The Moderating Effect of Gender on the Relationships between Age, Ethical Leadership, and Organizational Commitment

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The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between principals’ ethical leadership behaviors and teachers’ organizational commitment levels according to teachers’ age and gender. The scales were administered to a sample of 403 primary school teachers (199 females, 204 males). A multi-group analysis was performed through Maximum Likelihood method by taking the correlation matrices and the means of male and female groups with normal scores for each group. Results showed both male and female teachers’ organizational commitment levels were positively influenced by their school principals’ ethical leadership behaviors. However, the female teachers’ commitment levels are more strongly influenced by ethical leadership behaviors. Also, the older male teachers have more negative perceptions on their principals’ ethical leadership behaviors than their younger counterparts.

Keywords: ethical leadership, teachers, organizational commitment, gender, age.

Introduction

Many school principals think that they have the correct values and ethical rules. But, over time, adopted values and ethical rules fray and they leave the right way due to the changes in their minds. Ethical dizziness is the cause of many problems at individual and school level (Çelik, 2000). Increasing ethical dilemmas require ethical leaders. Especially in this era, which is characterized with a constantly changing environment and globalization (Aydin, 2013; Aydin & Damgaci, 2017), ethical dizziness and ethical dilemmas are common problems in organizations that require effective ethical leaders. Ethical leadership behaviors have many fruitful outcomes for organizations in terms of employees’ positive attitudes and behaviors (Brooks, 1999; Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & De Hoog, 2013; Rea et al, 2017) and increased performance (Rich, 1997). Ethical leadership roles displayed by managers decrease the frequency of unethical behaviors and increase extra-role behaviors of their followers (Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum, & Kuenzi, 2012; Resick, Hargis, Shao, & Dust, 2013). Organizational commitment is among the most important attitudinal outcomes of ethical leadership behaviors (Michou et al., 2016; Ponnu & Tennakoon, 2009). Although ethical leadership has a significant influence on various organizational and individual outcomes (Demir & Karakuş, 2015), there has been surprisingly limited research in educational organizations. Recent ethical corruptions in the world, involving the managers of various public or private organizations, highlight the need for more research on managers’ ethical leadership behaviors (Hassan, Wright, & Yukl, 2014). Especially, in the educational organizations - where ethical dimensions of leadership are more crucial- there is a need to study on ethical leadership and its effects on teachers’ attitudes and behaviors. Organizational commitment is among the most important attitudes affecting other attitudes and behaviors of teachers. There are various individual characteristics mediating or moderating those kinds of perceptions and attitudes. Age and gender of teachers may moderate both the ethical leadership perceptions and organizational commitment levels of them. This study attempts to answer these questions:

a) Do school principals’ ethical leadership behaviors predict teachers’ organizational commitment levels significantly?

b) Does teachers’ age have a significant effect on their perceptions of ethical leadership behaviors and organizational commitment levels?

c) Does teachers’ gender moderate the relationship between age, ethical leadership behaviors and organizational commitment?

Ethical Leadership

Ethical leadership attracts the researchers’ attention more in recent years. We can find ethical components in different leadership styles such as transformational leadership. Bass (1985) distinguished between authentic transformational leaders (ethical, genuine and using power to attain moral and social end-values) and pseudo-transformational leaders (self-interested and lacking morality). However, recent studies have demonstrated ethical leadership is apart from transformational and other leadership styles.

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An ethical leader has the right values and a strong character, is an example for others and withstands any temptation that may occur along the way. But, the reality of ethical leadership is far more complex and the stakes are much higher (Freeman & Steward, 2006). Ethical leadership is both a behavior and a stance. In addition, ethical leadership is a special form of influence. An ethical leader reflects guiding values and principles. Leader’s emphasis on ethical values and principles create a powerful impact on followers. This effect is felt more strongly in schools, because educational services require ethical values more than any other sector.

Behavioral aspect of ethical leaders consists of four treatments. These are; respect to ethical values, solving ethical dilemmas and ethical decision-making, creating an ethical school culture and climate, and social responsibility (Aydin, 2014; Ersoy & Ugur, 2015). Furthermore, ethical leader’s power resource is based on three leadership styles. These leadership styles are; servant leadership, authentic leadership and principle-based leadership (Andrews, 2017; Bakalar, 2017; Carcolini, 2017; Tarman, 2012; Turhan, 2007).

a) Servant leadership: Servant leaders are the ones who prioritize service instead of directing others (Greenleaf, 2002). Servant leader has a natural feeling to serve other people, tries to serve consciously, and does not see the leadership as an instrument of domination.

b) Authentic leadership: Authentic leader is followed because of his/her authenticity and mastery (Evans, 2000). Authenticity means coherence between personal beliefs, organizational goals and behaviors. Trustworthiness is not enough for authenticity, mastery is also required. Mastery means ability, knowledge, life experience, intelligence, intuition, and courage.

c) Principle-based leadership: Leadership is based on specific principles. This kind of leadership is based on the fact that we cannot break natural laws and our lives should be based on the eternal and unchanging principles. Four factors could be recommended such as; security, guidance, wisdom and power. All of these are independent of each other and constitutes a strong character and the power of effective leadership (Covey, 2003; Starratt, 2003).

Organizational Commitment

Commitment is a psychological state that binds individuals to their organizations. It characterizes employees’ relationship with their organizations and has an influence on their decisions to continue their memberships in their organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In the related literature, there are various definitions of commitment. In an affective view, commitment is “a partisan or affective attachment to the aims and values of an organization, to one’s role in relation with these aims and values and to an organization for its own sake” (Buchanan, 1974). In a cost-based view, commitment develops on the basis of “the perception of benefit associated with staying in and the perception of cost associated with leaving from an organization” (Kanter, 1968). In a normative view, commitment is the consideration that “it is morally right to stay in an organization regardless of how much benefits this organizations gives to the person over the years” (Marsh & Mannari, 1977).

According to Meyer & Allen (1997), there are three types of commitment: affective, continuance and normative commitment, which can be explained as follows:

a) Affective commitment: It means an employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in an organization. Such employees remain in an organization because they want to do so. Justice perceptions (Karakuş, Üstüner, & Toprak, 2014; Karpov, 2017; Martin & Bennett, 1996; Mata-Domingo, 2018; Naumann, Bennett, Bies, & Martin, 1998), a congruence of ethical values between employee and organization (and/or manager or supervisor) (Schwepker, 2013; Peterson, 2003; Janssen, 2004), supportive, facilitative and hearty leader behaviors (Kidd & Smewing, 2001; Hui, Lee, & Rousseau, 2004), and a trustworthy leader (or supervisor) (Karakuş, Toprak, & Gürpinar, 2014; Perry, 2004) make employees develop affective commitment.

b) Continuance commitment: It means an awareness of the costs associated with leaving from and the benefits associated with staying in an organization. Such employees remain in an organization because they think they have to do so. There are two sets of antecedent variables for continuance commitment: investments and alternatives. As employees’ investments that are valuable for them (e.g., time, effort, money) increase, leaving from organization would be costlier and they develop continuance commitment not to lose their investments. The perception of the lack of alternatives leads employees to develop stronger continuance commitment (Ersoy, 2015; Meyer & Allen, 1997). “Recognition” plays a central role in continuance commitment process. To develop continuance commitment, employees must “recognize” the role of investments and/or lack of alternatives on the cost of leaving. Also, employees’ attention must be focused on some cost-related variables by a particular “triggering” event, since these variables have an influence on continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). So, leader behaviors...
may have an influence on the development of continuance commitment by “triggering” employees’
attentions to be focused on and making them “recognize” the importance of the cost related variables.

c) Normative commitment: It means a feeling of obligation to continue employment by the virtue of
their belief that it is the morally right thing to do so. It develops on the basis of a collection of normative
pressures stemming from values that individuals learn during their familial, cultural and organizational
socialization processes. Through conditioning (rewards and punishments) and modeling (observation and imitation of others) people learn these values and internalize a belief about the appropriateness of being loyal to their organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1997). As it was posited in social exchange theory, supportive treatments that make employees feel valued stimulate feelings of obligation and indebtedness through the reciprocity norms and as a result, they develop normative commitment (Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wheaton, 2000; Haar & Spell, 2004).

The Relationship between Ethical Leadership and Organizational Commitment

There is empirical evidence that school leadership has an influence on teachers’ organizational commitment. Transformational leadership behaviors had a positive effect on commitment (Nguni, Sleegers, & Denneson, 2006), supportive principals had a great impact on teachers’ commitment to both school and teaching profession (Duffy et al., 2018; Park, 2005), and distributed leadership positively predicts teachers’ organizational commitment (Hulphia, Devos, & Van Keer, 2010). Also, servant leadership has a strong correlation with organizational commitment (Lapointe & Vanderbergh, 2018). In this study, servant leadership has been taken as one of the dimensions of ethical leadership.

A leader is a role model for his/her followers and has a powerful effect on desirable behaviors of employees in organization. According to social learning theory, ethical leaders act as a role model for ethically appropriate behaviors (Brown et al., 2005). Ethical leader and followers develop relationships with each other based on social rather than economic exchanges. Social exchange relationships are developed based on mutual affection, trust, and reciprocity while the economic exchanges are generally impersonal (Brown & Trevino, 2006; Houdyshell & Kirk, 2018). Reciprocity norms, attributed altruistic motives, and positive perceptions of organizational politics are among the most important concepts for an ethical leader to engender commitment in followers (Li, Wu, Johnson, & Avey, 2017). Leaders with high ethical conduct have the potential to positively stimulate the commitment of employees towards supporting the organizational values and mission (Mitonga-Monga & Cilliers, 2016).

As organizational climate depends on interaction among the members of an organization, leadership can make a difference in creating an ethical or unethical climate through its effect on behaviors. Therefore, one of the main responsibilities of a leader is to create an ethical climate and culture and principals should try to form an ethical climate (Jaramillo et al., 2006; Sims & Brinkmann, 2002). Creating an ethical climate is the main focus of prior ethical leadership research and ethical climate is positively linked with organizational commitment (Cullen, Parboteeah, & Victor, 2003; Aryati, Sudiro, Hadiwidjaja, & Noermjati, 2018). Demirtas and Akdogan (2015) highlighted the importance of ethical leadership on creating an ethical climate, engendering commitment, and decreasing the possibility of turnover intentions.

Previous leadership research shows that followers’ organizational commitment levels are influenced by their leaders’ behaviors such as creating an ethical climate, fairness (Allen & Meyer, 1990) and ethical behaviors (Mize, Stanforth, & Johnson, 2000) which are the components of ethical leadership behaviors (Brown et al., 2005; James, 2018). Ethical leaders are expected to develop high-quality relationships with their employees, because they are trustworthy and concerning about the well-being of their employees, and make fair decisions. These qualities have an influence on followers to reciprocate by developing commitment to the leader, work group and organization (Hassan et al., 2014).

Although there are several researches examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational commitment in different types of organizations (Beer, Dayan, Vigoda-Gadot, & Werner, 2013; Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2013; Bedi, Alpaslan, & Green, 2016; Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2018), there is very limited information collected from educational organizations about this concept. Ethical leadership and its implications would be more important for educational organizations, as social, affective and normative bonds are more important in these types of organizations.

The Effect of Age and Gender on the Variables in the Study

Individuals’ age and maturity shape their views, opinions, and evaluations (Lafer, 2014). Various demographic characteristics such as age and gender have influence on individuals’ perceptions, evaluations, attitudes and behaviors at the workplace. Age and gender of the participants are advised to be examined in educational settings (Hall & Quinn, 2014). The roles of females and males are different at work and at life in general (Colley & Comber, 2003). Males generally have agentic behavior patterns
that lead them to behave in a competitive and achievement oriented manner. However, females generally have communal behavior patterns that lead them to behave in a nurturing and socially oriented manner. Through communal behavior patterns, females tend to engage in interpersonal and cooperative behaviors more frequently to nurture their close relationships with others, to get social support and to contribute to their feelings of belongingness (Kidder, 2002; Kacmar, Bachrach, Harris, & Zivnuska, 2011). Females are more sensitive to their environments and more vulnerable to the social and emotional cues of other persons in their social relationships (Hall, 1987; Ortiz, 2018). Therefore, female employees may be more sensitive to the verbal and nonverbal cues of their managers both in a positive or negative way. They may easily develop commitment if their managers behave in a more supportive, fair and ethical manner.

When females’ relationships become troubled, they are more easily distressed than males do because they have higher levels of expectations from their social relationships (Shear, Feske, & Greeno, 2000). So, female employees’ commitment levels may more easily be decreased to a lower level because of unsupportive, unfair, and unethical behaviors of their managers. Because, females are more sensitive, have higher level of expectations, and may be in need of more help due to the outside work burdens. There is also empirical evidence that females have generally more outside work burdens that may reduce their levels of commitment to various focuses at the workplace (Karakuş & Aslan, 2009; Yigit & Tatch, 2017).

**Aim of the Study**

The main aim of this study is to determine the nature of the relationship between school principals’ ethical leadership behaviors and teachers’ organizational commitment levels. It was also aimed to determine age and gender related differences in this relationship. Age and gender have a significant effect on individuals’ various perceptions and attitudes (Hall, 1987). So it was hypothesized that age and gender may have an influence on teachers’ perceptions about their principals’ ethical leadership behaviors and on their organizational commitment that is a work-related attitude. The combined effect of age and gender has not been studied before in the relationship between school principals’ ethical leadership behaviors and teachers’ organizational commitment.

**Method**

**Participants and Procedure**

The population of the study is comprised of the primary school teachers working in Elazig city center. 30 schools were selected randomly from this population with cluster sampling method. Each school was accepted as one cluster. The paper and pencil questionnaires were given to all the teachers working at these 30 schools. The respondents were assured that their answers would be kept confidential. The researcher ensured that all information was anonymous and there was not any sign about the identities of the respondents. There were a total of 568 teachers working at these 30 schools and 418 of them accepted to participate in this study. The return rate for the questionnaires was 73.59%. 15 of the questionnaires were excluded because of the inconsistent or incomplete answers. The analyses were performed on the data consisting of 403 primary school teachers. 199 (49.37%) of the teachers were females and 204 (50.62%) of them were males. 97 (24.06%) of the teachers were aged between 20-30 years, 108 (26.79%) of them were between 31-40 years, 105 (26.05%) of them were between 41-50 years, and 92 (22.82%) of them were between 51-60 years.

**Instruments**

Managers’ ethical leadership behaviors were measured by a scale developed by Turhan (2007). A single factor scale consisting of eight (of forty six) items fitted to the data well (KMO=.898, Bartlett=.000, Cronbach Alpha=.897, Chi-Square=59.17, df=20, P-value=0.00001, RMSEA=0.070, SRMR=0.039, GFI=0.96, AGFI=0.94, NFI=0.95, NNFI=0.95, CFI=0.97, IFI=0.97). Teachers’ organizational commitment was measured by a scale developed by Karakuş (2005). A single factor scale consisting of six (of twenty) items fitted to the data well (KMO=.686, Bartlett=.000, Cronbach Alpha=.594, Chi-Square=24.78, df=9, P-value=0.00323, RMSEA=0.066, SRMR=0.032, GFI=.98, AGFI=.95, NFI=.97, NNFI=.97, CFI=.98, IFI=.98).

**Analyses**

After the data was smoothed and normalized, exploratory factor analysis (with SPSS) and the confirmatory factor analysis (with LISREL) were performed for each scale. On the basis of the confirmed measurement models for each scale, the sum of each scale was taken and the data was analyzed using the structural equation approach with LISREL 8.51. Multi-group analysis was performed through Maximum Likelihood method by taking the correlation matrices and the means of male and female groups with normal scores. To perform “chi-square difference test” and to determine “threshold values of the
significance” for each path in the multi-group model, “Stats Tools Package” was used. As Kline (2005) suggested, a “two-step procedure” was followed for testing the moderating effect of gender.

Results
Correlations
Pearson product-moment correlations between the variables in the model were presented in Table 1. Both in the male and female samples, teachers’ perceptions of their managers’ ethical leadership behaviors are positively correlated with their organizational commitment levels. In the male sample, teachers’ age is negatively correlated with their perceptions of their managers’ ethical leadership behaviors.

Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male and Female Correlations for the Variables in the Study</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical Leadership</td>
<td>0,025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Commitment</td>
<td>0,096</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Correlations below the diagonal are for females (n=199). Correlations above the diagonal are for males (n=204). *p<.01.

T-Test Results
T-Test results according to the gender variable are presented in Table 2. According to the results, only at the age variable, males and females had significantly different values. Male teachers’ age was higher than female teachers in this sample ($\bar{x}_{\text{males}}=31.7 > \bar{x}_{\text{females}}=28.5$).

Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>T-Test Results, Means and Standard Deviations for the Variables in the Study</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical Leadership</td>
<td>30,90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Commitment</td>
<td>22,11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>31,7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.001

Results of Multi-Group Analyses
The final multi-group structural equation models of the male and female teachers are displayed in Figure 1 and Figure 2. In the unconstrained model, the path of “age → commitment” had insignificant T-values in both the male and female groups and so this path was deleted from the multi-group model. Before the deletion of this insignificant path, the unconstrained multi-group model had good fit indices ($\chi^2=1.18$, df=2, p=0.55, RMSEA=0.000, CFI=1.00). After the deletion of this commonly insignificant path, the model also provided a good fit to the data ($\chi^2=2.35$, df=4, p=0.67, RMSEA=0.000, CFI=1.00).
Table 3
The Change in $\chi^2$ Obtained by Constraining Structural Parameters to be Equal throughout the Male and Female Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural parameters</th>
<th>Unconstrained Model</th>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>$\chi^2$ Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\chi^2$</td>
<td>df</td>
<td>$\chi^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age $\rightarrow$ Ethical Leadership</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical Leadership $\rightarrow$ Organizational Commitment</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 90% confidence, **Significant at 95% confidence.

Note 1: Fully constrained model’s $\chi^2(6)=16.01$, unconstrained model’s $\chi^2(4)=2.35$.

Note 2: The $\chi^2$ thresholds of this multi-group model for various confidence levels were determined by Stats Tools Package as; $\chi^2=5.06$ (90% confidence), $\chi^2=6.19$ (95% confidence) and $\chi^2=8.98$ (99% confidence).

The parameters of fully constrained ($\chi^2=16.01$, df=6) and unconstrained ($\chi^2=2.35$, df=4) models were entered to the software (Stats Tools Package), p-value (0,001) for the difference ($\chi^2=13.66$, df=2) between these two models showed that the multi-group model was “variant” and the relationships in the models of the males and females were different at the “model level”. Then, path-by-path analyses were performed.

All of the parameters were unconstrained to differ between the groups, and then the model was re-estimated after constraining one of the structural parameters to be equal throughout the groups. Differences in chi-square values between the unconstrained and partially constrained models would show that the related parameter is either significantly different between the groups or not.

Changes in chi-square values, obtained by constraining structural parameters to be equal throughout the groups, are shown in Table 3. Significant changes in the chi-square were observed when the path of “age $\rightarrow$ ethical leadership” (%95 confidence) and the path of “ethical leadership $\rightarrow$ organizational commitment” (%90 confidence) were constrained to be equal throughout the groups. Also, when the error variance of each variable was constrained respectively, any significant changes were not observed between the male and female groups.

Figure 1. Final model of the male teachers

Notes: The values along the paths are T-values and the values near the variables are the error variances. ETHLEAD: Ethical leadership behaviors of school principals, COMMIT: Organizational commitment of teachers
The findings of the previous research showed that the age of teachers had a negative effect on the levels of commitment. Li et al. (2017) noted that teachers’ altruistic motives, which cause an internal pressure in the followers to reciprocate, is a mediator in the relationship between ethical leadership and affective commitment. The findings of this study show that teachers’ organizational commitment levels were significantly and positively predicted by the perceptions of ethical leadership behaviors of their principals. Teachers become more committed if their principals demonstrate ethical leadership behaviors. This finding corroborates the results of the prior research conducted on this matter (Jaramillo et al., 2006; Mize et al., 2000; Valentine & Barnett, 2003; Brown et al., 2005; Beeri et al., 2013; Hassan et al., 2013; Hassan et al., 2014, Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Bedi et al., 2016; Hoch et al., 2018; Mitonga-Monga & Cilliers, 2016; Li et al., 2017; Lapointe & Vanderberghe, 2018; Aryati et al., 2018). Demirtas and Akdogan (2015) found that ethical leadership has both direct and indirect influence on affective dimension of commitment; and the indirect influence of ethical leadership is shaping the perceptions of ethical climate, which in turn, increase the level of affective organizational commitment. Aryati et al. (2018) proved the strong influence of ethical leadership on organizational commitment and deviant behaviors through the mediating effect of ethical climate. Bedi et al. (2016) and Hoch et al. (2018) showed in their meta analyses that former research results posit a strong relationship between ethical leadership and organizational commitment. Lapointe & Vanderberghe (2018) found a strong relationship between servant leadership, which is a dimension of ethical leadership in the current study, and both affective and normative commitment.

Teachers may have developed organizational commitment as a result of their principals’ ethical leadership behaviors with several possible mechanisms. Ethical leader’s effort to instill ethical values in organizational socialization process may make employees develop a normative-based organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Also, leader’s moral conduct, his efforts for creating a moral climate and his actions reflecting his moral responsibility may make employees feel to reciprocate, leader’s moral integrity and the value congruence between the leader and the teacher may make the leader to be perceived as more trustworthy and as a result teachers may have developed organizational commitment. Li et al.’s (2017) study presented empirical evidence that attributed altruistic motives, which cause an internal pressure in the followers to reciprocate, is a mediator in the relationship between ethical leadership and affective commitment. The findings of the previous research showed that the reciprocity norms (Wheaton, 2000; Haar & Spell, 2004), a congruence of ethical values between employee and principal (Schweiker, 2013; Peterson, 2003; Janssen, 2004) and trust on principal (Yang & Mossholder, 2010) cause employees to develop organizational commitment.

Another possible mechanism affecting teachers’ organizational commitment can be the close relationship between ethical leadership and perceived justice in schools (Turhan, 2007). Teachers’
organizational justice perceptions may be strengthened with moral and just treatments of their principals. This perception may lead teachers to be more committed to the school. The evidence on the positive relationship between perceived organizational justice and organizational commitment reinforces this view (Lambert, Hogan, & Griffin, 2007; Ramamoorthy & Flood, 2004; Ponnu & Chuah, 2010). Mitonga-Monga & Cilliers (2016) found that followers’ perceptions of the integrity, fairness and honesty dimensions of ethical leadership predict positively their affective, continuance and normative dimensions of organizational commitment.

The multi-group analysis results showed that age was not a significant predictor of female teachers’ perceptions on ethical leadership behaviors of their principals. In other words, female teachers’ age did not have an effect on their ethical leadership perceptions. But, male teachers’ age had a negative effect on their ethical leadership perceptions. Namely, aged male teachers have more negative perceptions about their principals’ ethical leadership behaviors. Although there is empirical evidence that older employees evaluate their supervisors’ ethical leadership behaviors more negatively than the younger ones, the cause of this matter requires further study (McCann & Holt, 2009). Also, the reason why the aged males rated more highly their managers requires further study and there is not such a research performed so far that examined the interaction effect of age and gender on the relationship between ethical leadership behaviors and organizational commitment.

The results of the multi-group analysis also showed that both the male and the female teachers’ organizational commitment levels are positively influenced by their principals’ ethical leadership behaviors. However, principals’ ethical leadership behaviors had a stronger impact on female teachers’ organizational commitment levels as compared to their male counterparts. This finding may have stemmed from female teachers’ sensitivity to their interpersonal environments and their better understanding and noticing of verbal and nonverbal interpersonal cues (Hall, 1987). This sensitivity and ability of understanding and noticing may cause female teachers to be more sensitive to the managerial actions. Therefore they may have developed organizational commitment more easily as a reaction of their perceptions of ethical leadership behaviors.

Research results imply that some individual variables such as age and gender have a significant influence on both ethical leadership perceptions and organizational commitment levels of teachers. Hulpia et al. (2010) concluded “teachers’ organizational commitment depend more on individual teachers’ thoughts and perceptions, rather than on a group effect arising from belonging to a particular school”. Consistently with the findings of the present study, it can be suggested that school managers should take care of teachers’ thoughts and perceptions about managerial actions, especially in terms of ethical leadership behaviors, if they want to develop organizational commitment.

Conclusion

In the present study, a gender specific multi-group model was tested on the relationships between teachers’ age, ethical leadership behaviors of school principals, and teachers’ organizational commitment levels. The findings of this study showed teachers’ organizational commitment levels were positively influenced by their principals’ ethical leadership behaviors. Teachers become more committed to the school if they perceive their principal displays ethical leadership behaviors more frequently. Also, there were meaningful differences between the multi-group models according to the variables of age and gender. The older male teachers have more negative perceptions on their principal’s ethical leadership behaviors. Also, female teachers are more sensitive to the managerial actions and so they develop organizational commitment more easily as a response of their principals’ ethical leadership behaviors. These results imply that school leaders should take into consideration individual variables (e.g. age and gender), which may have an influence on individuals’ perceptions, understandings and sensitivities (Karakuş, 2013), in their practices to improve organizational commitment levels of their followers (Mohd Tahir, & Mohd Salleh, 2018). In this study, a gender specific moderated mediation model was tested. This study proved the combined effect of age and gender in this relationship. Other mediators or moderators in the relationship between ethical leadership and commitment have also been tested before such as; ethical climate (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Aryati et al., 2018), altruistic motives (Li et al., 2017), positive perceptions of organizational politics (Li et al., 2017), and trust (Ng & Feldman, 2015). Future research can be performed on the causes of the relationships found in the current study with other possible mediators and/or moderators to conceive the mechanism of this relationship in depth. Also, the effect of other leadership styles may be examined on teachers’ organizational commitment levels according to some personal variables (e.g. age, tenure, gender, marital status, personality types etc.).

Individuals develop attitudes (e.g. organizational commitment) towards a focus (e.g. school manager) as a result of their subjective evaluations about the behaviors (e.g. ethical leadership behaviors) or emotional displays of a specific focus in an organization. Cultural differences, various value systems, demographic characteristics, or various psychosocial variables may have influence on those different
perceptions or attributes of individuals (Alanay & Aydin, 2016). Li et al. (2017) found that a leader can only engender commitment in the followers if the ethical leadership behaviors are attributed to altruistic motives and those attributions are seriously affected from the positive perceptions of organizational politics. The relative importance of those attributes for the individuals may differ from one cultural context to another. The current moderated mediation model can be broadened and tested in different countries to get a deeper understanding of this relationship.

References


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