

The Moderating Role of Gender Between Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment in Ghanaian Colleges of Education

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ABSTRACT: *In an era where governments and organisations dedicated to improving education worldwide are concerned about quality teacher education and dominate the national discourse, it is crucial to emphasise teacher quality, gender parity, satisfaction, and commitment. This article examines the role of gender as a moderator between tutor job satisfaction and organisational commitment in Ghanaian Colleges of Education. A research hypothesis was formulated with a cross-sectional survey to guide the study. A sample of 319 tutors was used. Multivariate multiple regression, SEM and Process Analysis were used to test the hypothesis. The study revealed that gender was a significant moderator between job satisfaction and organisational commitment of tutors in Ghana. As a result of this, it was recommended that the governing council focus on factors affecting the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations (job satisfaction) of their tutors so that stronger commitment and greater loyalty may be demonstrated by the tutors.*

KEYWORDS: Gender, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, governing council, tutors, colleges of education

INTRODUCTION

Gender variations in workplace attitudes and commitment have been studied for decades. According to organisational research, there is a persistence of gender disparities affecting one's job involvement and ultimately commitment (Yadav & Rangnekar, 2015). There is broad agreement that gender inequalities exist in various employees' opinions of their jobs (

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Piercy, Cravens & Lane, 2001). Gender impacts the strategies with which persons of both genders are likely to act and how their employment is interpreted (Cooper & Lewis, 1995; Williams & Best, 1990). Gender can influence an individual's knowledge of the workplace and their attitude towards others within an organisation (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Furthermore, gender may determine whether employees are affiliated with their colleagues who provide various sorts of information, opportunities, and social support (Scandura & Lankau, 1997). This undoubtedly has repercussions for their job satisfaction and commitment.

Job satisfaction is characterised as an individual's relationship with his/her job, coworkers, and attitude, which influences how people feel about positive and negative organisational environments (Inuwa, 2016). According to Locke (1976, p. 1304), job satisfaction is "the pleasant and positive mood associated with business evaluation and experience transfer". It deals with an employee's general job satisfaction and happiness with precise aspects, including the actual work, coworkers, supervision and compensation, working conditions, business policies and procedures, and advancement opportunities (Dugguh & Dennis, 2014). College tutors' work performance is inextricably linked to job satisfaction, defined as what the tutor receives and feels in exchange for professional services (Lam & Lam, 2019). Indeed, job satisfaction is the expansion of a positive emotional attitude and love for one's job (Shafique, Kalyar, & Ahmad, 2018), which is what it means to be happy at work. The college tutor's work morale, discipline, and performance all reflect this mentality. Tutors are unavoidably responsible professionals who fear being undisciplined, performing poorly, and opting out of being present at work, communicating effectively with students, colleagues employees, leaders, and more importantly, not fully committing to the organisation (Bugdol, 2018). Singh and Onahring (2019) use the concept of planned behaviour to demonstrate that the connection between satisfaction and commitment is the same as it was in the past. In line with Putranto, Setiajatnika, and Fahmi (2018), there is no disagreement about the link between job satisfaction and individual commitment. However, some discrepancies in the data suggest that job satisfaction is not necessary for performance growth.

Research indicates that many people are changing careers (Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015). Employees are seeking organisations that provide opportunities for fulfilment in their job (Norbu & Wetprasisit, 2021; Baruch, 2015). As a result of this, job satisfaction is unquestionably becoming an increasingly important factor to examine in today's job-hopping society (Sims, Ruppel & Zeidler, 2016). College of Education tutors' appears not satisfied with their job as some are leaving for other tertiary institutions in Ghana (Abdul-Rahman, 2021).

Similarly, employee commitment has also become a major concern in institutions including schools and colleges globally (Yahaya, & Ebrahim, 2016). Since 1990, when Allen and Meyer published their scale on organisational commitment, the importance of organisational commitment has become a hot topic for discussion. Commitment towards organisation has

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been the focus of studies for more than three decades examining the behaviours, relations, and employees' performances at a job (Pullen, Fischer, Morse, Garabrant, Salyers and Rollins (2023). As stated by Meyer and Allen (1997), commitment towards an organization is a psychological state envisaging an association of employees with his/her organization and diminishes the likelihood of separation from their organization (Rego & Cunha, 2008). The organization's success is contingent progressively on two dynamic terms: job satisfaction and commitment. It is argued that more should be done to develop measures of relevant commitment mindsets by doing a more in-depth, new, and comprehensive study of them (Jeanes, 2021). The above discourse makes it imperative for an in-depth study of how gender differences in our world of work serve as a link between job satisfaction and commitment in organisations in Ghanaian Colleges of education.

Statement of the Problem

The success of an organisation is significantly impacted by job satisfaction. It is quite challenging to achieve the aims and objectives of an organisation without the employees being happy with their employment and performing effectively. Job satisfaction, therefore, encourages people to give their best effort. Despite the importance of job satisfaction on organisational commitment, many organisations do not pay enough attention to this issue because the senior management in these organisations seems unaware of its importance and impact on the behaviour and performance of their employees. It is a fact that gender variables also go to affect employee (tutors) job satisfaction and commitment. For example, a study by Aytac (2015) revealed that female tutors have higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts. Eleswed and Mohammed (2013) also found that job satisfaction tends to be higher for women and rises with age.

In Ghana, teacher attrition is a problem that is frequently attributed to a lack of job satisfaction (Seniwoliba, 2013). In the case of college tutors, research shows that tutors continue to leave to join public universities and technical universities in recent times (Abdul-Rahman, 2021). This probably may impact the morale of tutors in the colleges.

Therefore, the problem of this study lies in the lack of clarity and awareness of tutors' gender as a moderator between job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the colleges of education in Ghana.

Purpose of the Study

The study examines the degree of satisfaction from the different factors that theoretically affect tutors' commitment. More specifically, the role of gender as a moderator between tutor job satisfaction and organisational commitment in Ghanaian colleges of education.

Related literature on gender as a moderator between job satisfaction and

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organisational commitment

Organisational behaviour research supports the assertion that gender affects job satisfaction and commitment within an organisation. According to Eleswed and Mohmed (2013), job satisfaction tends to be higher for women and rises with age. The results are also in line with Jackson, Albertis, and Snipes (2014), who examine how gender may affect the job satisfaction of staff. These authors indicate that higher levels of job satisfaction were as a result of gender parity between managers and staff. Therefore, when working for male managers, male staff expressed greater job satisfaction, and when working for female managers, female employees expressed greater job satisfaction.

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

The results contradict the findings of Mondal (2014), who discovered no statistically significant differences in job satisfaction between male and female teachers. In a study of the relationship between gender and job satisfaction among higher education administrators, no statistically significant differences were discovered (Yazici & Altun, 2013; Howard-Baldwin, Celik & Kraska, 2012). Similarly, Iqbar and Akhtar (2012) performed research to assess the degree of satisfaction among male and female teachers in public secondary schools in Pakistan and the Lahore area. The T-test can be used to compare levels of satisfaction. Female teachers are more satisfied than male teachers, according to the findings.

There are no discernible differences in job satisfaction between the sexes, according to research on gender as a moderating factor (Suki & Suki, 2012). Gender did not alter sub-variables associated with job satisfaction such as the potential for promotion, job stability, and relationships with coworkers, according to research by David, Gidwani, Birthare, and Singh (2015). Chen (2010) conducted a study on teacher job satisfaction. The findings show that there is no significant difference in mean score between genders among government teachers, however, there is a substantial difference in mean score between genders among private school teachers. Despite women reporting slightly lower job satisfaction than males, the differences between the sexes were not statistically significant, according to the findings of a study by Bonte and Krabel (2014) involving more than 2,000 university graduates. When investigating the relationship between gender and job satisfaction among higher education administrators, no statistically substantial differences were found (DiSorbo, 2017; Howard-Baldwin, Celik, & Kraska, 2012). In contrast, Aytac (2015) discovered that female teachers

Published by the European Centre for Research Training and Development UK had higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts. According to a study by Jackson, Albertis, and Snipes (2014), the gender of the manager may affect how satisfied male and female employees are with their jobs. The research was founded on the theoretical supposition that since both the manager and the employee employ demographic biases to filter information, the demographic variations of managers or supervisors lead to higher job ambiguity for employees. Higher levels of job satisfaction were a result of gender parity between managers and staff. Therefore, when working for male managers, male staff expressed greater job satisfaction, and when working for female managers, female employees expressed greater job satisfaction.

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

A study by Aftab, Ali Shah, and Khan (2020) shows that gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour in Pakistani university teachers. This association between organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour among university teachers was tempered by gender. Concerning the study, there is no relationship between organisational commitments for men and women, although there is a substantial positive relationship for women. For female teachers, the relationship between organisational commitments is important. The findings allude that, having more female teachers is crucial for a healthy interaction between organisational commitments. Only female teachers exhibit this link, which may be because men do not always act as ethically as women do. The finding proves that it is imperative to have more female teachers to have a strong correlation between organisational commitments throughout the school.

The Concept of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction, to Alvinus, Johansson, and Larsson (2017), is a critical studied attitude in organisational behaviour research. According to one of Locke's most frequently used definitions (1976, p. 1300), it is "a pleasurable or favourable emotional state ensuing from a

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favourable evaluation of one's work experience". Similarly, Alonderiene and Majauskaite (2016) discuss job satisfaction and emotional responses to various aspects of contemporary life. When employees are satisfied, it reflects on their psychological health and well-being (Olaniyan & Hystad, 2016). Thus, job satisfaction was considered by Čulibrk, Delić, Mitrović, and Čulibrk (2018) as the attitude of a person toward his or her job.

This concept was expanded to include the positive exhilaration that occurs as a result of people's job experiences, although levels of people's satisfaction also vary according to individual motivations and demands. Job satisfaction, concerning this view, is based on the difference between an individual's expectations and needs, or values, and what that individual's feelings or perceptions have been able to obtain or accomplish through their work. A person will be content if there is no discrepancy between his desired and perceived realities, as long as the necessary minimum threshold is met (Renyut, Modding, & Bima, 2017). Again, as Toropova, Myrberg, and Johansson (2021) note, job satisfaction is a multidimensional construct. Thus, according to Gopinath (2020), an individual may be comfortable with coworkers but dissatisfied with workplace conditions and advancement opportunities. Hence, in professional contexts, job satisfaction is influenced by many elements such as pay, compensation, promotion, coworkers, the task itself, and managerial style in organisations including colleges and schools (Bashir & Gani, 2019).

Guest (2017) notes that employees always have positive and negative feelings, values as well as perspectives on their jobs. These factors include the task at hand, management, interpersonal relationships with coworkers, compensation, working conditions, labour pressure, promotion, training, job security, and career advancement. It is as a result of this that, Darmody and Smyth (2016) affirm that job satisfaction is the emotion experienced by an individual after performing given tasks. So long as employees' employment serves their primary requirements and aligns with their expectations and values, employees will feel it is satisfying and welcoming.

The Concept of Organisational Commitment

Three elements that support organisational commitment were proposed by Al-Jabari and Ghazzawi (2019): a strong belief in and receipt of the organisation's ideals; a willingness to put in substantial work on behalf of the organisation; and a desire to maintain membership in the organisation. Commitment is regarded as a critical factor affecting tutors' performance and the implementation of college education programmes. According to Valaei and Rezaei (2016), "employee commitment" is a relative term that refers to the worker's level of involvement and loyalty to the organisation for which they work. Consistency in commitment is crucial for an organisation's growth. This should be accomplished not only by management, more specifically in the case of college principals but by all members of the institution such as tutors. To fulfil the organisation's goals, regulations must be obeyed (Bryson, 2018). Employee commitment to their organisations has long been a focus of organisational behaviour research (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2019; Yahaya & Ebrahim,

Published by the European Centre for Research Training and Development UK (2016). It is in line with this that Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979, p. 226) thought of organisational commitment as "the relative strength with which a person classifies with and participates in a particular organisation". These authors further discussed how organisational commitment occurs when staff identifies with the values and aims of the organisation.

A college education is an important stage in academic training because it prepares students for their chosen career path. Tutors play an important role in students' academic success by providing guidance and support throughout their academic journey. Educational leaders, like other institutional leaders and the human resources department of an organisation, when it comes to inspiring and retaining personnel in the twenty-first century, things have become increasingly complicated (Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019). Studies have examined employees' commitment to the organisation as a predictor of employee retention (Tuna, Ghazzawi, Yesiltas, Tuna & Arslan, 2016; Meyer & Allen, 1997, 1991). Furthermore, organisational commitment has been investigated as a predictor of staff performance in carrying out the mission and vision of the organisation's leadership (Singh & Gupta, 2015). Positive attitudes toward organisations and their goals are necessary components of the concept of organisational commitment proposed by Faizan and Zehra (2016). This means that organisational commitment is a link between an employee and his or her employer, or between the organisation and itself (Jehanzeb & Mohanty, 2018). Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 61–89) see a committed employee as an individual who remains with an organisation reports consistently, and works a full day. Factors that have been discovered to positively influence tutors' commitment in the college of education context include job satisfaction (Kim, Lee & Lee, 2020), effective support systems (Lin & Heald-Taylor, 2020), and possibilities for professional development (Saunders & Anderson, 2020). Tutors who are gratified or satisfied with their jobs are more likely to be committed to providing quality services, and strong support systems enable them to deal with any issues that may arise.

Hypothesis

H₁: Gender will moderate the Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

H₂: Gender will moderate the Link between Fringe Benefits a dimension of Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment.

METHODS

This study adopted a quantitative method to assess the role of gender in the link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The cross-sectional approach was used to determine the generality of the phenomenon (Gautam, 2021). The study's target population consisted of all tutors in the public colleges of education in Ghana. A set of structured questionnaires was adopted and used as the research instrument and the questionnaire items were analysed using Multivariate multiple regression, Structural Equation Modelling and Process Analysis to test the hypothesis.

Validation of Instruments**Model Fit Indices for the Measurement Model**

The model fit indices were appraised to see if the hypothesised model fit the data gathered. The model (with 31-items) was also projected using NFI, TLI, and CFI among other methods. The following thresholds or cut-off points were employed to estimate the model fit indices: Chi-square ($p > 0.05$; Hair, et al, 2006), CMIN/DF (2 or 3; Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006), CFI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), NFI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), IFI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), TLI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), and RMSEA (≤ 0.08 ; Schreiber *et al.*, 2006) (See Table 1). Table 1 shows the model fit indices.

Table 1: Goodness of Fit Indices of Job Satisfaction Scale

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

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

Almost the entire model fit pointers for the 31-items model presented that the data did not fit the hypothesised model as shown in Table 1. This may be due to model misspecification (Kline, 2011). Only the CMIN/DF fit pointer with a very close value of 2.886 demonstrated a satisfactory fit that Schreiber et al's (2006) criteria provided. Even though the CMIN/DF fit indicator showed a good fit, it did not meet the criteria set by the chosen researchers. The data did not fit the hypothesised model in virtually all of the model fit pointers for the 31-item model. This could be due to model misspecification (Kline, 2011). It is decided that future researchers who want to replicate the job satisfaction scale should re-validate the scale in their local settings due to cultural differences and expectations.

Organisational Commitment Scale

In Table 2, the organisational commitment scale had 24 items made up of three sub-scales namely affective commitment (8 items), continuance commitment (8 items), and normative commitment (8 items), The details of the items are shown below.

Table 2: Item loadings, AVE, and Composite Reliability

Dimensions	Items	Loadings	AVE	CR	Alpha	Omega
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Affective Commitment	OC1	.502	.58	.74	.66	.61
	OC2	.343				
	OC3	.587				
	OC4	.264*				
	OC5	.635				
	OC6	.711				
	OC7	.156*				
	OC8	.778				
Continuance Commitment	OC9	.389	.15	.56	.73	.74
	OC10	.398				
	OC11	.422				
	OC12	.132*				
	OC13	.362				
	OC14	.472				
	OC15	.267*				
	OC16	.514				
Normative Commitment	OC17	.029*	.07	.52	.62	.65
	OC18	.400				
	OC19	.115*				
	OC20	.314				
	OC21	.342				
	OC22	.217*				
	OC23	.239*				
	OC24	.301				

In Table 2, items OC4, OC7, OC12, OC15, OC17, OC19, OC22 and OC23 had factor loadings below .30, hence they were deleted. These items were deleted because their factor loadings were less than the acceptable loading of .30 (Pallant, 2010). All of the AVEs for the various dimensions were less than .50, except affective commitment which had AVE above .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). This indicates that the dimensions are not convergent valid. Although the dimensions lack convergent validity, the Composite Reliability (CR), Cronbach Alpha, and Omega Reliability were above .50, indicating that the dimensions are more reliable, as Roland and Idsoe (2001) determined.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION***Hypothesis 1*****The Role of Gender in the Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment**

The hypothesis was to examine the moderating role of gender in the link between sub-dimensions of job satisfaction and the total construct of organisational commitment. The analysis highlighted nine models. In the models, a single moderator (i.e., Gender) was used to moderate the link between the sub-dimensions of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The hypothesis was tested using the moderation model of PROCESS by Hayes (2018) using 5000 bootstrap samples with 95% bootstrap confidence intervals. The results are shown in Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3: Moderating Role of Gender in the Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

Model	Variable	B	SE	t-value	p-value	BootLL	BootUL
1	(Constant)	41.3444	4.8326	8.5554	.0000	31.8259	50.8629
	Pay	-.1117	.6185	-.1805	.8569	-1.3298	1.1065
	Gender	-6.4542	3.6625	-1.7622	.0793	-13.6681	.7597
	Pay*Gender	.8355	.4655	1.7951	.0739	-.0812	1.7523
2	(Constant)	31.2772	6.2424	5.0104	.0000	18.9818	43.5725
	Promotion	1.1307	.7645	1.4791	.1404	-.3750	2.6364
	Gender	4.2218	4.6159	.9146	.3613	-4.8699	13.3136
	Promotion*Gender	-.5188	.5592	.9277	.3545	-1.6202	.5826
3	(Constant)	23.0407	6.6274	3.4766	.0000	9.9869	36.0945
	Supervision	1.6814	.6239	2.6948	.0075	.4525	2.9104
	Gender	5.7813	4.8472	1.1927	.2341	-3.7660	15.3286
	Supervision*Gender	-.5666	.4506	-1.2574	.2099	-1.4540	.3209
4	(Constant)	44.6957	6.1710	7.2428	.0000	32.5409	56.9505
	Fringe Benefit	-.4031	.5900	-.6833	.4950	-1.5652	.7589
	Gender	-9.6559	4.7793	-2.0204	.0444	-19.0694	-.2424

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	Fringe Benefit*Gender	.9251	.4539	2.0380	.0426	.0310	1.8191
5	(Constant)	31.2800	5.7539	5.4366	.0000	19.9475	42.6125
	Contingent Reward	1.1290	.7105	1.5890	.13332	-.2705	2.5285
	Gender	5.4769	4.2598	1.2857	.1998	-2.9135	13.8673
	Contingent Reward*Gender	-.6739	.5239	-1.2863	.1995	-1.7058	.3580
6	(Constant)	32.1505	5.6486	5.6918	.0000	21.0247	43.2763
	Operating conditions	1.0815	.6944	1.5574	.1207	-.2863	2.4492
	Gender	.8602	4.3769	.1965	.8444	-7.7608	9.4812
	Operating Cond.*Gender	-.1388	.5296	-.2620	.7935	-1.1818	.9043
7	(Constant)	30.4291	6.2281	4.8858	.0000	18.1619	42.6962
	Coworkers	1.1486	.7275	1.5788	.1157	-.2844	2.5815
	Gender	1.2232	4.6834	.2612	.7942	-8.0014	10.4479
	Coworkers*Gender	-.1207	.5488	-.2200	.8261	-1.2016	.9602
8	(Constant)	43.7162	7.6724	5.6979	.0000	28.6043	58.8282
	Nature of Work	-.3102	.6719	-.4616	.6448	-1.6336	1.0133
	Gender	-8.2752	5.7963	-1.4277	.1547	-19.6920	3.1415
	Nature of Work*Gender	.7449	.5080	1.4663	.1438	-.2557	1.7455
9	(Constant)	37.7057	4.5340	8.3162	.0000	28.7752	46.6362
	Communication	.2890	.4524	.6390	.5234	-.6019	1.1800
	Gender	-4.9772	3.1716	-1.5693	.1179	-11.2241	1.2697
	Communication *Gender	.4973	.3128	1.5900	.1131	-1.1187	1.1133

* Significant, $p < 0.05$

Table 4: Model Summary

Model	R	R-Square	F	df1	df2	P
1	.3014	.0908	8.1910	3.0000	246.0000	.0000
2	.1295	.0168	1.3984	3.0000	246.0000	.2438
3	.2875	.0827	7.3908	3.0000	246.0000	.0001
4	.2676	.0716	6.3237	3.0000	246.0000	.0004
5	.1091	.0119	.9871	3.0000	246.0000	.3995
6	.2490	.0620	5.4224	3.0000	246.0000	.0013
7	.2582	.0667	5.8578	3.0000	246.0000	.0007
8	.1990	.0396	3.3805	3.0000	246.0000	.0189
9	.3891	.1514	14.6255	3.0000	246.0000	.0000

* Significant, $p < 0.05$.

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

Model 6's R^2 value was .0620, which explained 6.20 percent of the variation in tutors' self-reported organisational commitment. The model was once more shown to be significant, $F(3, 246) = 5.4224$, $p = .0013$. The model 7 results were significant ($F(3, 249) = 5.8578$, $p = .0007$), and the tutors' self-reported organisational commitment was explained by the R^2 value to the extent that it accounted for 6.67 percent of the variance. The results of Model 8 were significant, with $F(3, 249) = 3.3805$, $p = .0189$, and an R^2 value of 3.96% for the variance in tutors' self-reported organisational commitment. $F(3, 246) = 14.6255$, $p = .0000$, and the R^2 accounted for 15.14% of the variance in tutors' self-reported organisational commitment. In the last Model, the results were significant $F(3, 246) = 14.6255$, $p = .0000$ and the R^2 accounted for 15.14% of the variance in the self-reported organisational commitment of tutors. Table 4 presents the significance results.

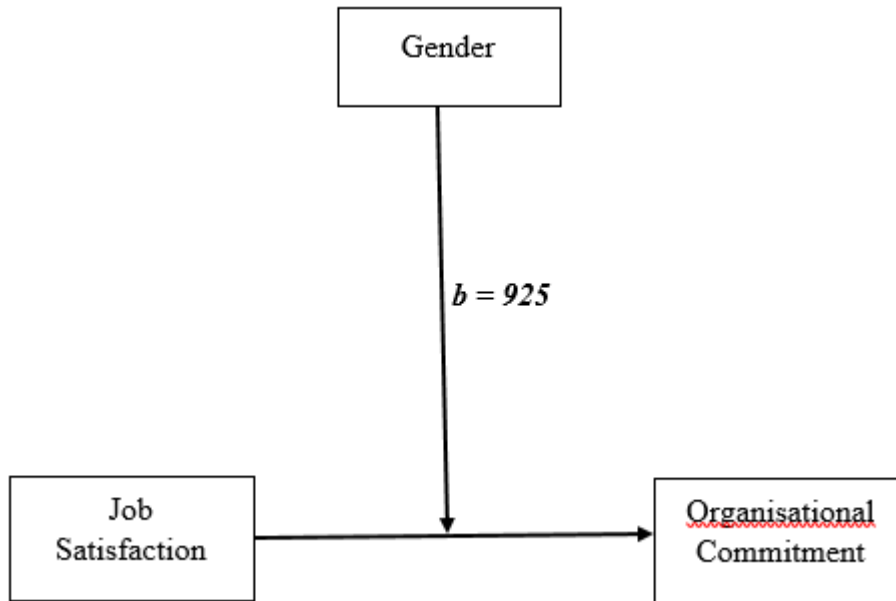


Figure 1: Statistical model results using model 1 of PROCESS Macro

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

With regards to model 5, gender was not found as a moderator between contingent reward and organisational commitment ($b = -.6739$; $SE = .5239$; $t = -1.2863$; $p = .1995$, *Boot95%CI* (-1.7058, .3580). In Model 6, gender was not found as a moderator between operating conditions and organisational commitment ($b = -.1388$; $SE = .5296$; $t = -.2620$; $p = .7935$, *Boot95%CI* (-1.1818, .9043). Similarly, in Model 7, gender was not found as a moderator between coworkers and organisational commitment ($b = -.1207$; $SE = .5488$; $t = -.2200$; $p = .8261$, *Boot95%CI* (-1.2016, .9602). In Model 8, gender was not found as a moderator between nature of work and organisational commitment ($b = .7449$; $SE = .5080$; $t = 1.4663$; $p = .1438$, *Boot95%CI* (-.2557, 1.7455). Finally, in Model 9, gender was not found as a moderator among communication and organisational commitment ($b = .4973$; $SE = .3128$; $t = 1.5900$; $p = .1131$, *Boot95%CI* (-.1187, 1.1133).

Hypothesis 2

Gender in the Link between Fringe Benefits a Dimension of Job Satisfaction and

Organisational Commitment

The hypothesis was to examine the moderating role of gender in the link between Fringe Benefits a sub-dimension of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In the figure, a single moderator (i.e., Gender) was used to moderate the link between fringe benefit a dimensions of job satisfaction on organisational commitment.

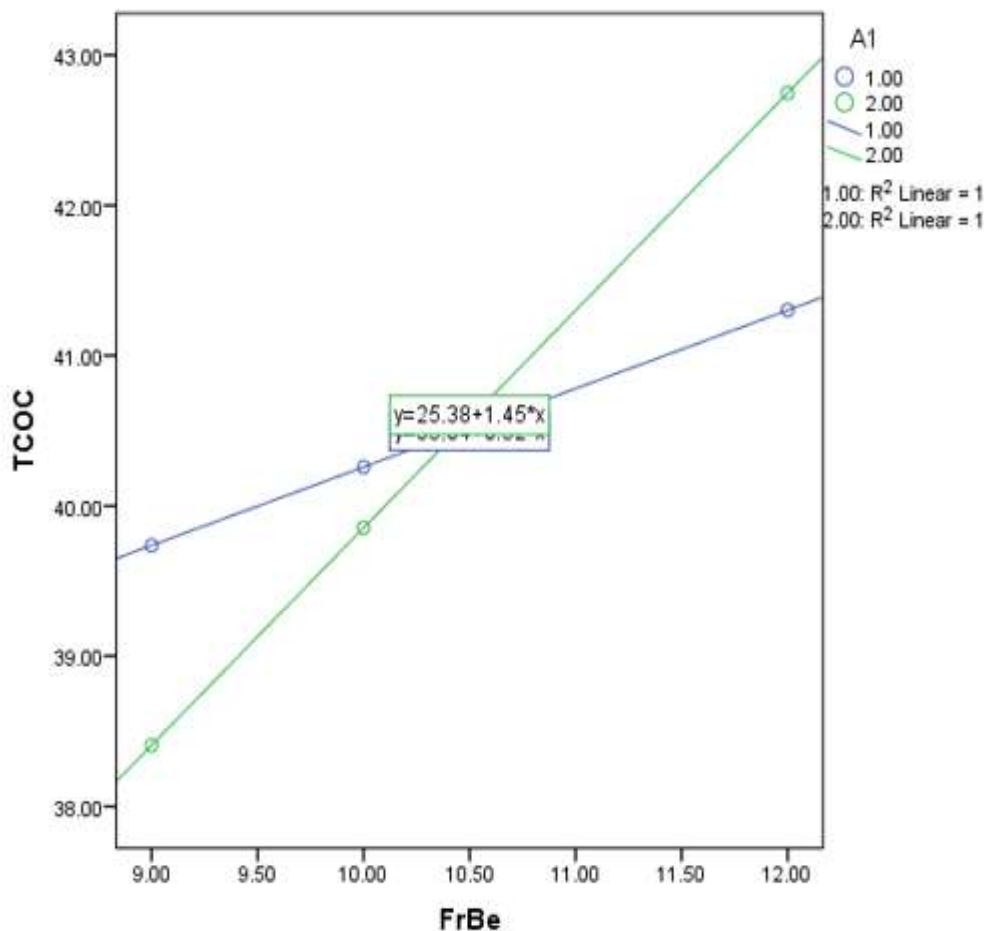


Figure 2: Gender in the Link between Fringe Benefits a Dimension of Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

As shown in Figure 2, the link between fringe benefits and organisational commitment was positive for females and negative for males. This implies that, on one hand, as the fringe benefits of females increased from 9 to 12, their organisational commitment also increased from 38.02 to 43. On the other hand, as the fringe benefits of males increased from 9 to 12, their organisational commitment decreased from 41 to 39.08. These results generally mean that as female tutors benefit from the fringe, their organisational commitment enhances. Male tutors, however, experience a

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decline in organisational commitment as they benefit from the fringe. The implication is that gender significantly moderates the link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

FINDINGS

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

The results are in line with, Aytac (2015) who discovered that female teachers had higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts. Eleswed and Mohmed (2013) also found that job satisfaction tends to be higher for women and rises with age. The results are also in line with Jackson, Albertis, and Snipes (2014), who examine how gender may affect the job satisfaction of staff. These authors indicate that higher levels of job satisfaction were as a result of gender parity between managers and staff. Therefore, when working for male managers, male staff expressed greater job satisfaction, and when working for female managers, female employees expressed greater job satisfaction. The results are again consistent with those of a study conducted by Verma, Bhal, and Vrat (2013) who suggested that gender inequalities in job satisfaction exist as a result of variations in the methods by which firms treat their staff. Women have higher levels of job satisfaction and are usually at par with men in organisations that use gender-sensitive procedures. The level of job satisfaction for women is frequently lower than the level of job satisfaction for males in organisations that do not implement gender-sensitive policies. Family-friendly rules, adaptable work hours, and job sharing are examples of gender-sensitive practices. The authors proposed that certain practices, such as reducing stress help female employees meet family responsibilities and this has a positive effect on job satisfaction. The results contradict the findings of Mondal (2014), who discovered no statistically significant differences in job satisfaction between male and female teachers. In a study of the relationship between gender and job satisfaction among higher education administrators, no statistically significant differences were discovered (Yazici & Altun, 2013; Howard-Baldwin, Celik & Kraska, 2012).

CONCLUSION

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

Recommendations

The study recommends that the governing council of colleges need to focus on factors affecting the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations (job satisfaction) of their tutors so that stronger commitment and greater loyalty may be demonstrated by the tutors.

Declaration of conflict of interest

The author(s) declared that the research was conducted in the absence of any potential conflicts of interest concerning authorship and/or publication.

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