hertzberg (Yusoff et al., 2013). Hertzberg's two-factor theory identifies two sets of variables that influence employees' working attitude and level of commitment to the organisation namely; motivation and hygiene factors. Motivation factors are intrinsic things that motivate employees and are expected to increase their job satisfaction leading to employee commitment. Hygiene factors are extrinsic things that are expected to prevent any employees' dissatisfaction. According to Hertzberg (1959), the continual provision of hygiene factors does not necessarily lead to an employees' job satisfaction but prevents dissatisfaction. Therefore, in order to enhance employees' commitment to an organisation, motivation factors must be addressed. Thus, the need to maintain existence of organisational commitment levels becomes an important factor (Yusoff et al., 2013). In this study, sufficient supply of extrinsic factors as assumed by the two-factor theory does not lead to job satisfaction of employees but rather creates a conducive working environment which prevents job dissatisfaction among academic staff.

In order to enhance organisational commitment of academic staff, motivation factors need to be addressed as summed by the theory. Therefore, this study investigated how intrinsic and extrinsic factors advanced by Hertzberg two-factor theory relate to organisational commitment of the academic staff. However, the Hertzberg two-factor theory ignores the situational variables that can influence employee job satisfaction. The theory is, in fact, based on

a small experiment that only included engineers and accountants. Therefore, its applicability in different fields might not be practical. Nonetheless, the central focus of the theory is job satisfaction but does not show how this results into employee productivity. Importantly, Herzberg two-factor theory explains how the job satisfaction factor relates to organisational commitment of employees and this was examined by the study. Nevertheless, Herzberg's two-factor theory does not address the moderating variable of emotional intelligence. Hence, the emotional intelligence based theory of performance was used to underpin the link between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment.

The emotional intelligence based theory of performance (Goleman, 1995) informed the emotional intelligence which was the moderating variable for this study. According to the emotional intelligence based theory of Performance, a connection exists between employees' emotional intelligence competences, skills, work attitudes and organisational commitment (Majidian & Nazari, 2014). Goleman (1995) outlines four social intelligence competencies namely; self-awareness, self-management/regulation, social-awareness and relationship-management. Emotional intelligence based performance theory assumes that members of academic staff who possess a high degree of emotional intelligence are expected to demonstrate superior performance and a higher level of organisational commitment. However, much as employees with high emotional intelligence often excel at forming relationships and working with others, they often lack the degrees of nonconformity and unconventionality needed to question the status quo. Nonetheless, this emotional intelligence based theory of performance identifies the emotional intelligence competencies that are self-awareness, self-management/regulation, and social-awareness which were investigated by this study in relation to organisational commitment of academic staff.

1.1.3 Conceptual Perspective. Organisational commitment (OC) was the dependent variable (DV), leadership behaviours were the independent variable (IV) while job satisfaction was a mediating variable (ME) and emotional intelligence was the moderating variable (MV). Almaaitah et al. (2020), organisational commitment is the term used to describe the employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in organisational operations. Jaros and Culpepper (2014) define organisational commitment as an employees' degree of participation and identification with an organisation's activities. As for organisational commitment, this study adopted the definition by Allen and Meyer (1990) which captures the following key areas: affective, continuance and normative commitment. Affective commitment is defined as a person's psychological attachment to, identification with, participation in, and willingness to stay a member of an organisation (Muda & Fook, 2020). On the other hand, continuance commitment refers to employees' determination to stick around the organisation due to personal investment he/she has made to the organisation in form of non-transferable investment such as a close working relationship with co-workers, retirement investments, career investments, acquired job skills that are specific to a given organisation which make it expensive for an employee to leave the organisation and seek employment elsewhere (Serhan et al., 2022). Normative commitment refers to employees who feel morally compelled to be members of the organisation that has spent a lot of time, money, education, and training on them and has helped them grow. Thus, such employees have a moral duty to continue offering their services to the organisation (Khan et al., 2021).

Çilek (2019) define leadership behaviours as the process through which those in leadership position consciously exert control over subordinates to direct, shape, and facilitate interactions in an organisation. Malik (2013) defines leadership behaviours as the series of

attitudinal and dispositional characteristics and skills used by those in leadership positions in various situations with different subordinates to inspire them to perform at their utmost potential in accordance with individual and organisational goals. In this study, leadership behaviours were operationalised basing on House (1971) to refer to directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented leadership behaviour.

Directive leadership behaviours refer to the kind of leadership that places a high value on instruction, close supervision, and expected compliance with orders. It also includes performance standards that are well-defined, rules and regulations that are well-specified, time frames for all activities that are clearly communicated, and expectations that should be strictly followed (Mwaisaka et al., 2019a). Supportive leadership behaviours refer to the leadership actions that include showing concern and providing emotional support for the needs and welfare of employees (Farid et al., 2021). Participative leadership behaviours refer to a method of delegation where a leader distributes authority with subordinates who are below them in the hierarchy by including them in decision-making and soliciting their input (Usadolo, 2020). Lumbasi et al. (2015) define achievement-oriented leadership behaviours as the leadership whereby the leader expects the subordinates to perform at a high level and sets demanding goals for them.

Job satisfaction refers to the range of workers' emotional states as they relate to how they view their workplace (Acosta-Prado et al., 2021). Andrade et al. (2020) define job satisfaction as the pleasant emotional state brought on by one's evaluation of his/her work. In this study, job satisfaction was operationalized according to Herzberg (1959) as referring to intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. According to Herzberg (1965), intrinsic job satisfaction refers to elements of a job's content, such as autonomy, authority, ability utilization, responsibility,

creativity, achievement, diversity, social standing, moral values, and social service security that contribute to job satisfaction (Bušatlić & Mujabašić, 2018). On the other hand, extrinsic job satisfaction refers to elements of the job aspects such as: company policy and administration, supervision, working environment, interpersonal relationships, status and security all of which contribute to job satisfaction.

Emotional intelligence refers social intelligence that includes a collection of abilities and capacity to recognize, distinguish, and watch the careful assessment and expression of feelings in oneself and others (Serrat & Serrat, 2017). The capacity to control emotions both for oneself and others and the application of emotions and knowledge to motivate, organize, direct, and achieve one's goals in life are essential for achieving organisational goals (Ishaq et al, 2020). In this study, emotional intelligence was conceptualised according to Goleman (1998) to include self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. Self-awareness refers to a person's capacity to recognize one's own emotions and how they affect others (Okpara, 2015). Self-management is the capacity to regulate painful feelings, such as worry and rage, and to restrain irrational emotional behaviours (Wameru et al., 2020a). Social awareness, on the other hand, is the capacity to listen to others, comprehend fully what was not said or only partially conveyed, identify cultural and value components and how these components affect how people act and behave (Eketu & Ogbu, 2015). According to the views raised by Wameru et al. (2020b), relationship-management is also known as emotional control. It entails being conscious of one's own feelings as well as those of others in order to build a strong bond with them.

1.1.4 Contextual Perspective. This study investigated leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff at Kyambogo University. The correlation between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment was mediated by job satisfaction and moderated by emotional intelligence. Kyambogo University (KyU) is the second largest university in Uganda established in 2003 as a result of the merger of the former three institutions namely; Uganda Polytechnic Kyambogo (UPK), Institute of Teacher Education- Kyambogo (ITEK), and Uganda National Institute for Special Education (UNISE) (Kasozi, 2013; Magara, 2006). A modest technical school called Uganda Polytechnic was founded in 1928 on Makerere Hill and moved as Kampala Technical Institute in 1958 to Kyambogo Hill. Later, it was known as Uganda Technical College before becoming Uganda Polytechnic Kyambogo (UPK) (Adupa & Mulindwa, 1998). On other hand, in order to provide instructors with hands on training in handcrafts, the Institute for Teacher Education-Kyambogo (ITEK) was founded at Kyambogo in 1952 as the foundation of a Central Government Teachers Training College. In 1965, it transformed into a National Teachers College to train teachers at Diploma level. In 1987, the National Teachers College was granted permission by the Ministry of Education to start offering Bachelor of Education (BED) Degree programme on an in-service programme and thus, becoming autonomous institute for the first time (Kwesiga, 1993).

Uganda National Institute for Special Education (UNISE) began as a special education department inside ITEK in 1988 before becoming an independent institution in 1998 as a result of the Act of Parliament in 1998 (Katende, 2015). Currently, Kyambogo University is the second largest public University established by the Universities and Other Tertiary Institution Act of 2001 and the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions instrument of 2003. The governing body of Kyambogo University is the university council which is the policy making organ of the

university and is headed by the chairperson. The university has a Chancellor who is its titular head while the Vice Chancellor is in charge of the university's academic, administrative, and financial activities. Kyambogo University's mission is to advance and promote knowledge and skill development in science, technology, education, and other related sectors with an eye on society's quality, equity, progress, and transformation of society (Kyambogo University, 2014).

To achieve its mission, Kyambogo University has employed a large number of academic staff including 415 full time academic staff (Kyambogo University, 2022). However, the academic staff exhibit low organisational commitment (OC). The Auditor General's report (2015) for instance, revealed that there was low commitment among academic staff members, particularly in the fields of teaching, research, and outreach to the community. According to Rwothumio et al. (2016) there are complaints about delays in marking and returning course work scripts of students and high rate of absenteeism, low morale among the academic staff and poor delivery of lectures to students. Nabunya et al. (2018) reveals prevalence of low innovation in instruction, supervision and community outreaches displayed by academic staff at Kyambogo University. Azikuru et al. (2017) observes that Kyambogo University has experienced different forms of unrest resulting from loss of course work and examination marks and delay in issuing of transcripts due to delayed submission of results by academic staff which are indicators of limited affective commitment among the academic staff.

With respect to leadership behaviours at Kyambogo University, Okello (2019) points out the existence of non-inclusiveness and incoherent leadership skills which lead to inefficient service delivery. Further, Kasule (2019) called for Kyambogo University to address concerns in governance at both unit and institutional levels through establishment of representative committee structures, transparency in decision making, genuine consultation processes and open

channel of multi-directional communication. With respect to emotional intelligence, Kyambogo University academic staff exhibit low emotional intelligence by quickly resorting to strikes, brewing intrigue, in-fights and mistrust (Kasule, 2015). Academic staff also exhibited low job satisfaction with persistent demand for salary increment and complaints over unsatisfactory human resources practices such as promotion (Rwothumio et al., 2016).

The above contextual evidence showed that organisational commitment of academic staff at Kyambogo University was low while leadership behaviours and job satisfaction were also weak. Therefore, if this situation remains unaddressed the realisation of the country's Vision 2040 which aims at transforming Uganda from a peasant to a modern and prosperous society through proper training of human capital may be curtailed. This led to unanswered empirical question as to whether leadership behaviours were related to organisational commitment of academic staff mediated and moderated by job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. Kyambogo University staff behaviour ought to be mediated and moderated by job satisfaction and emotional intelligence.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Organisational commitment of academic staff is pivotal to a university and contributes to achievement of its vision and goal as well to keep its employees motivated for better work performance (Kassaw & Golga, 2019). Academic staff with higher organisational commitment reduces the frequency of performing negative behaviour, improve the quality of service, are more compatible and productive with higher level of satisfaction, loyalty and responsibility (Mugizi et al., 2015). To promote organisational commitment of academic staff, Kyambogo University appraises their emotional intelligence competencies and gives feedback to them

(KyU, 2015) and carries out capacity building to enhance their skills (KyU, 2021; KyU, 2014). Academic staff is provided with grant opportunities for research and publication (KyU, 2020), the university tops up salaries of academic staff in order to enhance their job satisfaction and organisational commitment (KyU, 2014).

Despite the above effort, organisational commitment of academic staff at Kyambogo University remains low. In a study by Kakulu (2016) it was observed that, 78% of the academic staff failed to teach all their lectures assigned them, 67% of them inadequately prepare prior to delivering most of the lectures to students, 56% of them delayed to evaluate students course works and tests during the course of the semester which points to low affective commitment. Worse still, Tumuhimbise (2017) reveals that some academic staff fails to set examinations in time, delay to start lectures, fail to carry out timely marking and release of examination results. Besides, a number of the academic staff lack job ownership, poor sense of belonging and are unstable on their job which suggests lack of normative commitment while others exhibit low continuance commitment with high intent to quit (Kizza et al., 2019). If this situation of low organisational commitment of academic staff is left to continue, Kyambogo University's contribution to the National Vision 2040 which aims at transforming Uganda from a peasant to a modern and prosperous society through human capital training, and the National Development Plan three (NDP III) which emphasises national transformation, innovations and development might be curtailed. To address this problem, it was necessary to isolate the factors that underpinned the problem. Thus, this study investigated how leadership behaviours, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence were significant predictors of organisational commitment of academic staff.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to investigate leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff at Kyambogo University mediated by job satisfaction and moderated by emotional intelligence.

1.4 Objectives of the study

This study was guided by the following study objectives

- i. To examine whether leadership behaviours are significant predictors of organisational commitment of academic staff.
- ii. To assess whether leadership behaviours are significant predictors of job satisfaction of academic staff.
- iii. To examine whether job satisfaction is a significant predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff.
- iv. To assess whether emotional intelligence is a significant predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff.
- v. To test the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the influence of leadership behaviours on organisational commitment of academic staff.
- vi. To test whether emotional intelligence moderates the influence of leadership behaviours on organisational commitment of academic staff.

1.5 Hypotheses

This study was guided by the following null hypotheses:

H₀₁ Leadership behaviours are insignificant predictors of organisational commitment of academic staff

H₀₂ Leadership behaviours are insignificant predictors of job satisfaction of academic staff.

H₀₃ Job satisfaction is an insignificant predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff

H₀₄ Emotional intelligence is an insignificant predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff.

H₀₅ Job satisfaction has an insignificant mediating effect on the influence of leadership behaviours on organisational commitment.

H₀₆ Emotional intelligence has an insignificant moderating effect on the influence of leadership behaviours on organisational commitment.

1.6 Scope of the study

1.6.1 Geographical scope. Kyambogo University is situated along the Kampala Jinja route 8 Kilometres from Kampala City Centre. The study was carried out at Kyambogo University covering six Faculties and six Schools. The Faculties that were covered included; Faculty of Engineering, Faculty of Science, Faculty of Agriculture, Faculty Special Needs and Rehabilitation, Faculty of Arts and Humanities and Faculty of Social Sciences. On the other hand, full-time academic staff was drawn from the six schools namely; School of Education, School of Management and Entrepreneurship, School of Built Environment, School of Art and Industrial Design, School of Computing and Information Science and School of Vocational Studies.

1.6.2 Content scope. The content scope was that organisational commitment of academic staff was the dependent variable (DV), leadership behaviours as independent variable (IV), job satisfaction as the mediating variable (ME), emotional intelligence the moderating variable (MO) which moderated leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff. Organisational commitment was studied as a three component model that covered affective, continuance and normative commitment, leadership behaviour was studied in terms of directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented, job satisfaction was studied in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and emotional intelligence was studied in terms of self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management.

1.6.3 Time scope. This study was cross-sectional; therefore the data collected was on the perceptions of the academic staff on study variables as pertaining at the time data collection. The study scope included the months December 2021 and May 2022. This period was sufficient for field entry, data collection and analysis.

1.8 Justification

Employees that exhibit greater levels of organisational commitment are more likely to be devoted to their organisations are incredibly productive and eager to provide a hand when needed (Almaaitah et al., 2020). Further, Jakada (2019) contends that employees that display high commitment levels reduce withdrawal behaviours including tardiness, absenteeism, and turnover, all of which have a detrimental effect on the performance of the entire organisation. However, despite the above, organisational commitment of academic staff at Kyambogo University was low. According to Christmas (2022), academic staff showed low organisational commitment by

missing classes, using out-dated notes, not returning course work and tests student's scripts after marking. In addition, academic staff frequently engaged in sexually harassing the students, exchanged sexual favours for grades, and accepted payment or gifts in exchange for grades. In terms of leadership behaviours, Namubiru et al. (2017) reports that Kyambogo University leadership lacked a unifying vision, inclusivity, collegiality, and coherence.

On the other hand, academic staff exhibited low emotional intelligence as reported by Ojok (2016) who revealed that academic staff at Kyambogo University regularly went on strike, there were frequent disagreements among them, and that there was a high rate of absenteeism, tardiness, sabotage, and rampant gossip and rumours among them. Academic staff also displayed low job satisfaction, with concerns about inadequate human resources practices including promotion and constant requests for pay increases (Kasule et al., 2022). The aforementioned contextual evidence showed that academic staff at Kyambogo University lacked a strong organisational commitment, and that leadership behaviours, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence were low. Therefore, the unanswered empirical question attracted the attention of this study to test whether leadership behaviours were related to organisational commitment of academic staff and whether job satisfaction and emotional intelligence mediated and moderated the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff at Kyambogo University.

1.7 Significance of the study

The study will be of importance to international bodies, policy makers, universities, academic staff and will contribute to the existing body of knowledge. To the international bodies such as World Bank, International Monetary Fund and UNICEF who fund higher education activities in

Uganda will also benefit from this study. In addition, the study has identified leadership behaviours that can be developed in school leaders to enable them promote commitment of teachers. In view of this, the study will help the international bodies which are the donor agencies to allocate financial resources in training university leadership in participative leadership skills that can go a long way in promoting commitment of academic staff. Further, the study identified intrinsic job satisfaction strategies which can enhance commitment of academic staff. Therefore, this can be helpful in guiding the international bodies to fund the training of university leaders in leadership strategies that promote intrinsic job satisfaction of academic staff. This will enhance their commitment.

The study will also benefit policy makers in government such as the executive and parliament of Uganda who are assigned the task of making policies for academic staff in universities in Uganda. The study identified significant predictors of organisational commitment of academic staff which can be benchmarked in university education policy making processes. This will enable universities to improve on the commitment of academic staff which will enhance the production of human capital necessary for the development of the country. The study will also be of significance to the top university managers to develop the mechanism for implementing strategies that enable commitment of academic staff in their universities. Further, it is hoped that the study will be of great significance to the university senior administrators involved in supervising the academic staff to enhance their commitment. This is because senior administrators will be able to identify the best strategies to use in order to enhance job satisfaction and commitment of academic staff.

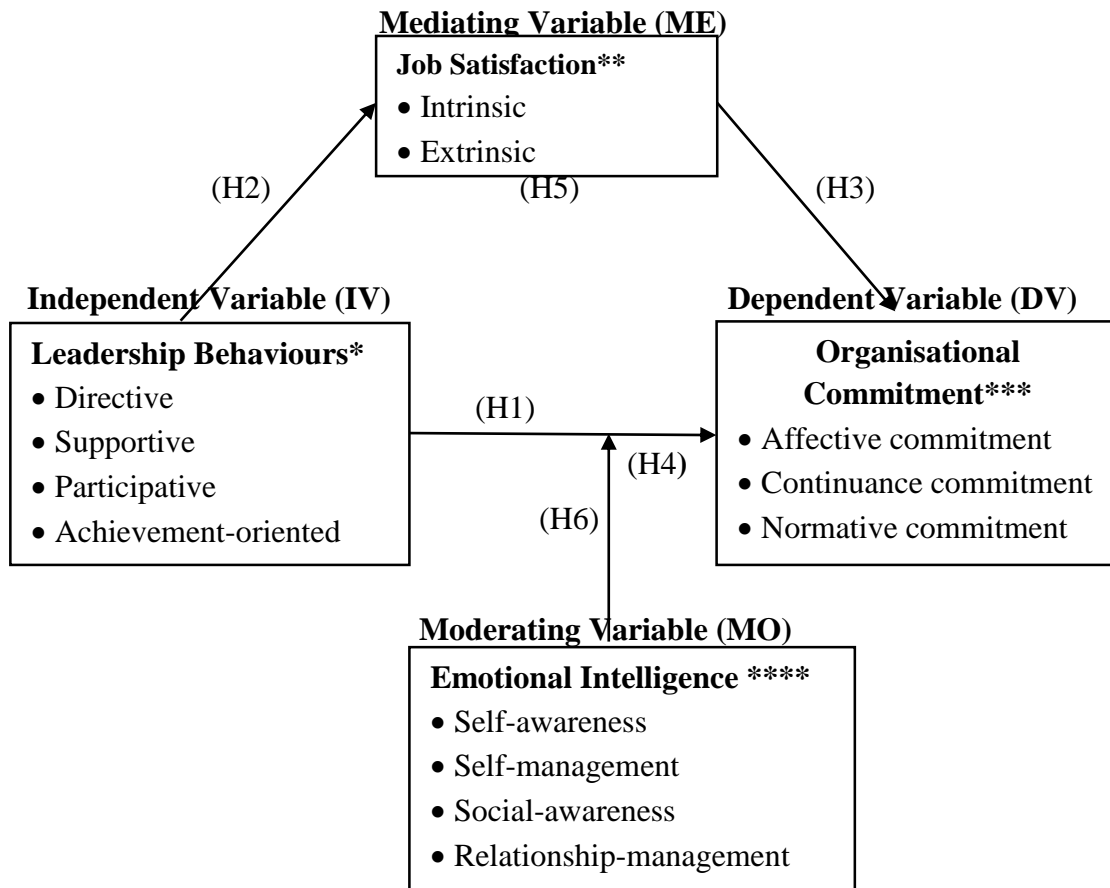
As for the academic staff, the study identified the best emotional intelligence competencies and job satisfaction strategies which, when used, will enhance their commitment to

the university. Thus, this study is likely to help academic staff in identifying emotional intelligence competencies that can be adopted by academic staff to enhance their organisational commitment. To the researcher and scholars, the study will add to the body of knowledge by providing researchers and academicians with more information on significant predictors of organisational commitment of academic staff provoking further research in the discipline of organisational commitment.

1.8 Conceptual Framework

Figure 1.1

Conceptual Framework Showing Significant predictors of Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff



Sources: *House (1971), **Hertzberg (1959), ***Allen & Meyer (1990), ****Goleman (1998).

The conceptual framework above (Figure 1.1) shows that the independent variable (IV) in this study is leadership behaviours with constructs namely directive, supportive, participative and achievement oriented leadership behaviour which was expected to influence the dependent variable (DV) which is organisational commitment of academic staff with constructs namely;

affective, continuance and normative commitment. However, the framework shows that job satisfaction was the mediating variable (ME) with constructs namely; intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction were expected to mediate the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. While emotional intelligence was the moderating variable (MO) with constructs namely; self-awareness, self-management, social awareness relationship management were expected to moderate the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff.

1.9 Operation Definition of Key Terms

Leadership behaviours: In this study leadership behaviours refer to directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented leadership behaviour

Emotional intelligence: In this study emotional intelligence refers to self-awareness, self-management, and social-awareness and relationship management.

Organisational commitment: In this study organisational commitment refers to affective, continuance and normative commitment.

Job satisfaction: In this study, job satisfaction refers to intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction.

Academic Staff: Academic staff refers to personnel whose primary assignment is instruction, research and community engagement. These included staff personnel who hold an academic rank from professor, associate professor, senior lecturer, lecturer, assistant lecturer and graduate-fellow.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The theoretical review and the review of related literature are both covered in this chapter. Based on study objectives, a review of the literature was presented. Analysing empirical data from earlier studies was done and the review of the literature involved identifying gaps that were not filled by the previous studies.

2.1 Theoretical Review

Three theories guided the study namely; the path-goal leadership theory (House, 1971), Herzberg two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1959) and emotional intelligence based theory of performance (Goleman, 1995). The path-goal leadership theory (House, 1971) informed leadership behaviours which was the independent variable for this study. The path-goal theory states that a leader's behaviours are significant for good performance, job satisfaction and commitment of an employee. Therefore, in order to improve the employees' commitment, the leader is required to engage in behaviours that promote subordinates' abilities and compensate for their shortcomings. Thus, the path-goal leadership theory suggests the need for a leader to direct subordinates (employees) to select the most suitable path to reach organisational goals. The path-goal theory presents the view that the leader must help the subordinates reach their objectives by giving them the guidance and encouragement needed to make sure that their goals align with those of the organisation (Malik, 2012).

Adopting path-goal leadership behaviours enables a leader to explain and provide guidance for staff, assists in removing barriers, motivate and rewards staff for reaching goals

(Farhan, 2018). According to path-goal theory, different leadership behaviours have different effects on followers' motivation, but these effects are contingent on the traits of the subordinates and the task. Therefore, a leader's objective is to improve followers' performance, satisfaction, and commitment (Malik, 2012). House (1971) asserts that the aim of the path-goal leadership theory is to make clear how leaders can help their followers to achieve their objectives. House (1971) identifies four categories of leadership behaviours including participative, supportive, directive and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours (Olowoselu et al., 2019). Olowoselu et al. (2019) defines participative leadership behaviours as the leaders' appreciation of the subordinates' suggestions and opinions, encouraging workers at all levels of the organisation to share ideas towards achievement of organisational goals, problem-solving, and other organisational issues that may directly affect them. Thus, participative leadership allows for sharing of responsibilities among subordinates.

Supportive leadership behaviours include showing emotional support for subordinates, showing concern for their personal needs and well-being, acting in a warm and approachable manner, and paying attention to the comfort and needs of followers (Farhan, 2018). Directive leadership behaviour describes a leader who assigns tasks to subordinates, explains the ways to complete the tasks, schedules tasks to subordinates, establishes clear guidelines and policies and states clearly what is expected of subordinates in terms of performance (Farhan, 2018). Achievement-oriented leadership behaviours characterize a leader that sets tough but reasonable goals for followers, sets high standards for followers, and continually looks for ways to better followers (Nzeneri, 2020).

The path-goal leadership theory assumes that when leaders use the four leadership behaviours of directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented leadership, they are

able to assist, guide, motivate, encourage and support the subordinates along the path to achieve organisational goals and objectives. Therefore, using the path-goal leadership theory (House, 1971), the study investigated how directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours relate to the organisational commitment of academic staff. The weakness of path-goal leadership theory is that, it is primarily a theory of task and person oriented supervisory behaviours which does not concern the leadership of the entire organisation, but rather only the specified work unit. Nonetheless, the strength of path-goal theory is that it specifies leadership behaviours that enhance satisfaction and commitment of employees by addressing the effects of leadership on the employees' motivation and work performance (Malik, 2012). However, the path-goal theory implores leaders to recognize the need to motivate subordinates along the path so as to appropriately achieve organisational and individual goals.

Several studies have used path-goal theory in their investigations. For instance, Saleem et al. (2021) used the path-goal theory in a study involving improving and sustaining job-oriented development in education sector in China. The Path-goal theory was utilized by Ngabonzima et al. (2020) to examine the impact of health workers' managerial leadership styles on job satisfaction, willingness to stay, and service delivery in Rwandan hospitals. Dokony et al. (2020) examined leadership behaviours and work satisfaction of employees in the Chadian telecommunications sector based on the path-goal leadership theory. In a similar vein, Handayani et al. (2019) used the path-goal theory to investigate how leadership influence on lecturer performance was influenced by power in Indonesian universities. Further, Lim et al. (2017) examined leadership and employee turnover, the mediating function of organisational commitment and job satisfaction based on path-goal theory.

In a study conducted in Kenya, Kasimu (2016) using path-goal theory to investigate workers' perception of organisational commitment. However, none of the aforementioned studies examined the organisational commitment and leadership behaviours of academic staff in universities. Thus, this study used path-goal theory to relate leadership behaviours and commitment of academic staff in a Ugandan university. However, path-goal theory did not address the job satisfaction and emotional intelligence which were considered in this study. This raised the need for other theories; hence, Herzberg two-factor theory was adopted to address job satisfaction construct.

Herzberg's two-factor theory advanced by Herzberg (1959) informed job satisfaction. Herzberg two-factor theory is also called the motivator and hygiene theory (Herzberg, 2011). In 1959, Herzberg presented his investigation of the feelings of 200 engineers and accountants from more than nine American companies. These professionals were asked to explain instances in which they felt either extremely negatively about their jobs or exceptionally positively about them, and to rate their feelings in those experiences. Positive responses were linked to the job content (motivators), whereas negative responses were linked to the job's context or hygiene factors. Basing on the responses, Herzberg developed the satisfier and hygiene factor theory (Khanna, 2017).

According to Herzberg satisfier/ motivators are factors related to the job content namely; achievement, recognition, responsibility and opportunity for growth and advancement. Hygiene factors are job related factors that cause dissatisfaction if not properly managed. The aspects of hygiene factors include; interpersonal relationship, salary, company policy, supervision, working condition, job security, personal life, and status (Khanna, 2017). The two-factor theory assumes that extrinsic factors guide employers in creating favourable working

environment that make employees feel comfortable. This makes employees feel free from unpleasant external working conditions that banish their feeling of dissatisfaction. However, when employers fail to supply employees' extrinsic factors, employees' job dissatisfaction rises (Yusoff et al., 2013).

The Herzberg two-factor theory assumes that sufficient supply of hygiene factor by leadership to subordinates creates favourable working conditions which prevents dissatisfaction but does not increase job satisfaction. The sufficient provision of intrinsic factors by leaders to employees increases job satisfaction. The implication of Herzberg two-factor theory in this study is that the external factors created leaders serve as guideline for creating a favourable working conditions for employees where they feel comfortable working from to become committed to the organisation. Further, the Herzberg two-factor theory assumes that intrinsic factors influence the level of job satisfaction and are referred to as content factors. These factors aim at providing employees with meaningful work that is able to intrinsically satisfy them because of work outcome. Therefore, this study tested whether two factors of intrinsic and extrinsic advanced by two-factor theory related to the organisational commitment of academic staff.

The two-factor theory reveals that intrinsic factors are particularly successful in generating and sustaining longer lasting favourable influence on employees' performance of the job because these elements are fundamental need for human psychological growth. Intrinsic factors propel employees to increase interest in their job (Yusoff et al., 2013). The implication of Herzberg two-factor theory to this study is that intrinsic factors are assumed to be effective in creating and maintaining durable organisational commitment. The Herzberg two-factor theory

further proposes that intrinsic and extrinsic factors are co-dependent. The presence of extrinsic factors only eliminates employees work dissatisfaction but does not lead to job satisfaction.

Sufficient provision of intrinsic factors cultivates employees' internal development that increases productivity, performance, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. But, the absence of intrinsic factors only neutralizes employees' feelings that neither satisfies nor dissatisfies employees. Herzberg two-factor theory asserts that, the two factors (extrinsic and intrinsic) are not necessarily opposite of each other. For instance, the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction but rather no satisfaction and the opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction but no dissatisfaction (Tan & Waheed, 2011). The implication of two-factor theory to this study is that provision of extrinsic or hygiene factors only prevents academic staff from being dissatisfied but does not inspire them to be committed to the organisational. The weakness of Herzberg two-factor theory is that satisfaction is an attitude, as such; it is possible for a worker to be happy with the job and not be committed. Thus, job satisfaction of an employee does not ultimately lead to employee commitment.

Further, Herzberg two-factor theory does not use a comprehensive measure to assess employee job satisfaction. For instance, an employee may find the job satisfactory but may dislike a component of the job. However, the strength of Herzberg two-factor theory is that, it is one of the significant theories of job satisfaction which put emphasis on the satisfier and hygiene factors that affect job satisfaction among employees in organisations. Further, the theory elaborates the consequences of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction for an individual employee as well as for the organisation.

Various studies have used Herzberg two-factor theory in their investigations. Such as, a study done in Tunisia, Boukamcha (2022) based on two-factor theory to carry out a

comprehensive analysis of organisational commitment in private and public sectors. Further, Sarkar et al. (2021) based on two-factor theory to develop a framework indicating the mediating effect of satisfaction on total reward management towards retention. Similarly, Starnes (2021) adopted Herzberg two-factor theory to investigate the use of motivational techniques in the industrial sector.

On their part, Atan et al. (2021) used Herzberg two-factor theory to examine happiness at work and motivation for sustainable workplace in Turkey. Also, Zhang et al. (2020) employed the two-factor theory to evaluate social media on knowledge sharing among employees in China. Further, Dhamija et al. (2019) adopted two-factor theory to carry out an investigation on measuring job satisfaction in India. However, none of the above studies used the two-factor theory to relate job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academic staff in a Ugandan university. Further, none of the above studies used two-factor theory to investigate job satisfaction as a mediator between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. However, Herzberg two-factor theory did not address the emotional intelligence which was the moderating variable for the study. This raised the need for another theory. Hence, emotional intelligence-based theory of performance was adopted.

The third theory that informed this study was emotional intelligence based theory of performance advanced by Goleman (1995). Goleman (1995) developed the theory of emotional intelligence based-performance based on ideas put forward by Mayer and Salovey (1990). The comprehensive model of emotional intelligence advanced by Mayer and Salovey (1990) developed five emotional intelligence competencies that must be possessed by the high performing employee namely; identifying or perceiving emotions, using emotions to facilitate thought, understanding emotions and managing or regulating one's emotions (Rathore & Bhatia,

2021). It is from Mayer and Salovey's (1990) comprehensive model of emotional intelligence that Goleman (1995) developed emotional intelligence-based theory of performance. The emotional intelligence-based theory of performance explains how emotional intelligence influences employees' job success in any organisation. The emotional intelligence based theory of performance states that there is a link between emotional intelligence competencies, employee work attitude, employee job success and organisational commitment (Nazari & Emami, 2013).

According to Goleman (1995), emotional intelligence affects behaviours and cognitive processes associated with physical, mental health, employee relationships, job performance and employee commitment (Liao et al., 2022). Goleman (1995) first developed five set of emotional competencies that influence employee commitment namely; self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, social skills and empathy (Punia et al., 2015). Goleman (1995) claimed that a set of competency helps to create effective, persuasive, outstanding and committed employee. Goleman (1995) define self-awareness as the capacity of an individual to be aware of and comprehend his or her emotions and moods, as well as how they affect others. Self-regulation is the capacity to manage one's own feelings and responses. Social competencies explain the ability to maintain good relationships and build a network.

Motivation describes the ability to face challenges and be optimistic. Empathy describes the ability to perceive the subjective experience of another person. These emotional competencies according to Goleman (1995) lead to effective performance at work place (Punia et al., 2015). After an extensive research, Goleman (1998) a bridged this theory into four dimensions with explicit capabilities and competencies that influence employee performance and commitment at workplace namely; self-awareness, self-management/regulation, social-awareness and relationship-management. The first two dimensions of self-awareness and self-

management are described as personal competencies while the last two dimensions namely; social-awareness and relationship-management are described as social competencies (Alhamami, 2016).

According to Goleman (1998), self-awareness describes the capacity to understand how we feel, why we think what we do, and how we respond to those feelings. Self-management refers to the capacity to restrain our painful feelings and irrational desires. Social awareness is the capacity to recognize, comprehend, and respond to the sentiments of others. While the capacity to combine the first three elements of influence, motivation, and conflict management is referred to as relationship management (Lubbadeh, 2020). In study, the emotional intelligence based theory of performance (Goleman, 1995) assumes that, employees that possess the four emotional intelligence competencies namely; self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management are expected to exhibit an outstanding performance and be committed to the organisation. Therefore, this study investigated how the four emotional intelligence competencies of self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management relate to organisational commitment of academic staff. The weakness of the emotional intelligence based theory of performance is that it ignores other distinguishing groupings of competencies that tend to typify committed employees in organisations apart from emotional intelligence including but not limited to healthcare and social services, technical, sales, client management and leadership at executive level (Goleman, 1998).

However, emotional intelligence helps in putting together all behavioural activities of an employee towards the organisation. Further, emotional intelligence because it includes the ability to restrain the negative feelings and focus on positive feelings play a pivotal role in determining their commitment to the organisation (Gunu & Oladepo, 2014; Yuvaraj & Eveline, 2018).

Several studies adopted the emotional intelligence based theory of performance in their investigations. As such, Supramaniam and Singaravelloo (2021) used emotional intelligence based theory of performance to relate employees' organisational performance and emotional intelligence in Malaysian public administration.

Further, Lubbadah (2020) used emotional intelligence based theory of performance to evaluate emotional intelligence and leadership. To explore emotional intelligence and job performance in Turkey, Unnikrishnan et al. (2019) employed the emotional intelligence based theory of performance. Similarly, Mahdinezhad et al. (2017) evaluated emotional intelligence and job performance of Malaysian administrators using emotional intelligence based theory of performance. On the other hand, to conduct a study on emotional intelligence as a theoretical framework, Punia et al. (2015) used the emotional intelligence based theory of performance. However, none of the above studies used emotional intelligence based theory of performance test emotional intelligence as moderator between behaviours and organisational commitment. Thus, this study examined how emotional intelligence moderated the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff using the emotional intelligence based theory of performance.

2.2 Conceptual Review of Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment refers to employees' psychological attachment to, identification with, and participation in organisational activities (Almaaitah et al., 2020). According to Grego-Planner (2019), organisational commitment refers to a person's level of identification with and participation in organisational activities. Mowday et al. (1979) organisational commitment refers to the degree to which an individual identifies with and is involved in organisational

activities (Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019). Allen and Meyer (1990) conceptualise organisational commitment as a three-dimensional concept that describes the affective, continuance and normative commitment (Al-jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019). Organisational commitment is significant for any organisation to achieve its goals and objectives (Mwesigwa et al., 2020). Further, organisational commitment serves as a cornerstone for employee self-realization and may have an effect on other job-related outcomes such as employee turnover, absenteeism, job effort, job role and commitment.

On the other hand, Almaaitah et al. (2020) argue that workers with a higher degree of organisational commitment tend to be more loyal to organisations, are extremely productive and are more willing to offer support to the organisation. Jakada (2019) explains that organisational commitment encourages employees because it is thought to decrease withdrawal behaviours including tardiness, absenteeism, and turnover all of which have a negative impact on the performance of the entire organisation. Further, strong commitment to the organisation leads to self-directed and conscientious application to the task, frequent attendance, less need for supervision, and a higher level of discretionary effort. Tran et al. (2020) posit that committed employees can participate creatively and carry out activities that help to improve and enhance organisational performance. Alrowwad et al. (2019) assert that organisational commitment is the core component of cooperation and consensus in a functional cohesive organisation. They indicate that organisational commitment leads to loyal employees necessary for an organisation.

Studies have examined the organisational commitment levels of employees in organisations. A study by Singh (2021) examined the role of employee commitment and work performance among teaching staff of technological colleges in the province of Punjab, India. Descriptive statistics indicated that the commitment level of teaching staff was high. In a study

conducted in Harare, Zimbabwe, Mapuranga et al. (2021) related organisational and job satisfaction. Their descriptive statistics indicated higher level of commitment for employee. Stamouli and Gerbeth (2021) investigated job satisfaction and organisational commitment healthcare professional inn Bavaria clinic in Germany. Results of descriptive statistics revealed stronger level of commitment among healthcare professionals.

On their part, Mwesigwa et al. (2020) investigated organisational commitment and leadership styles using academic staff in Uganda's public universities. Their findings identified existence of higher commitment level among academic staff. In their study, Muda and Fook (2020) conducted a study on organisational commitment and psychological empowerment of academic staff at public universities in Malaysia. Findings of descriptive statistics revealed existence of high commitment levels among academic staff. Further, Alrowwad et al. (2019) related organisational commitment and organisational efficiency in Jordan. Results of descriptive analysis indicated low level of organisational commitment. Further, using data from academic staff at private universities in Uganda, Mugizi et al. (2016) investigated organisational factors as antecedents of employee commitment. Descriptive statistics showed low level of employee commitment.

In another study done in Ugandan universities, Mugizi and Bakkabulindi (2018) investigated individual traits as a predictor of academic staff members' organisational commitment. Results of descriptive statistics revealed average level of employee commitment. However, the above studies raised contextual and empirical gaps. It is noted that, while majority studies indicated higher level of organisational commitment, Alrowwad et al. (2019), Mugizi et al. (2016), Mugizi and Bakkabulindi (2018) raised controversial gaps by indicating low to average level of organisational commitment. Also, the contextual gap emerges from the above

studies, apart from Mwesigwa et al. (2020), Mugizi et al. (2016), Mugizi and Bakkabulindi (2018) that were conducted in Ugandan universities, other studies were conducted outside Uganda. Thus, the above gaps made it imperative to have this study conducted. Allen and Meyer (1990) indicate that organisational commitment is a three-dimensional component that involves affective, continuance and normative commitment. These are examined here under.

2.2.1 Affective Commitment. Affective commitment is defined by Allen and Meyer (1990) as an emotional bond with, personal identification with, participation in, and membership in the organisation (Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019). Further, Mowday et al. (1997) describe affective commitment to mean the psychological connection, identification with, involvement and participation of an individual in organisation activities (Mercurio, 2015). Relatedly, Moreira et al. (2020) indicate that affective commitment means identification and psychological attachment of employees towards the organisation making them to remain members of the organisation. In addition, Al-Jabari and Ghazzawi (2019) opine that affective commitment is a decision made personally by an employee to continue working for the organisation because of their emotional and psychological attachment to it. Further, affective commitment is influenced by factors such as job challenge facing the employee, role clarity provided by the organisation, direct clarity of goal, the degree of manageable difficulty in reaching goals, receptiveness by management for feedback, peer cohesion, equity opportunities, compensation, perceived personal importance, timely and constructive feedback.

On the other hand, Mercurio (2015) revealed variables that influence affective commitment namely; equity at work, compassion for employees, happiness with daily tasks, trust in employees, organisational reputation, work and job resources. Similarly, Khan et al. (2021)

expound that affective commitment enables employees to work with a commitment, accept corporate goals and contribute to organisation's success. Additionally, affective commitment causes employees to be happier at work, which reduces turnover. Luna-Arocas and Lara (2020) adds that affective commitment is related to customer performance, that is to say, employee performance that meets the expectations of citizens. Further, employees possess a higher level of affective commitment display proactive behaviours that improve the service they provide. Studies have established the level of affective commitment in organisations. In China, Peng and Li (2021) related organisational commitment and psychological contracts. Results of statistical analysis showed higher affective commitment levels of employees.

A study conducted in Antalya, Turkey, Cimili Gök and Özçetin (2021) investigated school culture and teachers' organisational commitment. Their findings showed that teachers had a high affective commitment level. Similarly, a study done in Turkey, Kasimoglu (2021) looked into the organisational commitment of medical staff in Konya health sector. A high level of affective organisational commitment was found by descriptive statistics among healthcare personnel. Further, a study carried out in Croatia, Bakotić (2021) related employee demographics and organisational commitment. An extremely high level of affective commitment was revealed by descriptive results. Furthermore, Luna-Arocas and Lara (2020) evaluated organisational commitment and service delivery in the Spanish government. Their findings demonstrated a higher affective commitment level among employees. In Botswana, Nkhukhu-Orlando et al. (2019) investigated affective commitment of academic staff at the University of Botswana. Results from this study revealed that a third (34.1%) of the academic staff demonstrated an effective dedication to the University.

The impact of employee benefits on emotional commitment during Greece's economic crisis was explored by Galanaki (2019). Results indicate a high affective commitment level of employees. On their part, Saha and Kumar (2018) examined the moderating organisational culture on the link between affective commitment and job satisfaction of employees in Indian enterprises. Their findings indicated existence of a higher affective commitment level of employees. A study done on Iran, Ghaffaripour (2015) looked at employee traits and psychological aspects among oil workers at the Imam Khomeini Shazand oil refining facility to predict affective organisational commitment. Low levels of affective commitment were found in their findings. However, the above studies raised empirical and contextual gaps. For instance, studies by Ghaffaripour (2015) and Nkhukhu-Orlando et al. (2019) produced controversial findings by indicating the existence of low affective commitment level among employees while the rest of the studies revealed high level of affective commitment. Contextually, apart from a study by Nkhukhu-Orlando et al. (2019), the rest of the studies were conducted outside universities. Thus, this raised the need to establish the level of affective commitment of academic staff in a Ugandan university.

2.2.2 Continuanace Commitment. Becker's side-bet theory (1960) defines continuance commitment as the expenses that workers perceive are associated with leaving the organisation (Gilbert & Konya, 2020). According to the Becker's side-bet theory (1960), when an employee works in an organisation for many years, they tend to accumulate investment which is in form of time, the effort invested in the organisation, organisational unique skills which are costly to lose when the employee leaves the organisation. Such investment compels an employee to stay with and work for the organisation. Kartika and Pienata (2020) define continuance commitment as the

assessment done by the workers of whether the cost of quitting the organisation is greater than the cost of remaining and working for it. Allen and Meyer (1990) define continuance commitment as employees' recognition of the benefit of remaining and working for the organisation compared to the perceived cost of quitting it (Nangoli et al., 2020).

Umoh et al. (2014) asserts that continuance commitment means the will expressed by an employee to remain working for an organisation because of the investment an employee has made to the organisation in form of non-transferable investment such as close working relationship with co-workers, retirement investments, career investment, acquired job skills which are unique to a particular organisation and other benefit that make it costly for one to leave and seek for employment elsewhere. On their part, Gilbert and Konya (2020) assert that employees with high level of continuance commitment to the organisation exert more effort to ensure that the organisation achieves its objectives. In addition, employees who exhibit continuance commitment tend to get involved in achieving the organisational mission and vision through improving on performance, as such, remain in the organisation.

Studies have been done to establish the level of continuance commitment. A study done in North-West Haiti, Allida (2021) related organisational commitment and job satisfaction among employees at a particular education institution. The descriptive findings indicated that continuance commitment was higher among employees. On their part, Bashir and Gani (2020a) evaluated the antecedents of organisational commitment of academic staff in India. Their descriptive findings suggested that university teachers had a high degree of continuance commitment. In Nigeria, Dewoyin et al. (2020) investigated continuance commitment of library staff in Universities. Results of the descriptive analysis showed a higher level of continuing commitment. In their study, Candelario et al. (2020) examined organisational commitment and

job satisfaction among government employees in Northern Philippines. Their analysis showed that continuance commitment among government employees was high.

In a study done in Greece, Galanaki (2019) investigated the impact of employee benefits on affective and continuance commitment amid Greece's economic crisis. Despite the crisis, staff showed a great level of continuance commitment. Further, a study done in Poland's public and private sectors, Grego-Planner (2019) evaluated the connection between organisational commitment and civic behaviours. Higher continuance commitment levels were revealed. On the other hand, a study done in Sarajevo, Bosnia, Dinc (2017) investigated how job satisfaction mediated the link between organisational commitment and job performance of workers at furniture manufacturing firms. The statistical study showed that employees had a high level of continuance commitment. On their part, Vandenberghe et al. (2015) investigated whether nurses from a major university hospital in France experienced decreased performance and well-being as a result of their continued commitment. The results showed higher level of continuance commitment was exhibited by the nurses.

However, contextual and empirical gaps emerged from the above studies. For instance, much as the studies (Adewoyin et al., 2020; Allida, 2021; Bashir & Gani, 2020a; Vandenberghe et al., 2015) were conducted in academic institutions, the rest of the studies (Candelario et al., 2020; Galanaki, 2019; Grego-planner, 2019; Dinc, 2017) were done outside academic institution. Further, the study by Dinc (2017) raised a controversial gap by indicating low continuance commitment yet the rest of the studies indicated a higher level of continuance commitment. The above gaps called for a study to establish the level of continuance commitment among academic staff.

2.2.3 Normative Commitment. Normative commitment refers to the commitment that employees' exhibit towards the organisation regardless of its level of popularity or fulfilment over time (Serhan et al., 2022). Bashir and Long (2015) explain that normative commitment exists when employees feel obligated towards the organisation which has invested in them a lot of time, money, education and training and has developed them, they have a moral duty to continue providing their services to it. Further, Keskes et al. (2018) indicates normative commitment consist of the perceived obligation to remain in the organisation. Relatedly, Alemayehu and Batisa (2020) suggest that normative commitment comes about as a result of the beliefs that are internalised through pre-entry (familiar & cultural) and after entry (organisational) socialization processes. In addition, Kartika and Pienata (2020) opine that employees with a high normative commitment demonstrate an obligation to play a major role in achieving organisational objectives.

Further, Vandenberghe et al. (2015) argues that normative commitment is characterized by an introjection form of regulation of behaviours suggesting that individuals with high level normative commitment are compelled to fulfil their obligation towards their organisation. Jaiswal et al. (2020) asserts that reduced turnover intentions and limited levels of psychological stress are the positive work outcomes associated with normative commitment. More other studies have examined levels of normative commitment of employees in organisations. In a study done in Iran, Bahadori et al. (2021) examined ethical leadership and organisational commitment of executive personnel working in the fire department in Tehran. The study revealed existence of a higher level of normative commitment among executive personnel. On their part, Cimili Gök and Özçetin (2021) examined school culture and teacher's organisational commitment in the district of Antalya, Turkey. Their findings indicated that there was low normative commitment among

employees. Another study done in Turkey, Kasimoglu (2021) investigated organisational commitment of healthcare professionals in Konya health sector. Descriptive statistics revealed existence of higher level of normative commitment among healthcare professional.

Further, a study that related job satisfaction and organisational commitment in Haiti, Allida (2021) used workers of selected tertiary education institution. The results indicated that normative commitment was higher among employees. In their study done in Philippine, Candelario et al. (2020) examined the connection between organisational commitment and job satisfaction of government workers in northern Philippines. Their study indicated that organisational commitment of respondents through normative commitment was higher. Another study done in Nigeria, Adewoyin et al. (2020) investigated the level of normative commitment of library personnel in universities. Results of descriptive analysis revealed a higher level of normative commitment. Relatedly, a study done in Poland, Grego-Planer (2020) established the connection between organisational commitment and citizenship behaviours of employees. The results revealed that normative commitment was high among employees. Relatedly, Dinc (2017) also carried out a study to assess the job satisfaction as the mediator between normative commitment and job performance based on workers in furniture production companies in Sarajevo, Bosnia. Descriptive statistics revealed a high level of normative commitment among employees.

Similarly, Vandenberghe et al. (2015) established the connection between normative commitment and performance of nurses in a large university hospital in France. The results indicated existence of lower level of normative commitment among nurses.

The studies above produced both contextual and empirical gaps. For instance, the studies (Allida, 2021; Adewoyin et al., 2020; Vandenberghe et al., 2015) were conducted in academic

institution while the rest of the studies were done in other organisations other than universities. Further, studies (Cimili Gök & Özçetin, 2021; Vandenberghe et al., 2015) produced a controversial gap by indicating low level of normative commitment yet the rest of the studies indicated a higher level of normative commitment. The above gaps made it necessary to test the normative commitment level of academic staff in a Ugandan public university.

2.3 Related Literature

2.3.1 Leadership Behaviours and Organisational Commitment of Academic staff

Leadership behaviours refer to a leader's dispositional and attitudinal attributes that motivate, influence, mobilize, encourage, support, guide, direct, facilitate the individuals and groups towards achievement of organisational goals (Syarifa et al., 2020). Mwaisaka et al. (2019a) describe leadership behaviours as a code of conduct exhibited by those in position of power to deliver the anticipated level of performance and acceptable means through which subordinates need to use to achieve organisational objectives. Çilek (2019) explains that leadership behaviours are the process where leaders deliberately exercise influence over their subordinates to guide, direct, structure and facilitate operations in an organisation. According to path-goal theory (House, 1971) leadership behaviours include; directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours (Olowoselu et al., 2019). Oyetunji et al. (2019) indicates that leadership behaviours are a pre-requisite for successful employee commitment especially in the 21st Century business environment. This is because leadership behaviours inspire employee behaviours and attitudes and as such, play a central role in improving employees' interest and commitment. James and David (2020) suggest that leadership behaviours play a pivotal role in determining worker's commitment to the organisation. This is

because it influences the thinking and actions of subordinates and leads to their job satisfaction.

Several studies have related leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. A study by Mwesigwa et al. (2020) investigated leadership behaviours and organisational commitment among academic staff in public universities in Uganda. Findings of the regression analysis revealed that leadership behaviours significantly predicted organisational commitment of academic staff. Much as this study was conducted in the public universities in Uganda, The methodological gap and population gaps emerged from it. In terms of methodology, the study used regression analysis to test the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment among academic staff which is different from the partial least square structural equation that was used for this study. Further, in terms of population study, the study was done on all academic staff. However, the study does not indicate whether it was done on full-time or part-time academic staff. Therefore, this attracted the need for this study to test the link between the two variables in the context of the full-time academic staff in a Ugandan university.

In a study conducted on academicians in Jordanian universities, Alzubi (2018) related leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. Results of structural equation modelling indicated that leadership behaviours significantly influenced academician's commitment. Much as the study was carried out on academic staff in Jordan university, it did not clearly indicate whether these whether full-time or part-time academic staff. This therefore, called for further study to relate leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of full-time academic staff in the context of a public university in Uganda. Further, the study was done in the university outside Uganda where the operation and structural structure differ from that of public universities in Ugandan context. It was imperative to conduct an investigation in Ugandan universities because the working conditions in these academic institutions are different from that

of Ugandan universities. This therefore, attracted the study to relate leadership behaviours with organisational commitment

In a meta-analytic study done on 37 articles in Turkey, Çilek (2019) examined leadership behaviours of school principals and teacher's commitment. The findings revealed that leadership behaviours influenced teacher's organisational commitment. However, this study revealed a methodological gap because it was strictly meta-analytical in nature. However, this called for this study to test the casual link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment in the context of a public university in Uganda using structural equation modelling. In their study, Al-Hussami et al. (2018) investigated leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of nurses in Amman healthcare sectors in Jordan. Their correlation analysis indicated that leadership behaviours moderately linked organisational commitment of nurses. The evidence gap emerged from the study by indicating that leadership behaviours moderately linked organisational commitment of nurses. As such, this called for the need to conduct this study to establish the link between the two variables in the context of a public university in Uganda.

In a study conducted in Saudi-Arabia on nurses, Al-Yami et al. (2018) related leadership styles and organisational commitment. Findings of regression analysis revealed that leadership behaviours positively and significantly influenced organisational commitment of nurses. However, the study revealed a conceptual gap it used leadership style to obliquely imply leadership behaviours yet the two variables are psychometrically measured differently. Thus, there was need for this study to relate leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of full-time academic staff in the context of a Ugandan public university. In a study done in secondary schools in China, Dou et al. (2017) related principal's leadership behaviours and

organisational commitment of teachers. Results of correlation analysis showed that leadership behaviours significantly influenced organisational commitment. The study produced contextual and mythological gaps. In terms of the study context, the study was conducted in China and in secondary schools where the working conditions are far different from that of public universities in Uganda due to structural and operational differences. Thus, this attracted the attention of this study to test the link between the two variables using full-time academic staff in a Ugandan public university.

On their part, Palupi et al. (2019) sought to establish whether leadership affect organisational commitment of employees in Ambassador Germino garment manufacturing company found in Indonesia. Results of regression analysis showed leadership behaviours significantly predicted organisational commitment of employees. However, conceptual and contextual gaps emerged from the above study. Conceptually, the study focused on leadership to obliquely imply leadership behaviours and yet the two concepts are psychometrically measured differently. Therefore, this called for the need to conduct this study to relate the two variables in the context of academic staff in a public university in Uganda. Nonetheless, the study was conducted in a garment manufacturing company where the working conditions are different from those of academic staff in universities due to administrative and operational differences. The above gaps called for a study to be conducted in a Ugandan university to investigate the hypothesis that:

H1. Leadership behaviours are significant positive predictor of organisational commitment.

H₀1.1 Directive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff

Directive leadership behaviours describe a leader who gives advice to subordinates on how to make decisions and take actions that support leadership goals, has a tendency to dominate discussion and interactions and is task-oriented (Banjarnahor et al., 2018). Mwaisaka et al. (2019a) observe that directive leadership behaviours refer to leadership where high authority and legitimate power are dominant, use of instructions, close supervision and orders are expected to be followed, performance standards are clearly outlined, rules and regulations are well outlined, all activities have clear deadlines, expectations are clearly stated and must be adhered to. Li et al. (2018) expound that directive leadership behaviours give subordinates clear directions in order to help them develop rules that help clarify employees' tasks and duties in the achievement of organisational goals. Further, directive leadership behaviours form routinized processes and shared cognitive structures which makes employees to follow accurate orders from their superiors which enable them to fully concentrate on accomplishing specific organisational goals.

On the other hand, Ongechi (2018) asserts that directive leadership behaviours instruct and give the requirements of what needs to be done, and answers to question such as "what, how, where, when to be done and who should do?". Thus, directive leadership behaviours are the most needed when tasks to be done by subordinates are not well defined and there are uncertainties in the work environment. Bell et al. (2018) asserted that directive leadership behaviours produce high levels of employee commitment in an organisation because it develops clear rules of conduct among employees, stimulates employees to develop effective work processes and systems, show a strong sense of direction in workers which motivate them to take actions that strongly support the leader's strategy for the organisation. Further, directive leadership encourages employees to transcend challenging organisational goals, provide clear goals which

turn organisational objectives into short-term goals and thus, serves as a standard guide for employees. Directive leadership behaviours also promote organisational commitment by encouraging employees to offer highly significant inputs, suggestions and solutions to the organisation. Further, Banjarnahor et al. (2018) expound that directive leadership behaviours increase employee commitment because it demonstrates concerns for the welfare of workers and their individual needs.

In a study conducted on faculty staff of United States International University of Africa in Nairobi, Kenya, Okello (2018) investigated directive leadership behaviours and employee commitment. The linear regression analysis indicated that directive leadership behaviours were a strong predictor of organisational commitment. Much as the above study was conducted in the university environment, contextual and methodological gaps emerged from the study. In terms of study context, the study was conducted in a private university where the working conditions are far different from that of a public university due to administrative and operational differences. Besides, the study used the linear regression approach to establish the link between directive leadership behaviours and commitment. Besides, the study involved latent constructs of the variables under investigation. Therefore, there is still a need for this study to use structural equation modelling to test the relationship between the latent variables.

In their study, Banjarnahor et al. (2018) related directive leadership behaviours and commitment of elementary school principals in Medan, Indonesia. Path coefficient showed directive leadership as significant predictor of organisational commitment. This study had a methodological challenge because it used a preliminary analysis on the path-coefficiency. In fact, their study sought to build a model using the structural equation modelling. Further, their study was done outside Ugandan universities. In Kenya, a study conducted among employees of

commercial banks, Ongechi (2018) examined directive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. Their results indicated that directive leadership behaviours influenced organisational commitment. Nonetheless, the study was conducted on employees of a commercial bank whose working conditions differ greatly from that of the public university working environment. Therefore, this called for the need to conduct this study to verify the casual link between directive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment on full-time academic staff in the context of a Ugandan public university.

On their part, Islam et al. (2018) evaluated the link between four dimensions of organisational commitment and directive leadership behaviours using employees of the banking industry in Pakistan. Findings of regression revealed that directive leadership behaviours significantly predicted organisational commitment. However, the study raised a contextual gap because it was done in the banking sector where the working conditions are different from those of universities that could have influenced the casual link between the two variables. Thus, this raised the need for this study to test the casual link between directive leadership and organisational commitment in the context a public university in Uganda using full-time academic staff as a study population. Further, a study conducted on employees of East African breweries limited in Nairobi, Kenya, Kasimu (2016) explored directive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. The findings from the regression analysis revealed a significant effect between directive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. This study also raised a contextual gap because it was conducted in a brewery setting whose measure of organisational commitment is different from that of universities. Therefore, there emerged the need to conduct this study to test the link between the two variables using the structural equation modelling in a context of Ugandan public university.

In a study done on Christian Aid, a non-governmental organisation covering three countries of Kenya, Malawi and Nigeria, Githuka (2017) studied directive leadership behaviours and employee commitment. Regression analysis indicated directive leadership behaviours had a positive impact on employee commitment to Christian aid. However, this study was conducted in a non-governmental organisation where the work conditions are very different from those of universities. Therefore, there emerged the need to test the link between the variables based on full-time academic staff in a Ugandan public university.

On their part, Mahdi et al. (2014) investigated directive leadership behaviours and affective organisational commitment using employees of plantation companies in Malaysia. Their regression analysis revealed that directive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment had a strong relationship. However, a conceptual gap emerged from the above study because it only addressed affective commitment which is one of the dimensions of commitment and did not address the normative and continuance commitment. Thus, there emerged the need for the study to address all the three dimensions of organisational commitment. Further, the investigation was also carried out in the plantation companies where the working conditions may be very different from those of universities. Thus, this raised the need to conduct a study in the context of a Ugandan public university to test the link between the two variables. The above gaps made it imperative to test whether:

H_{01.1}: Directive leadership behaviours are a significant positive predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff

H₀1.2 Supportive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff

Supportive leadership behaviours refer to the leaders that exhibit concern and emotional assistance for the workers' needs and well-being. Thus, supportive leadership behaviours are revealed in areas such as empathising with the subordinates, listening to them and provision of care to their well-being (Farid et al., 2021). Farhan (2018) defines supportive leadership behaviours as an emotional and psychological support of those in position of power to workers, their encouragement and friendly attitude by understanding and responding to subordinates' individual needs and wants. Keskes (2014) argues that supportive leadership behaviours lead to organisational commitment because a supportive leader shows care for workers, takes responsibility for the needs of individual employee. Thus, supportive leadership behaviours direct the behaviours of subordinates towards workers' satisfaction, show concern for worker's wellbeing and creates a sociable and psychologically supportive workplace which leads to employee commitment.

Further, Mwaisaka et al. (2019a) expound that supportive leadership promotes employee commitment. This is due to the fact that a supportive leader is always sincere, welcoming and accessible to followers, creates an environment at work that encourages employees to perform at their best, demonstrates and shows interest for the well-being of subordinates, respects them and seeks their opinion as subordinates. Rana et al. (2019a) adds that supportive leadership behaviours lead to subordinates' commitment. This is because where there is supportive leadership, internal locus of control and tasks become simple thereby reducing on any formal authority aimed at demonstrating how tasks are performed. Further, supportive leadership is appropriate where tasks are monotonous, unpleasant, laborious or dangerous which leads to increased subordinates' efforts because it reduces anxiety, minimizes unpleasant aspects of work

and increases employee commitment. Samuel et al. (2018) contend that supportive leaders influence employees' self-esteem which is believed to have a strong impact on employee commitment. Further, supportive leadership behaviours make leaders more friendly and approachable which encourages subordinates to demonstrate organisational citizenship behaviours (an act of doing extra work beyond the officially designated tasks) which increase employee commitment.

On their part, Oketch and Komunda (2021) assert that supportive leadership behaviours promote employee commitment because they accelerate the accomplishment of organisational goals and objectives among subordinates through identification of courses of action to ensure that the set organisational goals have a bearing on employees' goals. Additionally, supportive leadership behaviours put emphasis on the general welfare of subordinates by attending to their needs and aspirations which lead to an organized workforce which feels loved by their leaders, boasts of their motivation to work and as a result, employee commitment is promoted. Bahkia et al. (2020) asserts that supportive leadership behaviours encourage subordinates to communicate their ideas of concern and provide suggestions on issues in their organisation which play a pivotal role in enhancing their commitment.

Studies have related supportive leadership behaviours and employee commitment. A study by Ab Rahman and Jantan (2020) relates supportive leadership behaviours and commitment of public university employees in Malaysia. Results of their regression analysis reveal that supportive leadership behaviours had a significant impact on organisational commitment. Much as the study was conducted on employees in a public university in Malaysia, this study raised a contextual gap in that the working environment of academic staff in a public university in Malaysia differs from that of Uganda due to operational and structural differences.

Therefore, there was need to investigate the influence of supportive leadership behaviours on commitment of academic staff in the context of a public university in Uganda. In a study done on faculty members of United States International University of Africa in Kenya, Okello (2018) examined supportive leadership behaviours and employee commitment. Findings of correlation analysis revealed that supportive leadership behaviours influenced commitment. However, the study raised contextual gaps because it was carried out in a private university in Kenya where the working conditions and mode of operation greatly differ from that of full-time academic staff in Ugandan public universities. Therefore, this gap called for the need to investigate the link between supportive leadership behaviours and commitment using full-time academic staff as a unit of analysis.

In a study done in boarding secondary schools, Niyitegeka (2015) investigated supportive leadership behaviours of head teachers and commitment of teachers in Rwanda. Results of correlation analysis revealed that supportive leadership behaviours strongly impacted on commitment. However, a contextual gap emerged from the above study because it was carried out in secondary schools where organisational commitment is measured differently from that of the academic staff in universities. Thus, there was need for this study to test the relationship between the two variables using university academic staff as a study sample.

On their part, Bahkia et al. (2020) studied supportive leadership behaviours and work commitment of employees in Indah water Consortium in Malaysia. Their regressions analysis showed that supportive leadership behaviours influenced commitment. However, this study raised a population gap in that it was conducted on employees in a sewerage plant outside universities where the modus operandi is far different from that in universities. Thus, it attracted

the attention of this study to relate supportive leadership behaviours and commitment of academic staff in public universities in Uganda.

In a study done in Canada on international retailers, Tremblay et al. (2018) related supportive leadership behaviours and collective affective commitment. Structural equation modelling showed that supportive leadership behaviours had a significant impact on affective commitment. This study produced population and conceptual gaps. In terms of study population, the study was conducted on international retailers whose measure of organisational commitment is different from that of academic staff in universities. Conceptually, the study addressed only affective commitment yet in this study organisational commitment covered affective, continuance and normative commitment. This called for a study to address all the three aspects of organisational commitment in relation to supportive leadership behaviours in the public universities

In a research done in the commercial banks in Kenya, Ongechi (2018) explored supportive leadership behaviours and commitment. Regression revealed supportive leadership behaviours as a predictor of commitment. However, this study also raised a contextual gap because it was conducted in commercial banks outside Uganda where the working conditions are far different from those in public universities in Uganda. Therefore, this called for the need to conduct this study to test the link between supportive leadership behaviours and commitment of academic staff in a public university in Uganda. Based on employees of East African breweries limited in Nairobi, Kenya, Kasimu (2016) explored supportive leadership behaviours and commitment where the c correlation analysis showed that leadership behaviours strongly predicted on commitment. However, the contextual gap emerged from this study in that it was conducted in brewery plants outside Uganda where the commitment level of employees is

measured differently from that of the academic staff in universities and in Uganda. Therefore, this made it imperative to conduct this study in a Ugandan university. All the above gaps made it necessary to test the hypothesis whether:

H₀1.2: Supportive leadership behaviours is a significant positive predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff

H₀1.3 Participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff

Participative leadership behaviours describe a leader who shares part of his/her authority with subordinates that are hierarchically below him by including them in decision the making process and by consulting them for their views. The participative leader share authority with subordinates to participate in decision making about their work and well-being in the organisation (Usadolo, 2020). Hayat Bhatti et al. (2019) describe participative leadership behaviours as un-authoritative behaviours that grant a chance to workers to take part in the decision making process and solicit their views in order to make wise decisions. Sagnak (2016) emphasizes that participative leadership behaviours are believed to be the source of employee intrinsic motivation which positively affects organisational commitment because subordinates' participation in the decision-making process fosters employees' psychological ownership, self-efficacy and sense of control. As such, their autonomy and level of organisational commitment increases.

Hayat Bhatti et al. (2019) reiterates that a participative leadership act as a trainer that facilitate workers in organisations to freely express their ideas in decision making, builds human capacity, ability, creates self-efficacy and psychological empowerment all of which increase their commitment to the organisation. Further, participative leadership behaviours develop a

climate of open communication which reduces their resistance towards any organisational changes because it is dominated by less formalization, respect for subordinates, power sharing, mutual understanding, reduced reciprocal threats and antagonism which enhances organisational commitment. Sagnak (2016) further extrapolates that a participative leader-employee consultation relationship allows the leader to ask for suggestions, the leader is able to put the employees' opinions into consideration and employees are encouraged to seek out new opportunities and to learn by acquiring and sharing information. This, in turn, promotes their commitment to the organisation.

Numerous studies have related participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. In a study conducted on faculty members of United States International University of Africa in Nairobi in Kenya, Okello (2018) established the link between participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. Regression analysis revealed a positive link between participative leadership behaviours and employee commitment. Much as this study was conducted on academic staff in a university, it did not clearly indicate whether these academics were part-time or full-time staff. This, therefore, called for the need to conduct this study on full-time academic staff in a Ugandan university to test the link between the variables. In study carried out in a Nigeria university, Bakare and Ojeleye (2020) investigated participative leadership behaviours and commitment of teaching and non-teaching staff. Equation modelling indicated existence of a significant impact of participative leadership behaviours on organisational commitment. Much as this study was done in the academic institutions, it raised population and contextual gaps because it was conducted on academic and non-academic staff. This called for the need for this study to investigate whether participative leadership predicted commitment of full time academic staff in a Ugandan university. Besides, the study was

conducted in a college where the working conditions and measure of commitment is different from that of universities. Thus, this raised the need to conduct this study in the context of a Ugandan university.

On their part, Hayat Bhatti et al. (2019) related continuance commitment and participative leadership behaviours of hotel employees in Pakistan. The hierarchical regression approach revealed that participative leadership behaviours significantly predicted continuance commitment. This study raised conceptual and population gaps. Conceptually, the study only addressed continuance commitment which is one dimension of commitment and yet in this study commitment included affective, continuance and normative commitment. Thus, this called for this study to address the three constructs of organisational commitment in relation to participative leadership. Further, the study raised a population gap because it was done on hostel employees whose measure of commitment is far different from that of academic staff in universities. Therefore, this called for the need to conduct this study to test the link between participative leadership and commitment of academic staff in Ugandan universities.

In a study conducted in Pakistan, Islam et al. (2018) related participative leadership and organisational commitment of employees in the banking sector. Regression analysis revealed that employees' commitment was strengthened by participative leadership. However, this study was done in the banking sector outside Uganda where the measure of commitment is different from that of full-time academic staff in universities. Thus, this called for the need to conduct this study to have an in-depth analysis on the two variables in relation to academic staff in universities. In a study done on employees of the banking sector in Kenya, Ongechi (2018) studied participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. Findings of regression analysis revealed that participative leadership behaviours insignificantly determined organisational commitment.

However, this study produced evidence gap because it revealed that participative leadership behaviours insignificantly predicted organisational commitment yet majority studies indicated that participative leadership behaviours significantly predicted organisational commitment. This therefore called for a further study to test the influence of participative leadership behaviours on commitment of academic staff in a Ugandan university.

On their part, Adigüzel et al. (2020) studied participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of white-collar employees in an automobile company of Istanbul, Turkey. Findings revealed that participative leadership behaviours had a direct impact on commitment of employees. The same study also raised a contextual gap because it was conducted in an automobile company where the working conditions are far different from those of academic staff in universities. Therefore, this called for the need to carry out this study to relate the two variables in the context of a Ugandan public university. A study done in South Africa on bank clerks, Bell and Mjoli (2014) carried a study on participative leadership behaviours on organisational commitment. Their correlation analysis showed that participative leadership behaviours significantly predicted employee commitment. Still, the study was carried out in the banking industry where the working atmosphere is different from that of academic staff in universities. Still, the same study used a correlation analysis which is a preliminary level analysis. Thus, this raised a need for this study to use partial least square-structural equation modelling to test whether participative leadership behaviours relate to organisational commitment of academics in a Ugandan public university.

Further, a study done in Italy, Odoardi et al. (2019) explored affective commitment and participative leadership behaviours of workers in Italian companies. Results of the hierarchical analysis showed a stronger impact of affective commitment on participative leadership

behaviours. However, this study also raised both conceptual and methodological gaps in that it only addressed the affective component of organisational commitment and yet the concept of commitment in this study was multi-dimensional as it included affective, continuance and normative commitment. Thus, there emerged the need for this study to relate participative leadership and commitment while addressing all the three components of commitment.

On the other hand, a study carried out in Kenya, Kasimu (2016) examined participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of workers in East African breweries limited, Nairobi. Regression analysis showed that participative leadership behaviours significantly predicted employee commitment. The above study also was conducted on workers in the brewery company where the measure of organisational commitment is far different from that of academic staff in the universities. Therefore, there was need to relate the two variables in the context of academic staff in universities.

In Indonesia, Banjarnahor (2018) conducted a study on principal's participative leadership behaviours and commitment of teachers in junior high schools in Medan. Results of regression analysis revealed that participative leadership behaviours had a direct impact on organisational commitment. The same study produced a contextual gap because it was conducted in junior high schools outside Uganda where the working conditions and measure of commitment is quite distinct from that in universities due to structural and operational differences. Therefore, it was imperative to conduct this study to test the link between the two variables in the context of academic staff in a Ugandan public university. In a study conducted on Rwandan boarding secondary school teachers, Niyitegeka (2015) investigated headteachers' participative leadership behaviours and teachers' commitment. Correlation analysis revealed that principals' participative leadership behaviours strongly predicted teachers' commitment. The

above study produced a contextual gap because it was conducted in secondary schools where the working conditions greatly differ from those of universities. Therefore, this called for the need to conduct this study to test whether participative leadership behaviours predicted commitment of full-time academic staff in a Ugandan public university.

In a study conducted on civil servants in China, Miao et al. (2013) related participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. The correlation analysis showed that participative leadership behaviours predicted subordinates' commitment. However, this study revealed a population gap in that it was conducted on civil service employees whose working conditions and measure of organisational commitment may be very different from that of academic staff in universities. Therefore, it was imperative to carry out this study to establish empirical evidence on the link between participative leadership and commitment of academic staff in a Ugandan public university. The above gaps made it necessary to test the hypothesis whether:

H₀1.3: Participative leadership behaviours are a significant positive predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff

H₀1.4 Achievement oriented leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff

Achievement-oriented leadership behaviours refer to a leader who sets challenging goals for the subordinates and expects a high level of employee performance. Thus, achievement leadership behaviours are characterized by leaders developing goals that are highly challenging for followers (Lumbasi et al., 2015). Mwaisaka et al. (2019b) emphasise that achievement-oriented leadership behaviours promote employees' commitment because they give employees

challenging tasks, seek continuous improvement in performance, expect high performance standards, demonstrate great confidence in employees and allow for appreciation of situations on the part of workers and they are not resistant as it would be the case with autocratic behaviour. Further, when employees are given difficult tasks by their leaders, they feel that superiors have trust in their competences and when employees perform their tasks and are rewarded, it increases their trust in the organisation which enhances their commitment to the organisation. Olowoselu et al. (2019) argue that achievement-oriented leadership behaviours lead to employee commitment through motivating workers by giving some of their responsibilities to subordinates, reducing hindrances and thus, push for goal attainment in an organisation.

In a study conducted on Christian aid in Kenya, Githuka (2017) carried out a study on achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. Correlation analysis showed that achievement-oriented leadership behaviours were a significant predictor of organisational commitment. However, this study was done on employees of a non-governmental organisation whose measure of organisational commitment is different from that of employees in universities due to structure difference, hence, the population gap. Further, the study also adopted Pearson correlation analysis which is a preliminary level analysis. Thus, this called for a study to use advanced structural equation modelling to develop a model for achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and organisational commitment in the context of academic staff in universities.

Further still, in a study carried out in Kenya among employees working in commercial banks; Ongechi (2018) related achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. Results of regression analysis revealed achievement-oriented leadership behaviours as a significant influencer of organisational commitment. However, the study was done in the

banking industry where structure and mode of operation are different from those found in universities. Therefore, it was imperative to test the relationship between the two variables in the context of academic staff in universities. In a study conducted in Kenya on employees of East African breweries limited, Kasimu (2016) explored achievement-oriented leadership and employee commitment. Findings of regression analysis indicated no impact of achievement-oriented leadership on organisational commitment. This study produced evidence gap by indicating that achievement-oriented leadership behaviours did not significantly predicted organisational commitment yet the earlier majority studies indicated significant link between achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. The above gap called for the need to have this study to test and further confirm whether achievement-oriented leadership predicted organisational commitment of academic staff in a Ugandan public university.

In a study done secondary schools in Rwanda, Niyitegeka (2015) examined achievement leadership behaviours of principals and teacher's commitment. The results of regression analysis revealed that achievement leadership behaviours directly predicted commitment of teachers. This study produced the contextual gap because it related achievement leadership behaviours and commitment of teachers in secondary schools. There emerged the need to the test the link between achievement leadership behaviours and commitment of academic staff in the context of Kyambogo University. All the above gaps made it imperative to test the hypothesis that:

H₀1.4: Achievement oriented leadership behaviours is a significant predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff

2.3.2 Leadership Behaviours and Job Satisfaction of Academic Staff

Job satisfaction describes the degree to which an individual is pleased with the job (Berber et al., 2022). Erarslan (2021) define job satisfaction to mean a pleasurable emotional state that result from the individual's evaluation of his/her job as fulfilling. Acosta-Prado et al. (2021) indicate that job satisfaction is a set of emotional conditions related to how workers feel about their job. Andrade et al. (2020) explain that job satisfaction means a pleasurable emotional state that result from the employees' appraisal of his/her work. Acosta-Prado et al. (2021) expound that one aspect that employees consider to assess the degree of their job satisfaction is leadership behaviours of their leaders. Therefore, the leadership behaviours manifested by the superiors towards subordinates play an important role in promoting workers' job satisfaction. Nwagboso et al. (2016) contend that leadership behaviour is a key determinant of job satisfaction because it greatly determines employees' self-esteem. Yirik and Baltaci (2014) expound that leadership behaviour influence employees' job satisfaction through organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational creativity, decreased labour turnover and resolution of organisational conflicts. Malik (2013) posit that leadership behaviours of managers influence not only productivity of employees but also their job satisfaction.

Several studies have related leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. As such, a study done in Ugandan public universities, Mwesigwa et al. (2020) examined the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction of academicians. Findings of regression analysis revealed that leadership styles positively influenced job satisfaction. Much as this study was done on academicians in Uganda's public universities, the study raised a conceptual gap because it focused on leadership styles to obliquely imply leadership behaviours and yet the two concepts are psychometrically measured differently. This therefore, called for the need to conduct a study

on full-time academic staff in Ugandan public university to further confirm the link between leadership behaviours and job satisfaction.

A study carried out in South Africa, Mefi and Asoba (2020) investigated leadership styles and job satisfaction of workers in education sector of Eastern Cape Province. Regression analysis showed that leadership style did not influence job satisfaction. The study above produced both conceptual and evidence gaps that prompted for this study. Conceptually, the study focused on leadership styles to indirectly imply leadership behaviour and yet the two concepts are psychometrically measured differently. Further, the study showed no significant link between leadership style and job satisfaction. Thus, there was need to conduct a study to further test and verify the impact of leadership behaviours on job satisfaction of academic staff in a Ugandan public university.

Another study conducted in Turkey on school principals in public schools, Han et al. (2021) examined the influence of leadership behaviours on teacher's job satisfaction. Regression analysis revealed that principal's leadership behaviour had a great impact on teacher's job satisfaction. This study produced a contextual gap in that it was conducted on school principals in the context Turkey where the operational and administrative structure differ from that of academic staff in universities. This called for the need to carry out this study test the link between leadership behaviour and job satisfaction of academic staff at in Ugandan universities.

In a study done on principals in public secondary schools in Bungoma North-county, Kenya, Muganda and Muganda (2020) tested the link between leadership behaviours and teacher's job satisfaction. Their regression analysis revealed a positive link between teacher's job satisfaction and leadership behaviours. However, the study above raised population, contextual and methodological gaps. In terms of study population, the study was conducted on teacher in

public schools outside Uganda where the working conditions are far different from that of academic staff in universities. Therefore, there emerged the need to conduct this study to relate leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff in the context of university in Uganda. In a systematic review, Cansoy (2019) analysed leadership behaviours of school principals and teachers' job satisfaction. Findings indicated that school principal's leadership behaviours had a strong influence on job satisfaction. However, results of this study were from secondary data, hence, this called for this study to establish the empirical findings based on primary data to test the relationship between the two variables.

A study done in Portugal in health sector, Freire and Bettencourt (2020) related ethical leadership and employee satisfaction of nursing professionals working at Portuguese public hospital. Their analysis revealed that ethical leadership had a direct impact on job satisfaction. However, the study raised a conceptual gap because it focused on ethical leadership to indirectly imply leadership behaviours yet the two concepts are measured differently. In terms of population, the study was done on nurses in hospital where the working conditions are far different from those of academic staff in universities which called for the need to conduct this study.

Similarly, Alshahrani and Baig (2016) evaluated leadership style and job satisfaction of nurses in Aseer, Saudi Arabia. Their analysis showed leadership styles as a strong predictor of job satisfaction. Nonetheless, the study raised a conceptual gap because it focused on leadership style to imply leadership behaviours and yet the two concepts are measured differently. Thus, it was imperative to test the link between leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff of universities in Uganda. On their part, Tsepetsi et al. (2019) tested leadership style and job satisfaction based on employees in logistics industry in the Gauteng province, South Africa. The

findings of regression indicated existence of a significant influence of leadership style on job satisfaction. Nonetheless, the study was carried out in the logistics industry outside Uganda where the administrative and job satisfaction conditions differ from those of academic staff in universities. As such, it was imperative to conduct this study to further test the link between the two variables in a Ugandan public university.

On other hand, Bedoya (2021) tested whether leadership styles affected job satisfaction of workers in the businesses sector of Colombia. Linear regression analysis revealed leadership styles as a strong predictor of job satisfaction. The above study raised both conceptual and methodological gaps. Conceptually, the study focused on leadership styles to obliquely imply leadership behaviours and yet the two concepts are psychometrically measured differently. Besides, the study was done in a business sector and outside Uganda where the working conditions are far different from that of universities in Uganda. Therefore, there was need to test whether leadership behaviours was a significant predictor of job satisfaction using full-time academics of a Ugandan university as a unit of analysis.

In a study conducted in a micro and small enterprises at Western Oromia, Ethiopia, Birbirsa and Lakew (2020) investigated leadership style and job satisfaction. Chi-square test revealed that leadership styles impacted job satisfaction. However, this study used leadership styles to obliquely imply leadership behaviours yet the two concepts are psychometrically measured differently. The study was, however, done on a business enterprise where the working conditions are different from those of academic staff in universities due to structural and operational differences. Further, the study used a chi-square test which is a preliminary level analysis. Thus, there was need for this study to use structural equation modelling to test the variables under study in the context of full-time academic staff at Kyambogo University.

A study done on employees of enterprises in Vietnam, Hua (2020) examined whether leadership styles had influence on job satisfaction. Result of regression analysis indicated limited impact of leadership styles on job satisfaction. The study raised conceptual as well as evidence gaps. It used leadership styles to obliquely imply leadership behaviours and yet the two concepts are measured differently. Further, the study produced an evidence gap when it revealed a limited influence of leadership styles on job satisfaction while majority studies indicated that leadership behaviours strongly influenced job satisfaction. The above aforementioned gaps made it imperative to conduct this study to test further whether leadership behaviours related job satisfaction of academic in a Ugandan public university.

In their study done in Denmark, An et al. (2020) tested whether leadership behaviours influenced employee job satisfaction in public and private organisations. Result of regression analysis indicated that leadership behaviours related to job satisfaction. However, this study raised a conceptual gap because it was conducted in private and public organisations where the working conditions are different from that of universities due to structural and operational differences. Therefore, this called for the need to conduct this study with the aim of confirming the link between the two variables in the context of academic staff in a Ugandan university.

On their part, Holbert et al. (2021) related leadership and job satisfaction of employees in public organisation in Indonesia. Their findings revealed that leadership behaviours strongly predicted job satisfaction. Still in Indonesia, Palupi et al. (2017) examined leadership and employee job satisfaction in Ambassador Germindo manufacturing company. Structural equation modelling indicated that leadership had a positive influence on job satisfaction. However, the above two studies used the concept of leadership to obliquely imply leadership behaviours yet the two concepts are psychometrically measured differently. This attracted the need to conduct

this study which relates the link between leadership behaviours and job satisfaction using full-time academic staff of a Ugandan public university.

Also, Sürücü and Sağbaşı (2021) investigated leadership styles and job satisfaction of employees in a five-star hotel in Alanya, Turkey. Their regression analysis revealed that leadership styles strongly associated with job satisfaction. This study also used leadership styles to indirectly imply leadership behaviours yet the two concepts are measured distinctly. Thus, there emerged the need to conduct this study to further relate leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academics in a Ugandan university. A study done in the telecommunication companies of Chad, Dokony et al. (2020) tested whether leadership behaviours had association with job satisfaction using path-goal theory of leadership. Multiple regression tests revealed that leadership behaviours significantly influenced job satisfaction. However, the study raised a contextual gap because it was done in telecommunication companies outside Uganda where the working conditions are far different from those of universities due to structural differences. Therefore, this prompted this study to relate the link between the two variables in the context of universities.

A study done in Turkey, Güngör (2016) related leadership behaviours of school administrators and teachers' job satisfaction. Their regression analysis indicated that leadership behaviours of school administrators significantly predicted teachers' job satisfaction. Much as this study was conducted in an academic environment, the working conditions of schools differ greatly from those of the universities. As such, it was imperative to conduct this study to further test whether leadership behaviours related to job satisfaction of academic staff in universities. All the above gaps made it necessary to test the sub-hypothesis whether:

H₀₂: Leadership behaviour is a significant positive predictor of job satisfaction of academic staff

H₀2.1 Directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff

Directive leadership coupled with a higher level of social skill is adaptable to employees' ideas that lead to better organisational outcome which promote employee job satisfaction (Cheng & Osman, 2021). Olowoselu et al. (2019) explain that directive leadership behaviours are used by those in leadership position can be implemented irrespective of the employees' level of satisfaction. Bell et al. (2018) contend that directive leadership behaviours stimulate employees to develop effective work processes and systems, motivate employees to take action that support leader's strategy for the organisation, show a strong sense of inner purpose and direction which greatly increases employees' job satisfaction. Further, directive leadership behaviours promote adherence to rules, procedures and attention to details by employees, increases work commitment and involvement of employees, encourage employees to achieve higher level performance which promotes job satisfaction. On their part, Mwaisaka et al. (2019a) expound that using directive leadership behaviour workers are made to recognise early the link between performance and reward and this promote their job satisfaction.

A number of studies have also been carried out to relate directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. In their study done in Qatar, Al-Sada et al. (2017) relate directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of workers in the education sector. Pearson correlation revealed directive leadership behaviours had a significant influence on workers' job satisfaction. Much as this study was done in education sector, it did not specify the education level where it was conducted. Thus, there was still need to conduct this in a Ugandan university to relate directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction using academic staff in a Ugandan public university as a unit of analysis.

Based on the path-goal theory, Dokony et al. (2020) examined leadership behaviours and employees' satisfaction in telecommunication companies found in Chad. Their analysis revealed that directive leadership behaviours insignificantly influenced employee satisfaction. But the study produced an evidence gap by indicating that directive leadership behaviours had insignificant influence on employee job satisfaction while earlier majority studies revealed positive and significant influence between the two variables. Thus, this called for a study to further investigate the link between the two variables in the context of academic staff in universities. A study conducted in education sector in Indonesia, Banjarnahor et al. (2018) related principals' directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of teachers in junior high schools of Medan. Results of Path analysis revealed that principals with low directive leadership behaviours had higher job satisfaction. However, the above study was carried out in high schools outside Uganda where the working conditions are far different from those of universities due to structural and organisational differences. Thus, this called for the need to conduct this study in the context of a Ugandan university using academic staff as a unit of analysis.

Also, a study done in secondary schools of Bungoma north sub-county, Kenya, Muganda and Muganda (2020) tested directive leadership behaviours of school principals and teachers' job satisfaction. Their regression revealed that principals' directive leadership behaviours strongly predicted teacher job satisfaction. Much as the study was conducted in an academic environment, the working atmosphere is far different from that of academic staff in universities. As such, it was imperative to conduct this study to establish the link between the directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff at Kyambogo University.

In addition, Rabbani et al. (2017) studied directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction using employees in public sector organisations, Pakistan. Regression analysis

showed job satisfaction had a negative impact on directive leadership behaviours. The above study produced an evidence gap by indicating that job satisfaction negatively related with directive leadership behaviours and yet majority studies revealed that leadership behaviours significantly predicted job satisfaction. This called for further investigation to test the link between directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction in a Ugandan university. In their study done in Kenya, Wachira et al. (2016) examined directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of teachers in a public primary school. Their correlation analysis indicated that directive leadership behaviours had a strong effect on job satisfaction. However, the above study was done in primary schools in Kenya where the measure of job satisfaction is far different from that of full-time academic staff of Ugandan universities due to organisational and structural differences. This called for the need to have this study conducted to test the link between directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff in a Ugandan public university.

In a study done in Ethiopia using the path-goal theory, Shegwa (2020) tested the impact of directive leadership behaviours on job satisfaction of workers in taxpayer's office. Results of regression analysis showed that directive leadership behaviours negatively influenced job satisfaction. However, this study produced an evidence gap by indicating that directive leadership behaviours negatively influenced job satisfaction while majority studies revealed that directive leadership behaviours had positive effect on job satisfaction. Therefore, this called for another study to test whether directive leadership behaviours relate to job satisfaction of academic staff in universities. Another study carried out in Rwanda using nurses and midwives, Ngabonzima et al. (2020) related directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. Their analysis indicated that directive leadership behaviours enhanced job satisfaction. However,

this study was conducted in hospitals where the working conditions are different from that of academics in universities. As such, it called for this study to test the link between the two variables using academic staff in the context of universities.

A study done in Kenya, Naomy (2015) tested directive leadership behaviours of school principals on job satisfaction of teachers in public primary schools. Findings of correlation analysis indicated a positive link between principals' directive leadership behaviours and teachers' job satisfaction. Much as this investigation was carried out in primary schools which is also an education institution, the working conditions in Kenyan primary schools is far different from that of academics in universities and this called for this study to be done in the universities to establish the link between the variable. On their part, Mwaisaka et al. (2019b) examined directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of employees of commercial banks in Kenya. Their regression showed that directive leadership behaviours positively affected job satisfaction. The same study was done on employees in commercial banks in Kenya where job satisfaction may be measured differently from that of full-time academic staff in universities.

Relatedly, Yang and Lim (2016) used path-goal leadership theory to test how leadership behaviours related to job satisfaction. Correlation analysis showed directive leadership behaviours insignificantly impacted on job satisfaction. Nonetheless, the study produced a controversial gap because it revealed that directive leadership behaviours insignificantly predicted on job satisfaction and yet majority findings of the previous studies revealed significant link between directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. Therefore, there was need for further investigation to test the whether direct leadership had a link with job satisfaction. On the other hand, in a study done on middle and first-line managers, Malik (2013) examined whether directive leadership behaviours influenced employees' job satisfaction in

Pakistan. Multiple regression analysis revealed a positive impact of directive leadership behaviours on job satisfaction. Also, the same study was conducted outside Uganda where the working conditions are far different from those of academic staff in universities. Thus, all the above gaps made it imperative to test the sub-hypothesis that:

H₀2.1: Directive leadership behaviour is a significant positive predictor of job satisfaction of academic staff

H₀2.2 Supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff

Supportive leadership behaviours greatly influence how employees perceive their job. As such, when those in positions of power are perceived to be just and recognise good performance it makes subordinates become more passionate which promotes their job satisfaction. Further, when superiors and subordinates relate well, job satisfaction is enhanced (Mwaisaka et al., 2019a). Lor and Hassan (2017) explain that supportive leadership behaviours increase job satisfaction by creating an environment that respects each other among employees, foster cooperation and trust by extending emotional support among employees. In addition, supportive leadership provides psychological support to subordinates, fosters mutual trust and respect, helps employees in difficult tasks and exhibits appreciation by providing positive feedback to employees which cultivate job satisfaction. Mwaisaka et al. (2019a) expound that supportive leaders provide a conducive work environment, pay attention to the general well-being of workers that include physical and psychological needs that result into satisfying work.

Numerous studies have related supportive leadership and job satisfaction. Thus, in the investigation done in secondary schools in Kenya, Muganda and Muganda (2020) tested supportive leadership behaviours as a significant predictor of job satisfaction of teachers.

Regression analysis revealed that supportive leadership behaviours positively influenced teacher's job satisfaction. However, the study was done in a secondary school in Kenya where the working conditions are different from those of full-time academics in universities in Uganda. A study done in Malaysia, Yan-Li and Hassan (2018) tested supportive leadership behaviours as a significant predictor of job satisfaction among teachers in Hulu Langat, Selangor. Results of regression analysis revealed supportive leadership behaviours as a significant determinant of teachers' job satisfaction. Much as the study related supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction, this was outside the context of universities.

A study done in primary schools in Kenya, Thuku et al. (2018a) investigated the head teacher's supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of teachers in Nakuru County. Their correlation analysis indicated that headteachers' supportive leadership behaviours strongly impacted on teachers' job satisfaction. Much as the studies above were conducted in schools, the working conditions in schools are far different from those in universities. Therefore, there was need to test whether supportive leadership behaviours correlated job satisfaction of full-time academicians in public universities in Uganda.

On their part, Dokony et al. (2020) tested whether supportive leadership behaviours had a linked job satisfaction of employees in telecommunication companies of Chad. Regression analysis showed supportive leadership behaviours as a strong predictor of job satisfaction. But the study was carried out in telecommunication companies where the working conditions are different from those of universities.

Another study was done in private catholic primary schools in Nakuru and Nairobi, Kenya by Mutune et al. (2019). These related head teacher's supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. Their findings revealed that head teachers' supportive leadership behaviours

significantly influenced job satisfaction. However, the findings in this study also did not cover the gap for this study. It was carried out in primary schools where the measure of job satisfaction is different from that of full-time academic staff in universities. A similar study done in Kenyan commercial banks, Mwaisaka et al. (2019c) related supportive leadership and job satisfaction. Their regression analysis revealed that supportive leadership behaviours impacted on employee job satisfaction. However, this study was done in the service sector where the working conditions are different from those of the universities due to structural differences. As such, it called for this study to relate supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction in a Ugandan public university.

A study done in Ethiopia basing on the path-goal leadership theory, Shegwa (2020) tested the whether supportive leadership behaviours influenced job satisfaction of employees in large taxpayer's office. Regression analysis revealed supportive leaders as a strong determinant of job satisfaction. This study was also conducted on a service and finance sector and outside Uganda where the mode of operation is different from that of universities. Thus, there was need to conduct this study on full academic staff in a Ugandan university to test the link between the two variables. In India, a study conducted in non-governmental organisations, Soodan and Pandey (2017) assessed whether supportive leadership behaviours related to job satisfaction of employees. Their analysis showed supportive leadership behaviours were a key determinant of job satisfaction. However, this study was conducted in a non-government organisation where the measure of job satisfaction is far different from that of the academic staff in universities. Therefore, this called for a study to be done in a Ugandan public university to test the link between supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction.

In a study done on civil police constables in the state of Uttar Pradesh, India, Maurya and Agarwal (2015) tested supportive leadership behaviours as a determinant of job satisfaction. Regression analysis showed that supportive leadership behaviours determined job satisfaction. However, the above study was done in security sector where the measure of job satisfaction is measured differently from that academic staff in universities. Thus, there was need to have this study to relate supportive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academics in a Ugandan university. A study carried outside education sector in Qatar, Al-Sada et al. (2017) tested whether supportive leadership behaviours determined job satisfaction. Their multiple regression analysis revealed that supportive leadership behaviours significantly determined job satisfaction. Although the study was done in the education field, it was on universities outside Uganda. This called for the study to be done in the context of a Ugandan university.

A study conducted in Kenya, Naomy (2015) tested whether principal's supportive leadership behaviours linked job satisfaction in public secondary schools in Nairobi County. The study findings revealed that supportive leadership behaviours predicted job satisfaction. The above study also was done in a secondary school environment where the measure of job satisfaction is different from that of universities due to structural and operational differences. Thus, there was need to conduct the same study on full-time academic staff in a Ugandan university to the relationship between supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. In their study conducted in Pakistan, Naureen and Noshaba (2015) used the path-goal theory to test whether supportive leadership behaviours determined job satisfaction of secondary school teachers. The findings of correlation analysis revealed that supportive leadership behaviours strongly predicted job satisfaction. However, the above study also was conducted in secondary

schools where the working conditions are far different from that of the universities. All the above gaps made it imperative to test the hypothesis whether:

H₀2.2: Supportive leadership behaviour is a significant positive predictor of job satisfaction of academic staff

H₀2.3 Participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff

Participative leadership behaviours are believed to have a satisfactory influence on job satisfaction because they increases subordinate's effort towards an organisation (Lor & Hassan, 2017). Mwaisaka et al. (2019b) explain that participative leaders provide intrinsic motivation to subordinates because they give them the opportunity to enrich their experience. Furthermore, employees are also given a greater degree of autonomy at work and have a number of options at their disposal. This allows them to complete organisational duties and feel a sense of achievement that fosters job satisfaction. Bell et al. (2018) expound that participative leadership intrinsically motivates subordinates, instils feelings of self-confidence and sense of determination which promotes employee job satisfaction.

Further, participatory management creates psychological ownership among employees and boosts self-efficacy which promotes commitment. Olowoselu et al. (2019) suggests that use of participative approach leads to subordinates' job satisfaction because it allows them to participate in decision making at work. Zandi et al. (2019) expound that participative leadership involve employees in the decision making process of the organisation which helps to create a sense of recognition and belongingness and this raises employees' morale which promotes their job satisfaction.

In a study conducted in Kenya's education sector, Kiplangat (2017) evaluated participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of employees in higher learning institutions. Results of correlation analysis revealed that participative leadership behaviours strongly linked to job satisfaction. Much as this study was carried out in higher institution of learning, it is not clear whether the study was done in universities. Thus, there was a need to conduct a similar study in a Ugandan university to relate participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff. A study carried out in the Netherland, Merks (2020) tested how participative leadership behaviours act as a predictor of job satisfaction of workers in a large health-technology multi-national company. The findings from regression analysis revealed that participative leadership behaviours determined job satisfaction. However, a conceptual gap emerged from the study because it was done in a large health-technology where the measure of job satisfaction is not the same as that in universities. Thus, this called for the need to conduct this study to relate participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff in universities.

A study done in China, Chan (2019) examined participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of workers in a retail business in Hong Kong. Results of regression showed participative leadership behaviours as a positive determinant of job satisfaction. Nonetheless the study was carried out on employees outside universities. Thus, there was need to conduct a study to relate participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academicians in a Ugandan university. In a study done on employees in telecommunication companies in Chad, Dokony et al. (2020) related participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. Their regression analysis revealed that participative leadership behaviours influenced job satisfaction. However, this study was done in telecommunication sector where the measure of organisational

commitment is different from that of academic staff in universities. This called for the need to conduct a study on how participative leadership related with job satisfaction of full-time academic staff in public university in Uganda.

A study carried out in Ethiopia, Shegwa (2020) examined participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of employees in large tax payer's office based on the path-goal leadership theory. Results of correlation analysis revealed that participative leaders moderately impacted on job satisfaction of employees. However, this study was conducted in service sector where the measure of job satisfaction is far different from that in Ugandan universities. There was need to conduct a similar study on full-time academic staff in a Ugandan university. In a study done in Kenya on secondary school teachers, Muganda and Muganda (2020) linked participative leadership and job satisfaction of teachers in Bungoma North sub-county. Results revealed that participative leadership behaviours significantly influence job satisfaction. Much as this study was done in secondary schools, the working conditions of schools in Kenya are far different from that of academic staff in universities due to structural and operational differences. Therefore, it was imperative to investigate participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff in a Ugandan university.

A study done in Kenya on employees in commercial banks, Mwaisaka et al. (2019b) tested whether participative leadership behaviours related with job satisfaction. Findings of regression analysis revealed that a participative leadership behaviour positively predicted employee job satisfaction. However, this investigation was done in commercial banks where the working conditions are far different from that in universities. Nonetheless, there was need for this study to relate participative leadership behaviour job satisfaction of academic staff in universities. Still in a study done in service sector in United States, Sinani (2016) evaluated

participative leadership as determinant of job satisfaction among workers of global software sector who belonged to International Association of Software Architects. Results of correlation test revealed that participative leadership behaviours had a strong association with employee job satisfaction. However, the study was done in the service industry where the working conditions are different from that of academic staff in universities. Therefore, this called for the need to conduct a study to test whether participative leadership behaviours predicted job satisfaction of academic staff in a Ugandan university.

In a study done in Kenya, Naomy (2015) related participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of teachers in public secondary school of Nairobi county. Findings of correlational analysis revealed participative leadership behaviours as key determinant of job satisfaction. However, the study carried out in secondary schools outside Uganda where the working conditions are far different from that of full-time academic staff in Ugandan universities. As such, this prompted the need to conduct to test whether participative leadership behaviours predicted job satisfaction of academic staff. In a study conducted on employees of Poland in small and medium enterprises, Dyczkowska and Dyczkowski (2018) linked participative management and job satisfaction. Results of correlation analysis indicated that participative management influenced job satisfaction. But this study raised conceptual and methodological gaps. Conceptually, the study used participative management to obliquely imply participative leadership behaviours yet these two concepts are measured differently. Further, the study was conducted in small and medium enterprises in Poland where the employees' conditions are far different from that of Ugandan universities.

In a study done in India, Soodan and Pandey (2017) assessed whether participative leadership behaviours had link on job satisfaction of employees in the non-governmental

organisations. Their correlation analysis showed that participative leadership behaviours positively influenced job satisfaction of employees. Nonetheless, the same study was done in non-governmental organisations where job satisfaction is measured differently from that of academic staff in universities due to structural and operational differences. A study conducted in the education sector in Qatar, Al-Sada et al. (2017) linked participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. Regression analysis showed participative leadership behaviours had a positive influence on job satisfaction. However, this study does not specify the sector of education in which it was done. This thus raised the need for this study to be conducted on the full-time academic staff in a Ugandan university. All the above gaps made it imperative to test the hypothesis whether:

H₀2.3: Participative leadership behaviours is a significant positive predictor of job satisfaction of academic staff

H₀2.4 Achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff

Achievement-oriented leadership behaviours give workers the impression that their efforts will lead to more effective performance that can be highly rewarded. Consequently, employee job satisfaction rises as a result of appreciation that their hard work is recognised (Dokony et al., 2020). Achievement-oriented leadership behaviours promote employees feeling of self-assurance which help to shape them to the needed standard through developing confidence in their abilities to rise beyond challenges of work (Mwaisaka et al., 2019b). Olowoselu et al. (2019) explain that achievement-oriented leadership behaviours motivate employees by sharing responsibilities and removing obstacles. This results in pushing for achievement of organisational goals. Nonetheless, where there is presence of considerable pressure in the workplace, job satisfaction

is promoted to employees who help in the achievement of organisational goals. Rana et al. (2019b) explain how information provided to employees by achievement-oriented leaders encourages them to feel valued for their individual efforts, helps to foster an environment where people are motivated to achieve their goals, and permit them to take calculated risks and regulate their work all of which contribute to job satisfaction. Further, the manner in which achievement-oriented leaders provide feedback to their employees affects both the motivation and their level of job satisfaction.

In Indonesia, Suradi (2017) investigated achievement-oriented leadership and job satisfaction of lecturers in financial institutions. Results of regression analysis revealed that achievements-oriented leadership strongly predicted lecturers' job satisfaction. Much as the above study was conducted on lecturers, it is not clear whether the lecturers were fulltime or part-time staff members of staff. Further, the study was carried out in a financial training agency in the ministry of finance in Indonesia where the working conditions are believed to be far different from that of the academic staff in Ugandan universities. Therefore, the above gaps made it imperative to carry out a study to relate achievement-oriented leadership and job satisfaction of full-time academic staff in a Ugandan public university. In a study done in Malaysia, Yan-Li and Hassan (2018) tested achievement-oriented leadership behaviours of principals and job satisfaction of secondary school teachers in Selangor. Regression analysis showed achievement-oriented leadership behaviours a significant contributor to job satisfaction. However, the study was carried out in secondary schools where the working conditions are far different from that of full-time academic staff in universities due to structural and operational differences. This therefore, prompted the need to conduct the study to test whether achievement-oriented leadership behaviours influenced job satisfaction of academic in universities.

In a study done in Kenya, Thuku et al. (2018b) related head teacher's achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and job satisfaction teachers in primary schools in Nakuru-county. Their regression analysis revealed that achievement leadership behaviours strongly predicted teacher's job satisfaction. Nonetheless, the above study was carried out in primary schools in Kenya where the measure of job satisfaction is far different from that in universities. As such, it was imperative to conduct this study to test the casual link between variables. Based on path-goal leadership theory, Dokony et al. (2020) related achievement-oriented leadership and job satisfaction of employees in telecommunication sector of Chad. The findings revealed achievement-oriented leadership behaviours as a determinant of job satisfaction. However, the same study was carried out in telecommunication sector where the measure of job satisfaction may be different from that in universities. Thus, this needed further study to be done in public university in Uganda to test the relationship between similar variables.

In a study done on school principals in Kenya, Muganda and Muganda (2020) tested achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of school teachers in Bungoma North sub-county. Findings revealed principal's achievement-oriented leadership behaviours were a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Furthermore, the study was also conducted in secondary schools in Kenya where the working conditions are far different from that of academic staff in universities due to structural and operational differences. A study done in Ethiopian service industries, Shegwa (2020) related achievement-oriented leadership using the path-goal leadership theory and job satisfaction of employees in the largest tax payer's office. Findings of correlation analysis showed that achievement-oriented leadership behaviours moderately predicted job satisfaction. This study was also done in the revenue office where the working conditions are different from those in universities. Further, the study raised a controversial gap

because it revealed that principal's achievement-oriented leadership moderately influenced employee job satisfaction. Thus, there was need for further study to test the link between two variables in a Ugandan university.

In their study, Mwaisaka et al. (2019b) tested achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of employees in commercial banks of Kenya. Findings revealed achievement-oriented leadership behaviours as a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Similarly, the above study was conducted in the service sectors outside Uganda where the working conditions are not the similar to that of the universities in Uganda due to structural differences. Hence, there emerged the need to conduct a study basing on the academic staff in a Ugandan to test achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. Given the above gaps, it was imperative to test the hypothesis whether:

H₀2.4: Achievement leadership behaviours is a significant predictor of job satisfaction of academic staff

2.3.3 Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff

People in organisation are the most important resource thus, it is fundamental to have a comprehensive knowledge of their commitment and satisfaction in an organisation. This is because employees who are satisfied with the organisation manifest commitment to their organisation Candelario et al. (2020). Bashir and Gani (2020b) explain that enhancing job satisfaction among employees is the new strategy for organisations. This is because organisations recognize that the happier the workers are, the higher they become committed to organisation. The absence of job satisfaction reduces organisational commitment among employees. Alkahtani et al. (2021) expound that employees that exhibit high degree of job satisfaction are motivated to

work which promote their commitment. However, employees with lower level of job satisfaction are less motivated which decreases their commitment.

In a study done in the college of business administration at Negros Oriental State University, Bancoro (2023) examined how organisational commitment affected the work satisfaction of college lecturers. Results of regression analysis revealed that organisational commitment strongly predicted job satisfaction of academic staff. Much as this study was done in the academic institution, this was outside the context university environment where the working atmosphere is different due to structural an operational difference. Therefore, there emerged the need to conduct a study to test the link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment using academic staff of public university in Uganda as a unit of analysis.

The association between job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academic staff at the south eastern university of Sri Lanka was investigated by Sareena Ummam and Rajee (2022). The findings of regression analysis revealed that job satisfaction positively predicted commitment of academic staff. However, much as the above study was carried out on the academic staff, this was outside the context of Ugandan university where management and the operation differ greatly. Therefore, this called for the need to conduct a study to relate job satisfaction and commitment of academic staff in a public university in Uganda. In their study, Oyovwe-Tinuoye and Sambo (2022) linked job satisfaction and commitment of librarians at federal universities in South-South, Nigeria. Regression analysis revealed that job satisfaction significantly predicted commitment of librarians. The study produced a population gap because it was carried out on the librarians to relate the link between job satisfaction and commitment variables. Thus, it was imperative to carry out this study to test whether commitment relate to job satisfaction of academic staff in Ugandan university.

On their part, Dankyi and Nyieku (2021) evaluated the influence of job satisfaction on academic staff commitment of Cape Coast University in Ghana. Results of regression analysis revealed that job satisfaction positively predicted academic staff commitment. However, the study produced a contextual gap because it was conducted in the university outside Uganda where the working environment and measure of job satisfaction may have been different from that of academic staff in Uganda. A study carried out in Greece, Trivellas and Santouridis (2016) linked job satisfaction and commitment of faculty and administrative staff in education establishments. Partial least squared analysis indicated job satisfaction a key determinant of workers' commitment. Much as this investigation was conducted in higher education institutions, it was done on both faculty and administrative staff. This called for the need to conduct a study to test the two variables using full-time academic staff in a Ugandan public university.

In a study done in South Africa, Mabasa and Ngirande (2015) examined job satisfaction and commitment of junior academic staff. Results of correlation analysis showed that job satisfaction directly related with organisational commitment. However, much as this study was carried out in academic institution, it does not clearly show whether the junior academic staff were full time or part-time members of South African higher institution. It is not further clear whether the higher education institutions where the study was done were universities or other tertiary institutions. This prompted the need for this study to be done in a Ugandan public university to test the link between job satisfaction and commitment of academic staff.

In a study done in South Africa, Makhathini and Van Dyke (2018) studied job satisfaction and organisational commitment of soldiers. Regression analysis revealed that job satisfaction directly determined affective commitment of soldiers. This study raised conceptual gap because it considered only one component of organisational commitment which is affective

commitment and yet organisational commitment is multi-dimensional concept that covers affective, continuance and normative commitment. Thus, there was need for this study to address how all the components of organisational commitment are influenced by job satisfaction in the public university in Uganda. Further, the study was conducted on soldiers whose working conditions are different from that of full-time academic staff in public university in Uganda due to operational and structural differences.

A study done in Australia, Nobile (2017) investigated job satisfaction and organisational commitment of primary school teachers in Western Australia. Results of regression analysis revealed that job satisfaction strongly predicted organisational commitment of primary school teachers. Nonetheless, the same study was carried out on teachers in primary school in Australia where the working conditions are different from that of academic staff due to operational and administrative structure. As such, this called for the need to test the link between the two variables using academic staff in university. In a study conducted in India, Qureshi et al. (2017) examined job satisfaction and organisational commitment of police officers. Results of least squares regression equation revealed that job satisfaction significantly influenced organisational commitment. Similarly, the same study was conducted on police officers whose measure of organisational commitment may be different from that of academic staff. Thus, there was need to conduct this study to relate job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academic staff in a Ugandan public university.

A study done in Democratic Republic of Congo, Mitonga-Monga et al. (2018) related job satisfaction factors and organisational commitment of workers in Railway Company. Findings showed that workers commitment was predicted job satisfaction. Nonetheless, the study

was done in a railway company whose operation and organisation structure are far different from that of academic staff in universities.

Further, in a cross-national comparative study based on data from USA and India, Chordiya et al. (2017) investigated how affective commitment predicted workers job satisfaction. Results revealed job satisfaction had a strongest influence on workers affective commitment in USA and India. Still, this study raised conceptual gap because it only addressed one component of organisational commitment which is affective commitment and yet in this study organisational commitment was conceptualized as a three-dimensional construct. Thus, there was a need for this study to address all the three components of organisational commitment. Thus, there was need to test how the three-dimension of commitment relate to job satisfaction using academic staff in a university. A study done on secondary schools' teachers in China, Dou et al. (2017) tested job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Structural equation modelling indicated that job satisfaction had direct influence on organisational commitment. However, this study was done on secondary school teacher in China whose operation and working conditions are different from that of academic staff in universities.

In a study done in Europe, Dinc (2017) investigated how organisation commitment components influence job satisfaction of employees in manufacturing company in Federation of Bosnia and Heregovin. Factor analysis indicated that part continuance no commitment, normative and affective commitment exhibited effects on overall job satisfaction. However, the study only addressed normative and affective commitment. Thus, there was need to test how all the three aspects of organisational commitment influenced job satisfaction of full-time academic staff in a public university in Uganda. On their part, Tekingündüz et al. (2017) tested satisfaction and organisational commitment of workers employed in a public hospital found in Bingol,

Turkey. Findings revealed that job satisfaction strongly influenced organisational commitment dimensions. However, this study raised both contextual gaps because it was done on staff in a public hospital in Turkey where the working conditions may be different from that of full-time academic staff in Ugandan public university. All the above gaps made it imperative to test the hypothesis that:

H₀₃: Job satisfaction is a significant predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff

2.4.1 Intrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academic staff.

Intrinsic job satisfaction describes what actually employees do to feel successful and gain self-actualization from their own experience (Bagasworo, 2017). Herzberg (1968) explain that intrinsic job satisfaction is also known as motivator factor. Factors related to the content of the job that increase job satisfaction is referred to as motivator factors (Bušatlić & Mujabašić, 2018). Indices of intrinsic job satisfaction include independence, diversity, social standing, moral worth, social service security, authority, ability usage, responsibility, creativity, success, the actual work, and advancement. Asaari et al. (2020) expound that intrinsic job satisfaction influence employee organisational commitment because it helps create natural passion among employees towards work which enhances their daily work commitment to the organisation. Further, Bektaş (2017) reiterated that intrinsic job satisfaction lead to employee organisational commitment because it is believed to be more influential on the employees as they undertake responsibility in the organisation and thus, tend to make sacrifice for the organisation. Raza and Ahmed (2017) point out that intrinsic job satisfaction is tied to positive performance outcomes and organisational commitment among employees.

A study done in higher education sector in Pakistan, Khalid and Aftab (2017) tested employees' intrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees. Regression analysis indicated that organisational commitment was positively influenced by intrinsic work satisfaction. However, it is not clear whether this study was done in universities and on academic staff or whether the study was done in other organisations of advanced education. As such, it was imperative to conduct this study on full-time academic staff in a Ugandan university to test the link between intrinsic job satisfaction and commitment of academic staff in a Ugandan public university. In a study done in USA using Herzberg two-factor theory, Lee (2017) related intrinsic work satisfaction and intention to quit among employees of Central Florida Institute of International Auditors. Results of regression analysis revealed that intrinsic job satisfaction predicted turnover. Nonetheless, this study produced a conceptual gap because it obliquely used turnover intention to indirectly imply organisation commitment and yet the two concepts are psychometrically measured differently. Therefore, this called for need to conduct this study to test whether intrinsic job satisfaction relate to commitment of full-time academic staff in a Ugandan public university.

A study conducted in public primary school teachers in Punjab province, Pakistan, Raza and Ahmed (2017) related intrinsic job satisfaction and teacher's commitment. Regression analysis indicated that intrinsic job satisfaction significantly influenced teachers' commitment. Much as this study was done in academic institution, the working condition in primary schools where the study was done is far different from that of full-time academic staff in a Ugandan university. As such, this prompted for the need to conduct this study to test whether intrinsic job satisfaction related to commitment of academic staff at Kyambogo University.

In a study done in Malaysia, Ismail and Razak (2016) tested whether intrinsic job satisfaction influenced commitment of employees in fire and rescue department. Results of Partial least square path model revealed that intrinsic job satisfaction strongly influenced organisational commitment. Nevertheless this study was conducted on workers in fire and rescue department in Malaysia where the measure of organisational commitment may be different from that of academic staff in Ugandan universities. As such it was imperative to conduct this study on full-time academic staff in universities to test whether intrinsic job satisfaction related to commitment of academic staff. In a study carried out in Ethiopia, Gimeshu and Fanta (2018) evaluated intrinsic job satisfaction and commitment of employees in commercial banks. Multiple linear regressions indicated job satisfaction moderately linked commitment of employees.

Further, in an investigation done in the banking industry of WolaitaSaoda District in Ethiopia, Gimeshu and Fanta (2018) examined the connection between intrinsic job satisfaction and employee commitment. Regression analysis revealed job satisfaction moderately linked commitment of employees. The above two investigations were done in the banking sector where the measure of organisational commitment is far different from that of universities. Further, the two studies produced a controversial gap because they indicated moderate impact of intrinsic job satisfaction on commitment. This needed further study to test the same variables on academic staff in a Ugandan university. The above gaps made it important to test the hypothesis that:

H₀3.1: Intrinsic job satisfaction is a significant positive predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff.

H₀3.2 Extrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academic staff

Extrinsic job satisfaction is the term used to describe the benefits that an organisation provides to its employees which can be inform of compensation (Bagasworo, 2017). Herzberg (1966) contend that extrinsic job satisfaction is also called hygiene factor. Hygiene factors refer to factors related to the context of a job that bring job dissatisfaction. Extrinsic factors are things that affect employees' happiness with their job but are unrelated to the job they perform which include; company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, salary, status, and security (Rao et al., 2018). Bektaş (2017) asserted that only external factors like an individual's determination, willingness, and skill may be used to obtain and sustain extrinsic job satisfaction. However, intrinsic factors are not adequate alone for job satisfaction but environmental factors that support intrinsic factors should be highly qualified and quantified because some employees' needs can be met by the external factors. However, leaders also have important responsibilities for guaranteeing extrinsic job satisfaction and as a result, they must identify and apply the best methods for orienting the workforce to the position. Researchers have related extrinsic job satisfaction and commitment.

In a study done in Vietnam, Nguyen et al. (2021) examined whether extrinsic job satisfaction had a link on commitment of academic and non-academic employees of higher education institutions. Results of partial least square-structural equation modelling indicated that extrinsic job satisfaction factors had a direct link on organisational commitment. Much as the study was done in higher education institutions, it was carried out on both teaching staff and non-teaching staff. As such, it called for this study to further investigate the link between extrinsic job satisfaction and commitment using full-time academic staff as unit of analysis in a Ugandan university. In study conducted in India, Novitasari et al. (2020) tested extrinsic job satisfaction

and commitment of workers in a packaging manufacturing plant. Findings of partial least square revealed job satisfaction had a direct link to organisational commitment. Nonetheless, this study was carried out on workers in packaging plant where the working conditions are different from that in the universities due to operational and structural differences which called for the need to conduct this study to relate extrinsic job satisfaction and commitment of academic staff in a Ugandan university.

A study conducted on accounting professionals in Tunisia, Abdelmoula (2020) tested job satisfaction factors and organisational commitment. Findings showed extrinsic job satisfaction factors had a positive impacted on commitment. Nonetheless, the study was done on the accounting professionals where the measure of organisational commitment may be different from that in universities. A study conducted in Indonesia, Bagasworo (2017) tested organisational commitment as determinant of job satisfaction of workers in camps. Findings of t-test organisational commitment had a direct link to extrinsic job satisfaction. However, the study raised a methodological gap because it stopped at t-test. Thus, there was need for further study to use structural equation modelling to develop a model to test the connection between extrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment of full-time academic personnel in a Ugandan public university. The above gaps made it imperative to test the hypothesis that:

H₀3.2: Extrinsic job satisfaction is a significant positive predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff

2.3.4 Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff

Emotional intelligence refers to the capacity of an individual to recognize experience, comprehend, and control one's own emotions and those of others (Alsughayir, 2021). According

to Mayer and Salovey (1990), emotional intelligence is a component of social intelligence that includes the ability to analyse one's own and other people's emotions and sentiments and to discriminate between thought and actions (Shafiq & Rana, 2016). Goleman (1998) defined emotional intelligence as the capacity of a person to comprehend their own feelings, the reasons behind their feelings, listen to others' feelings, and express their own feelings in useful way (Letam, 2017). Emotional intelligence, according to Goleman (1998) consists of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship-management. According to Goleman (1998), organisations that have workers with higher level of emotional intelligence become effective in maintaining staff that are driven, productive, productive, aligned with the business, and are committed (Letam, 2017).

Shafiq and Rana (2016) expound that employees who exhibit a higher level of emotional intelligence do not blame the organisations for their feelings of dissatisfaction and imbalance, instead use their emotional intelligence to create strategies for avoiding the negative emotions and feelings. Further, when employees manage emotions well, they tend to perform the tasks and to be loyal and devoted to their work and to the organisation. A study done in India, Gopinath et al. (2020) examined whether emotional intelligence predicted organisational commitment using academic leaders in Tamil Nadu universities as a unit of analysis. Structural equation modelling revealed existence of a positive link between emotional intelligence and commitment of academic leaders. However, the above study produced a population gap because it was conducted on academic leaders leaving out the full-time academic staff. This therefore attracted the attention for this study to investigate whether emotional intelligence related to commitment of academic staff in university.

In a study done in Pakistan, Amjad (2018) investigated whether emotional intelligence predicted commitment of university teaching staff of Baluchistan University, Quetta. Findings revealed that emotional intelligence strongly predicted commitment of teaching staff. Much as this investigation was done on teaching staff in a university, it does not reveal whether this was done on full-time or part-time teaching staff. Nonetheless, the study was done in universities in Pakistan where the working conditions are far different from that of academic staff of universities in Uganda. Therefore, this attracted the attention for this study to test whether emotional intelligence related to commitment of academic staff in a Ugandan university. A study conducted in Pakistan, Shafiq and Rana (2016) tested emotional intelligence was linked to organisational commitment of college instructors. The findings of correlation analysis indicated that emotional intelligence moderately influenced commitment of instructors. However, this study was carried out on college instructors where the measure of organisational commitment is far different from that of teaching staff in universities. Further, the same study produced a controversial gap by indicating that organisational commitment was moderately linked to commitment yet majority previous findings reported that emotional intelligence positively predicted organisational commitment. This called for further investigation to test whether emotional intelligence related to organisational commitment of academicians in a Ugandan university.

On their part, Mustafa et al. (2014) examined how emotional intelligence affected commitment of polytechnic lecturers in Malaysia. Results of regression revealed that emotional intelligence strongly predicted employee commitment. Much as this study was done on lecturers, these were in a polytechnic where the working conditions are believed to be different from those universities in Uganda. As such, there was need to test the two variables on academic staff in a

Ugandan university. In a study carried out in Saudi-Arabia banks, Alsughayir (2021) tested emotional intelligence as a determinant of organisational commitment of customer service workers. Findings revealed emotional intelligence being key determinant for employee commitment. However, the same study was done in the banking sector where the working conditions are different from that of academic staff in Ugandan public university. Thus, this attracted the attention this study to test whether emotional intelligence related to commitment of academic staff in universities.

On their part, Sharma and Singh (2021) conducted systematic review on emotional intelligence and employee commitment. Results revealed that emotional significantly predicted organisational commitment. However, this study did a systematic review meaning that it did not test the hypothesis between the above two variables. Thus, this called for further study to test whether the two variables were related in a Ugandan public university. On the other hand, Ouerdian et al. (2021) tested emotional intelligence and affective commitment of workers in Turkey. Findings of the analysis indicated employee commitment was significantly predicted by emotional intelligence. However, a conceptual gap rose from this study because it only addressed affective organisational commitment and yet this study conceptualised organisational commitment as a three-component model. Therefore, there was need for further investigation test the association between the two-variable while addressing all the three dimensions of commitment.

Relatedly, Baker et al. (2019) investigated linked intelligence and affective commitment of police personnel in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. Structural equation modelling that emotional intelligence was strongly linked to organisational commitment. Similarly, the same study raised a conceptual gap because it only addressed affective commitment while operationally

organisational commitment was conceptualised as a multi-dimensional concept that included affective, continuance and normative commitment. Thus, this raised the need to conduct this study to relate emotional intelligence and organisational commitment addressing its three components. A study conducted in India, Jain and Duggal (2018) related emotional intelligence and commitment of workers in information technology industry. Regression analysis revealed emotional intelligence as predictor of employees' commitment. However, the same study was done on workers in the information and technology industry where the measure of organisational commitment is believed to be far different from that of public university in Uganda.

In a study done in Sweden, Katungu (2018) linked emotional intelligence and employee commitment. Regression indicated that emotional intelligence positively predicted workers commitment. However, the same study was carried out in other organisations other than universities where the measure of organisational commitment may be different due to operational and structural difference. A study conducted in Nigeria, Letam (2017) examined whether emotional intelligence related to organisational commitment of employees working in firms found in River State. Findings indicated that organisational commitment was strongly predicted by emotional intelligence. Nonetheless, the study was done outside Ugandan universities where the measure of organisational commitment is believed to be different from that of public university in Uganda. All the above gaps made it imperative to test the hypothesis whether:

H₀₄: Emotional intelligence is a significant positive predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff.

2.5.1 Self-awareness and organisational commitment of academic staff

Self-awareness describes the capacity of an individual to recognize his/her feelings, the effect of emotions on self and other people. Therefore, those who possess self-awareness abilities are more confident, have presence, are able to speak their minds, can stand up for what is right, are able to make wise choices under duress, are aware of their emotions, and are more committed to their organisations (Okpara, 2015). Mäkinen (2014) explain that to learn emotional competence one has to notice his/her feelings as a chance to obtain more information of own inner world then be able to accept the information about his/her feelings and use it constructively.

On the other hand, Blakemore and Aglias (2019) expound that self-awareness influences employee commitment because it aids employees in relationship building, regulations of emotions and managing highly anxiety encounter, avoid unintentional harm, deals with stress and prevents employees' burnout. Further, Latem (2017) opine that high level of self-awareness among employees leads to high organisational commitment because it impacts on their organisational citizen behaviours (voluntary performance of organisational extra work) and these result into improved work performance both at individual and organisation level. In a study done in India, Yuvaraj and Eveline (2018) examined the role of self-awareness on employee commitment in business organisations of Chennai. Findings revealed that self-awareness influenced employee commitment. However, the study also was done on workers in the business industry of India where the administrative and structural environment is different from that of academic staff in universities which prompted the need to relate self-awareness and commitment of academic staff in universities.

On their part, Baker et al. (2019) investigated the link between self-emotional appraisal (self-awareness) and affective commitment of public officers in Malaysia. Path coefficient

revealed that self-awareness positively influenced organisational commitment of public officers. Nonetheless, this study raised conceptual gap because it only addressed affective commitment which is one element of organisational commitment but did not cover continuance and normative commitment. Therefore, there was a need to conduct a study on academic staff in a Ugandan university to test whether self-awareness related commitment of academic staff in a Ugandan university. Besides, the study was done on police officers whose conditions of work are far different from that academic staff in universities.

A study done on in Iran, on organisational, Pourkiani et al. (2016) examined self-awareness and commitment of employees in Islamic Azad University. Path coefficient analysis revealed that self-awareness positively influenced organisational commitment. Much as this study was done in the university, it was conducted on all employees of the university including non-teaching staff. However, there was need to conduct this study focusing on full-time academic staff in a Ugandan university. A study carried out in Nigeria, Latem (2017) tested self-awareness as a significant predictor of affective commitment based on workers in selected industries of River state. Correlation analysis indicated self-awareness significantly influenced affective commitment. But this study only addressed affective commitment and left out continuance and normative commitment. This raised the need for the study to test whether self-awareness related the three elements of employee commitment of academic staff in the context of a public university in Uganda.

A study carried out in Kenya, Matheri et al. (2018) related self-awareness and commitment of employees in SACCOs of Nairobi and Kiambu Counties. Pearson correlation coefficient revealed that self-awareness did not contribute to organisational commitment. This study produced a controversial result because it indicated that self-awareness did not

significantly contribute to organisational commitment of employees yet majority studies indicated that self-awareness positively and significantly influenced organisational commitment. Thus, there was need for further study to confirm whether self-awareness related to commitment of academicians in a Ugandan public university. The above gaps attracted the need for this study to test whether:

H₀4.1: Self-awareness is a significant positive predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff.

H₀4.2 Self-management and organisational commitment academic staff

Self-management also known as emotional regulation originate from the development psychology literature adapted by Gross (1998) for use in social psychology, industrial and organisational psychology (Bouckenooghe et al., 2014). Self-awareness is the capacity to manage painful emotions, such as worry and rage, and to restrain disruptive or damaging emotions in order to restrain emotional impulsivity (Wameru et al., 2020a). Salovey and Mayer (1990) argue that the ability to monitor one's own and other people's feelings, to distinguish between them, to utilize the knowledge to shape one's cognition and behaviour is a component of emotional regulation, which is a subdivision of social intelligence (Fiori & Vesely-Maillefer, 2018). As such, self-management forms the building block of emotional intelligence (Bouckenooghe et al., 2014).

Adipere (2015) explain that self-management strengthens employee organisational commitment because competent self-managers set ambitious goals, take calculated risks, seek information to advance their careers, and learn how to perform better. They are also achievement-driven, seek to advance or meet a standard of excellence, and are result-oriented

and highly motivated to meet their organisation's objectives and standards. Maria and Puhakka (2015) argue that self-management enhances commitment of employee because it avoids procrastination, delay gratification and manage time. Further, self-management can increase self-efficacy and job attendance among employees.

In a study carried out in Kenya, Wameru et al. (2020a) studied principals' self-management and commitment of teachers in secondary schools of county governments. Correlation analysis revealed that principal's self-management significantly impacted on teacher's organisational commitment. However, the above study was conducted in secondary schools where the working environment is far distinct from that in public University in Uganda. In their study, Osieko et al. (2017) examined emotional self-regulation and organisational commitment of managers in private school enterprises of Nairobi County, Kenya. Regression analysis indicated that emotional self-regulation positively and significantly influenced organisational commitment. This investigation was also done in private schools outside Uganda where the administrative structure is far different from that of universities in Uganda.

In a study done in Kenya, Muriuki and Gachunga (2013) tested self-management and organisational commitment workers based in Kenya institute of curriculum development. Findings of correlation analysis revealed that self-regulation exhibited a positive influence on organisational commitment. Also, this study produced a methodological gap because it used a correlation analysis which is a preliminary level analysis. Thus, this needed a study to use structural equation modelling to develop a model on self-management and organisational commitment of academics in a Ugandan university. A study done by Da Fonseca (2020) investigated on self-awareness and effective leadership outcomes in South Africa. Qualitative findings revealed that self-awareness played significant role in effective leadership. However,

this study raised a conceptual gap because it used effective leadership to obliquely imply organisational commitment and yet these two concepts are measured differently. Therefore, this needed a study to whether self-regulation relate to commitment of full-time academic staff in a public university in Uganda.

Further, Dhanpat et al. (2021) related self-regulation strategies of graduate workers and their engagement. Findings of qualitative study revealed that self-management strategies significantly influenced graduate employee work engagement. However, this study raised conceptual gaps because it used self-management strategies to indirectly mean self-management yet the two concepts are measured distinctly. Further, the study also addressed employee engagement to imply organisational commitment and yet the two concepts are psychometrically measured differently. Thus, this needed a study to test whether self-management relate to organisational commitment of academic staff university.

On their part, Wheeler et al. (2020) conducted an exploratory research on self-management and work performance in India and USA. Findings of regression analysis revealed that self-management significantly influenced work performance. Still, this study raised a conceptual gap because it used work performance to obliquely imply organisational commitment and yet the two concepts are psychometrically measured differently. In a study done in Iraq, Ghali et al. (2018) conducted a study on self-management and organisational excellence. Regression analysis revealed that self-management of employee strongly contributed to organisational excellence. Nevertheless, the study raised a conceptual gap because it focused on organisational excellence to indirectly imply organisational commitment and yet the two concepts are measured differently. Therefore, the above gaps made it imperative to test whether:

H₀4.2: Self-management is a significant positive predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff

H₀4.3 Social-awareness and organisational commitment of academic staff

Social-awareness describes an individual's capacity to reason, comprehend, control, and behave properly in human social relationships (Njoroge & Yazdanifard, 2014). Emmerling and Boyatzis (2012) describe social-awareness as the capacity of a person to recognize, comprehend, and respond to emotional information about others that results in effective performance. Eketu and Ogbu (2015) define social-awareness as the capacity of an individual to listen to others, comprehend completely what was not said or only partially expressed thoughts and feelings of a person or part of a group or team, make decisions, and appreciate how culture and values impact a person's actions and behaviours. Additionally, social awareness entails a desire to assist another person in meeting their wants as well as an understanding of others' needs before they are spoken. Njoroge and Yazdanifard (2014) opine that social-awareness is the first component of social competency and lays the foundation for building solid work relationship which builds employee commitment.

In their study, Santana-Martins et al. (2022) investigated how employees' social-emotional awareness as a predictor of employee commitment in big commercial firms in Portugal. The results of structural modelling revealed that social-emotional awareness predicted employee commitment. However, this study was done in a commercial firm in Portugal where the working environment is far distinct from that of academic staff in universities due to differences in management and administrative structure. As such, there emerged the need to

investigate whether social- awareness predicted commitment of academic staff in Ugandan public university.

In their study done in Malaysia, Mustafa et al. (2014) conducted a study on social-awareness and organisational commitment among teaching staff in northern zone polytechnic. Results of correlation indicated social-awareness related to commitment of teaching staff. Much as this study was conducted on lecturers in a polytechnic, it does not reveal whether these lecturers were full-time or part-time. Further, the study was conducted in a Polytechnique where the working conditions are believed to be far different from that of universities in Uganda. As such, it attracted the attention of this study to test whether social-awareness related to commitment of academic staff at Kyambogo University. In a study done in Nigeria, Green and Gabriel (2019) studied manager's social-awareness and commitment of employees who work in hotels found in Port Harcourt. Findings revealed that social-awareness of manager's increased employees' organisational commitment. Nonetheless, this study was conducted in a hotel where the working conditions are far from that in universities. As such, there was need to conduct this to investigate the link between social-awareness and commitment of academic staff in universities.

In their study, Hossein and Hakimeh (2015) tested the association between manager's social-awareness and commitment of workers in governmental organisations of Iran. Findings of correlation analysis revealed social-awareness as a predictor of organisational commitment. However, contextual and methodological gap emerged from the above study. In terms of study context, the study was done in governmental organisations of Iran where the mode of operation is far different from that in universities due to operational differences. As such, there emerged

the need to investigate whether social-awareness predicted commitment of academic staff in universities.

In Malaysia, Long and Kowang (2015) conducted a study on social-awareness and employees' commitment. Findings revealed that social-awareness strongly predicted organisational commitment. However, the above two studies were conducted in the organisations other than Universities where the working conditions are different due to structural and operational differences. Therefore, there was a need for this study to test whether social-awareness relate to commitment of full-time academic staff. In a study carried out in Iran, Majidian and Nazari (2014) related social-awareness and commitment of employees in the department of education in Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Provinces. The findings of correlation revealed a moderate relationship between social-awareness and organisational commitment. This study used a correlation analysis which is a preliminary level. This called for this study to use structural equation modelling to develop a model on the relationship between the two variables on the academic staff in Ugandan public university. The above gaps called for the need to test whether:

H_{04.3}: Social-awareness is a significant positive predictor of organisational commitment.

H_{04.4} Relationship-Management and organisational commitment of academic staff

Relationship-management refer to the process of handling situations involving other people's emotions, and it entails being conscious of one's own feelings as well as those of others in order to build a successful relationship (Wameru et al. 2020b). Chaubey et al. (2017) relationship management is the process of using various control measures and legislative frameworks to regulate interactions between the organisation, the management, staff, and workers in order to

achieve organisational objectives. To sustain employer-employee connection that contributes to satisfying productivity, work satisfaction, motivation, employee morale, and organisational commitment, relationship management encompasses communication that strengthens the link between management and employees. According to Ugoani et al. (2015), relationship management which fosters organisational commitment is exhibited by adeptly managing interpersonal emotions, accurately interpreting social contexts and networks, interacting with others, and utilising these abilities to encourage, lead, discuss and resolve conflicts for collaboration and fostering cooperation in an organisation.

On the other hand, Das et al. (2019) expound that a healthy relationship-management is essential for employee organisational commitment and for positive growth of an organisation. Further, Chaubey et al. (2017) opine that relationship-management has become the driving force for competitive organisations in today's global business environment, as such; maintaining a good relationship-management among various stakeholders is a critical aspect that determines organisational commitment. To foster positive relationships and get the most out of each employee, firms must utilize a variety of employee relationship-management techniques in order to boost employee commitment. In addition, Chaubey et al. (2017) assert that relationship-management techniques that an organisation may use to foster employee commitment include, but are not limited to, employee participation, initiating employee suggestions, facilitating collective bargaining, conflict-management, employee training and development, transparency in communication, and inspiring teamwork or group activities. I

In a study done in Kenya, Wameru et al. (2020b) tested principal's relationship-management and commitment of secondary school teachers in county government. Their regression revealed that principal's relationship-management a significantly predicted teacher's

organisational commitment. However, the same study was done in secondary schools where organisation commitment is measured differently from that of academic staff in universities due to operational and structural differences. Thus, there was need to conduct this study on academic staff in a Ugandan university testing the relationship between the same variables.

In a study done in India, Yuvaraj and Eveline (2018) tested whether relationship-management related to employee commitment in business enterprises in Chennai. Findings indicated that relationship-management significantly influenced employee commitment. However, this study was done in business organisations in India where employee commitment is measured differently from that of academician in Ugandan public university. A study carried out on employees of Ceylon electricity in Sri-Lanka, Sawithri et al. (2017) investigated employer-employee relationship-management and employee commitment. Regression analysis indicated that relationship- management predicted employee commitment. But this study was conducted in the Ceylon electricity in Sri-Lanka where the working conditions are different from that of Ugandan universities. In their study, Rahman and Taniya (2017) assessed whether workers relationship-management projected employee performance in private commercial banks of Bangladesh. Correlation analysis indicated that relationship-management significantly impact employee performance. Nonetheless, the study raised a conceptual gap because it used employee performance to obliquely imply employee commitment and yet the two concepts are psychometrically measured differently. Thus, this called for further investigation to test whether relationship-management is related to organisational commitment.

On their part, Bhalerao and Kumar (2016) assessed whether relationship-management relate to commitment level of workers in communication technology and manufacturing sector in India. Findings of correlation revealed that relationship-management impacted on employee

commitment. However, the same study was done in the telecommunication and manufacturing field where commitment is measured differently from that in universities which called for he need to test whether relationship-management predicted commitment of academic staff in universities. Further, in a study done in India, Seyal and Afzaal (2013) tested the association between relationship-management and organisational commitment of academics in Brunei Darussalam. Results of analysis revealed that relationship-management strongly predicted organisational commitment. Much as this study was done on academics, it was not clear whether the academic staff were full-time or part-time. Further, this study was conducted on academic staff outside Uganda where the working conditions are different from that of academicians in Ugandan universities. All these gaps attracted the study to test the hypothesis that:

H₀4.4: Relationship-management is a significant positive predictor of organisational commitment of academic staff.

2.3.5 Job Satisfaction Mediating Leadership Behaviours and Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff

Studies have mediated leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. As such, a study done in Indonesia, Hendri (2018) job satisfaction mediated organisational commitment, organisational learning and workers performance in liability company in west Kalimantan. Structural equation modelling revealed that job satisfaction mediated the organisational learning and workers performance. However, contextual and empirical gaps emerged from this study because it was conducted on employees in Indian liability company whose working conditions are far different from that of Ugandan universities. Further, in the same study, job satisfaction mediated the connection between organisational learning and workers performance. Thus, there

was need for further study to test the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the connection between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment.

A study conducted in Indonesia, Nadia and Azzman (2020) investigated job satisfaction as mediator of leadership styles and organisational commitment of employees in the tourism villages. Regression analysis indicated job satisfaction as a mediator between leadership styles and organisational commitment. Both contextual and conceptual gaps occurred from this study. Contextually, the study was done in Indonesia in tourism industry where the measure of organisational commitment may be different from that of university environment. Conceptually, leadership styles were obliquely used to imply leadership behaviours yet the two concepts have different psychometric tools hence a need to test the mediating influence of job satisfaction on the connection between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment in a Ugandan public university.

In Croatia, a study by Sušanj and Jakopec (2012) tested leadership styles and organisational commitment was mediated by job satisfaction based on employees in manufacturing, public sector and service industry. Structural equation modelling revealed that leadership style and organisational commitment was mediated by job satisfaction. However, this study was conducted in other sectors other than universities where the measure of organisational commitment is different. Besides, leadership style was obliquely used to imply leadership behaviours yet the two concepts are measured distinctly. It was imperative to test whether job satisfaction mediated the link between leadership behaviour and organisational commitment based on academic staff in a Ugandan university. A study conducted in Malaysia, Halim et al. (2021) tested the mediating role of job satisfaction on leadership styles and organisational commitment of secondary school teachers. Multiple regressions revealed that that job satisfaction

mediated between organisational commitment and leadership styles and organisational commitment.

Still, a study done in Indonesia, Banjarnahor et al. (2018) investigated the degree to which job satisfaction mediated directive and participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of workers in elementary school. Path analysis showed that direct and participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment was mediated by job satisfaction. Much as the above two studies were conducted in the school setting; their measure of organisational commitment was not the same as that of Ugandan universities. Further, the study by Halim et al. (2021) focused on leadership styles to indirectly imply leadership behaviours and yet the two concepts are psychometrically measured differently. In addition, the two studies stopped at the preliminary level analysis. Hence, emerged the need to test whether leadership behaviour and organisational commitment of academic staff is mediated by job satisfaction.

A study done in Indonesia, Silitonga et al. (2020) investigated job satisfaction as mediator of transformational leadership and organisational commitment of employees of automotive industry in Tangerang. Structural equation modelling indicated that jobs satisfaction mediated transformational leadership and organisational commitment. However, the study raised a conceptual gap because transformational leadership was obliquely used to imply leadership behaviours yet the two concepts are measured differently. This called for the need to have this study. A study conducted in India, Nanjundeswaraswamy (2021) tested job satisfaction as mediator of leadership styles and organisational commitment of employees in manufacturing and business enterprises in Bangalore. Structural equation modelling revealed that job satisfaction partially mediated leadership styles and employee commitment. A contextual gap emerged from

the above study because it was conducted in business enterprises where the measure of organisational commitment may be far different from that of a Ugandan university. Additionally, the study used transformational leadership to obliquely imply leadership behaviours. The above gaps made it necessary to test the hypothesis that:

H₀₅: Jobs satisfaction mediated the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment.

H₀₆ Leadership Behaviours, Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff

Previous studies moderated leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. Such as, Alkahtani (2016) investigated whether leader's emotional intelligence moderated organisational commitment and leadership styles. The findings indicated that leaders' emotional intelligence moderated leadership styles and employees' organisational commitment. However, the same study raised a conceptual gap because it focused on the leadership styles to indirectly imply leadership behaviours and yet these two concepts are psychometrically measured differently. In study done in Pakistan, Saeed et al. (2015) tested whether emotional intelligence moderated transformational leadership and employee organisational commitment of employees in telecommunication field. Regression model revealed emotional intelligence as a moderator of transformational leadership and organisational commitment. However, the above study focused on transformational leadership to obliquely imply leadership behaviours yet the two concepts are measured differently. Thus, there was need for this study to test whether emotional intelligence moderated leadership behaviours and organisational commitment based on academics in a public university in Uganda.

A study done in Pakistan, Saleem et al. (2017) investigated whether emotional intelligence moderated principal's leadership styles and organisational commitment of secondary school teachers in Karak District, Khyber, Pakhtunkhwa. Regression analysis showed that leadership style and organisational commitment were moderated by emotional intelligence. However, the study also raised a conceptual gap because it focused on leadership style to obliquely imply leadership behaviours. Still in Pakistan, Khan et al. (2014) studied the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on transformational leadership and organisational commitment of employees in service sector. Correlational analysis revealed that transformational leadership and organisational commitment were moderated by emotional intelligence. The same study raised conceptual gap because it used transformational leadership to obliquely imply leadership behaviours yet psychometrically the two are measured distinctly.

Further, in a study conducted in Pakistan, Rehman and Waheed (2012) investigated how emotional intelligence moderated transformational leadership styles and decision-making styles among employees in Islamabad and Rawalpindi. Findings revealed that transformational leadership styles and decision-making styles were strongly moderated by emotional intelligence. The same study raised both conceptual gaps because it used transformational leadership to indirectly imply leadership behaviours and yet the two concepts are psychometrically measured differently. Further, the same study also obliquely used decision making style to imply organisational commitment. It was imperative to further investigate whether emotional intelligence moderated leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff in public university in Uganda.

In a study conducted in Iran, Farahani et al. (2011) conducted on emotional intelligence as moderator of transformational leadership and organisational commitment of employees in

social security organisation of Qazvin Province. The findings revealed that the link between transformational leadership and organisational commitment was strongly moderated by emotional intelligence. However, the same study used transformational leadership to obliquely imply leadership behaviour yet the two concepts are measured distinctly. Thus, this called for the need to investigate the moderating influence of emotional intelligence on the connection between leadership behaviour and organisational commitment of academic staff in a Ugandan public university. These gaps made it imperative to test the hypothesis:

H₀₆: The connection between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment was moderated by emotional intelligence.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The steps taken to carry out this study are described in this section. It addresses research design, study population, sample size and sample selection strategies, data sources, measurement of variables, data collection tools, data collection instruments, quality of data, data analysis, data collection procedure, and research ethical considerations.

3.1 Research Philosophy

The positivist research philosophy advanced by Auguste Comte in 1856 served as the foundation for this investigation (Park et al., 2020). The positivism research philosophy relies on hypothetical-deductive method to verify priori hypotheses that are often stated quantitatively where functional relationships can be derived between casual and explanatory factors (independent variables) and outcomes (dependent variable) (Park et al. 2020). Based on objective ontology, the researcher assumed that reality (knowledge) is objective and thus, measurable, verifiable, quantifiable and accurate independent of the researcher and such knowledge is dependable. Thus, knowledge obtained on the variables under investigation namely; organisational commitment, leadership behaviours, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence was objective (Maksimovic & Evtimov, 2023).

Epistemologically, the objective reality was established using objective methods. Hence, there was testing of hypotheses using structural equation modelling. The methodology adopted in this study involved positivist processes by which the researcher was detached from the study

participants and maintained an objective stance. Rhetorically, in reporting the results of this study, the researcher used impersonal and formal language. Hence, the researcher's biases were not captured in the study. Axiologically, the investigator remained ethical during the whole study with regard to the rights of the study participants (Okesina, 2020). Further, this study was carried out in a value-free manner; as a result, the researcher was impartial and independent of the data and maintained an objective stance.

3.2 Research Approach

The quantitative research approach was used for this investigation. In a quantitative research approach, numerical data was utilised and analysed using specialized statistical methods to address the research question that was examined (Apuke, 2017). The study collected quantitative data that was numerically analysed with statistical procedures to make generalisation. The statistical procedures used to analyse data were descriptive statistics and inferential statistics particularly structural equation modelling. This helped to draw inferences on the variables under study. The quantitative research approach was adopted because the study was guided by the positivist research philosophy which aimed at establishing the objective reality in relation to the study variables. Further, the instrument that was used to collect data for the study had broader questionnaire items that captured the feelings of the study participants that would have been obtained while collecting data using in-depth interview.

3.3 Research Design

This study used the cross-sectional-correlational research design. In a cross-sectional research design, data is gathered from study participants at a particular point in time to provide a snapshot

of the current conditions in regard to the studied variable (Wang & Cheng, 2020). In this study, data from academic staff were collected at once with the aid of questionnaire as a data collection instrument. Further, cross-sectional research design was chosen because it permitted data collection utilizing a self-administered questionnaire that enabled the researcher to reach a sizable number of academic staff (Sedgwick, 2014). It also aided the acquisition of useful data in a relatively short period thus, saving time and cost to have the study accomplished. A correlational research design refers to a quantitative research where two or more quantitative variables are related to determine if there is a relationship between them. Utilising this type of a research design, relationships between and among a number of variables is sought and interpreted (Joseph, 2015). Thus, using a correlational research design, relationships between academic staffs' emotional intelligence and organisational commitment, leadership behaviours and job satisfaction, job satisfaction and organisational commitment were established.

3.4 Study Population

The study's participants included 415 full-time academic staff drawn from the six faculties and six schools of Kyambogo University (Kyu, 2022). The six faculties of Kyambogo University where full-time academic staff were from included; Faculty of Engineering, Faculty of Science, Faculty of Agriculture, Faculty of Special Needs and Rehabilitation, Faculty of Arts and Humanities and Faculty of Social Sciences. The six schools where the full-time academic staffs were drawn from for this study were; School of Education, School of Management and Entrepreneurship, School of Built Environment, School of Art and Industrial Design, School of Computing and Information Science and School of Vocational Studies.

3.5 Sample Size

The target sample size comprised 201 full-time academic staff out of 415 academic staff arrived at based on the table for defining sample size from a given study population as developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). Further, the sample size was based on the Krejcie and Morgan's table for sample size determination (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970) because the table provides sample sizes for finite populations as was the case of this study. The units of inquiry (research participants) were chosen because they were more qualified to provide pertinent information regarding the study topic, enabling them to provide accurate information on the variable under investigation. However, the actual sample that was used for this study was 156 after removing outliers and the questionnaires that were not filled properly.

3.6 Sample Technique

The study adopted a stratified proportionate sampling strategy to select the study participants. In this study, stratified sampling technique with sample size proportionate to stratum size, was applied to select the academic staff for the study. Using proportionate sampling the academic staffs were first stratified in their departments and faculties or schools basing on the academic ranks for fair and proportionate representation in terms of study variables as indicated in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Study Population, Study Sample and Sampling Technique

School/ Faculty	Population	Sample (Academic staff)	Sampling Technique
Engineering	33	16	Stratified proportionate
Science	79	39	Stratified proportionate
Agriculture	16	08	Stratified proportionate
Special Needs and Rehabilitation	30	15	Stratified proportionate
Arts and Humanities	61	30	Stratified proportionate
Social Sciences	48	24	Stratified proportionate
Education	45	22	Stratified proportionate
Management and Entrepreneurship	36	18	Stratified proportionate
School of Built Environment	18	09	Stratified proportionate
Industrial Art and Design	14	07	Stratified proportionate
Computing and Information Science	12	06	Stratified proportionate
Vocational Studies	13	06	Stratified proportionate
Total	415	201	

Source: KyU Human Resource Staff List (2022).

Table 3.1 shows the total number of full-time academic staff, the faculties and schools of Kyambogo University from which the study sample was drawn, as well as the sampling techniques used to determine the study sample size.

3.7 Measurement of Variables and Data Collection Instruments

As shown in Table 3.2, the study used a Self-Administered Questionnaire (SAQ) to collect data using instruments that were adopted and modified from earlier researchers. Already existing

reliabilities and validities of variables were guaranteed instruments by the previous scholars; the variables were expected to be valid too.

Table 3.2

Operationalization of Variables, Instrument, their Sources and Reliability

Variable	Nature of variable	Indicators	Source & Reliability
Organisation commitment	Dependent	NC, AC and CC	Allen & Meyer (1996), (17) items, $\alpha=0.790$.
Leadership behaviours	Independent	Directive, supportive, participative & Achievement oriented	Yan-Li & Hassan (2018), 20 items, $\alpha=0.87$
Emotional Intelligence	Moderator	Self-awareness (S) Self-Management (SM) Social-awareness (SA) Relationship-management (RM)	Okpara & Agwu (2015), 8 items, $\alpha= 0.726$. Zhou & Ee (2012), 15 items, $\alpha=0.76$
Job Satisfaction	Mediator	Intrinsic and extrinsic	Martins & Proença (2012), 17 items, $\alpha=0.91$

3.8 Data Collection Instrument

The self-administered questionnaire (SAQ) was utilized in the study to gather information from participants. The SAQ had sections such as A, B, C and D. Section A was on respondent's characteristics which included respondents' sex, marital status, academic rank, time spent while teaching at the university, the academic rank and highest academic qualification. Section B on organisational commitment (DV) with the indicators namely affective, continuance and normative commitment. Section C was on leadership behaviours (IV) with indicator namely; directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours. Section D was on job satisfaction (ME) and included intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Section E was

on emotional intelligence (MO) with self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management.

3.9 Common Method Data Bias Control

Common Method Bias (CMB) refers to the variations caused by instruments rather than the actual predisposition of the respondents that the instruments attempt to measure (Ferahtia, 2021). Common method bias is one of the key conditions which may undermine the validity of results (Podsakoff et al., 2010). To ensure that there were no measurement errors due to high exposure to potential biases, the researcher ensured that there was no item complexity and/or ambiguity by developing items that were as clear, concise and specific as possible to measure study constructs. The researcher also followed Podsakoff et al. (2003) suggestion of respondents' anonymity to reduce evaluation apprehension. Further, the questionnaire items were adapted meaning they had been already tested by previous scholars. In addition, the researcher avoided use of words with multiple meanings, technical jargon and unfamiliar or infrequently used words as advised by Gorrel et al. (2011). Further, there was altering of scale anchors in the questionnaire to overcome common methods data bias recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2010). This enabled controlling of common data bias.

3.10 Research Procedure

The proposal was presented before the school of Education Higher Degree Committee of Kyambogo University and approved. Thereafter, ethical approval was sought from Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (UNCST) which provided a go ahead to proceed to the field to collect data. Thereafter, an introductory letter was given by the Dean Graduate

School of Kyambogo University to collect data. The researcher personally collected all the data from the full time academic staff of Kyambogo University.

3.11 Data Quality Control

3.11.1 Quality of Data Instruments. Data quality was attained through validity and reliability tests. These ensured that accurate and consistent data were collected from the study participants.

3.11.2 Validity. The study ensured that the instruments measured the constructs they were intended to test by establishing the content validity of the instruments in relation to the study variables. Validity tests included calculating Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Discriminant Validity, Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Factor Analysis using Structural Equation Modelling. Discriminant validity means the extent to which the construct differs from one another empirically. Consequently, assessment of discriminant validity is a must in any investigation that involves latent variables along with the use of several items and indicators representing the constructs (Ab Hamid et al., 2017).

Discriminant validity was utilised in this study to ensure that the latent constructs used to measure the casual link between the variables under examination were actually different from one another and were not measuring the same thing, which may have caused multicollinearity. Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlation was used because of its superior performance that enables it to attain higher specificity and sensitivity rates (97%-99%) as compared to factor-loading (0.00%) and Fornell-Larcker (20.82%) as postulated by Ab Hamid et al. (2017). Further, Heterotrait–Monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations was calculated because it facilitated in assessing a reflectively measured construct’s discriminant validity in comparison with other

construct measures in the same model. This aided in establishing whether the indicators of a construct actually caused the same.

Table 3.3

Testing the Discriminant Validity of the Research Variables using the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Discriminant Assessment

OC	AC	CC	NC		
AC					
CC	0.266				
NC	0.408	0.653			
LB	AO	DL	PL	SL	
AO	0.432				
DL	0.768	0.769			
PL	0.794	0.465	0.909		
SL	0.458	0.629	0.908	0.703	
JS	EJ	IJ			
EJ	0.242				
IJ	0.852	0.785			
EI	RM	S	SM	SA	
RM	0.746				
S	0.295	0.329			
SM	0.323	0.198	0.765		
SA	0.482	0.776	0.306	0.780	

Key: OC = Organisational Commitment; AC= Affective Commitment; CC=Continuance Commitment; NC= Normative Commitment; LB= Leadership Behaviours; AC=Affective Commitment; DL= Directive Leadership; PL=Participative Leadership; SL = Supportive Leadership; JS= Job Satisfaction; EJ= Extrinsic Job Satisfaction; IJ= Intrinsic Job Satisfaction; EI= Emotional Intelligence; RM= Relationship-Management; S= Self-management; SA= Social- Awareness.

The test findings in Table 3.3 demonstrate that the Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) conditions was met because they did not exceed 0.90 (Henseler et al., 2015). The measurements were therefore discriminately valid. Further, the Convergent Validity which refers to the assessment that measures the level of correlation of multiple indicators of the same

construct that are in agreement was established by Composite Reliability (CR) and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was used to measure convergent validity which revealed the variations in the items that were explained by the constructs. In this study, the AVE values were greater than the acceptable threshold of 0.5 confirming convergent validity (Alarcón et al., 2015).

Table 3.4

Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Organisational Commitment		Leadership Behaviours		Job Satisfaction		Emotional Intelligence	
Construct	AVE	Construct	AVE	Construct	AVE	Construct	AVE
AC	1.087	AOL	0.610	EJ	0.507	RM	0.557
CC	1.257	DL	0.617	IJ	0.571	S	0.603
NC	1.350	PL	0.514			SM	0.586
		SL	0.554			SA	0.608

Table 3.4 shows the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each construct and the dimension. All constructs had AVE values greater than the acceptable threshold of 0.5 confirming the convergent validity (Alarcón et al., 2015). To further ensure that the constructs were independent, Factor Analysis was carried out on the indicators of the different constructs measuring the study variables using structural equation modelling. All those indicators with values above 0.50 were considered valid measures of the constructs (Hair Jr et al., 2020). The factors loadings are indicated in appropriate sections in chapter four of the study (Figures 4.5, 4.11, 4.12, 4.16, 4.17, 4.18, 4.24 & 4.25).

3.11.3 Reliability. Reliability refers to the consistency and dependability of a construct's measures, or how reliably they measure what they are supposed to be measuring (Kubai, 2016). Ahmed and Ishtiaq (2021) indicate that it is the uniformity of a method in measuring a construct. Thus, measurement is reliable when the same results are consistently obtained by applying the same methodology under similar conditions. In this investigation, Composite Reliability (CR) and Cronbach Alpha (α) were used to determine the internal consistency of the measurement tool.

Composite reliability (construct reliability) refers to a measure of internal consistency in scale items. Thus, reliability of a construct should be at least 0.70 (Dash & Paul, 2021). On the other hand, Cronbach Alpha is a statistic tool which demonstrates that the tests and metrics developed or used in research initiatives are appropriate (Taber, 2018). In testing reliability, the Composite Reliability (CR) was preferred reason being that Cronbach Alpha has limitations of assuming that all indicator traits are the same in the study population thus, lowering the reliability values. Further, Cronbach's Alpha is sensitive to the number of items on the scale and typically underestimates the reliability of internal consistency (Hair Jr. et al., 2014). However, Composite Reliability is liberal because it considers the external characteristics of the indicator variables (Dash & Paul, 2021).

Table 3.5

Composite Reliability and Cronbach's Alpha for the Study Constructs

Organisational Commitment	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	Composite Reliability
Affective Commitment	0.813	0.859
Continuance Commitment	0.774	0.838
Normative Commitment	0.591	0.754
Achievement-Oriented	0.838	0.886
Directive	0.875	0.906
Participative	0.838	0.880
Supportive	0.899	0.918
Extrinsic	0.829	0.875
Intrinsic	0.748	0.841
Relationship-Management	0.602	0.790
Self-awareness	0.779	0.858
Self-management	0.762	0.849
Social-awareness	0.837	0.885

Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliability results for the study constructs are presented in Table 3.4. The findings demonstrate that all of the values for the composite reliability used to measure the reliability of all the constructs were above 0.7, indicating a sufficient degree of reliability for the items that measured the constructs. This is because according to Lai (2021), the minimum level of composite reliability is 0.70.

3.12 Data Management

The data collected were managed through two processes namely; data processing and data management.

3.12.1 Data Processing

The data were processed to make them amenable for analysis. The procedure for data processing included coding, data entry into the computer using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (IBM statistics SPSS Version 24.0), data presentation and screening, management of missing data, outlier detection, treatment and diagnostic testing.

3.12.1.1 Missing Value Analysis

Missing data means the data value that is not scored for a variable in the observation of interest (Kang, 2014). As suggested by Dong and Peng (2013), missing data may occur either at the unit level or at the item level. Non-response at the unit level happens when no data is gathered from a respondent (a respondent may refuse to take a survey) while at the item level, the term non-response describes the incomplete data gathered from a respondent (respondent may miss one or two questions on a survey but answer the rest). In this study, missing data were observed at an item level. Missing data analysis was carried out to evaluate the amount and pattern of missing values so as to determine whether research results could be generalized and as well as to reduce the potential of biased results.

The problem of missing data creates a challenge because it influences selection of statistical data, method of analysis to be used and can as well undermine the confidence of analysis hence reducing the statistical power (Curley et al, 2019). In this study, results 25 (25.25%) of the variables were incomplete while 74 (74.75%) complete. Further, the results revealed that 33 (18.86%) cases were incomplete, yet 142 (81.14%) were complete. Finally, the results also indicated that 49 (0.283%) values were incomplete and 17,276 (99.72%) of the

The data patterns in the Figure 3.2 show incomplete data for each group of respondents. Each pattern indicates a cluster of respondents who had missing values on a specific variable. However, missing data were randomly distributed hence missing completely at random. Data missing completely at random (MCAR) describes that missingness of data is not dependent on the variable's indicators (Woods et al, 2021). Kang (2013) describe missing completely at random (MCAR) to refer to the probability that data missingness is not linked to either the specific value which is supposed to be obtained or the set of observed responses. In other words, incomplete data is not left out by respondent because of common reason such as, fear to address specific question in the data. The statistical benefit of data that are MCAR is that the analysis remains unbiased and as such, does not affect the statistical power. When data are at MCAR, the data which remains can be taken as a simple random sample of the entire data set.

Since the data were missing at MCAR, replacement of missing values was done. Missing values had to be replaced because they were likely to lead to a lesser sample size than what was planned, resulting into biased parameter estimates, information loss and reduced statistical power (Kwak & Kim, 2017). In this study, the results generated indicated that the missing data was at 5%. Thus, data missed completely at random (MCAR). Thus, this implied that the missing values posed less threat to statistical inferences than if they were data missing at random (MAR) or missing not at random (MNAR). There are different methods of data replacement such as listwise deletion and pairwise deletion, but these two were not adopted. This was because listwise excludes all respondents with missing data from the statistical analyses and pairwise deletion computes each covariance or correlation from the cases with observed values on both variables if applied under MAR and MCAR biased results might be obtained.

Although pairwise deletion was considered less wasteful than listwise deletion, its applicability is limited to analyses that can work around the missing values by using a variable-by-variable basis which may cause statistical analyses to be biased. From a theoretical perspective, multiple imputation was preferred over the two methods as it was considered to be more appropriate more specifically the series mean imputation (Ginkel et al., 2020). Series mean imputation assumes that the mean of a variable is the suitable estimate for any case that has missing data on the variable. Thus, it imputes each missing value with the mean of known values for the same variable if data are missing completely at random. This helped to ensure that there was no data bias hence data could be used for further analyses.

3.12.1.2 Outlier Analysis. An outlier refers to the extreme scores to all questions or extreme response to certain questions (Hair et al., 2014). Mahatpatra et al. (2020) indicate that outliers are observations which are different from the majority of other cases in a sample. As such, it is important to identify whether observation is a genuine member of the study sample or a contamination from a different source. Ridzuan and Zainon (2022) posit that an outlier exhibits a deviation from the distribution behaviour of the remainders that make up a statistical sample. In this study, outliers included data values that deviated from the distribution of values in a column of a table. Therefore, handling of outliers provides intriguing insight about the data under investigation and reinforces one's confidence in conclusions obtained from the data set. Hair et al. (2014) opine that the first step to deal with outliers is to identify them. In this, study boxplots were used to facilitate the identification of outliers by respondent number as indicated in Figure 3.4 and Figure 3.5.

3.13.1 Normality Test

Prior to performing a statistical test, it is necessary to evaluate the normality of the study's data. This is because normal data is the underlying premise in parametric testing (Mishra et al., 2019). Thus, it is essential to test for normality of data before any formal statistical analysis is carried on to avoid drawing wrong conclusions (Das & Imon, 2016). When determining if data is normal, researchers look at its Skewness, Kurtosis, histogram, normality curve and scatter plot for the variables' data under investigation. Skewness is a metric for symmetry, or more specifically, absence of symmetry. If a distribution or data set appears the same to the left and right of the center point, it is said to be symmetric; it may also be positive or negative.

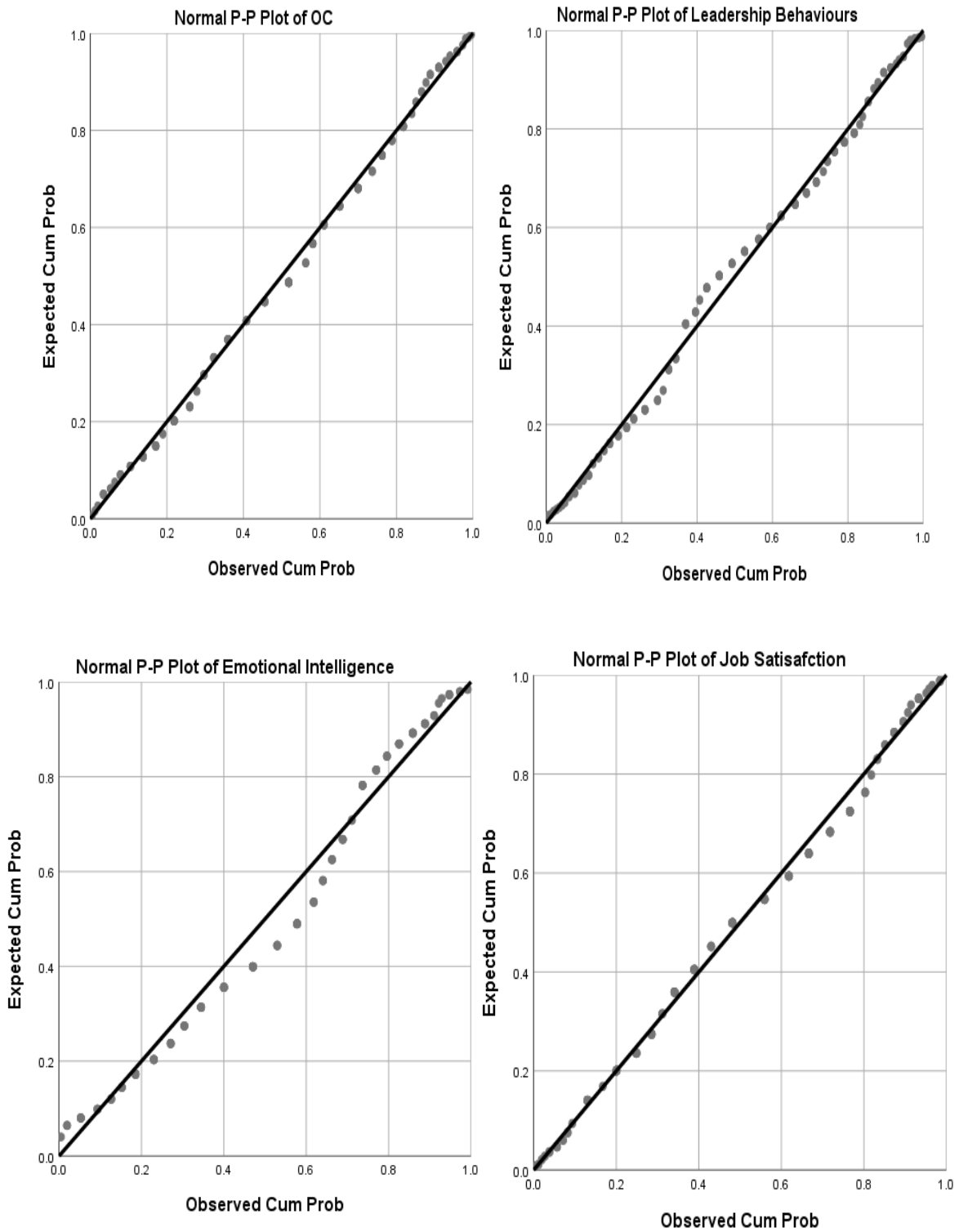
Kurtosis is a parameter that specifies the shape of the probability distribution of a random variable; it can be either high or low. The objective of the test for normalcy is to determine whether the score distribution on the variables is normal; if not, the results could be unreliable. If the values of both Skewness and Kurtosis are close to zero, a distribution is deemed to be normal (Ho & Yu, 2015). The results of tests on the data's linearity and normality showed that they were suitable for inferential analysis specifically partial least square structural equation modelling. The assumption of normality in the data was tested using two different techniques; the normal P-P plot and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. The outcomes indicated that data were normally distributed as indicated below.

3.13.2 Normality Tests

P-P Plots for organisational commitment, leadership behaviours, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence were created. They are presented here under (Figures 3.7-3.11).

Figures 3.7-3.10, 3.8-3.10, 3.9-3.10, 3.10-3.10

Normality P-P Plots



Key: P-P = Probability-Probability Plots or Per centile-Per centile Plots

The P-P plots in Figures 3.7-3.10, 3.8-3.10, 3.9-3.10, 3.10-3.10 show that data used in this study was normal because most of the dots lied along the straight line even though slight deviations were displayed. This therefore, implied that the data used was fit for further statistical analyses because the assumptions of normality using normal P-P plots was realized and justifiable.

3.13.3 Normality and Homogeneity of Variance

Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests for normality were employed to examine whether the distribution in the data utilized in this investigation deviated from a comparable normal distribution. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test compares the sampled scores to a group of scores that are normally distributed with mean and standard deviation values. If the test indicates non-significant result ($P > .05$), the sample's distribution is not statistically different from a normal distribution. The outcomes are shown in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6

Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test for Normality

Constructs	Kolmogorov-Smirnov^a		Shapiro-Wilk	
	Statistic	Sig.	Statistic	Sig.
Organisational Commitment	0.068	0.200*	0.993	0.740
Emotional Intelligence	0.119	0.000	0.955	0.000
Job Satisfaction	0.067	0.200*	0.988	0.287
Leadership Behaviours	0.067	0.200*	0.987	0.265

Key: Sig. = Significance

The findings in Table 3.6 show the significant values for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests. However, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was utilized in this study to examine the data's normality. The value for Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were non-significant ($P > .05$) except

for emotional intelligence ($p = 0.00 < 0.05$) indicating that the sample's distribution did not deviate considerably from a normal distribution. Thus, most data met a required normal distribution conditions and was thus, suitable for further statistical test. For emotional intelligence linearity test was done to establish whether the construct was fit for further analysis.

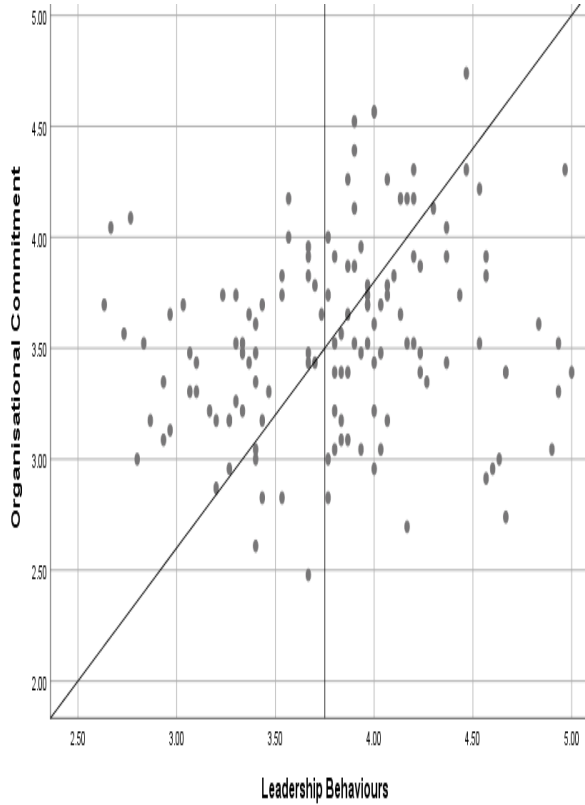
3.13.4 Linearity

The variables under investigation specifically leadership behaviours and organisational commitment, leadership behaviours and job satisfaction, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, emotional intelligence and organisational commitment were tested to see if they fulfilled the assumptions that the relationship between the continuously measured variables is linear as shown in Figures 3.11 and 3.12.

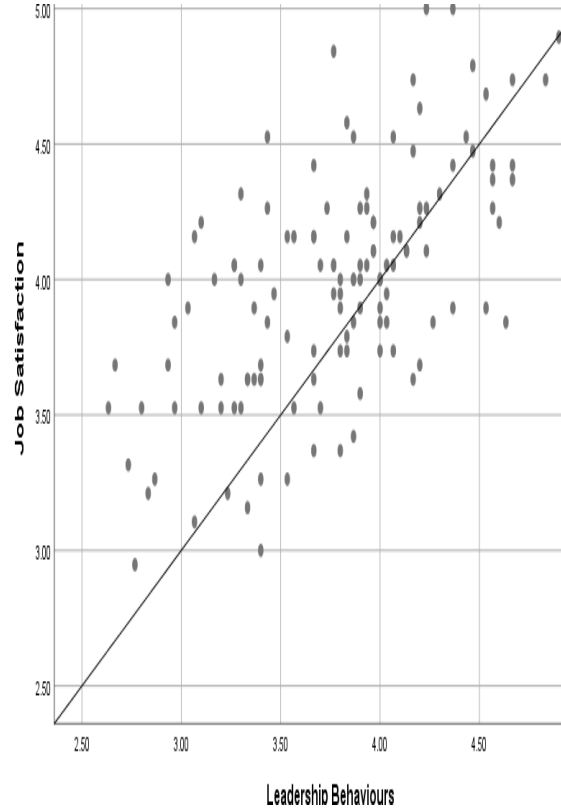
Figures 3.11 and 3.12

Linearity for leadership Behaviours and organisational commitment, Leadership Behaviours and Job Satisfaction

Figures 3.11



Figures 3.12.

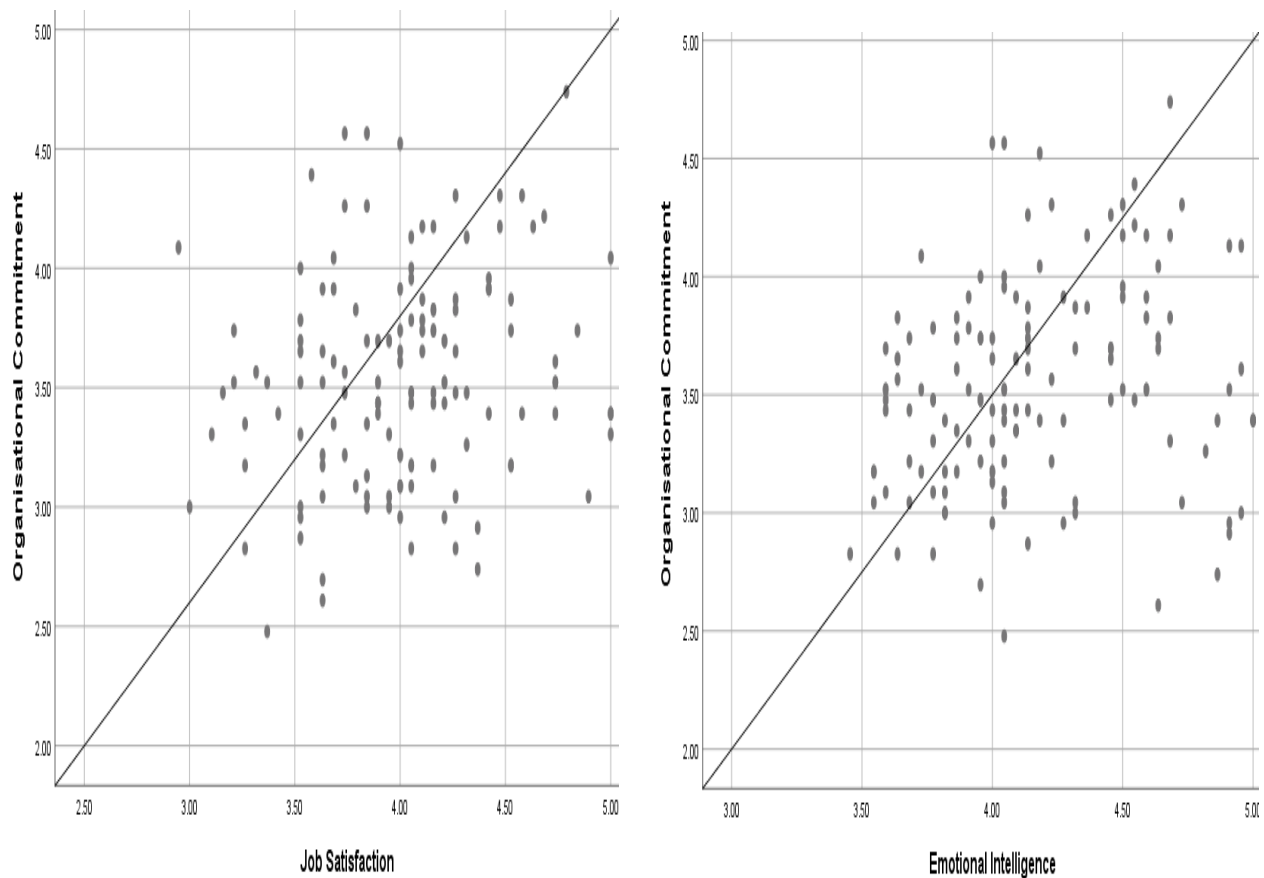


The findings of the scatterplot reveal the connection between the variables under study, specifically the association between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment and the relationship between leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. Majority points on the relationship among the tested variables follow a straight line with mild deviation from linearity. This implies that the relationship among the measured variables was linear. Thus, fit for further analysis specifically structural equation modelling. Further, the relationship between

organisational commitment, emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction were evaluated as shown Figures 3.13 and 3.14.

Figures 3.13 and 3.14

Linearity for Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Emotional Intelligence



The results of the scatterplots in Figures 3.13 and 3.14 show the relationship among the studied variables namely job satisfaction and organisational commitment, emotional intelligence and organisational commitment. Majority of the points on the relationship among the variables follow a straight line with mild deviation from linearity. This implies that the relationship among

the measured variables was linear. Thus, fit for further analysis using partial least square structural equation modelling.

3.13.5 Multicollinearity

Leadership behaviours, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence which were the independent variables of the study were tested to find out whether these independently predicted the dependent variable (organisational commitment). Table 3.7 shows the results of the test.

Table 3.7

Multicollinearity for organisational commitment, leadership behaviours, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence

Organisational Commitment		Leadership Behaviours		Job Satisfaction		Emotional Intelligence	
Construct	VIF	Construct	VIF	Construct	VIF	Construct	VIF
AC	1.087	DL	1.854	EJ	1.030	RM	1.410
CC	1.257	SL	1.542	IJ	1.030	S	1.174
NC	1.350	PL	2.441			SM	1.233
		AO	2.037			SA	1.347

Key: VIF = Variance Inflation Factor

The test results in Table 3.7 show that there was no collinearity (high correlation) between the independent variables because values for variance inflation factor (VIF), the standard metric for measuring collinearity were above 0.5 for all the constructs as recommended by Hair et al. (2021). Thus, this meant that the independent variables namely leadership behaviours, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence could independently predict the dependent variable

(organisational commitment). Even the dimensions of the dependent variable (affective, continuance and normative commitment) independently predicted it.

3.14 Data Analysis

Descriptive and inferential analyses were used in quantitative data analysis. Descriptive analysis and calculation of frequency, percentage, Skewness and mean were carried out using SPSS, a tool used by researchers for quantitative data analysis in social science research. For inferential data analysis, partial least square structural equation modelling was utilized. This is because the tool helped to describe relationships between the variables and indicators by providing the path model (Akter et al., 2017). Using structural equation modelling (SEM), the study tested the hypotheses to establish the relationships between the study variables. Structural equation modelling is a multivariate data analysis method for analysing complex relationships among constructs and indicators (Hair et al., 2021). Therefore, structural equation modelling was used because it provided the opportunity to measure unobserved variables with indicators (latent variables) to be described. Further, the study had various constructs and indicators to test the hypotheses and establish the link between the variable by use of path model which necessitated the use of structural equation modelling.

3.15 Research Ethical Considerations

The researcher followed all appropriate ethical standards for conducting the study, including free and informed consent, non-coercive disclaimers, respect for anonymity, confidentiality, privacy, and honesty. To ensure free and informed consent, the investigator informed the study participants of the study's relevance so that they would voluntarily participate in it. For non-

coercive disclaimer, the researcher explained to the academic staff that no penalties were to be extended to those who refused to participate in the study and as such were free not to participate in the study. To ensure respect for anonymity, the investigator ensured that the identity of study subject was not linked to personal responses of the study participants and this was done by not allowing the participants to indicate names or personal information on the questionnaire.

To keep confidentiality, the researcher explained to the study participants that had the liberty to provide or withhold private information as much as they wished during the study. Further, the researcher confirmed to the study participants that would not share private information with a third party without their consent. Additionally, in order to preserve privacy, the researcher let study participants choose when, how much, and under what broad conditions they would provide private information. Further, the researcher acknowledged the source of information used in the study and tried as much as possible to be honest in reporting the study findings. To ensure voluntary participation in the study by the participants, the researcher clearly explained the relevancy of the investigation to study participants. Further, this helped the study participants to understand the benefit of taking part in this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Introduction

The chapter is a presentation, analysis and interpretation the findings of the study on leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff mediated and moderated by job satisfaction. The results include descriptive and partial least squares structural equation models.

4.1 Response and Adjustment Rates

The initial sample determined to provide data for this study were 201 full-time academic staff of Kyambogo University using questionnaire survey. Those who provided the data were 175. However, 12 respondents did not fill all the items for specific constructs in the questionnaire and these were removed from the study as recommended by Hair Jr. et al. (2021). Further, seven items were removed after testing for outliers namely (item 151, 61, 45) for job satisfaction and (item 132, 122, 99, 69) for emotional intelligence. Thus, a total of 156 individual items were considered for analysis which constituted 77.6% which was a sufficient per centage rate as recommended by Pielsticker and Hiebl (2020) who emphasise 50% as the ideal response rate for social science investigations.

4.2 Background Characteristics

This section of the study provides details on the background information of the study participants including the respondents' sex, marital status, academic rank, time spent while teaching at the university, the academic rank and highest academic qualification.

Table 4.1

Respondents' Background Characteristics

Item	Categories	Frequency	Per centage
Sex of Respondents	Male	107	69
	Female	49	31
	Total	156	100
Marital status	Married	134	85.9
	Single	18	11.5
	Cohabiting	04	2.6
	Total	156	100
Academic Ranks	Graduate Fellow	03	1.9
	Assistant Lecturer	64	41
	Lecturer	61	39.1
	Senior Lecturer	21	13.5
	Associate Professor	05	3.2
	Professor	02	1.3
	Total	156	100
Teaching Experience	Less than a year	04	2.6
	1 to 2 Years	09	5.8
	3 to 4 Years	28	17.9
	5 Years and above	115	73.7
	Total	156	100
Highest Academic Qualification	Bachelors' Degree	02	1.3
	Post-Graduate Diploma	02	1.3
	Masters	77	49.4
	PhD	75	48
	Total	156	100

Results on the sex of the respondents show that the larger percentage (69%) were male with female being 31%. Thus, the findings imply that a higher proportion of male academic staff members participated in this study. Nevertheless, both male and female academic staff was considered for the study since the population of female academic staff were equally high. Data on marital status of the respondents show that larger percentage (85.9%) of study participants

were married, 11.5% were single and 2.6% were cohabiting. Thus, academic staffs of the three categories were involved in the study and results were representative of all.

Results of academic rank of academic staff show that a larger percentage (41%) of full-time teaching staff who participated in the study were assistant lecturers, 39.1% were lecturers, 13.5% were senior lecturers followed with associate professors (3.2%), graduate fellows with 2.9% and professors with 1.3%. Thus, results were representative of academic staff of all academic ranks. The results of period spent in teaching at university show that a larger percentage (73.7%) had spent over 5 years and above teaching at the university followed by 17.9% who taught for a period between 3 to 4 years, 5.8% taught for 1 to 2 years, 2.6% taught for less than a year. Thus, the results suggest that academic staff who participated in the study had spent a considerable period of time teaching at university. Results of highest academic qualification show that a larger percentage (49.4%) of the academic staff had Masters' degree, 48% had PhDs, 1.3% had Bachelors' degrees and post-graduate diplomas. Thus, results are generalizable to academic staff with different academic qualifications at university. To find out whether there were variations in commitment of academic staff according to gender; student's t-Test was carried out as indicated in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2.

Student's t Test Results for Gender and Organisational Commitment of Academic staff

Gender	Sample Size	Sample Mean	Sample	t	P
Male	107	3.43	0.49	-0.722	0.472
Female	49	3.49	0.48		

The results in Table 4.2 revealed that on average commitment of female academic staff (mean= 3.49) was slightly higher than that of male (mean = 3.43). The students t-test (-0.722) was negative with the level of significance (0.472) higher than 0.05 ($p>0.05$). Therefore, the commitment level of female academic staff was slightly higher than that of male academic staff. Establish the whether there were variations in organisational commitment of academic staff according to marital status, analysis of variation (ANOVA) was carried out as indicated in Table 4.3

Table 4.3

The ANOVA Results for Marital Status and Organisational Commitment

Categories	N	Mean	Std	F	P
Marriage	134	3.45	0.47	0.761	0.469
Single	18	3.36	0.60		
Cohabiting	4	3.67	0.66		
Total	156	3.45	0.49		

The results in Table 4.3 suggest that the mean score for academic staff that were cohabiting was high (mean = 3.67) followed with the academic staff that were married with mean score (mean = 3.45) and academic staff that were single had low mean score (mean = 3.36). The observed $F=0.761$ with the level of significance ($p= 0.469 > 0.05$). This meant that there was insignificant variation in the commitment level of academic staff in relation to marital status. Establish the whether there were variations in organisational commitment of academic staff according to academic rank, analysis of variation (ANOVA) was also carried out as indicated in Table 4.4

Table 4.4

The ANOVA Results for Academic Rank and Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff

Categories	N	Mean	Std.	F	P
Graduate Fellows	3	3.75	0.11	2.222	0.055
Assistant Lecturers	64	3.52	0.47		
Lecturers	61	3.33	0.48		
Senior Lecturers	21	3.41	0.52		
Associate Professors	5	3.91	0.47		
Professors	2	3.30	0.12		
Total	156	3.45	0.49		

The results in Table 4.4 suggest that the mean score for associate professors was high (mean = 3.91), followed by that of graduate fellows (mean = 3.75) and that of assistant lecturers (mean = 3.52). However, the mean score for professors was low (mean = 3.30) followed with that of lecturers (mean = 3.33) and senior lecturers (mean = 3.41). The observed $F = 2.222$ was large with the level of significance (0.05). This meant that the variation of organisational commitment of academic staff by academic rank was significant. To establish whether there were variations in organisational commitment of academic staff according to the time academic staff served at Kyambogo University, analysis of variation (ANOVA) was also carried out as indicated in Table 4.5

Table 4.5

The ANOVA Results According to the Time Academic Staff Served Kyambogo University

Categories	N	Mean	Std	F	P
Less than a year	4	3.28	0.18	0.346	0.792
1 to 2 years	9	3.33	0.48		
3 to 4 years	28	3.44	0.44		
5 and above years	115	3.46	0.51		
Total	156	3.45	0.49		

The results in Table 4.5 suggest that the mean score for academic staff in relation to the time spent serving at the university was low. The mean score for academic staff that had spent less than a year at the university (mean = 3.28), those between 1 and 2 years had (mean = 3.33). The mean score for academic staff that had spent between 3 to 4 years (Mean = 3.44). On the other hand, the academic staff that had spent 5 and above years had (mean = 3.46). The observed $F=0.346$ with the significant level of $(0.792>0.05)$. This meant that the variation in organisational commitment of academic staff in relation to the period spent at the university was insignificant.

4.3 Descriptive Results for Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment of academic staff was investigated as a three-component model that included affective, continuance and normative commitment. Below follows the results.

4.3.1 Affective Commitment

The concept of affective commitment was studied using eight items. The frequency tables and means are indicated in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6

Descriptive Results for Affective Commitment

Items of Affective Commitment	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Means
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with Kyambogo University	3 (1.9%)	7 (4.5%)	15 (9.6%)	60 (38.5%)	71 (45.5%)	4.21
I enjoy discussing my university with people outside it	7 (4.5%)	5 (3.2%)	5 (3.2%)	62 (39.7%)	77 (49.4%)	4.26
I really feel as if my university's problems are mine Problems are mine	5 (3.2%)	30 (19.2%)	32 (20.5%)	66 (42.3%)	23 (14.7%)	3.46
I feel that I cannot be attached to another university than the university I am working in now	3 (1.9%)	30 (19.2%)	32 (20.5%)	50 (32.1%)	41 (26.3%)	3.62
I feel a strong sense of belonging to my university	-	2 (1.3%)	7 (4.5%)	81 (51.9%)	66 (42.3%)	4.35
I feel like I am part of the family of my university	-	13 (8.3%)	7 (4.5%)	84 (53.8%)	52 (33.3%)	4.12
My university has a great deal of personal meaning for me	-	5 (3.2%)	12 (7.7%)	80 (51.3%)	59 (37.8%)	4.24
I feel emotionally attached to my university	-	15 (9.6%)	16 (10.3%)	87 (55.8%)	38 (24.4%)	3.95

Key: (SD) = Strongly Disagree, (D) = Disagree, (NS) = Not Sure, (A) = Agree, and (SA) = Strongly Agree

The findings in Table 4.6 on whether academic staff remained very happy to spend the rest of their career with the university showed that cumulatively, the bigger percentage (84%) agreed while 9.6 were not sure, and 6.4% disagreed. The mean = 4.21 implied that academic staff accepted that they felt happy to spend the rest of their career with the university. As to whether academic staff enjoyed discussing the university with people outside it, the majority percentage

8(9.1%) of academic staff accepted, 7.7% disagreed, 3.2% were not sure. The mean = 4.26 implied that academic staff enjoyed discussing their university with people outside it.

Regarding whether the academic staff felt that university problems were their own, a higher percentage (57%) of academic staff accepted, 22.4% did not concur and 20.5% were not sure. The mean = 3.46 close to code 4 suggested that academic staff agreed that university problems were their own. About whether academic staff felt that cannot be attached to another university than the university they were working in then, a biggest proportion (58.4%) of the academic staff agreed, while 22.9% did not accept and 20.5% were not sure. High mean = 3.62 close to code 4 revealed that academic staff concurred that they could not be attached to another university than the university they were working in then.

With respect to whether academic staff had a strong sense of belonging to the university, a bigger percentage (94.2%) agreed, 4.5% were not sure, 1.3% did not agreed. The high mean = 4.35 close to code 4 meant that academic staff felt a solid sense of fitting to the university. In line to whether academic staff felt like being part of the family of the university, a larger percentage (87.1%) agreed, 8.3 did not agree, and 4.5% were not sure. The high mean = 4.12 close to code 4 meant that academic staff felt like being part of the family of the university. About whether the University had excessive deal of individual meaning to academic staff, highest per centage (89.1%) agreed, 7.7% was not sure, 3.2% did not agree. High mean = 4.24 close to code 4 implied that the University obligated excessive deal of private meaning to academic staff. Further, on whether respondents felt emotionally attached to the university, majority percentage (80.2%) agreed, 10.3% were not sure, 9.6% did not accept. The mean = 3.95 implied that academic staff felt emotionally attached to the university. To find out how participants ranked

their affective commitment, the average index was computed for the eight items that measured the concept. Table 4.7 gives its pertinent results.

Table 4.7

Summary Results for Affective Commitment

Descriptives		Statistic	Std. Error
Affective	Mean	4.03	0.05
Commitment	95% Confidence Interval	Lower Bound	3.93
	for Mean	Upper Bound	4.12
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.05	
	Median	4.13	
	Variance	0.34	
	Std. Deviation	0.58	
	Minimum	2.50	
	Maximum	5.00	
	Range	2.50	
	Interquartile Range	0.88	
	Skewness	-0.64	0.19
	Kurtosis	-0.02	0.39

The Table 4.7 indicate a mean = 4.03 close to median 4.13, with a negative skew (skew = -0.64). This suggested normal distribution of the results. High mean meant that academic staff at the university rated their affective commitment to be high. The low standard deviation = 0.58 also indicated that responses were normally distributed. Figure 4.1 shows the results as displayed by the normal curve.

Table 4.8

Descriptive Results for Continuance Commitment

Items of Continuance Commitment	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Means
I am afraid of what might happen if I quit this university without having another one lined up	24 (15.4%)	38 (24.4%)	33 (21.3%)	41 (26.3%)	20 (12.8%)	2.97
I continue to work for this university as a matter of necessity	21 (13.5%)	46 (29.5%)	26 (16.7%)	41 (26.3%)	22 (14.1%)	2.98
It would be very hard for me to leave this university right now even if I wanted to	26 (16.7%)	46 (29.5%)	26 (16.7%)	34 (21.8%)	24 (15.4%)	2.91
Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my job in this university now	13 (8.3%)	43 (27.6%)	29 (18.6%)	47 (30.1%)	24 (15.4%)	3.17
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving my university	27 (17.3%)	69 (44.2%)	12 (14.1%)	27 (17.3%)	11 (7.1%)	2.53
If I had not already put too much into this university, I would have considered working else where	25 (16.0%)	61 (39.1%)	24 (15.4%)	30 (19.2%)	16 (10.3%)	2.69
I continue to work for this university because another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here	25 (16.0%)	32 (20.5%)	37 (23.7%)	43 (27.6%)	19 (12.2%)	2.99

The findings in Table 4.8 about whether study participants were worried about what would happen if they left the university without another job lined up revealed that cumulatively, majority percentage (39.8%) disagreed, and 39.1% agreed, while 21.3% were not sure. The mean = 2.97 below average implied that to a less extent academics remained worried of what might take place if they left the university without another job lined up. Concerning respondents'

continual to work with the university as a matter of necessity, a larger percentage (43%) disagreed, 40.4% agreed, while 16.7% were not sure. The mean = 2.98 implied that academic staff continued to work as a matter of necessity. With respect to either it would be difficult for academics to quit the University right then even if they wanted to, a larger percentage (46.2%) disagreed, 37.2% agreed, while 16.7% were not sure. The mean= 2.91 below average implied that to a less extent it would be very difficult for academic staff to quit the university right then even if they desired to.

When asked whether excessive life would be disturbed if academics decided to quit their job, a larger percentage (45.5%) agreed, 35.9% disagreed, 18.6% were not sure. The mean = 3.17 above average meant that too much life may be disturbed if academics chose to quit their job right then. On whether academician felt had too few alternatives to consider quitting the job, a higher proportion (61.5%) disagreed, 24.4% agreed, 14.1% were not sure. The average mean =2.53 being slightly below average meant that academic staff felt had too few alternatives to consider quitting the university. Asked if academic staff had not already put too much into the University, they would have considered working elsewhere, a larger percentage (55.1%) disagreed, 29.5% agreed, while 15.4% were not sure. The mean =2.69 below average implied that to a lesser extent, if academic staff had not already put too much into the university, they would have considered working elsewhere.

In respect to whether academic staff continued to work for the university because another organisation may not match the overall benefit they had at the university, a larger percentage (39.8%) agreed, 36.5% disagreed and 23.7% were not sure. The mean =2.99 implied that to a lesser extent academic staff concurred that they continued working for the university because other organisations could not match the total benefit they enjoyed in the university. An

average index was generated for the seven elements measuring continuance commitment to determine how academic staff valued the same. Table 4.9 displays the results in summary.

Table 4.9

Summary Results for Continuance Commitment

Descriptives		Statistic	Std. Error
Continuance	Mean	2.89	0.07
Commitment	95% Confidence Interval	Lower Bound	2.74
	for Mean	Upper Bound	3.02
	5% Trimmed Mean	2.87	
	Median	2.86	
	Variance	0.67	
	Std. Deviation	0.82	
	Minimum	1.00	
	Maximum	4.71	
	Range	3.71	
	Interquartile Range	1.14	
	Skewness	0.17	0.21
	Kurtosis	-0.49	0.41

Table 4.9 reveal a mean = 2.89, a median value = 2.86, and a positive skew (skew = 0.17). The low standard deviation = 0.82 implied normally distribution of the results. The mean = 2.88 just below average suggested that academic staff rated their continuance commitment to be moderate to less extent. The Figure 4.2 shows normal distribution of the results as displayed by normal curve.

4.3.2 Normative Commitment

Normative commitment was studied using eight items. Table 4.10 has descriptive results.

Table 4.10

Descriptive Results for Normative Commitment

Items of Normative Commitment	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Means
I feel that people these days move from organisation to organisation too often	14 (9.0%)	47 (30.1%)	48 (30.8%)	35 (22.4%)	12 (7.7%)	2.90
I believe that I must always be loyal to my university	1 (6.0%)	11 (7.1%)	6 (3.8%)	90 (57.7%)	48 (30.8%)	4.11
Jumping from university to university seems ethical to me	31 (19.9%)	37 (23.7%)	36 (23.1%)	31 (23.1%)	16 (10.3%)	2.80
I believe loyalty is important and thus i feel a sense of moral obligation to remain with this university	7 (4.5%)	12 (7.7%)	32 (20.5%)	76 (48.7%)	29 (18.6%)	3.69
If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would feel right to leave this university	4 (2.6%)	32 (20.5%)	28 (17.9%)	59 (37.8%)	33 (21.2%)	3.54
Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers	7 (4.5%)	30 (19.2%)	47 (30.1%)	44 (28.2%)	28 (17.9%)	3.36
I believe in the value of remaining loyal to my university	-	4 (2.6%)	15 (9.6%)	81 (51.9%)	56 (35.9%)	4.21
I think being a “university man” or “university woman” is still very sensible	1 (0.6%)	9 (5.8%)	17 (10.9%)	78 (50.0%)	51 (32.7%)	4.08

The findings in Table 4.10 regarding academic staff's perceptions of how frequently people these days switch jobs show that, a higher per centage (39.1%) disagreed, 30.8% were not sure, while

30.1% agreed. The average mean = 2.90 meant that academic staff accepted that employees now days move from one organisation to the next too often. In respect whether academic staff believed that they had to always be loyal to the university, a bigger proportion (88.5%) concurred, 13.1% did not concur and 3.8% were not sure. The mean = 4.11 corresponded with agreed implied that academic staff thought that they needed to always be loyal to the University. With respect to whether jumping from university to university seemed ethical to academic staff, a larger percentage (43.6%) disagreed, 33.4% agreed and 23.1% were not sure. The mean = 2.80 just below average meant that to a less extent, academic staff felt that jumping from university to university seemed not ethical to them.

Regarding whether academic staff thought that loyalty was important, they felt obliged to continue serving the university, a higher proportion (67.3%) concurred, and 20.5% were not, while 12.2% did not concur. The mean = 3.69 meant that academic staff thought that loyalty was important thus, they felt obliged to continue serving the university. Asked if academic staff received another opportunity for a better job in another place, they would feel right to quit the university, a bigger proportion (59%) accepted, 23.1% did not concur, and 17.9% were not sure. The mean = 3.54 meant that academic staff felt that would leave the university if they received the opportunity of a better paying job in another place. When asked if things were better when employees would stay with one organisation for most of the career, a higher proportion (46.1%) concurred, 30.1% were not sure, 23.7% did not concur. Mean =3.36 implied that academic staff concurred that things were better when employees stayed with one organisation throughout the career.

Regarding whether academic staff accepted the value of remaining faithful to the University, a larger proportion (87.8%) accepted, 9.6% were not sure, 2.6% did not concur. The

mean = 4.21 implied that academic staff accepted the value of remaining trustworthy to the university. The academic staff thinking that being a “university man” or “university woman” was still highly sensible, a bigger fraction (82.7%) concurred, 10.9% were not sure, and 6.4% did not agree. The mean = 4.08 meant that academic staff accepted that being a “university man” or a “university woman” was highly sensible. An average index was generated for the eight elements measuring normative commitment to determine how academic staff valued the same. Table 4.11 displays the results in summary.

Table 4.11

Summary Results for Normative Commitment

		Descriptives	Statistic	Std. Error
Normative	Mean		3.59	0.04
Commitment	95% Confidence Interval	Lower Bound	3.51	
	for Mean	Upper Bound	3.66	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.60	
	Median		3.63	
	Variance		0.22	
	Std. Deviation		0.46	
	Minimum		2.38	
	Maximum		4.75	
	Range		2.38	
	Interquartile Range		0.63	
	Skewness		-0.21	0.19
	Kurtosis		0.63	0.39

The findings in Table 4.11 revealed a mean = 3.59, close to a median = 3.63 and a negative skew (skew= -0.21). The low standard deviation = 0.46 implied normally distribution of the data. The

4.4 Organisational Commitment Index

To test the how overall the academic staff rated their organisational commitment to the university, an average index was created for three aspects measuring the concept that are affective (AC1-AC8), continuance commitment (CC1-CC7), normative commitment (NC1-NC8). Table 4.12 indicate the summary of results.

Table 4.12

Summary Results for Organisational Commitment

		Descriptive	Statistic	Std. Error
Organisational	Mean		3.53	0.04
Commitment	95% Confidence Interval	Lower Bound	3.46	
	for Mean	Upper Bound	3.40	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.52	
	Median		3.52	
	Variance		0.19	
	Std. Deviation		0.44	
	Minimum		2.48	
	Maximum		4.74	
	Range		2.26	
	Interquartile Range		0.65	
	Skewness		0.18	0.19
	Kurtosis		-0.21	0.39

The findings in Table 4.12 reveal a mean = 3.53 and a median = 3.52 and positive skew (skew = 0.18) meaning that data were normally distributed. The high mean implied that academic staff rated their organisational commitment to be high. The low standards deviation = 0.44 also

highly. Normative commitment had five out of eight items measuring the construct that loaded. However, the three items (NC1, NC3, NC5) did not load above the minimum value and were removed. Thus, the items that were maintained for respective constructs in the model had valid measures of the constructs. On the other hand, items dropped were excluded from subsequent analyses.

4.5 Predicting Organisational Commitment using Leadership Behaviours

Leadership behaviours of academic staff were studied in four concepts of directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours. Below follow results on the four concepts.

4.5.1 Directive Leadership Behaviours

The concepts of directive leadership behaviours were studied using six items. Table 4.13 show descriptive results

Table 4.13

Descriptive Results for Directive Leadership Behaviours

Items of Directive Leadership Behaviours	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Means
My superiors let me know what is expected of me	-	10 (6.4%)	16 (10.3%)	92 (59.0%)	38 (24.4%)	4.01
My superiors in this university let me know how a role should be performed	1 (0.6%)	17 (10.9%)	23 (14.7%)	83 (53.2%)	23 (20.5%)	3.82
My superiors ask me to follow standard rules and regulations	-	9 (5.8%)	14 (9.0%)	94 (60.3%)	39 (25.0%)	4.04
My superiors explain to me the level of performance that is expected of me	1 (0.6%)	13 (8.3%)	13 (8.3%)	89 (57.1%)	40 (25.6%)	3.99
My superiors give clear explanations of what is expected of me on the job	-	11 (7.1%)	22 (14.1%)	81 (51.9%)	42 (26.9%)	3.99
My superiors set goals for me to achieve in this university	1 (0.6%)	14 (9.0%)	12 (7.7%)	88 (56.4%)	41 (26.3%)	3.99

The findings in Table 4.13 on if superiors let academics know what is expected of them indicated that cumulatively, a larger proportion (83.0%) of the study participants concurred, 10.3% were not sure, 6.4% did not agreed. The mean = 4.01 implied that academic staff accepted that their superiors let them know what was expected of them. With respect to whether superiors let academic staff know how a role should be performed revealed that, a larger percentage (73.7%) agreed, 14.7% were not sure, while 12.5% disagreed. The man = 3.82 clos to code 4 on the scale used corresponded with agreed meant that academic staff agreed that their superiors in the university let them know how a role should be performed. Regarding whether superiors asked academic staff to adhere to standard rules and regulations show that, a biggest proportion

(85.3%) accepted, 9.0% were not sure and 5.8% did not concur. The high mean = 4.04 meant that respondents concurred that superiors asked them to adhere to standard rules and regulations.

Regarding whether superiors explained to academic staff the performance level that was expected of them indicated that, majority percentage (82.7%) agreed, 8.9% disagreed and 8.3% were not sure. The mean = 3.99 corresponded with agreed meant that superiors explained to academic staff the performance level that was expected of them. On whether superiors gave clear clarifications of what was expected of academic staff on job revealed that, a higher proportion (78.8%) accepted, 14.1% were not sure, while 7.1% did not concur. The mean = 3.99 meant that respondents accepted that academic staff agreed that superiors gave clear clarifications of what was anticipated of them on the job.

Regarding whether superiors set goals for academic staff to achieve in the university revealed that, a larger percentage (82.7%) agreed, 9.6% disagreed, while 7.7% were not sure. The mean = 3.99 matched with agreed meant that superiors set goals for academic staff to achieve in the University. To establish how academic staff rated directive leadership behaviours of their superiors, for the six items that evaluated the concept, the average index was produced. Table 4.14 displays the final results in summary.

Table 4.14

Summary Results for Directive Leadership Behaviour

		Descriptive	Statistic	Std. Error
Directive	Mean		3.97	0.05
Leadership	95% Confidence Interval	Lower Bound	3.87	
Behaviours	for Mean	Upper Bound	4.08	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.99	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.43	
	Std. Deviation		0.65	
	Minimum		2.33	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		2.67	
	Interquartile Range		0.67	
	Skewness		-0.33	0.19
	Kurtosis		-0.13	0.39

The findings in Table 4.14 indicated a mean = 3.97, a median =4.00 and a negative skew (skew = -0.33) which implied normal distribution of results. High mean meant that academic staff rated the directive leadership behaviours of their superiors to be high. The low standard deviation = 0.65 also indicated normal distribution of the responses. The normal distribution of the results is also displayed by the normal curve in Figure 4.6.

Table 4.15

Descriptive Results for Supportive Leadership Behaviours

Items of Supportive Leadership Behaviours	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Means
My superiors maintain a friendly working relationship with me	-	7 (4.5%)	17 (13.5%)	83 (53.5%)	45 (28.8%)	4.06
My superiors do things that make it pleasant to work with them	1 (0.6%)	23 (14.7%)	32 (20.5%)	70 (44.9%)	30 (19.2%)	3.67
My superiors say things that enhance my personal feelings	-	23 (14.7%)	27 (17.3%)	86 (55.1%)	20 (12.8%)	3.66
My superiors help me overcome problems that stop me from carrying out job tasks	-	29 (18.6%)	28 (17.9%)	74 (47.4%)	25 (16.0%)	3.61
My superiors behave in a manner that is thoughtful of my personal needs	-	30 (19.2%)	31 (19.9%)	69 (44.2%)	26 (16.7%)	3.58
My superior encourages me even in difficult situations	3 (1.9%)	18 (11.5%)	25 (16.0%)	82 (52.6%)	28 (17.9%)	3.73
I can rely on my superiors when I ask for help e.g. if things are not going well with me and my colleagues	3 (1.9%)	15 (9.6%)	27 (17.3%)	82 (52.6%)	29 (18.6%)	3.76
My superiors try to understand my point of view when I speak to them	1 (0.6%)	11 (7.1%)	23 (14.7%)	86 (55.1%)	35 (22.4%)	3.92
My superiors say things that inspire me	-	12 (7.7%)	25 (16.0%)	89 (57.1%)	30 (19.2%)	3.88

The results in Table 4.15 regarding whether superiors maintained a friendly working relationship with academic staff revealed that cumulatively, a large per centage (82.3%) agreed, 13.5% were not sure and 4.5% disagreed. The high mean = 4.06 implied that respondents accepted that their superiors maintained a friendly working relationship with them. In respect to whether superiors do things that make it pleasant to work with them revealed that, a larger per centage (64.1%)

agreed, 20.5% were not sure and 15.3% disagreed. The high mean = 3.67 implied that academic staff agreed that their superiors did things that made it pleasant to work with them.

On whether superiors said things that enhanced their personal feelings revealed that, a larger percentage (67.9%) agreed, 17.3% were not sure, while 14.7% did not agree. The mean = 3.66 meant that the study participants concurred that their superiors said things that enhanced their personal feelings. Regarding whether superiors helped academic staff to solve problems that stopped them from executing tasks indicate that, a larger percentage (63.4%) agreed, 18.6% disagreed and 17.9% were not sure. The mean = 3.61 meant that academic staff accepted that their superiors helped them solve problems that stopped them from executing tasks. Regarding whether superiors behaved in a way that was considerate of their individual needs revealed that, majority percentage (60.9%) concurred, 19.9% were not sure, while 19.2% did not accept. The mean = 3.88 implied that academic staff accepted that their superiors behaved in a way that was considerate of their individual needs.

With respect to whether superiors encouraged academic staff even in difficult situation indicated that, a larger percentage (70.5%) agreed, 16.0% were not sure and the 13.4% disagreed. The mean = 3.73 meant that academic staff agreed that their superiors encouraged them even in difficult situation. Regarding whether academic staff could rely on their superiors when they asked for help e.g. if things were not going well with them and their colleagues indicated that, a larger percentage (71.2%) agreed, 17.3% were not sure and 11.5% did not concur. The mean = 3.76 implied that academic staff could rely on their superiors when they asked for help.

Regarding whether superiors tried to understand their point of view (academic staff) when they spoke to them indicated that, a larger percentage (77.5%) agreed, 14.7% were not sure, while 7.7% disagreed. The mean = 3.92 meant that academic staff agreed that their

superiors tried to understand their point of view when they spoke to them. Regarding whether superiors said things that inspire them (academic staff) revealed that, a larger percentage (76.3%) agreed, 16.0% were not sure and 7.7% did not accept. The mean = 3.88 implied that superiors said things that inspired academic staff. To find out how academic staff rated supportive leadership behaviours of their superiors, for the nine items measuring the concept, an average index was determined. Results in summary are displayed in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16

Summary Results for Supportive Leadership Behaviours

		Descriptive	Statistic	Std. Error
Supportive	Mean		3.76	0.05
Leadership	95% Confidence Interval	Lower Bound	3.66	
Behaviours	for Mean	Upper Bound	3.87	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.77	
	Median		3.89	
	Variance		0.45	
	Std. Deviation		0.67	
	Minimum		2.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		3.00	
	Interquartile Range		.97	
	Skewness		-0.10	0.19
	Kurtosis		-0.51	0.39

The findings in Table 4.16 indicated a mean = 3.76, a median = 3.89 and a negative skew (skew = -0.10) implied normal distribution of data. The high mean also meant that academic staff rated supportive leadership behaviours of their superiors as high. The low standard deviation = 0.67

4.5.3 Participative leadership behaviours

The concept of participative leadership behaviours was studied using ten items. Descriptive results are revealed in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17

Descriptive Results for Participative Leadership Behaviours

Items Participative Leadership Behaviours	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Means
My superiors consult with me when facing a problem	1 (0.6%)	31 (19.9%)	27 (17.3%)	72 (46.2%)	25 (16.0%)	3.57
My superiors listen receptively to my ideas and suggestions	-	19 (12.2%)	22 (14.1%)	81 (51.9%)	34 (21.8%)	3.83
My superiors always consult me	3 (1.9%)	30 (19.2%)	30 (19.2%)	66 (42.3%)	27 (17.3%)	3.54
My superiors ask for suggestions concerning how to carry out assignments	3 (1.9%)	27 (17.3%)	26 (16.7%)	78 (50.0%)	22 (14.1%)	3.57
My supervisors ask me for suggestions on what assignments should be done	2 (1.3%)	32 (20.5%)	32 (20.5%)	70 (44.9%)	20 (12.9%)	3.47
My superiors listen receptively to ideas and suggestions of subordinates	2 (1.3%)	19 (12.2%)	33 (21.2%)	74 (47.4%)	28 (17.8%)	3.47
My superiors consider suggestions of members even when they disagree with them	1 (0.6%)	19 (12.2%)	43 (27.6%)	71 (45.5%)	22 (14.1%)	3.60
In this university superiors promote open and honest self-expression	4 (2.6%)	25 (16.0%)	39 (25.0%)	73 (46.8%)	15 (9.6%)	3.45
My superior involves staff members in different administrative activities	3 (1.9%)	18 (11.5%)	21 (13.5%)	82 (52.6%)	32 (20.5%)	3.80
My superiors use suggestions of members as they make decisions	2 (1.3%)	20 (12.8%)	42 (26.9%)	67 (42.9%)	25 (16.0%)	3.60

The findings in Table 4.17 regarding whether superiors of academic staff consulted with them when facing a problem revealed that cumulatively, a larger percentage (62.2%) agreed, 20.5% disagreed and 17.3% were not certain. The mean = 3.57 meant that academic staff accepted that their superiors consulted with them when facing a problem. With respect to whether superiors listened receptively to the ideas and suggestions of academic staff revealed that, a larger percentage (73.7%) agreed, 14.1% were not certain while 12.2% did not concur. The high mean = 3.83 meant that academic staff approved that their superiors listened receptively to their ideas and suggestions.

Regarding whether superiors always consulted academic staff indicated that, a larger percentage (59.6%) agreed, 21.1% disagreed 19.2% were not sure. The mean = 3.54 implied that academic staff agreed that their superiors always consulted them. Regarding whether superiors asked for suggestions from academic staff concerning how to carryout assignments indicated that, a larger percentage (64.1%) agreed, 19.2% disagreed and 16.7% were not sure. The mean = 3.57 implied that academic staff agreed that their superiors asked for suggestion from them concerning how to carry out assignments. Regarding whether superiors of academic staff asked them for suggestions on what assignments should be done revealed that, a larger percentage (57.8%) agreed, 21.8% disagreed, while 20.5% were not sure. The man = 3.47 meant that academic staff agreed that their superiors asked them for suggestions on what assignments should be done. In respect to whether superiors listen receptively to ideas and suggestions of subordinates indicated that, a larger percentage (65.2%) agreed, 21.2% were not sure and 13.5% did not concur. The high mean = 3.47 implied that academic staff accepted that superiors listened receptively to ideas and suggestions of subordinates.

On whether superiors considered suggestions of members even when they disagreed with them revealed that, majority percentage (59.6%) agreed, 27.6% were not sure and 12.8% disagreed. Mean = 3.60 meant that academic staff agreed that their superiors considered suggestions of members even when they disagreed with them. Regarding whether superiors promoted open and honest self-expression in the university revealed that, a larger portion (56.4%) did not accept, 25.0% were not sure and 18.6% agreed. The mean = 3.45% meant that academic staff agreed that their superiors promoted open and honest self-expression. Regarding whether superiors involved staff members in different administrative activities revealed that, a larger percentage (73.1%) agreed, 13.5% were not sure and, while 13.4% did not accept. The mean = 3.78 meant that academic staff accepted that superiors involved staff members in different administrative activities.

With respect to whether superiors used suggestions of members as they made decisions indicated that cumulatively, a higher percentage (58.9%) accepted, 26.9% were not certain, 14.1% disagreed. The mean = 3.60 indicated that academic staff concurred that superiors used suggestions of members as they made decisions. To find out how academic staff rated participative leadership behaviours of their superiors, the average index was calculated for ten items that measured the same. Table 4.18 show the summary results.

Table 4.18

Summary Results for Participative Leadership Behaviours

		Descriptives	Statistic	Std. Error
Participative	Mean		3.61	0.05
Leadership	95% Confidence Interval	Lower Bound	3.51	
Behaviours	for Mean	Upper Bound	3.71	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.60	
	Median		3.65	
	Variance		0.40	
	Std. Deviation		0.63	
	Minimum		2.30	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		2.70	
	Interquartile Range		0.80	
	Skewness		0.03	0.19
	Kurtosis		-0.64	0.39

The findings in Table 4.18 reveal a mean = 3.61, median = 3.65, positive skew (skew = 0.03) indicating normal distribution of data. High mean also meant that full-time academic staff rated participative leadership behaviours of their superiors to be high. The low standard deviation = 0.63 indicated normal distribution of the responses. The normal distribution of the results is also displayed by the normal curve in Figure 4.8.

4.5.4 Achievement-oriented leadership behaviours

The achievement-oriented leadership behaviours were studied using five items. Table 4.19 show descriptive results.

Table 4.19

Descriptive Results for Achievement-Oriented Leadership Behaviours

Items of Achievement-oriented Behaviours	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Means
My superiors let me know that am expected to perform at their highest level	1 (0.6%)	14 (9.0%)	16 (10.3%)	92 (59.0%)	33 (21.2%)	3.91
My superiors set goals for my performance that are quite challenging	1 (0.6%)	31 (19.9%)	20 (12.8%)	73 (46.8%)	31 (19.9%)	3.65
My superiors encourage continual improvement in my performance	-	10 (6.4%)	16 (10.3%)	90 (57.7%)	40 (25.6%)	4.02
My superiors show confidence in my ability to meet most job objectives	2 (1.3%)	4 (2.6%)	20 (12.8%)	91 (58.3%)	39 (25.9%)	4.03
My superiors consistently set challenging goals for me to attain	3 (1.9%)	30 (19.2%)	27 (17.3%)	69 (44.2%)	27 (17.3%)	3.56

The results in Table 4.19 with respect to whether superiors let academic staff know that they were likely to perform at their best level revealed that cumulatively, a larger percentage (80.2%) agreed, 10.3% were not sure and 9.6% disagreed. The mean = 3.91 implied that academic staff agreed that their superiors let them know that there were expected to perform at their highest level. Regarding whether superiors set goals for the performance of academic staff that were quite challenging indicated that, majority percentage (66.7%) agreed, 20.5% disagreed, while

12.8% were not sure. The mean = 3.65 implied that academic staff agreed that their superiors set goals for their performance that were quite challenging.

With respect to whether superiors encouraged continual improvement in their performance revealed that, a larger percentage (83.3%) agreed, 10.3% were not sure and 6.4% disagreed. The high mean = 4.02 meant that academic staff approved that their superiors encouraged continual improvement in their performance. Regarding whether superiors showed confidence in the ability of academic staff to meet almost all job objectives revealed that, a larger percentage (84.2%) agreed, 12.8% were uncertain, while 3.9% disagreed. The mean = 4.03 implied that academic staff accepted that their superiors showed confidence in the ability of academic staff to meet almost all job objectives. Regarding to whether superiors of continuously set challenging goals for academic staff to achieve indicated that, majority percentage (61.5%) accepted, 21.1% did not agree, while, 17.3% were not sure. The mean = 3.56 signified that academic staff accepted that their superiors consistently set challenging goals for them to attain. To find out how academic staff rated achievement-oriented leadership behaviours of their superiors, the average index was computed for the five items that measured the same. Table 4.20 has the summary of the results.

Table 4.20

Summary Results for Achievement-Oriented Leadership Behaviours

		Descriptives	Statistic	Std. Error
Achievement-	Mean		3.84	0.06
Oriented	95% Confidence Interval	Lower Bound	3.72	
Leadership	for Mean	Upper Bound	3.95	
Behaviours	5% Trimmed Mean		3.85	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.50	
	Std. Deviation		0.70	
	Minimum		2.20	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		2.80	
	Interquartile Range		0.80	
	Skewness		-0.16	0.19
	Kurtosis		-0.45	0.39

The findings in Table 4.20 reveal a mean = 3.84, median = 4.00 and a negative skew (skew = -0.16) implying normal distribution of responses. High mean meant that academic staff rated their superiors' achievement-oriented leadership behaviours to be high. The low standard deviation = 0.70 also indicated normal distribution of the responses. The normal distribution of the results is also displayed by the normal curve in Figure 4.9.

4.5.5 Leadership Behaviours Index

To test how overall the academic staff rated the leadership behaviours of their superiors, an average index was created for three aspects that measured the concept namely; directive (DLB1-BLB6), supportive (SLP1-SLB9), participative (PLB1-PLB10), and achievement-oriented leadership (ALB1-ALB5). Table 4.21 has summary results.

Table 4.21

Summary Results for Leadership Behaviours

		Descriptives	Statistic	Std. Error
Leadership	Mean		3.77	0.04
Behaviours	95% Confidence Interval	Lower Bound	3.68	
	for Mean	Upper Bound	3.85	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.76	
	Median		3.80	
	Variance		0.29	
	Std. Deviation		0.54	
	Minimum		2.63	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		2.37	
	Interquartile Range		0.76	
	Skewness		0.14	0.19
	Kurtosis		-0.40	0.39

The findings in Table 4.21 shows a mean = 3.77, median = 3.80 and a positive skew (skew = 0.14) meaning that results were normally distributed. The high mean also meant that full-time academic staff rated leadership behaviours of their superiors to be high. The low standard

where all the five items measuring the same loaded. Thus, all the items were retained for all the dimensions in the model and as such, were valid measures of the respective leadership behaviours dimensions.

4.6 Predicting Organisational Commitment using Leadership behaviours

The first objective examined whether leadership behaviours are correlate of organisational commitment of full-time academic staff in a public university in Uganda. The null hypothesis to the effect that there is no correlation between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment was tested using structural equation modelling as indicated in Figure 4.12.

The findings in Figure 4.12 indicate correlation between academic staff organisational commitment and leadership behaviours. The four elements of directive, supporting, participative and achievement-oriented were examined in studying leadership behaviours. Using factor analysis all the items that measured leadership behaviours loaded above the minimal validity value of 0.5. Organisational commitment was examined using a three-component approach that encompassed affective, continuance and normative commitment. However, only items that measured affective commitment loaded above the minimum validity value of 0.5 in the test organisational commitment, with the exception of item AC4 (for affective commitment). None of the items that measured normative and continuance commitment loaded higher than the 0.5 minimal validity value and these were eliminated from the model. Thus, only the affective component of organisational commitment was associated to leadership behaviours

Table 4.22

Structural Equation Model for Predicting Organisational Commitment using Leadership Behaviours

Leadership Behaviours and Organisational Commitment	B	Means	STD	t	P
Achievement Oriented → Organisational Commitment	0.116	0.124	0.097	1.186	0.236
Directive Leadership → Organisational Commitment	-0.051	-0.028	0.089	0.575	0.566
Participative Leadership → Organisational Commitment	0.438	0.426	0.138	3.184	0.002
Supportive Leadership → Organisational Commitment	-0.008	0.012	0.116	0.067	0.946

$R^2 = 0.236$
Adjusted $R^2 = 0.216$

The results in Table 4.22 and Figure 4.12 show the four hypotheses to the effect that directive leadership behaviours positively relates to organisational commitment of academic staff (H1.1), supportive leadership behaviours positively relates to organisational commitment of academic staff (H1.2), participative leadership behaviours relates to organisational commitment of academic staff (H1.3) and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours relates to organisational commitment of academic staff (H1.4) were tested. The results revealed that participative leadership behaviours ($\beta=0.438$, $t=3.184$, $P=0.002<0.05$) positively and significantly predicted organisational commitment of academic staff.

However, supportive leadership behaviours ($\beta= -0.008$, $t = 0.067$, $p = 0.946>0.05$) and directive leadership behaviours ($\beta= -0.051$, $t =0.575$, $p =0.566>0.05$) negatively and insignificantly predicted organisational commitment of academic staff. But, achievement-oriented leadership behaviours ($\beta=0.116$, $t = 1.186$, $p = 0.236>0.05$) positively but insignificantly predicted organisational commitment of academic staff. The path model shows that the four leadership behaviours namely; directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours, contributed 23.6% to the organisational commitment of academic staff. The Adjusted R^2 suggested that the significant factor namely participative leadership behaviours contributed 21.6% to organisational commitment of academic staff. This meant that coefficient of determination indicated that 78.4% of the difference in organisational commitment of academic staff was contributed for by other factors not considered for under the model. Further, findings meant that if Kyambogo University put more emphasis on participative leadership behaviour, academic staff is likely to be highly committed to the university.

Since the link between directive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment and the relationship between supportive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of

academic staff were negative and significant, the link between achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff were positive but significant. Further, since the link between participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff were positive and significant, the hypothesis was rejected.

4.7 Descriptive Results for Job Satisfaction

The concept of job satisfaction was conceptualised as intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Here under follows results of the two aspects of job satisfaction.

4.7.1 Intrinsic Job Satisfaction

The intrinsic jobs satisfaction was studied using twelve items. Table 4.23 show descriptive results.

Table 4.23

Descriptive Results for Intrinsic Job Satisfaction

Items of Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Means
I keep busy all the time while at work in this university	1 (0.6 %)	3 (1.9%)	5 (3.2%)	80 (51.3%)	67 (42.9 %)	4.34
I am given the opportunity to work alone on the job in my university	-	22 (14.1%)	18 (11.5%)	59 (37.8%)	57 (36.5%)	3.97
I have the chance to do different things from time to time while working in this university	1 (0.6%)	11 (7.1%)	10 (6.4%)	75 (48.1%)	59 (37.8%)	4.15
I have the chance to be somebody in this university	-	6 (3.8%)	11 (7.1%)	59 (37.8%)	80 (51.3%)	4.37
The things i do in this university do not go against my conscience	-	5 (3.2%)	7 (4.5%)	69 (44.2%)	75 (48.1%)	4.37
I love my job in this university because it provides steady employment for me	1 (0.6%)	9 (5.8%)	6 (3.8%)	79 (50.6%)	61 (39.1%)	4.22
I have the chance to help in accomplishing different things in this university	2 (1.3%)	4 (2.6%)	10 (6.4%)	94 (60.3%)	46 (29.5%)	4.14
My position in this university gives me the opportunity to guide people on what to do	2 (1.3%)	19 (12.2%)	14 (9.0%)	73 (46.8%)	48 (30.8%)	3.94
In this university I have a chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	2 (1.3%)	13 (8.3%)	9 (5.8%)	86 (55.1%)	46 (29.5%)	4.03
I have the freedom to use my own judgement as I do my work in this university	1 (0.6%)	13 (8.3%)	10 (6.4%)	83 (53.2%)	49 (31.4%)	4.06
I get the feeling of accomplishment from my job in this university	-	18 (11.5%)	16 (10.3%)	79 (50.6%)	43 (27.6%)	3.94
My job in this university keeps me busy much of the time	1 (0.6%)	12 (7.7%)	9 (5.8%)	81 (51.9%)	53 (34.0%)	4.11

The results in Table 4.23 regarding whether academic staff kept busy all the time while at work in in University indicated that cumulatively, a larger proportion (94.2%) agreed, 3.2% were not certain, 2.5% disagreed. The high mean = 4.34 corresponded with agree meant that academic staff concurred that they kept busy all the time while at work in university. With respect to whether academic staffs were given the opportunity to work alone on the job in the university revealed that, majority percentage (74.3%) agreed, 14.1% disagreed while 11.5% were not sure. The mean = 3.97 signified that academic staff accepted that were given the opportunity to work alone on the job in the university. Regarding whether academic staff had the opportunity to perform different duties from time to time while working in university revealed that, a higher percentage (85.9%) agreed, 7.7% did not agreed, 6.4% were not sure. Higher mean = 4.15 implied that academic staff had the opportunity to perform different duties from time to time while working in University.

Regarding whether academic staff had the chance to be somebody in university indicated that, majority percentage (89.1%) agreed, 7.1% were not sure and 3.8% disagreed. High mean = 4.37 corresponded with agree meant that academic staff agreed had the chance to be somebody in University. In respect to whether the things academic staff did in University did not go against their conscience revealed that, a larger proportion (92.3%) agreed, 4.5% were not sure while 3.2% disagreed. The mean = 4.37 corresponded with agreed meant that academic staff accepted that the things they did in university did not go against their conscience. Regarding whether academic staff loved their job in University because it provided steady employment for them revealed that, a larger percentage (89.7%) agreed, 6.4% disagreed, 3.8% were not sure. The mean = 4.22 suggested that academic staff accepted they loved their job in university because it provided steady employment for them.

Regarding whether academic staff had the chance to help in accomplishing different things in University indicated that, majority percentage (89.8%) agreed, 6.4% were not sure, and the same percentage (6.4%) disagreed. High mean = 4.14 signified that academic staff had the chance to help in accomplishing different things in university. With respect to whether their position in university gave them the opportunity to guide people on what to do reveal that, a larger percentage (83%) agreed, 13.5% disagreed, while 9.0% were not sure. High mean = 3.94 indicated that academic staff concurred that their position in university gave them the opportunity to guide people on what to do. Regarding whether academic staff had opportunity of doing something that made use of their abilities revealed that, a higher percentage (84.6%) agreed, 9.6% disagreed and 5.8% were not sure. The mean = 4.03 meant that academic staff had the opportunity to do things that made use of their potential in university.

Regarding whether academic staff had the freedom to use their own judgment as they did their work in University revealed that, a larger percentage (84.6%) accepted, 8.9% did not accepted, and 6.4% were not certain. The high mean = 4.06 meant that academic staff had the freedom to use their own judgement as they did their work in university. With respect to whether academic staff got the feeling of accomplishment from their job in university indicated that cumulatively, a larger percentage (78.2%) agreed, 11.5% disagreed and 10.3% were not sure. The mean = 3.94 suggested that academic staff had the feeling of accomplishment from their job in University.

On whether their job in university kept them busy much of the time indicated that, a larger percentage (85.9%) agreed, 8.3% disagreed and 5.8% were not sure. The high mean = 4.11 close to code 4 meant that the job of academic staff kept them busy much of the time. To find out

how academic staff rated their intrinsic job satisfaction, the average index was computed for the 12 items measuring the same concept. The summary of results is indicated in Table 4.24

Table 4.24

Summary Results for Intrinsic Job Satisfaction

		Descriptives	Statistic	Std. Error
Intrinsic job satisfaction	Mean		4.14	0.04
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.06	
		Upper Bound	4.21	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.14	
	Median		4.17	
	Variance		0.21	
	Std. Deviation		0.46	
	Minimum		3.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		2.00	
	Interquartile Range		0.56	
	Skewness		-0.15	0.19
	Kurtosis		-0.26	0.37

The findings in Table 4.24 indicate a mean = 4.14, a median =4.17, a negative skew (skew = -0.15) which meant normally distribution of results. High mean also meant that the full-time academic staff rated their intrinsic job satisfaction to be high. The low standard deviation = 0.46 also indicated normal distribution of the responses. The normal distribution of the results is also displayed by the normal curve in Figure 4.13

4.7.2 Extrinsic Job Satisfaction

The concept of extrinsic jobs satisfaction was studied using seven items. Table 4.25 show descriptive results.

Table 4.25

Descriptive Results for Extrinsic Job Satisfaction

Items of Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Means
I like the way my boss handles his/her workers	1 (0.6%)	10 (6.4%)	27 (17.3%)	70 (44.9%)	48 (30.8%)	3.99
My superiors have the competence of making right decisions in this university	1 (0.6%)	6 (3.8%)	23 (14.7%)	85 (54.5%)	41 (26.3%)	4.02
I am satisfied with the way policies are implemented in this university	2 (1.3%)	34 (21.8%)	26 (16.7%)	74 (47.4%)	20 (12.8%)	3.49
I am satisfied with working conditions provided with this university	1 (0.6%)	45 (28.8%)	20 (12.8%)	70 (44.9%)	20 (12.8%)	3.40
I am satisfied with the way we relate as colleagues in this university	-	19 (12.2%)	14 (9.0%)	88 (56.4%)	35 (22.4%)	3.89
I am satisfied with the praise I get for doing a good job in this university	2 (1.3%)	17 (10.9%)	30 (19.2%)	72 (46.2%)	35 (22.4%)	3.78
I am satisfied with the way superiors handle subordinates in this university	2 (1.3%)	26 (16.7%)	30 (19.2%)	70 (44.9%)	28 (17.9%)	3.62

The findings in Table 4.25 on whether academic staff liked the way their boss handled workers indicated that cumulatively, a higher percentage (75.7%) agreed, 17.3% were not sure, and 7% did not accept. The high mean = 3.99 corresponded with agree implied that academic staff accepted that they liked the way the bosses handled workers. On whether their superiors had the

competence of making right decisions in university revealed that, a larger percentage (80.8%) agreed, 14.7% were not sure and 4.4% disagreed. The mean = 4.02 implied that academic staff agreed that their superiors had the competence of making right decision in university. With respect to whether academic staff was satisfied with the way policies were implemented in university indicated that, a larger percentage (60.2%) agreed, 23.1% disagreed, while 16.7% were not sure. The mean = 3.40 implied that academic staff were satisfied with the way policies were implemented in the university.

On whether academic staff was satisfied with the working conditions provided with the university revealed that, majority percentage (57.7%) agreed, 29.4% did not concur and 12.8% were not certain. The mean = 3.40 implied that academic staff agreed were satisfied with the working conditions provided with university. Regarding whether academic staff were satisfied with the way they related as colleagues in the university revealed that, a majority percentage (78.8%) agreed, 12.2% disagreed and 9.0% were not certain. The mean = 3.89 corresponded with agreed implied that academic staff accepted that were satisfied with the way they related as colleagues in the university. On whether academic staff was happy with the appreciations they received for the good job done in university revealed that, a larger percentage (68.6%) agreed, 19.2% were not sure, while 12.2% disagreed. The mean = 3.78 implied that academic staff agreed were happy with the reward they received for the good job done in university.

In respect to whether academic staff was satisfied with the way superiors handled subordinates in university revealed that, a larger percentage (62.8%) agreed, 19.2% were not sure, while 18% disagreed. The mean = 3.62 implied that academic staff agreed were satisfied with the way superiors handled subordinates in the university. To find out how academic staff

rated their extrinsic job satisfaction, the average index was computed for the seven items that measured the concept. Table 4.26 has the summary of the results.

Table 4.26

Summary of Extrinsic Job Satisfaction

Descriptives		Statistic	Std. Error	
Extrinsic Job	Mean	3.74	0.05	
Satisfaction	95% Confidence Interval for			
	Mean	Lower Bound	3.63	
		Upper Bound	3.84	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.74	
	Median		3.86	
	Variance		0.45	
	Std. Deviation		0.67	
	Minimum		2.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		3.00	
	Interquartile Range		0.86	
	Skewness		-0.10	0.19
	Kurtosis		-0.32	0.39

The results in Table 4.26 show a mean = 3.74 with a median = 3.86, a negative skew (skew = -0.10) meaning normal distribution of the results. High mean also meant that full-time academic staff rated their extrinsic job satisfaction to be high. The low standard deviation = 0.67 also indicated normal distribution of the responses. The normal distribution of the results is also displayed by the normal curve in Figure 4.14.

4.7.3 Index on Job Satisfaction

To test how overall the academic staff rated their job satisfaction in University, an average index was created for the two aspects that measured intrinsic job satisfaction (IJ1-IJ12) and extrinsic job satisfaction (EJ1-EJ7). Table 4.27 present the summary of results.

Table 4.27

Summary Results for Job Satisfaction of Academic Staff

Descriptives		Statistic	Std. Error
Job Satisfaction	Mean	3.76	0.03
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound Upper Bound	3.69 3.83
	5% Trimmed Mean	3.76	
	Median	3.79	
	Variance	0.18	
	Std. Deviation	0.42	
	Minimum	2.68	
	Maximum	4.74	
	Range	2.05	
	Interquartile Range	0.53	
	Skewness	0.06	0.19
	Kurtosis	-0.02	0.39

The findings in Table 4.27 reveal a mean = 3.76, a median = 3.79, positive skew (skew = 0.06) meant that the results were normally distributed. The high mean implied that full-time academic staff rated their job satisfaction to be high. The low standard deviation = 0.42 also indicated normal distribution of the responses. The normal distribution of the results is also displayed by the normal curve in Figure 4.15.

was removed from the model. Therefore, all the items that were retained in this model were valid measures of the respective constructs.

4.8 Predicting Job Satisfaction using Leadership Behaviours

Objective two of the study examined whether leadership behaviours are correlate of job satisfaction of academic staff. Structural equation modelling was used to test the null hypothesis that there is no correlation between leadership behaviours and job satisfaction as illustrated in Figure 4.17.

revealed that all the items for the constructs that measured the concept loaded above 0.5 which was the minimum validity value when using factor analysis. Job satisfaction was studied in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. However, only items that measured extrinsic job satisfaction loaded above the minimum validity value of 0.5 except one item (EJ1) that did not load above 0.5 and this was removed from the model.

Table 4.28

Structural Equation Model Predicting for Job Satisfaction using Leadership Behaviours and

Leadership Behaviours and Job Satisfaction	B	Mean	STD	T	P
Achievement Oriented → Job Satisfaction	-0.133	-0.100	0.079	1.686	0.092
Directive → Job Satisfaction	0.221	0.218	0.074	2.975	0.003
Participative → Job Satisfaction	0.318	0.310	0.094	3.374	0.001
Supportive → Job Satisfaction	0.356	0.359	0.094	3.777	0.000

$R^2 = 0.503$

Adjusted $R^2 = 0.489$

The findings in Table 4.28 and Figure 4.17 indicated that four hypotheses regarding the positive link between directive leadership and academic staff job satisfaction (H2.1), supportive leadership and academic staff job satisfaction (H2.2), participative leadership and academic staff job satisfaction (H2.3), and achievement-oriented leadership and academic staff job satisfaction (H2.4), were tested. The results revealed that directive leadership behaviours ($\beta = 0.221$, $t = 2.975$, $p = 0.003 < 0.05$), participative leadership behaviours ($\beta = 0.318$, $t = 3.374$, $p = 0.001 < 0.05$), and supportive leadership behaviours ($\beta = 0.356$, $t = 3.777$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) positively and significantly predicted job satisfaction of academic staff.

However, achievement-oriented leadership behaviours ($\beta = -0.133$, $t = 1.686$, $p = 0.092 > 0.05$) negatively and insignificantly predicted job satisfaction of academic staff. Results of R^2 suggested that the four factors namely achievement-oriented, directive leadership, participative and supportive leadership behaviours contributed to 50.3% (0.503) to job satisfaction of academic staff. The Adjusted R^2 revealed that the significant factors namely directive, participative and supportive leadership behaviours contributed 48.9% (0.489) to job satisfaction of academic staff. The coefficient of determination indicated that additional factors not taken into account in this model accounted for 49.7% of the variation in job satisfaction of academic staff. Further, the findings suggested that if the university emphasizes the three leadership behaviours namely; directive, participative and supportive leadership behaviours academic staff job satisfaction is most likely to increase.

4.9 Predicting Organisational Commitment using Job Satisfaction

The third objective of the study related organisational commitment of academic staff and job satisfaction. The null hypothesis that resulted from this objective was that there is no correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academic staff. Using structural equation modelling, the hypothesis was tested as indicated in Figure 4.18.

commitment. However, only items of affective commitment (apart from AC4) loaded above 0.5 validity value. None of items that measured continuance and normative commitment loaded above 0.5. Thus, all the items that did not load above 0.5 were removed from the model.

Table 4.29

Structural Equation Model for Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment	B	Means	STD	T	P
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction → Organisational Commitment	0.136	0.161	0.094	1.441	0.150
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction → Organisational Commitment	0.437	0.443	0.066	6.636	0.000

$R^2 = 0.268$

Adjusted $R^2 = 0.253$

The results in Figure 4.18 and Table 4.29 reveal that two hypotheses to the effect that extrinsic job satisfaction and intrinsic job satisfaction are related to academic staff organisational commitment were put to the test. The results indicated that intrinsic job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.437$, 6.636 , $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) positively and significantly predicted organisational commitment of academic staff. However, extrinsic job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.136$, $t = 1.441$, $p = 0.150 > 0.05$) positively and insignificantly predicted organisational commitment of academic staff. The R^2 suggested that the two factors namely extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction contributed 26.8% (0.268) to organisational commitment of academic staff.

The Adjusted R^2 suggested that the significant factor namely intrinsic job satisfaction contributed 25.3% (0.253) to organisational commitment of academic staff. This means that coefficient of determination suggested that 73.2% of the difference in organisational

commitment of academic staff was accounted for by factors not considered under this model. The results meant that if Kyambogo University put emphasis on improving intrinsic jobs satisfaction, organisational commitment of academic staff is likely to improve. Since the connection between extrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academic staff was positive and insignificant and the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment was positive and significant, the hypothesis was rejected.

4.10 Predicting Organisational Commitment using Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence was investigated terms of four concepts namely; self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management. Bellow follows the results.

4.10.1 Self-awareness

The concept of self-awareness was studied using eight items. Table 4.30 show descriptive results on the same

Table 4.30

Descriptive Results of Self-Awareness

Items of Self-Awareness	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Means
I understand my own feelings and what triggers them	-	1 (0.6%)	3 (1.9%)	86 (55.1%)	66 (42.3%)	4.40
I have the ability to use my perception effectively	-	-	9 (5.8%)	78 (50.0%)	69 (44.2%)	4.38
I understand myself very well	-	-	6 (3.8%)	65 (41.7%)	85 (54.5%)	4.51
I know values and beliefs expected of me by others	-	-	17 (10.9%)	81 (51.9%)	58 (37.2%)	4.26
I remain confident in all situations	-	1 (0.6%)	17 (10.9%)	79 (50.6%)	59 (37.8%)	4.26
I recognize my feelings and their effects on me	-	3 (1.9%)	12 (7.7%)	82 (52.6%)	59 (37.8%)	4.26
I know my strength and limits	3 (1.9%)	4 (2.6%)	8 (5.9%)	65 (48.1%)	57 (42.2%)	4.27
I have a strong sense of self-worth	-	4 (3.0%)	5 (3.7%)	56 (41.9%)	70 (51.9%)	4.42

Results in Table 4.30 on whether academic staff understands their own feelings and what triggers them revealed that cumulatively, a larger percentage (97.4%) agreed, 1.9% were not sure, 0.6% did not concur. The Mean = 4.39 signified that academic staff understood their own feelings and what triggered them. With respect to whether academic staff had the ability to use their perception effectively revealed that, a larger percentage (105.6%) accepted, 5.8% were not sure, while none accepted. The mean =4.38 meant that academic staff had the ability to use their perception effectively.

Regarding whether the academic staff understood themselves well indicated that, a larger percentage (96.2%) agreed, 3.8% were not sure, and none agreed. The high mean = 4.51 meant that academic staff understood themselves well. In respect to whether academic staff knew values and beliefs expected of them by others indicated that, a bigger per centage (89.1%)

concurrent, 10.9% were not certain and none agreed. The high mean = 4.26 meant that academic staff knew values and beliefs expected of them by others. Regarding whether academic staff remained confident in all situations revealed that cumulatively, a larger percentage (88.4%) agreed, 10.9% were not sure and 0.6% disagreed. The high mean = 4.26 above code 4 which on the scale used corresponded with agreed implied that academic staff remained confident in all situation.

With respect to whether academic staff recognized their feelings and their effects on them indicated that, a larger percentage (90.4%) agreed, 7.7% were not sure, 1.9% disagreed. The high mean = 4.26 close to code 4 on the scale corresponded with agree implied that academic staff recognized their feelings and their effects on them. Regarding whether academic staff knew their strengths and limits revealed that, a larger percentage (88.5%) agreed, 7.1% were not sure, 4.5% disagreed. The high mean = 4.24 implied that academic staff knew their strength and limits. Regarding whether staff has a strong sense of self-worth indicated that, a larger percentage (91.7%) agreed, 5.1% were not sure and 3.2% did not accept. The high mean =4.40 meant that academic staff had a strong sense of self-worth. To find out how academic staff rated their self-awareness, the average index was computed for the eight items measuring the concept. Table 4.31 present summary results.

Table 4.31

Summary Results for Self-Awareness

		Descriptives	Statistic	Std. Error
Self-Awareness	Mean		4.33	0.03
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.27	
		Upper Bound	4.41	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.35	
	Median		4.37	
	Variance		0.19	
	Std. Deviation		0.43	
	Minimum		3.25	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		1.75	
	Interquartile Range		0.63	
	Skewness		-0.16	0.19
	Kurtosis		-0.92	0.39

Results in the Table 4.31 show a mean = 4.34 with a negative skew (skew = -0.16). Despite the standard deviation = 0.43 meaning that the results were normally distributed. Mean above 4.34 implied that academic staff rated their self-awareness to be high. The normal distribution of results is also displayed by the normal curve in the Figure 4.16.

Table 4.32

Descriptive Results for Self-Management

Items of Self-Management	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Means
I can stay calm in stressful situations	-	13 (8.3%)	20 (12.8%)	81 (51.9%)	42 (26.9%)	3.97
I stay calm when things go wrong	-	17 (10.9%)	35 (22.4%)	79 (50.6%)	25 (16.0%)	3.72
I can control the way I feel when something bad happens	-	4 (2.6%)	30 (19.2%)	89 (57.1%)	33 (21.2%)	3.98
When upset with someone, I will wait till I have calmed down before discussing the issue	-	10 (6.4%)	38 (24.4%)	81 (51.9%)	27 (17.3%)	3.80

The results in Table 4.32 regarding whether academic staff could stay calm in stressful situation show that cumulatively, a larger percentage (78.8%) agreed, 12.8% were not sure, while 8.3% did not concur. The high mean = 3.97 meant that academic staff could stay calm in stressful situation. Regarding whether academic staff stayed calm when things went wrong revealed that, a larger percentage (66.6%) agreed, 22.4% were not sure, while 10.9% did not agree. The high mean = 3.72 implied that academic staff stayed calm when things went wrong. On whether academic staff could control the way they felt when something bad happened indicated that, the bigger percentage (78.3%) agreed, 19.2% were not sure, while 2.6% did not accept. The high mean= 3.98 implied that academic staff could control the way they felt when something bad happened.

Further, regarding whether when upset with someone academic staff could wait till, they had calm down before discussing the issue indicated that a larger percentage (69.2%) agreed, 24.4% were not sure, while 6.4% disagreed. The high mean = 3.80 implied that academic staff

when upset with someone would wait till; they had calm down before discussing the issue. An average index for the four items measuring the concept was calculated to determine how academic staff perceived their self-management. Table 4.33 displays the results in summary.

Table 4.33

Summary Results for Self-Management

		Descriptives	Statistic	Std. Error
Self-Management	Mean		3.87	0.05
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.77	
		Upper Bound	3.96	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.87	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.39	
	Std. Deviation		0.62	
	Minimum		2.50	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		2.50	
	Interquartile Range		0.75	
	Skewness		-0.02	0.19
	Kurtosis		-0.47	0.39

The results in Table 4.33 show a mean of 3.87, a median = 4.00 and a negative skew (skew = -0.02), indicating normally distribution of results. The mean = 3.87 also meant that academic staff rated their self-management to be high. The low standard deviation = 0.62 also indicated normal distribution of the responses. The normal distribution of the results is also displayed by the normal curve in Figure 4.20.

4.10.3 Social-awareness

The concept of social-awareness was studied using five items. Table 4.34 show descriptive results on the same.

Table 4.34

Descriptive Results for Social-Awareness

Items of Social-Awareness	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Means
I recognize how people feel by looking at their facial expression	-	5 (3.2%)	17 (10.9%)	85 (54.5%)	49 (31.4%)	4.14
It is easy for me to understand why people feel the way they do	-	15 (9.6%)	29 (18.6%)	73 (46.8%)	39 (25.0%)	3.87
I can tell what someone is feeling, if sad, angry, or happy	1 (0.6)	20 (12.8%)	29 (18.6%)	73 (46.8%)	33 (21.2%)	3.75
I understand why people react the way they do in different situation	-	16 (10.3%)	38 (24.4%)	67 (42.9%)	35 (22.4%)	3.78
I have a pretty good idea why my friends get upset	1 (0.6)	8 (5.1%)	37 (23.7%)	68 (43.6%)	42 (26.9%)	3.91

The findings in Table 4.34 about whether academic staff could tell how someone is feeling by observing their facial expression showed that cumulatively, a larger proportion (85.9%) accepted, 10.9% were not sure, 3.5% did not accept. The mean = 4.14 implied that academic staff recognized how someone felt by observing their facial expression. Regarding whether it was easy for the academic staff to tell why others felt the way they did indicated that, a larger percentage (71.8%) agreed, 18.6% were not sure and 9.6% disagreed. The mean = 3.87 meant that it was easy for academic staff to understand why people felt the way they felt.

With respect to whether academic staff could tell what someone was feeling, if sad, angry, or happy revealed that, a larger percentage (68%) agreed, 18.6% were not sure, 13.4% did not agree. The mean = 3.75 suggested that academic could tell what someone was feeling, if sad, angry, or happy. Regarding whether academic staff understood why people reacted the way they did in different situation indicated that, a larger percentage (65.3%) agreed, 24.4% were not sure, while 16% did not agree. The mean = 3.78 implied that academic staff understood why people reacted the way they did in different situation.

As to whether academic staff had a pretty good idea why their friends got upset revealed that, a larger percentage (70.5%) agreed, 23.7% were not sure, 5.7% did not concur. The mean = 3.91 meant that academic staff had a pretty good idea why their friends got upset. The average index for the five items testing the concept was calculated to determine how academic staff perceived their social awareness. Table 4.35 displays the results in summary

Table 4.35

Summary Results for Social-Awareness

		Descriptives	Statistic	Std. Error
Social-Awareness	Mean		3.89	0.06
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.78	
		Upper Bound	3.99	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.91	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.47	
	Std. Deviation		0.68	
	Minimum		2.20	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		2.80	
	Interquartile Range		1.00	
	Skewness		-0.18	0.19
	Kurtosis		-0.49	0.39

Table 4.35 indicate that results were normally distributed because of the mean =3.89 and the negative skew = -0.18. The high mean indicated that academic staff had good ratings for their social awareness. The low standard deviation = 0.68 also indicated normal distribution of responses. The normal distribution of the results is also displayed by the normal curve in Figure 4.21.

4.10.4 Relationship-Management

The concept of relationship-management was studied using five items. Table 4.35 show descriptive results on the same.

Table 4.35

Descriptive Results for Relationship-Management

Items of Relationship-Management	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Means
I always apologize when I hurt others unintentionally	1 (0.6%)	4 (2.6%)	11 (7.1%)	93 (59.6%)	47 (30.1%)	4.16
I always try to comfort others when they are sad	-	6 (3.8%)	4 (2.6%)	90 (57.7%)	56 (35.9%)	4.26
I try not to criticize others when we have misunderstandings	1 (0.6%)	11 (7.1%)	15 (9.6%)	81 (51.9%)	48 (30.8%)	4.05
I am tolerant to other people's mistakes	1 (0.6%)	2 (1.3%)	9 (5.8%)	88 (55.4%)	56 (35.9%)	4.26
I stand up for myself without putting others down	-	3 (1.9%)	9 (5.8%)	76 (48.7%)	68 (43.6%)	4.34

The findings in Table 4.35 regarding whether academic staff always apologized when they hurt others unintentionally revealed that cumulatively, a larger percentage (89.7%) of the agreed, 7.1% were not sure, 3.2% did not concur. The high mean = 4.16 suggested that academic staff always apologized when they hurt others unintentionally. With respect to whether academic staff always tried to comfort others when they were sad indicated that, majority percentage (93.6%) agreed, 3.2% did not agreed, while, 2.6% were not sure. The high mean =4.29 implied that academic staff always tried to comfort others when they were sad. In respect to whether academic staff tried not to criticize others when they had misunderstandings revealed that, majority percentage (82.7%) agreed, 7.7% did not concur and 9.6% were not sure. The high

mean = 4.05 meant that academic staff tried not to criticize others when they had misunderstanding.

Regarding whether academic staff was tolerant to other people's mistakes indicated that, a larger percentage (91.3%) agreed, 5.8% were not sure, 1.9% disagreed. The high mean = 4.26 meant that academic staff were tolerant to other people's mistakes. With respect to whether academic staff stood up for themselves without putting others down revealed that, majority percentage (92.3%) agreed, 5.8% were not sure, and 1.9% disagreed. The high mean = 4.34 implied that academic staff stood up for themselves without putting others down. For the five elements measuring the concept, average index was done to determine how academic staff ranked their relationship-management. Table 4.36 show the results.

Table 4.36

Summary Results for Relationship-Management

		Descriptives	Statistic	Std. Error
Relationship- Management	Mean		4.21	0.04
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.14	
		Upper Bound	4.29	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.23	
	Median		4.20	
	Variance		0.23	
	Std. Deviation		0.49	
	Minimum		3.20	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		1.80	
	Interquartile Range		0.60	
	Skewness		0.11	0.19
	Kurtosis		-0.73	0.39

The findings in Table 4.36 have a mean = 4.21, median = 4.20 and has a positive skew = 0.11, indicating normally distribution of results. High mean also meant that academic staff rated their relationship-management to be high. The low standard deviation = 0.49 also indicated normal distribution of the responses. The normal distribution of the results is also displayed by the normal curve in Figure 4.22.

4.10.5 Emotional Intelligence Index

To test how overall the academic staff rated their emotional intelligence on commitment, average index was created to four aspects measuring the concepts that are self-awareness (S1-S8), self-management (SM1-SM4), social-awareness (SA1-SA5) and relationship-management (RM1-RM5). Table 4.37 shows summary of results.

Table 4.37

Summary Results for Emotional Intelligence

		Descriptives	Statistic	Std. Error
Emotional	Mean		4.12	0.03
Intelligence	95% Confidence Interval	Lower Bound	4.06	
	for Mean	Upper Bound	4.18	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.11	
	Median		4.05	
	Variance		0.15	
	Std. Deviation		0.39	
	Minimum		3.45	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		1.55	
	Interquartile Range		0.61	
	Skewness		0.49	0.19
	Kurtosis		-0.57	0.39

The findings in Table 4.37 indicate that full-time academic staff gave themselves high ratings for emotional intelligence, with a mean = 4.12 close to the median = 4.05 and a positive skew = 0.49. The low standard deviation = 0.39 also indicated normal distribution of the responses. The normal distribution of the results is also displayed by the normal curve in Figure 4.23.

highly above the 0.50 which was the minimum validity value using factor analysis (Hair Jr. et al., 2021) but one item (S8) did not load. For self-management, all the four constructs measuring the same loaded highly. For social-awareness, four out of five items loaded highly while one item (SA5) did not load. For relationship-management, all the five items measuring the same loaded above 0.50. Items retained were valid measure of the constructs in the model.

4.11 Predicting Organisational Commitment using Emotional Intelligence

The fourth objective for the study was to determine whether academic staff's organisational commitment and emotional intelligence are correlated. The null hypothesis obtained from this objective was that there is correlation between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment of academic staff. The hypothesis was tested using structural equation modelling, as shown in Figure 4.25.

the minimum validity value of 0.5 when using factor analysis. For self-management all the four items loaded above recommended 0.5 validity value. For social-awareness, all the five items (SA1-SA4) loaded above the recommended validity value of 0.5. For relationship-management four out of five items (RM2-RM5) loaded above 0.5 and only one item (RM1) did not load above the minimum recommended validity value of 0.5. All the items that did not load were removed from the model.

Table 4.38

Structural Equation Model for Predicting Organisational Commitment using Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Commitment	B	Mean	STD	t	P
Relationship Management → Organisational commitment	0.128	0.132	0.096	1.328	0.185
Self-Management → Organisational Commitment	0.241	0.241	0.089	2.694	0.007
Self-awareness → Organisational commitment	0.067	0.094	0.080	0.847	0.397
Social-awareness → Organisational commitment	0.182	0.178	0.081	2.250	0.025

$R^2 = 0.216$

Adjusted $R^2 = 0.195$

Results from Figure 4.33 and Table 4.38 show four hypotheses to the effect that self-awareness relates to organisational commitment of academic staff (H4.1), Self-regulation relates to organisational commitment of academic staff (H4.2), social-awareness relates to commitment of academic staff (H4.3) and relationship-management relates to organisational commitment of

academic staff (H4.4) were tested. The result revealed that self-regulation ($\beta = 0.241$, $t = 2.694$, $p = 0.007 < 0.05$) and social-awareness ($\beta = 0.182$, $t = 2.250$, $p = 0.025 < 0.05$) positively and significantly predicted organisational commitment of academic staff. However, relationship-management ($\beta = 0.128$, $t = 1.328$, $p = 0.185 > 0.05$), then self-awareness ($\beta = 0.067$, $t = 0.847$, $p = 0.397 > 0.05$) positively but insignificantly predicted organisational commitment. The path model shows that the four emotional intelligence components namely self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management contributed to 0.216 (21.6%) on commitment of academic staff.

The adjusted R^2 suggested that the significant factors namely self-management and social-awareness contributed 0.195 (19.5%) to commitment of academic staff. Thus, this implied that coefficient of determination meant that 80.5% of the differences in organisational commitment of academic staff was accounted for by factors outside this model. The findings implied that if Kyambogo University can put more emphasis on self-management and social-awareness, the organisational commitment of academic staff is more likely to improve. Since the correlation between self-management and organisational commitment of academic staff and the connection between social-awareness and organisational commitment of academic staff were positive and significant. Further, since the correlation between self-awareness and organisational commitment of academic staff and the correlation between self-management and organisational commitment of academic staff were positive but insignificant, the hypothesis was rejected.

4.12 Predicting Organisational Commitment using Leadership Behaviours Mediated by Job Satisfaction

The fifth objective of the study tested job satisfaction as a mediator between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. The hypothesis drawn from this objective was that job satisfaction had no mediating effect on the association between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. As shown in Figure 4.26, structural equation modelling was used to test the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment.

supportive leadership behaviours, all the nine items loaded above 0.5. For participative leadership behaviours, all the ten items that measured the same loaded above 0.5. For achievement-oriented leadership behaviours three items (ALB2, ALB3, ALB4) out of five loaded while the two items (ALB1, ALB5) did not load above 0.5. Thus, all the items that did not load above 0.5 were removed from the model.

Table 4.39

Structural Equation Model for Job Satisfaction, Leadership Behaviours and Organisational Commitment of academic Staff

Mediation Effect	B	Mean	STD	T	P
Job Satisfaction → Organisational Commitment	0.292	0.311	0.100	2.936	0.003
Leadership Behaviours → Job Satisfaction	0.717	0.733	0.033	22.000	0.000
Leadership Behaviours → Organisational Commitment	0.171	0.175	0.109	1.568	0.118
Leadership Behaviours → Job Satisfaction → Organisational Commitment	0.210	0.228	0.073	2.873	0.004
Coefficients of determination	R²	Adjusted R²			
Job Satisfaction	0.515	0.512			
Organisational Commitment	0.187	0.176			

The findings in Table 4.39 demonstrate that leadership behaviours were believed to exert a positive and substantial influence on academic staff job satisfaction, which in turn was postulated to exert a positive and significant impact on academic staff organisational commitment. However, leadership behaviours played a positive and insignificant role on organisational commitment of academic staff ($\beta=0.171$, $t =1.568$, $p=0.118>0.05$). Leadership behaviours

exerted a positive and significant link on job satisfaction of academic staff ($\beta=0.717$, $t = 22.000.560$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$). Job satisfaction exerted a positive and significant impact on organisational commitment ($\beta=0.292$, $t = 2.936$, $p=0.003 < 0.05$).

The three significant effects established an evidence on the mediating effect of job satisfaction in the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment ($\beta = 0.210$, $t = 2.873$, $p = 0.004 < 0.05$). Thus, job satisfaction mediated the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. However, the positive and insignificant direct association between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment ($\beta=0.171$, $t=1.568$, $p = 0.118 > 0.05$) suggests that job satisfaction partially mediated this relationship.

4.13 Predicting Organisational Commitment using leadership behaviours Moderated by Emotional Intelligence

This sixth objective examined emotional intelligence as a moderator between organisational commitment and leadership behaviours. This objective led to the null hypothesis that emotional intelligence did not moderate the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. Emotional intelligence as a moderator between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment was examined using structural equation modelling.

supportive leadership behaviours six items (SLB1- SLB6) out of nine items loaded above 0.5 and three items (SLB7- SLB9) did not load above 0.5. None of the items for directive leadership behaviours and achievement leadership behaviours loaded above 0.5.

The construct of emotional intelligence was measured as a four dimensional concept that involved self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management. For self-awareness two items (S4, S4) loaded above 0.5 and the six items did not load above minimum threshold. For social-awareness all the five items (SA1- SA5) loaded above 0.5. None of the items on self-management and relationship-management loaded above 0.5. For organisational commitment was studied as a three-dimensional concept that included affective, continuance and normative commitment. For affective commitment only five items (AC2, AC3, AC5, AC6 & AC8) loaded above 0.5 and three items (AC1, AC4, AC7) did not load above 0.5. Further, none of the items of continuance and normative commitment loaded above 0.5.

Table 4.40

Structural Model for Predicting Organisational Commitment using Leadership Behaviours Moderated by Emotional Intelligence

Moderating Effect	B	Mean	STD	T	P
Emotional Intelligence → Organisational Commitment	0.142	0.143	0.058	2.470	0.014
Leadership Behaviours → Organisational Commitment	0.351	0.337	0.055	6.360	0.000
Moderating Effect 1 → Organisational Commitment	-0.408	-0.355	0.259	1.576	0.116

The model in Figure 4.26 and Table 4.40 hypothesised that the leadership behaviours and organisational commitment were not moderated by emotional intelligence. The findings in Table

4.34 demonstrate that emotional intelligence and organisational commitment has a path coefficient value of ($\beta=0.142$, $t=2.470$, $p=0.014<0.05$), indicating that emotional intelligence had a positive and significant impact on organisational commitment. The path coefficient ($\beta= 0.351$, $t=6.360$, $p=0.000<0.05$) for the leadership behaviours and academic staff organisational commitment indicates that leadership behaviours had a positive and significant impact on organisational commitment.

The results of the interaction coefficient test are used to indicate the moderating effect of the emotional intelligence variable on the connection between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff. The link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff was negatively and insignificantly moderated by emotional intelligence as indicated by the path coefficient of leadership behaviours, emotional intelligence, and organisational commitment of academic staff ($\beta = -0.408$, $t=1.576$, $p=0.116>0.05$). Consequently, the hypothesis was supported.

4.14 Significant predictors of organisational commitment of academic staff

As illustrated in Figure 4.27, the independent variables of the study namely; leadership behaviours, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence were evaluated in relation to the dependent variable (organisational commitment of academic staff)

For supportive leadership, all the nine items loaded above 0.5. For participative leadership, all the ten items loaded above 0.5. For achievement-oriented leadership, four out of five items loaded above 0.5. Job satisfaction was investigated as intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. For intrinsic job satisfaction, three out of twelve items loaded above 0.5. For extrinsic job satisfaction, five out of seven items loaded above 0.5. Further, emotional intelligence was considered as self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management. For self-awareness, four out of eight items loaded above 0.5. For self-management, 3 out of four items loaded above 0.5. For social-awareness, all the five items loaded above 0.5. For relationship-management, one out of five items loaded above 0.5. The items that did not load above 0.5 were removed from the model.

Table 4.41

Significant predictors of Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff

Significant predictors of Organisational Commitment	B	Mean	STD	T	P
Emotional Intelligence → Organisational Commitment	0.173	0.186	0.082	2.118	0.035
Job Satisfaction → Organisational Commitment	0.253	0.251	0.102	2.486	0.013
Leadership Behaviours → Organisational Commitment	0.200	0.224	0.088	2.269	0.024

$R^2 = 0.289$
Adjusted $R^2 = 0.275$

The results in Table 4.41 show that three hypotheses about the association between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment,

emotional intelligence and organisational commitment were examined. The results revealed that leadership behaviours ($\beta = 0.200$, $t=2.269$, $p=0.024<0.05$), job satisfaction ($\beta=0.253$, $t =2.486$, $p=0.013<0.05$) and emotional intelligence ($\beta =0.173$, $t= 2.118$, $p=0.035<0.05$) positively and significantly predicted organisational commitment of academic staff. R^2 suggested that the three factors namely; leadership behaviours, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence contributed 28.9% (0.289) to organisational commitment. Thus, the coefficient of determination suggested that 71.1% of variation in job satisfaction was contributed for by other factors not considered in this model. Therefore, this implied that if the Kyambogo University can put emphasis on improving leadership behaviours, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence, organisational commitment of academic staff is most likely to improve.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the discussion, the conclusions and the recommendations on significant predictors of organisational commitment of academic staff. It also presents the cross-referencing between the study's results and earlier research as part of the argument. The chapter also makes recommendations based on the conclusions arrived at after the discussions.

5.2 Discussion of the Findings

This section presents the discussion of the findings regarding the significant predictors of organisational commitment of the academic staff. It begins by discussing the descriptive results for organisational commitment of academic staff (DV) and inferential results of significant predictors of organisational commitment in relation to academic staff

5.2.1 Organisational Commitment of academic staff. Organisational commitment of academic staff was investigated as a three-conceptual model describing the affective, the continuance and normative commitment. The results of the descriptive findings revealed high level organisational commitment of academic staff. This was in agreement with some previous scholars such as Singh (2021) who asserts that organisational commitment of teaching staff in vocational institutes in Punjab, India was high. Similarly, Mapuranga et al. (2021) observes that the level of organisational commitment among employees of business enterprise in Harare, Zimbabwe was

higher. Also, Stamouli and Gerbeth (2021) observe that commitment levels of healthcare professionals in Bavaria clinics, Germany was high.

In the same vein, a study by Mwesigwa et al. (2020) indicates a higher level of organisational commitment of academicians in public Universities in Uganda. Further, the finding was in agreement with, Muda and Fook (2020) who reveal a high level of commitment of teaching staff existing in public Universities in Malaysia. However, the finding was contrary to from studies such as the one carried out by Mugizi and Bakabulindi (2018) which reveals that the academic staff members were undecided about the level of commitment according to the average employee commitment index from all elements of the three components, namely affective, continuance and normative commitment.

In addition, Mugizi et al. (2016) showed that the respondents' degree of commitment to their jobs in Ugandan universities was low as measured by the average employee commitment index across all three elements namely; affective, continuance and normative commitment. Thus, the descriptive results of this study were inconsistent with the findings of previous studies but consistent with the findings of majority scholars, meaning that the level of organisational commitment of academic staff was high. This was contrary to the findings on which this study was premised that academic employees had low organisational commitment.

5.2.2 Affective Commitment. The study findings indicated that the affective commitment of academic staff was higher. As such, was in line with the results of the earlier researchers. Thus, a study by Peng and Li (2021) revealed strong affective commitment among employees in China. Further, a study by Cimili Gök and Özçetin (2021) indicated great degree of affective commitment among teachers working in Antalya, Turkey. Further, a study by Kasimoglu (2021)

reveals a greater level of affective commitment among healthcare practitioners in Konya health sector, Turkey. Also, Bakotić (2021) shows a high level of affective commitment based on demographic characteristics using evidence from Croatia.

Relatedly, Luna-Arocas and Lara (2020) revealed higher degree of affective commitment among employee of local government in Spain. In addition, Nkhukhu-Orlando et al (2019) revealed that only one third (34.1%) of the academic staff had affective commitment to the University in Botswana. Similarly, Galanaki (2019) indicated high affective commitment among employees during times of crisis in Greece. Saha and Kumar (2018) indicated a higher degree of affective commitment for workers in Indian public sector enterprises. Nonetheless, Ghaffaripour (2015) indicated a low level of affective commitment for employees in Imam Khomeini Shazand oil refining company, Iran. Therefore, with the results of this study concurring with the studies of the earlier researchers, it can be asserted that the level of affective commitment of academic staff was high.

5.2.3 Continuance commitment. Descriptive findings of the study revealed that continuance commitment of academic staff was found to be moderate. This finding was not in agreement with the previous researchers. Thus, a study by Allida (2021) revealed higher level of continuance commitment among employees of higher education institution in north-west Haiti. Bashir and Gani (2020a) indicated that the level of continuance commitment among academic staff was higher in India. Also, Adewoyin et al. (2020) revealed higher degree of continuance commitment for library personnel in Nigerian Universities. Further, Candelario et al. (2020) indicated that continuance commitment of government employees in northern Philippines was high. Still, Galanaki (2019) indicated high continuance commitment among employees in Greece.

Similarly, Grego-Planner (2019) revealed higher levels of continuance commitment for workers in business sectors in Poland. Dinc (2017) revealed low continuance commitment among employees working in furniture production companies in Sarajevo, Bosnia. Relatedly, Vandenberghe et al. (2015) revealed higher continuance commitment among nurses of large University hospital in France. Thus, the results of this study indicated that the level of continuance commitment of academic staff was moderate is not in tandem with the findings of the earlier scholars which revealed that the level of continuance commitment of academic staff at Kyambogo University was high.

5.2.4 Normative Commitment. Descriptive findings of the study indicated that normative commitment of academic staff was found to be high. The finding of this study was in line with the results of previous researchers. As such, Bahadori et al. (2021) indicated higher level of normative commitment among executive personnel working in the fire department in Tehran, Iran. Further, Cimili Gök and Özçetin (2021) showed low normative commitment among teachers in the district of Antalya, Turkey. Similarly, Kasimoglu (2021) revealed higher degree of normative commitment for healthcare professionals in Konya health sector, Turkey. Relatedly, Allida (2021) indicated greater level of normative commitment among employees in selected tertiary education institution, north-west Haiti.

On the other hand, Candelario et al. (2020) revealed that the level of normative commitment among government employees in northern Philippines was high. Also, Adewoyin et al. (2020) revealed higher degree of normative commitment among library personnel in Nigerian Universities. However, contrary to the above, a study by Vandenberghe et al. (2015) indicated lower normative commitment of nurses in University hospital, France. Thus, the finding of this

study indicated that normative commitment of academic staff was high which concurred with the findings of the majority scholars. This implied that the normative commitment of academic staff at Kyambogo University was high.

5.3 Leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff

The first objective of this study was to establish the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff. Thus, the hypothesis that there is no connection between leadership behaviours and commitment of academic staff was derived. The overall results for hypothesis to objective one, to the effect that there is no link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff was positive and significant. Thus, the hypothesis was rejected. This finding was in agreement with the Path-goal leadership theory (House, 1971) which asserts that the role of the leader is to guide the subordinates along the path to achieve organisational commitment. Further, the study concurred with the findings of the previous scholars.

A study by Çilek (2019) revealed that superiors' leadership behaviours had a positive effect on employees' organisational commitment among teachers in Turkey. However, contrary to the study findings, a study by Al-Hussami et al. (2018) which investigated the influence of leadership behaviours on organisational commitment using nurses in Amman healthcare sectors in Jordan and revealed a moderate significant connection between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. Al-Yami et al. (2018) studied leadership behaviours and organisational commitment among nurses in Saudi-Arabia and revealed that leadership behaviours positively influenced organisational commitment. A study by Dou et al. (2017) related leadership behaviours and organisational commitment among secondary school teachers

in China and their analysis revealed a significant influence of leadership behaviours on organisational commitment.

More so, Alzubi (2018) investigated the impact of leadership behaviours on organisational commitment of academicians in Jordanian Universities and indicated that leadership behaviours had a significant impact on organisational commitment. On the other hand, Palupi et al. (2019) tested whether leadership affects organisational commitment of employees in Indonesia and indicated that leadership strongly impacted on organisational commitment. Given the fact that the results of this study were in tandem with the majority findings of the earlier researchers, it implied that leadership behaviours positively and significantly influenced organisational commitment of academic staff.

5.3.1 Directive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff

The result of the hypothesis to the effect that there is no relationship between directive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff showed that the relationship was negative and insignificant. Thus, the hypothesis was supported. The results of this study were contrary to the results of the earlier researchers. A study by Banjarnahor et al. (2018) tested the association between directive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of elementary school principals in Medan, Indonesia and results of Path coefficient indicated that principal's directive leadership had a positive and significant effect on organisational commitment. Likewise, a study by Ongechi (2018) on employees in Kenya commercial banks reported that directive leadership behaviours had a positive influence on organisational commitment.

Further, a study done in Pakistan, Islam et al. (2018) showed that directive leadership behaviours had a significant association with commitment of employees in the banking industry. Similarly, a study conducted on Christian aid, a non-governmental organisation covering three countries of Kenya, Malawi and Nigeria, Githuka (2017) indicated a significant link between directive leadership behaviours and employee commitment. Further, Mahdi et al. (2014) related directive leadership behaviours and affective organisational commitment using employees of plantation companies in Malaysia and revealed a significant connection between directive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. The results of this study being in support with the results of all earlier studies, it can be concluded that implementation of directive leadership did not improve on the organisational commitment of academic staff. This was confirmed by the results of partial least square structural equation modelling which indicated negative and insignificant relationship between directive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff.

5.3.2 Supportive leadership behaviours and organisational Commitment of academic staff

The hypothesis that there is no association between supportive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff revealed that the relationship was negative and insignificant. As such, the hypothesis was rejected. The result was inconsistent with the dominant previous scholars such as, a study by Ab Rahman and Jantan (2020) related supportive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of public university employees in Malaysia and the analysis revealed a significant connection between supportive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. Further, Okello (2018) related supportive leadership behaviours and employee commitment of faculty members at United States international

university of Africa in Nairobi, Kenya showed a strong link between supportive leadership behaviours and employee commitment.

Additionally, Ongechi (2018) studied supportive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of employees in commercial banks of Kenya and revealed a direct link of supportive leadership behaviours on organisational commitment. Further, a study by Kasimu (2016) related supportive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of employees of East African breweries limited in Nairobi, Kenya and indicated a direct link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. A study done in Canada on international retailers, Tremblay et al. (2018) related supportive leadership behaviours and collective affective commitment and revealed a significant connection between supportive leadership behaviours and affective organisational commitment.

Further, Bahkia et al. (2020) investigated the connection between supportive leadership behaviours and work commitment of employees in Indah water Consortium in Malaysia and indicated a strong connection between supportive leadership behaviours and employee work commitment. With results of the study being inconsistent with the results of various scholars implied that implementation of supportive leadership behaviours did not have positive and significant impact on organisational commitment of academic staff.

5.3.3 Participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff

The results of hypothesis that there is no impact between participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff revealed that the connection was positive and significant. This therefore means that the hypothesis was not supported. The result of this study is consistent with the findings of the previous scholars such as, Adigüzel et al. (2020) who tested

the relationship between participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of white-collar employees working in automobile and revealed that participative leadership behaviours a positively influenced on organisational commitment.

Further, Bakare and Ojeleye (2020) studied participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic and non-academic staff in Nigeria and indicated a significant impact of participative leadership behaviours on employee organisational commitment. Odoardi et al. (2019) tested the relationship between affective commitment and participative leadership behaviours of employees in Italian companies and showed a stronger connection between affective commitment and participative leadership behaviours. A study by Islam et al. (2018) related participative leadership and organisational commitment of employees and indicated that employees' organisational commitment was strengthened by participative leadership.

Similarly, Hayat Bhatti et al. (2019) studied continuance commitment and participative leadership behaviours of hotel employees in Pakistan and revealed a significant association between participative leadership behaviours and continuance commitment. On the other hand, a study by Miao et al. (2013) which related participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment among civil servants in China revealed a direct link between participative leadership behaviours and subordinates' organisational commitment. The discussion above shows that the results of the study were in line with the findings of the earlier studies. This means that the implementation of participative leadership behaviours significantly influenced organisational commitment of academic staff. The results were also in tandem with the findings of descriptive statistics which revealed that the level of participative leadership behaviours was high.

5.3.4 Achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff

The results of the hypothesis to the effect that there is no relationship between achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff revealed that the relationship was positive but insignificant. Therefore, the hypothesis was not supported. This finding did not concur with the results by earlier investigators. Thus, a study by Githuka (2017) investigated achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and employee organisational commitment in Kenya revealed a strong connection between achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of employees.

In Rwanda, Niyitegeka (2015) related principal's achievement leadership behaviours and teacher's commitment in boarding secondary schools and the findings revealed a positive association between achievement leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. Still in Kenya, a study carried out in commercial banks, Ongechi (2018) studied achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and organisational commitment and indicated that achievement-oriented leadership behaviours had significant link with organisational commitment. The findings of the study not concurring with findings of previous scholars implied that the implementation of achievement-oriented leadership behaviours did not improve on organisational commitment of academic staff.

5.4 Leadership Behaviours and Job Satisfaction of Academic Staff

This objective of the study sought to assess the relationship between leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff. The hypothesis that resulted from this objective was that there is no relationship between leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff. The

results revealed a positive and significant relationship between leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. Thus, this hypothesis was rejected. The result of this study was consistent with the Herzberg two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1959) which explains that the role of the leader is to provide subordinates with the intrinsic factors that promote their job satisfaction. Further, the finding of this study was in line with the results of the earlier researchers. Thus, Han et al. (2021) related leadership behaviours of school principals of public schools in Turkey on teacher's job satisfaction and their findings revealed a significant link between principal's leadership behaviours and teacher's job satisfaction.

Further, Muganda and Muganda (2020) linked leadership behaviours and employee job satisfaction in public secondary schools of Kenya. Their findings revealed a direct association between principal's leadership behaviours and teacher's job satisfaction. On their part, Mwesigwa et al. (2020) related leadership behaviours and job satisfaction among academicians in Ugandan Public Universities and revealed a direct link between leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. Relatedly, Cansoy (2019) did a systematic review of the superior's leadership behaviours and employee job satisfaction and indicated that leadership behaviours had a strong connection on employees' job satisfaction. However, contrary to the results of this study, Mefi and Asoba (2020) investigated leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of employees in education institution of Eastern Cape Province, South Africa and their results revealed no significant connection between leadership style and job satisfaction.

Nevertheless, Dokony et al. (2020) investigated the association between leadership behaviours based on the path-goal theory on employee job satisfaction in the telecommunication companies in Chad and revealed significant link between leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. In line with the same, Güngör (2016) related leadership behaviours of school

administrators and teacher's job satisfaction in Turkey and results indicated that leadership behaviours of school administrators significantly influenced teacher's job satisfaction. On the other hand, Bedoya (2021) established how leadership styles impact on job satisfaction of employees of business enterprises in tertiary sector of Colombia and revealed a direct link between leadership styles and job satisfaction.

Further, Hua (2020) investigated the link leadership styles and job satisfaction of employees in small and medium-sized enterprises of Vietnam and results indicated limited impact of leadership styles on job satisfaction. Relatedly, Birbirsa and Lakew (2020) related leadership style and employees' job satisfaction in a micro and small enterprises at Western Oromia, Ethiopia and results of the study indicated a significant association between leadership styles and job satisfaction. However, all the above studies focused on leadership styles to obliquely imply leadership behaviours yet the two concepts are psychometrically measured differently.

Similarly, Alshahrani and Baig (2016) related leadership style and job satisfaction among critical care nurses in Aseer, Saudi Arabia and revealed a direct influence between leadership styles and job satisfaction. Further, Tsepetsi et al. (2019) linked leadership style on job satisfaction of employees of logistical sector in the Gauteng province, South Africa and results indicated a positive connection between leadership style and job satisfaction. Birbirsa and Lakew (2020) related leadership style and employees' job satisfaction of employees in Western Oromia, Ethiopia and results indicated a strong connection between leadership styles and job satisfaction. Still, these studies focused on leadership styles to indirectly imply leadership behaviours. However, the results of this study being consistent with the findings of the earlier investigators, it

can be asserted that the implementation of leadership behaviours positively and significantly influenced organisational commitment of academic staff.

5.4.1 Directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff

Results of the hypothesis that there is no association between directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff revealed that relationship was positive and significant. Therefore, this means that the hypothesis relating directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff was rejected. This finding concurred with the majority findings of the previous scholars. As such, in a study conducted in Bungoma north sub-county, Kenya by Muganda and Muganda (2020) related principal's directive leadership behaviours and secondary school teachers' job satisfaction and their findings revealed a positive and significant relationship between principals' directive leadership behaviours and teacher job satisfaction.

Further, Ngabonzima et al. (2020) did a study on directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction among Rwandan nurses and midwives and findings indicated that directive leadership behaviours substantially enhanced job satisfaction. Nevertheless, Mwaisaka et al. (2019b) tested the link between directive leadership behaviours and employee job satisfaction of employee of commercial banks in Kenya and showed that directive leadership had a positive and significant relationship with employee job satisfaction. Relatedly, Naomi (2015) related principal's directive leadership behaviours and teachers' job satisfaction in public primary schools in Kenya and indicated that principals' directive leadership behaviours had a direct link on teachers' job satisfaction.

More still, Al-Sada et al. (2017) tested directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of employees in the education sector in Qatar and revealed that directive leadership

behaviours had significant impact on job satisfaction. Similarly, Banjarnahor et al. (2018) related principle's directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of teachers in junior high school of Medan, Indonesia and revealed that principals with low directive leadership behaviours had higher job satisfaction. Contrary to the study findings, a study based on path-goal theory, Dokony et al. (2020) studied leadership behaviours and satisfaction of employees in telecommunication companies in Chad and revealed that directive leadership behaviours had insignificant influence on employee satisfaction.

Based on path-goal theory, Shegaw (2020) tested the connection between directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of employees in Ethiopian largest taxpayer's office. Results revealed that directive leadership behaviours had a negative influence on job satisfaction. In their study, Rabbani et al. (2017) investigated directive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction employees in public sector organisations, Pakistan and indicated that job satisfaction negatively related with directive leadership behaviours. Thus, the results of this study concurring with the findings of the previous researchers imply that directive leadership behaviour had positive and significant connection on job satisfaction of academic staff.

5.4.2 Supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff

The hypothesis that there is no a link between supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff revealed a positive and significant relationship. This implied that the hypothesis was rejected. The results were in tandem with the findings of the previous scholars as such, a study by Muganda and Muganda (2020) related supportive leadership behaviours and teacher's job satisfaction in public secondary schools in Kenya and revealed that supportive leadership behaviours strongly impacted on teacher's job satisfaction. Further, Yan-Li

and Hassan (2018) related supportive leadership behaviours and teachers' job satisfaction in Hulu Langat, Selangor, Malaysia and revealed that supportive leadership behaviours had a strong influence on teachers' job satisfaction.

Thuku et al. (2018a) carried out a study on head teacher's supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of teachers in primary schools of Nakuru County, Kenya and showed that headteachers' supportive leadership behaviours had a direct link on teachers' job satisfaction. Mutune et al. (2019) studied the influence of headteachers' supportive leadership behaviours on job satisfaction of teachers in catholic private primary schools of Nakuru and Nairobi, Kenya and findings revealed that head teacher's supportive leadership behaviours had significant influence on teacher's job satisfaction. Shegaw (2020) studied supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of employees in Ethiopian large taxpayer's office and results showed that supportive leadership behaviours had a strong positive influence on job satisfaction.

Further, Soodan and Pandey (2017) investigated supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of employees. Results revealed that supportive leadership behaviours had positive impact on job satisfaction. Similarly, a study done on civil police constable in the state of Uttar Pradesh, India by Maurya and Agarwal (2015) tested the link between leadership behaviours and job satisfaction and the results revealed a significant correlation between supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. Nevertheless, based on path-goal theory, Naureen and Noshaba (2015) tested the impact of supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of secondary school teachers and revealed a significant link between supportive leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. Therefore, with the hypothesis consistent with the findings of the scholars, it can be asserted that the implementation of supportive leadership behaviours had a link with job satisfaction of academic staff.

5.4.3 Participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff

The results of the hypothesis that there is no connection between participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction revealed a positive and significant impact. As such, the hypothesis was rejected. This result was in agreement with the results of majority researchers. For example, Merks (2020) investigated participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of employees in large healthy-technology multi-national company in Netherlands and showed that participative leadership behaviours strongly related to job satisfaction. Further, a study by Chan (2019) related participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of employees in a retailing store in Hong Kong, China and showed that participative leadership behaviours were positively related to job satisfaction.

A study conducted by Kiplangat (2017) tested how participative leadership behaviours relate to lecturer's job satisfaction in higher learning institutions in Kenya's education sector revealed a strong connection between participative leadership behaviours and lecturer's job satisfaction. Relatedly, Sinani (2016) tested how participative leadership impacted on job satisfaction for highly skilled virtual teams with the global software industry who were members of the International Association of Software Architects and revealed a strong association between participative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. Nevertheless, Dyczkowska and Dyczkowski (2018) linked participative management and job satisfaction of employees of business enterprises in Poland revealed a strong connection between participative management and job satisfaction.

5.4.4 Achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of academic staff

The results of the hypothesis that there is no connection between achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and job satisfaction revealed a negative and insignificant implying that the hypothesis was accepted. The result was contrary to the majority findings of the earlier researchers such as, a study by Yan-Li and Hassan (2018) studied principal's achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of secondary school teachers in Selangor, Malaysia showed that achievement-oriented leadership behaviours significantly influenced teacher's job satisfaction. Further, a study by Thuku et al. (2018b) related head teacher's achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and teacher's job satisfaction in primary schools in Nakuru-county, Kenya and indicated a substantial association between achievement leadership behaviours and teacher's job satisfaction.

Similarly, Suradi (2017) investigated achievement-oriented leadership behaviours and lecturer's job satisfaction in financial education and training agency, ministry of finance, Indonesia and indicated a link between achievements-oriented leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. Further, Muganda and Muganda (2020) tested whether achievement-oriented leadership behaviours of school principals and job satisfaction of secondary school teachers in Bungoma North sub-county, Kenya and indicated that achievement-oriented leadership behaviours had a significant influence on job satisfaction. The results of the study being inconsistent with the results of earlier investigators, it can therefore be asserted that implementation of achievement-oriented leadership behaviours had limited impact on job satisfaction of the academic staff.

5.5 Job Satisfaction and organisational commitment of Academic Staff

This objective examined the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academic staff. The result of the hypothesis to the effect that there is no connection between job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academic staff was positive and significant implying that the hypothesis was rejected. This finding concurred with the Herzberg Two-Factor theory (Herzberg, 1959) which assumes that the supply of intrinsic factor to employees promote their organisational commitment. Further, the result was in line with the findings of earlier researchers. Further, a study by Makhathini and Dyke (2018) related job satisfaction and organisational commitment among South African soldiers and results revealed that job satisfaction positively predicted affective organisational commitment.

On the other hand, Mitonga-Monga et al. (2018) tested whether job satisfaction related organisational commitment of employees in the railway sector found in Democratic Republic of Congo and findings revealed that employees' job satisfaction positively influenced organisational commitment. Relatedly, Nobile (2017) linked job satisfaction and organisational commitment of primary school staff in Western Australia and revealed that job satisfaction had a link with organisational commitment. Further, a study done by Qureshi and Frank (2016) related job satisfaction and organisational commitment of Indian police officers and study findings revealed a positive influence of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Similarly, Mabasa and Ngirande (2015) related job satisfaction and organisational commitment among academic staff members in South African higher education sector and findings showed a significant association between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

In their study, Trivellas and Santouridis (2016) related job satisfaction and organisational commitment of faculty and administrative staff of higher education institutions in Greece and

results revealed a strong link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Relatedly, a study by Chordiya et al. (2017) investigated the impact of affective organisational commitment and employee job satisfaction in USA and India, their findings revealed that job satisfaction had a significant positive impact on affective organisational commitment. Nevertheless, Sait (2017) investigated organisation commitment components and job satisfaction of employees working in furniture manufacturing firms in Federation of Bosnia and Heregovin and indicated that affective and normative commitment had effects on overall job satisfaction.

Relatedly, Tekingündüz et al. (2017) tested the impact of job satisfaction on organisational commitment of staff working at a public hospital in Bingol, Turkey. The study findings revealed a significant impact between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. However, results of this study being consistent with the results of the earlier studies, it can be asserted that the implementation of job satisfaction is positively and significantly influenced organisational commitment of academic staff.

5.5.1 Intrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academic staff

The results of the hypothesis that there is no relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academic staff showed that the relationship was positive and significant. Thus, the hypothesis was rejected. The result was in line with the majority findings of the previous scholars such as, a study by Raza and Ahmed (2017) related intrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment of public primary school teachers in Punjab province, Pakistan. The findings indicated that organisational commitment directly related to intrinsic job satisfaction. Further, Ismail and Razak (2016) tested the association between intrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees in fire and rescue

department in Malaysia. The findings indicated that intrinsic job satisfaction significantly influenced organisational commitment. In line with the above, Khalid and Aftab (2017) investigated employees' intrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment in higher education sector in Pakistan and results revealed that intrinsic job satisfaction had greater influence on organisational commitment.

On their part, Gimeshu and Fanta (2018) related intrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees in commercial banks in Ethiopia. The findings of the study revealed that intrinsic job satisfaction moderately correlated organisational commitment of employees. Similarly, Goa and Fanta (2018) related intrinsic job satisfaction and employee commitment in the banking sector of WolaitaSaoda district in Ethiopia and results indicated a moderate influence of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The results of the study being consistent with the majority results of the earlier studies, it can be asserted that the implementation of intrinsic job satisfaction had a positive and significant influence on organisational commitment of academic staff.

5.5.2 Extrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academic staff

The results of the hypothesis that there is no relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academic staff showed that the link between the variables was positive and insignificant. Thus, the sub-hypothesis was supported. The results of this study were contrary to the results of earlier scholars. As such, Nguyen et al. (2021) examined the impact of extrinsic job satisfaction on organisational commitment of academic and non-academic employees of higher education sector in Vietnam and results revealed that extrinsic job satisfaction positively and significantly linked to organisational commitment. Further, Novitasari

et al. (2020) related extrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees in a packaging manufacturing plant in India and results indicated that job satisfaction positively and significantly influenced organisational commitment.

Similarly, Abdelmoula (2020) investigated extrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment of accounting professionals in Tunisia and revealed that extrinsic job satisfaction had a positive link on organisational commitment. Nevertheless, Bagasworo (2017) examined organisational commitment and extrinsic job satisfaction in camps. Results of t-test revealed that commitment to the organisations had positive connection on extrinsic job satisfaction. On the other hand, Baylor (2010) studied the application of Herzberg's two factor theory to investigate the influence of extrinsic job satisfaction and affective commitment among drivers in the solid waste management industry in Amsterdam and indicated that extrinsic job satisfaction significantly influenced affective commitment. The results of the study being inconsistent to the results of the earlier researchers, it can be asserted that the implementation of extrinsic job satisfaction had limited influence on the organisational commitment of academic staff.

5.6 Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff

This objective assessed the link between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment of academic staff. The hypothesis derived from this objective was that there is no relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment of academic staff. Therefore, the results of this study revealed that emotional intelligence had a connection on organisational commitment of academic staff was positive and significant. Thus, this hypothesis was rejected. This finding was in agreement with emotional intelligence based performance theory (Goleman, 1995) which assumes that employees with higher level of emotional intelligence are expected to

exhibit superior performance in organisations and demonstrate a high degree of organisational commitment.

Further, the study finding was in agreement with the findings of the previous scholars. Thus, a study by Alsughayir (2021) tested emotional intelligence and organisational commitment of customer service employees in Saudi-Arabia banks and results revealed a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment. On the other hand, Amjad (2018) examined emotional intelligence and organisational commitment of University teaching staff in Quetta, Baluchistan University and results revealed that emotional intelligence significantly impacted on organisational commitment. On their part, Sharma and Singh (2021) did a systematic review on emotional intelligence and organisational commitment and revealed a positive association between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment.

Similarly, a study by Ouerdian et al. (2021) studied emotional intelligence and affective organisational commitment of employees in Turkey and indicated that emotional intelligence directly related to organisational commitment. Relatedly, Sharma and Singh (2021) did a systematic review on emotional intelligence and organisational commitment and results of the study indicated a strong connection between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment. On their part, Gopinath et al. (2020) studied the impact of emotional intelligence on organisational commitment of academic leaders in Tamil Nadu universities, in India and results revealed a positive link between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment.

On the other hand, Gopinath et al. (2020) examined the impact of emotional intelligence on organisational commitment of academic leaders in Tamil Nadu universities and indicated positive association between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment. On their

part, Baker et al. (2019) assessed emotional intelligence and affective commitment of police officers in Kuala Lumpur and results showed that emotional intelligence was greatly linked to organisational commitment. Further, Jain and Duggal (2018) investigated the link between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment of employees in information technology in India and findings of the study showed a significant impact of emotional intelligence on organisational commitment. In addition, Katungu (2018) related emotional intelligence and organisational commitment of employees in Sweden and findings indicated that emotional intelligence greatly impacted on organisational commitment.

Similarly, Letam (2017) examined emotional intelligence and organisational commitment of employees in three industrial sub-sectors in Nigeria. Results indicated that there existed a greater impact between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment. On hand, Mustafa et al. (2014) tested emotional intelligence and organisational commitment of polytechnic lecturers in Malaysia and findings indicated a greater association between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment. However, contrary to the above studies, a study by Shafiq and Rana (2016) examined emotional intelligence and organisational commitment of college teachers in Pakistan and indicated moderate impact of emotional intelligence on organisational commitment. Thus, the results of this study being consistent with results of the earlier researchers, it can assert that the implementation of emotional intelligence had a strong impact on organisational commitment of academic staff.

5.6.1 Self-awareness and organisational commitment of academic staff

The result to the hypothesis that there is no association between self-awareness and organisational commitment of academic staff was positive and insignificant. Thus, the

hypothesis was accepted. The results of this study were contrary to the findings of the earlier studies. Such as, a study by Yuvaraja and Eveline (2018) investigated the role self-awareness on employee commitment in business organisations of Chennai, India and results indicated that self-awareness significantly influenced employee commitment.

On their part, Baker et al. (2019) related self-emotional appraisal (self-awareness) and affective commitment of public officers in Malaysia and results indicated that self-awareness positively influenced organisational commitment. Similarly, Pourkiani et al. (2016) related self-awareness and organisational commitment of workers in Islamic Azad University, Iran. Results showed that self-awareness highly influenced organisational commitment. A study by Latem (2017) tested the link between self-awareness and affective commitment of employees in selected industries of River state, Nigeria and indicated a connection between self-awareness and affective commitment. Relatedly, a study by Muriuki and Gachunga (2013) related self-awareness and organisational commitment of employees at Kenya institute of curriculum development and results indicated that self-awareness was greatly linked to organisational commitment.

However, the study by Matheri et al. (2018) linked self-awareness and employee commitment in SACCOs in Nairobi, Kenya and showed that self-awareness was not the greatest factor that contributed to organisational commitment. However, with the findings of majority studies inconsistent with results of the earlier researchers, it be asserted that the implementation of self-awareness had limited influence on organisational commitment of academic staff.

5.6.2 Self-management and organisational commitment of academic staff

The result of the hypothesis that there is no link between self-management and organisational commitment of academic staff was positive and significant. Thus, the -hypothesis was rejected. Results of this study concurred with the results of the earlier researchers. A study by Wameru et al. (2020a) related principle's self-management and organisational commitment of teachers in secondary schools of county governments in Kenya. The study findings revealed that principal's self-management significantly influenced teacher's organisational commitment. Further, Osieko et al. (2017) did study on emotional self-regulation and organisational commitment of managers in private school enterprises of Nairobi County and indicated that emotional self-regulation significantly influenced organisational commitment.

A study by Aghabozorgi et al. (2014) related self-management and organisational commitment of nurses in the public hospitals of Sanandaj in Iran and results showed that self-management greatly impacted on organisational commitment. In Kenya, Muriuki and Gachunga (2013) related self-management and organisational commitment of employees at the institute of curriculum development and results revealed that self-management and organisational commitment greatly connected. Therefore, the results of this study being consistent with the results of the earlier researchers, it can be asserted that the implementation of self-management had a greater connection with organisational commitment of academic staff.

5.6.3 Social-awareness awareness and organisational commitment of academic staff

The results of hypothesis to that there is no relationship between social-awareness and organisational commitment of academic staff was positive and significant. Thus, the hypothesis was rejected. The study's results were consistent with those of earlier researchers such, a study

by Green and Gabriel (2019) studied whether manager's social-awareness leads to organisational commitment of employees in hotels of Port Harcourt, Nigeria and results revealed that social-awareness of manager's increased employees' commitment. Further, a study by Hossein and Hakimeh (2015) linked manager's social-intelligence and employee commitment in governmental organisations in Iran and findings showed that manager's social-intelligence greatly impacted on organisational commitment.

In their study, a study by Mustafa et al. (2014) related social-intelligence and commitment of lecturers in polytechnic found in Malaysia, Northern zone and indicated a significant link between social-intelligence and organisational commitment. A study in Malaysia by Long and Kowang (2015) studied the effect of social-awareness on employees' commitment and results revealed that social-awareness greatly impacted on organisational commitment. However, a study by Majidian and Nazari (2014) related social-awareness and commitment among staff working in education department in Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad province, Iran and results indicated a moderate relationship between social-awareness and organisational commitment. The results of this study concurring with the results of the earlier researchers; it can be asserted that the implementation of social-awareness positively and significantly influenced commitment of academic staff.

5.6.4 Relationship-management and organisational commitment of academic staff

The result of hypothesis that there is no impact between relationship-management and organisational commitment of academic staff was positive and insignificant. Thus, this hypothesis was accepted. This finding was inconsistent with the findings of the previous scholars such as; a study by Wameru et al. (2020b) studied principal's relationship-management and

commitment of teachers in secondary schools of county government in Kenya and revealed that principal's relationship-management significantly predicted teacher's commitment. A study by Yuvaraj and Eveline (2018) tested how relationship-management linked to employee commitment in business organisations of Chennai, India and result indicated that relationship-management greatly impacted on employee commitment.

Sawitheri et al. (2017) studied employer-employee relationship-management and employee commitment among employees of Ceylon electricity in Sri-Lanka and results indicated a positive impact of relationship-management on employee commitment. Relatedly, Aghabozorgi et al. (2014) studied relationship-management and commitment of nurses in the public hospitals of Sanandaj, Iran and results of revealed relationship-management was strongly linked to organisational commitment. Bhalero and Kumar (2016) tested the relationship between relationship-management and commitment of workers in information and communication technology sector in India. The results revealed that relationship-management was greatly related to commitment.

Nevertheless, Seyal and Afzaal (2013) related relationship-management and organisational commitment of academics in Brunei Darussalam, India and results indicated that relationship-management strongly predict organisational commitment. The results of the study being in not in agreement with the results of the earlier researchers, it can be asserted that the implementation of relationship-management had limited influence on commitment of academic staff.

5.7 Job Satisfaction, Leadership Behaviours and Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff

Objective five of the study thought to test the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff. The hypothesis derived from this objective was to the effect that job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff. The findings of the hypothesis revealed that the hypothesis was rejected. The findings of this study were not in agreement with the results of the earlier studies. Halim et al. (2021) indicated that job satisfaction mediated leadership styles and organisational commitment. Also, Azzman (2020) revealed that job satisfaction mediated leadership styles and organisational commitment.

Further, Sušanj and Jakopec (2012) revealed that job satisfaction mediated leadership styles and organisational commitment. Relatedly, Silitonga et al. (2020) indicated that jobs satisfaction mediated the link between transformational leadership and organisational commitment. Further, Hendri (2018) revealed that job satisfaction mediated organisational learning and employee performance. However, this study investigated whether job satisfaction mediates the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment.

Nonetheless, Banjarnahor et al. (2018) showed that job satisfaction moderately mediated directive and participative leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. The result of the study concurring with the results of other researchers, it can be asserted that the implementation of job satisfaction mediated leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff. However, because the path coefficient of the direct link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment was positive and insignificant (See Table

4.34 in Chapter Four), it implied that job satisfaction partially mediated leadership behaviours and organisational commitment.

5.8 The Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence on the Relationship between Leadership Behaviours and Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff

This objective of the study tested emotional intelligence as a moderator between leadership behaviours and commitment of academic staff. The hypothesis derived from this objective was that emotional intelligence had no moderating influence on leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff. Result of the hypothesis to the effect that emotional intelligence moderated the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment was negative and insignificant. Thus, the hypothesis was supported. The result of this study was not in agreement with the results of the earlier researchers.

Alkahtani (2016) indicated that emotional intelligence moderated the link between leadership styles and organisational commitment. Saeed et al. (2015) revealed that emotional intelligence strongly moderated transformational leadership and organisational commitment. But, this study focused on the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff. Saleem et al. (2017) revealed that emotional intelligence significantly moderated the relationship between leadership style and commitment. Further, Rehman and Waheed (2012) indicated that emotional intelligence moderated the connection between transformational leadership styles and decision-making styles. However, the above two studies focused on leadership styles to obliquely imply leadership behaviours and yet the two concepts are measured distinctly.

Relatedly, Awan et al. (2014) revealed emotional intelligence as moderator between transformational leadership and organisational commitment. Also, Farahani et al. (2011) revealed emotional intelligence as a greater moderator of transformational leadership and commitment. However, the two studies used transformational leadership to imply leadership behaviours and yet the two are measured differently. However, the path coefficient of emotional intelligence as a moderator of leadership behaviour and organisational commitment was negative and insignificant. This implied that emotional intelligence did not moderate the link between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment.

5.9 Conclusions

This section presents the study conclusions in line with the objectives. Thus, the following conclusions were drawn from the study objectives:

1. Leadership behaviours are imperative for organisational commitment of academic staff. Particularly, leadership behaviours of participative leadership which enhance organisational commitment of academic staff. Specifically, this is when superiors consult with the academic staff, when superiors listen receptively to the ideas and suggestions of academic staff, when leaders ask for their suggestions concerning how to carry out assignments. Further, when superiors consider the suggestions of academic staff even when they disagree, when superiors involve academic staff in different administrative activities and use their suggestions as they make decisions.
2. Leadership behaviours are essential for job satisfaction of academic staff. This is especially so when leaders provide guidance to academic staff in taking decisions and actions that support leadership goals, express concern and emotional support for academic staff's needs

and well-being; when superiors give a fair degree of opportunity to academic staff to participate in decision making about their work and well-being in the University.

3. Job satisfaction is vital for organisational commitment of academic staff. This is when academic staff are aroused to love their job as well as derive the feeling of accomplishment from what they do. They are also given the freedom to use their own judgment when doing their work and when this happens, academic staffs are kept busy at work.
4. Emotional intelligence is essential for organisational commitment of academic staff. When academic staff exercise self-management by staying calm in stressful situations, they can control the way they feel when something bad happens and when upset and wait until they calm down before discussing the issue. With this manner of doing things, academic staff become committed. Further, when academic staff exhibit social-awareness by recognising how people feel by looking at their facial expression, it is easy for them to understand why people feel the way they do and have a good idea why their friends get upset. The academic staffs, therefore, gets committed.
5. Job satisfaction is partially important in the relationship between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff. Therefore, when academic staff is intrinsically and extrinsically satisfied, their organisational commitment is enhanced.
6. The interaction between emotional intelligence and leadership behaviours is important for organisational commitment of academic staff. This is so when academic staff understands their own feelings and what triggers them, have a strong sense of self-worth, when academic staff stay calm when things go wrong, stay calm in stressful situations. Further, when academic staff recognise how people feel by looking at their facial expression, always

apologise when they hurt others unintentionally, are tolerant to other people's mistakes and stand up for themselves without putting others down promote commitment.

5.10 Recommendations

The conclusion about significant predictors of organisational of academic staff led to the making of the following recommendations:

1. Universities leaders need to provide guidance to academic staff in taking decisions and actions to enhance their organisational commitment. This should involve superiors consulting with academic staff when making decisions, listening receptively to their ideas and suggestions, asking for their suggestions on what assignment should be done, considering their suggestions even when they disagree with them. Further, involving academic staff in different administrative activities and using their suggestions as they make decisions can go a long way in enhancing their organisational commitment.
2. Leaders in Universities should provide guidance to academic staff in taking decisions, express concern and emotional support for the academic staff's needs and well-being, and give them a fair degree of opportunity to participate in decision making about their work and well-being to enhance job satisfaction. This should be through letting academic staff know what is expected of them. They should be left to know how a particular role should be performed and they should be guided to follow standard rules and regulations. Leaders should also explain to the academic staff the level of performance that is expected of them, give them clear explanations of what is expected of them on the job, and set for them goals to achieve. Further, university leaders should maintain a friendly working relationship with academic staff and encourage them to work even in difficult situations. It is incumbent on

the leaders to try to understand the views of the academic staff when they speak to them and say things to their staff that can promote a good mutual relationship and job satisfaction.

3. Leaders in universities should make effort to promote factors that are related to the content of the job to enhance organisational commitment of academic staff. This should be done by keeping academic staff busy all the time while at work, giving them the opportunity to work alone on the job and granting them the opportunity to do different things from time to time while working. Academic staff should be encouraged to love their job. Further, having the freedom to use their own judgement as they do work gets them the feeling of accomplishment from their job and keeps them busy. This is most likely to enhance organisational commitment of academic staff.
4. University leaders should enhance emotional self-regulation and emotional awareness about others amongst academic staff in order to enhance organisational commitment. This should be done by staying calm in stressful situations and even when things go wrong. Academic staff should be able to control the way they feel when something bad happens. If upset with someone, they should wait till they have calmed down before discussing the issue. Furthermore, recognising how people feel by looking at their facial expression, understanding why people react the way they do in different situations and having a pretty good idea why their friends get upset enhances organisational commitment of academic staff.
5. Job satisfaction is significant in enhancing leadership behaviours and organisational commitment of academic staff. Therefore, the study recommended that when academic staff are intrinsically and extrinsically satisfied, their organisational commitment is enhanced
6. The study, further, recommended that the interaction between emotional intelligence and leadership behaviours is imperative to enhance organisational commitment of academic staff.

However, to achieve emotional intelligence, the academic staffs needs to understand very well their own feelings and what triggers them. They also need to have a strong sense of self-worth, to stay calm when things go wrong and when situations are stressful. Furthermore, academic staff need to know how people feel by looking at their facial expression, always apologise when they hurt others unintentionally and be tolerant to other people's mistakes and stand up for themselves without putting others down promote commitment

5.11 Limitation of the study

This study makes a significant contribution in identifying significant predictors of organisational commitment of academic staff using leadership behaviours, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence variables. However, the results for some constructs were contrary to what was hypothesised such as, directive and supportive leadership behaviours negatively and insignificantly predicted organisational commitment of academic staff. Achievement-oriented leadership behaviour positively and insignificantly predicted organisational commitment of academic staff. Achievement-oriented leadership behaviour negatively and insignificantly predicted job satisfaction of academic staff. Extrinsic job satisfaction positively and insignificantly predicted organisational commitment of academic staff. Relationship-management and self-awareness positively and insignificantly predicted organisational commitment of academic staff. Such findings were contrary to the findings of the previous scholars. In addition, this study was done in one university hence, there is need to have this study conducted in different universities in Uganda both public and private universities. Besides, this study was quantitative which limited in-depth analysis of the study. Further, the study was also

based on data collection from full-time academic staff of the university. This implies that careful consideration should be given to generalizing the research findings to all universities

5.12 Suggestions for further Research/ Delimitation of the Study

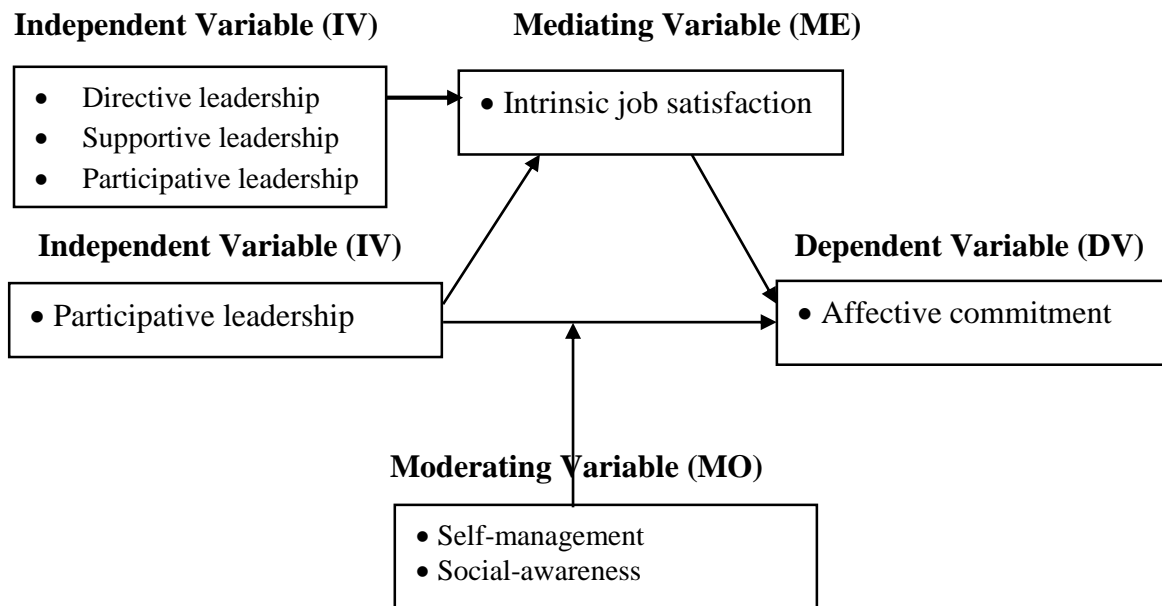
Basing on the limitations above, this study was only quantitative thus; similar studies should be conducted using qualitative approach covering both public and private universities. The findings on the link between directive and supportive leadership behaviours on organisational commitment of academic staff contrasted with the findings made by the majority scholars by indicating that it had a negative and insignificant relationship with organisational commitment of academic staff. Furthermore, the connection between achievement-oriented leadership behaviours had a positive and insignificant link on organisational commitment of academic staff. Also, the connection between extrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment was positive and insignificant; the link between self-awareness and relationship-management on organisational commitment of academic staff was positive and insignificant. The above findings call for the further research to clarify their significance on the organisational commitment. This suggests that, future researchers should make great effort to conduct a similar or related study on more universities including both public and private universities. Further, the study used a quantitative research approach which might have limited in-depth analysis of leadership behaviours, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence with respect to organisational commitment of academic staff.

5.13 Contribution of the study

To the body of knowledge, this study developed a new model indicating how to promote organisational commitment of academic staff using leadership behaviours, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence as its practical contributions. The model is a modified version of the original conceptual framework (Figure 1.1) that explained the connection between academic staff organisational commitment, leadership behaviours, and job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. Figure 5.1 below shows the developed model

Figure 5.1

A Modified Conceptual Model of Leadership Behaviours, Job Satisfaction, Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff were developed.



The new conceptual model in Figure 5.1 shows that there is a link between academic staff participative leadership behaviours, intrinsic job satisfaction, self-management, social awareness,

and affective commitment. When there is improvement in participative leadership, intrinsic job satisfaction, self-management and social-awareness of academic staff, affective commitment of academic staff will be enhanced. Further, when there is improvement in directive, supportive and participative leadership, the job satisfaction of academic staff can be enhanced.

To higher education policy makers in Uganda, the study identified predictors of organisational commitment of academic staff namely participative leadership, intrinsic job satisfaction, self-management and social-awareness that can be benchmarked in university education policy making process. This will enable universities to improve on the commitment of academic staff. The study is expected to have a significant impact on university administrators who are responsible for supervising the academic staff and thus, fostering their commitment. The university administrators will be able to choose the most effective techniques to apply in order to increase the intrinsic job satisfaction and commitment of academic staff.

To the academic staff, the study identified self-management and social-awareness as the best emotional intelligence competencies that can be used by academic staff to enhance their commitment to the university. Thus, this study will help academic staff in identifying emotional intelligence competencies that they can adopt to enhance their commitment to university. The study contributed to theory by providing further information to academicians on predictors of organisational commitment of academic personnel, which encourage additional research in the field of organisational commitment.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100		280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	346
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1000	278	4500	355
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	191	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	170	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	180	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	190	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	200	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	373
65	56	210	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	220	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	230	144	550	225	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	240	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	250	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	260	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	256	2600	335	100000	384

Source: Krejcie & Morgan (1970)

Key: N=Number, S=Sample Size

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire Survey for Full Time Academic Staff

Dear respondent,

I am Kato Kimata Joshua, a PhD student specializing in Education Planning and Management at Kyambogo University. I am collecting data on the topic entitled “Significant predictors of Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff in Universities: A Case of Kyambogo University, Uganda. Your participation in this study will be of great help towards the successful completion of my studies at this level. Your positive response will be highly appreciated

Kato Kimata Joshua



PhD student,

Kyambogo University

Section A: Background Variables: Classification of Academic Staff

Please classify yourself according to the instructions by kindly ticking the correct response.

A₁) Sex of respondents:

1) Male

2) Female

A₂) Marital status:

1) Married

2) Single

3)

Cohabiting

A₃) Academic Rank:

- 1) Graduate Fellow 2) Assistant lecturer 3) Lecturer 4) Senior lecturer 5) Associate-Professor 6) Professor

A₅) For how long have you been teaching at Kyambogo University?

- 1) Less than 1 year 2) 1 to 2 years 3) 3 to 4 years 4) 5 years and above

A₆) Highest academic qualification attained

- 1) Bachelor's Degree 2) Post-Graduate Diploma 2) Master's Degree 3) PhD

Section B: Organisational Commitment (DV)

This section presents items on organisational commitment (OC) and is divided into three component parts of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment each with 8 items. You are kindly requested to indicate the extent to which different OC components are employed in Kyambogo University using the scale where 1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3=Not sure 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree

AC	Affective Commitment	SD	D	NS	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
AC1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this University					
AC2	I enjoy discussing my University with people outside it					
AC3	I really feel as if my University's problems are mine					
AC4	I feel that I cannot be attached to another University					

	than the University I am working in now					
AC5	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my University					
AC6	I feel like I am part of the family of my University					
AC7	My University has a great deal of personal meaning for me					
AC8	I feel emotionally attached to my University					
CC	Continuance Commitment	SD	D	NS	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
CC1	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit this University without having another one lined up					
CC2	I continue to work with this University as a matter of necessity					
CC3	It would be very hard for me to leave this University right now even if I wanted to					
CC4	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my job in this University now					
CC5	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving Kyambogo University					
CC6	If I had not already put too much into this University, I would have considered working elsewhere					
CC7	I continue to work for this University because another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here					

NC	Normative Commitment	SD	D	NS	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
NC1	I feel that people these days move from organisation to organisation too often					
NC2	I do believe that I must always be loyal to my University					
NC3	Jumping from University to University seems ethical to me					
NC4	I believe that loyalty is important and thus i feel a sense of moral obligation to remain with this University					
NC5	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would feel right to leave this University					
NC6	Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers					
NC7	I believe in the value of remaining loyal to this University					
NC8	I think that being a “University man” or “University woman” is still very sensible					

Section C: Leadership Behaviours (IV)

This section presents items on leadership behaviours. It is divided onto four sections namely, directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours. You are

kindly requested to indicate the extent to which you experience different leadership behaviours in Kyambogo University where 1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3=Not sure 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree

DLB	Directive Leadership Behaviours	SD	D	NS	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
DLB1	My superiors let me know what is expected of me					
DLB2	my superiors in this University let me know how a role should be performed					
DLB3	My superiors ask me to follow standard rules and regulations					
DLB4	My superiors explain to me the level of performance that is expected of me					
DLB5	My superiors give clear explanations of what is expected of me on the job					
DLB6	My superiors set goals for me to achieve in this University					
SLB	Supportive Leadership Behaviours	SD	D	NS	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
SLB1	My superiors maintain a friendly working relationship with me					
SLB2	My superiors do things that make it pleasant to work with them					
SLB3	My superiors say things that enhance my personal					

	feelings					
SLB4	My superiors help me overcome problems that stop me from carrying out tasks					
SLB5	My superiors behave in a manner that is thoughtful of my personal needs					
SLB6	My superior encourages me even in difficult situations					
SLB7	I can rely on my superiors when I ask for help e.g. if things are not going well with me and my colleagues					
SLB8	My superiors try to understand my point of view when I speak to them					
SLB9	My superiors say things that inspire me					
PLB	Participative Leadership Behaviours	SA	D	NS	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
PLB1	My superiors consult with me when facing a problem					
PLB2	My superiors listen receptively to my ideas and suggestions					
PLB3	My superiors always consulting me					
PLB4	My superiors ask for suggestions from me concerning how to carry out assignments					
PLB5	My supervisors ask me for suggestions on what					

	assignments should be done					
PLB6	My superiors listen receptively to ideas and suggestions of subordinates					
PLB7	My superiors consider suggestions of members even when they disagree with them					
PLB8	In this University superiors promote open and honest self-expression					
PLB9	My superior involves staff members in different administrative activities					
PLB10	My superiors use suggestions of members as they make decisions					
ALB	Achievement-Oriented Leadership Behaviours	SA	D	NS	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
ALB1	My superiors let me know that am expected to perform at their highest level					
ALB2	My superiors set goals for my performance that are quite challenging					
ALB3	My superiors encourage continual improvement in my performance					
ALB4	My superiors show confidence in my ability to meet most job objectives					
ALB5	My superiors consistently set challenging goals for me to attain					

Section D: Job Satisfaction (ME)

This section presents items on job satisfaction and is divided into two sections namely extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction. You are kindly requested to indicate the extent to which you are satisfied with your job at Kyambogo University where 1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3=Not sure 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree

IJ	Intrinsic Job satisfaction	SD	D	NS	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
IJ1	I keep busy all the time while at work in this University					
IJ2	I am given the opportunity to work alone on the job in this University					
IJ3	I have the opportunity to do different things from time to time while working in this University					
IJ4	I have the chance to be somebody in this University					
IJ5	The things i do in this University do not go against my conscience					
IJ6	I love my job in this University because it provides steady employment for me					
IJ7	I have the chance to help in accomplishing different things in this University					
IJ8	My position in this University gives me the opportunity to guide people on what to do					

IJ9	In this University I have a chance to do something that makes use of my abilities					
IJ10	I have the freedom to use my own judgement as I do my work in this University					
IJ11	I get the feeling of accomplishment from my job in this University					
IJ12	My job in this University keeps me busy much of the time					
EJ	Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	SD	D	NS	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
EJ1	I like the way my boss handles his/her workers					
EJ2	My superiors have the competence of making right decisions in this University					
EJ3	I satisfied with the way policies are implemented in this University					
EJ4	I am satisfied with working conditions provided with this University					
EJ5	I am satisfied with the way we relate as colleagues in this University					
EJ6	I am satisfied with the praise I get for doing a good job in this University					
EJ7	I am satisfied with the superior's handle subordinates in this University					

Section E: Emotional Intelligence (MO)

This section presents items on emotional intelligence and is divided onto four sections, namely self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management. You are kindly requested to indicate the extent to which the different emotional intelligence components exist in Kyambogo University using the scale where 1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3=Not sure 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree

S	Self-awareness.	SD	D	NS	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
S1	I understand my own feelings and what trigger s them.					
S2	I have the ability to use my perception effectively					
S3	I understand myself very well					
S4	I know values and beliefs expected of me by others					
S5	I remain confident in all situations					
S6	I recognize my feelings and their effects on me					
S7	I know my strength and limits					
S8	I have a strong sense of self-worth					
SM	Self-management	SD	D	NS	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
SM1	I can stay calm in stressful situations					
SM2	I stay calm when things go wrong					
SM3	I can control the way I feel when something bad happens					
SM4	When upset with someone, I will wait till I have					

	calmed down before discussing the issue					
SA	Social-awareness	SA	D	NS	A	SA
SA1	I recognize how people feel by looking at their facial expression.					
SA2	It is easy for me to understand why people feel the way they do.					
SA3	I can tell what someone is feeling, if sad, angry, or happy.					
SA4	I understand why people react the way they do in different situation					
SA5	I have a pretty good idea why my friends get upset					
RM	Relationship-management.	SD	D	NS	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
RM1	I always apologize when I hurt others unintentionally					
RM2	I always try to comfort others when they are sad					
RM3	I try not to criticize others when we have misunderstandings					
RM4	I am tolerant to other people's mistakes					
RM5	I stand up for myself without putting others down					

APPENDIX C

Ethical Approval



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Tel: +256 758 096 775
Email: kiurec2017@kiu.ac.ug
Website: www.kiu.ac.ug

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (REC)

05/04/2022

To: Kato Kimata Joshua

Kyambogo University
+256706737387

Type: Initial Review

Re: KIU-2022-107: CORRELATES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT OF ACADEMIC STAFF IN UNIVERSITIES: A CASE OF KYAMBOGO UNIVERSITY, UGANDA, two, 2022-03-26

I am pleased to inform you that at the 48 convened meeting on 23/02/2022, the KIU REC, committee meeting, etc voted to approve the above referenced application.

Approval of the research is for the period of 05/04/2022 to 05/04/2023.

As Principal Investigator of the research, you are responsible for fulfilling the following requirements of approval:

1. All co-investigators must be kept informed of the status of the research.
2. Changes, amendments, and addenda to the protocol or the consent form must be submitted to the REC for re-review and approval **prior** to the activation of the changes.
3. Reports of unanticipated problems involving risks to participants or any new information which could change the risk benefit: ratio must be submitted to the REC.
4. Only approved consent forms are to be used in the enrollment of participants. All consent forms signed by participants and/or witnesses should be retained on file. The REC may conduct audits of all study records, and consent documentation may be part of such audits.
5. Continuing review application must be submitted to the REC **eight weeks** prior to the expiration date of **05/04/2023** in order to continue the study beyond the approved period. Failure to submit a continuing review application in a timely fashion may result in suspension or termination of the study.
6. The REC application number assigned to the research should be cited in any correspondence with the REC of record.
7. You are required to register the research protocol with the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (UNCST) for final clearance to undertake the study in Uganda.

The following is the list of all documents approved in this application by KIU REC:

No.	Document Title	Language	Version Number	Version Date
1	Protocol	English	two	2022-03-26
2	Informed Consent forms	english	one	2022-01-15
3	Data collection tools	english	one	2022-01-15

Yours Sincerely



Mbyemeire Patrick
For: KIU REC

APPENDIX D

National Council for Science and Technology Approval



Uganda National Council for Science and Technology
(Established by Act of Parliament of the Republic of Uganda)

Our Ref: SS1764ES

10 September 2022

Kato Kimata Joshua
Kyambogo University
Kampala

Re: Research Approval: Correlates of Organisational Commitment of Academic Staff in Universities: A case of Kyambogo University, Uganda

I am pleased to inform you that on **08/08/2022**, the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (UNCST) approved the above referenced research project. The Approval of the research project is for the period of **10/09/2022** to **10/09/2023**.

Your research registration number with the UNCST is **SS1574ES**. Please, cite this number in all your future correspondences with UNCST in respect of the above research project. As the Principal Investigator of the research project, you are responsible for fulfilling the following requirements of approval:

1. Keeping all co-investigators informed of the status of the research.
2. Submitting all changes, amendments, and addenda to the research protocol or the consent form (where applicable) to the designated Research Ethics Committee (REC) or Lead Agency for re-review and approval **prior** to the activation of the changes. UNCST must be notified of the approved changes within five working days.
3. For clinical trials, all serious adverse events must be reported promptly to the designated local REC for review with copies to the National Drug Authority and a notification to the UNCST.
4. Unanticipated problems involving risks to research participants or other must be reported promptly to the UNCST. New information that becomes available which could change the risk/benefit ratio must be submitted promptly for UNCST notification after review by the REC.
5. Only approved study procedures are to be implemented. The UNCST may conduct impromptu audits of all study records.
6. An annual progress report and approval letter of continuation from the REC must be submitted electronically to UNCST. Failure to do so may result in termination of the research project.

Please note that this approval includes all study related tools submitted as part of the application as shown below:

No.	Document Title	Language	Version Number	Version Date
1	Informed consent	English	1	01 December 2021
2	Project Proposal	English	VERSION 11	
3	Approval Letter	English		
4	Administrative Clearance	English		
4	FGD Procedures	English	1	07 November 2022
5	COVID-19 Guidelines	English	1	07 November 2022
6	Informed consent for academic staff	English	1	07 November 2022
7	Informed consent for ICT Staff	English	1	07 November 2022
8	Informed consent for students	English	1	07 November 2022

Yours sincerely,



Hellen Opolot

For: Executive Secretary

UGANDA NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

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APPENDIX E

Recommendation for Data Collection



P. O. BOX 1 KYAMBOGO
Tel: 041 - 4286792 Fax: 256-41-220464
Website: www.kyu.ac.ug

Office of the Dean, Graduate School

09th December, 2021

To Whom It May Concern

RE: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Dear Sir/Madam,

This is to introduce **Kato Kimata Joshua** Registration Number **18/U/GDED/19636/PD** who is a student of Kyambogo University pursuing a PhD in Education.

He intends to carry out research on **“Correlates of Organisational Commitment of Academic staff in Universities”. A case of Kyambogo University, Uganda** as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the Doctor of Philosophy in Education.

We therefore kindly request you to grant him permission to carry out this study in your institution.

Any assistance accorded to him will be highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Assoc. Prof. Muhamud N. Wambede
DEAN, GRADUATE SCHOOL

