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Destructive Leadership and Academic Staff Commitment In Debre Tabor University: The Mediating Role of Organizational Justice

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BAHIR DAR UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS
DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT

**Destructive Leadership and Academic staff Commitment in
Debre Tabor University: The Mediating Role of Organizational
Justice**

By
Sileshi Goshu

July, 2022

Bahir Dar, Ethiopia

**BAHIR DAR UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS
DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT
MASTERS OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION (MBA)**

**Destructive Leadership and Academic staff Commitment in
Debre Tabor University: The Mediating Role of Organizational
Justice**

By

Sileshi Goshu

**A Thesis Submitted to the Department of Management in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Masters of
Business Administration**

Advisor

Zelege Siraye (Asst Prof.)

July, 2022

Bahir Dar, Ethiopia

APPROVAL SHEET
BAHIR DAR UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS
DEPARTEMENT OF MANAGEMENT

This thesis, written by Sileshi Goshu, and entitled "**Destructive Leadership and Academic Staff Commitment in Debre Tabor University: The Mediating Role of Organizational Justice**" and submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Executive Master of Business Administration, complies with the regulations of the University and meets the acceptable standards with respect to originality and quality.

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This is to certify that the thesis entitled "**Destructive Leadership and Academic Staff Commitment in Debre Tabor University: The Mediating Role of Organizational Justice**" has been prepared by Sileshi Goshu and submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master's in Business Administration has been carried out under my supervision. Therefore, I recommend that the student has fulfilled the requirements and can therefore submit the thesis to the department for defense.

Zelege Siraye (Ass.prof)

Advisor

Signature

Date

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Student Declaration

This study, entitled "**Destructive Leadership and Academic Staff Commitment in Debre Tabor University: The Mediating Role of Organizational Justice,**" is my original work and has not been presented for a degree at any other university, and that all sources of materials used for the study have been duly acknowledged.

Sileshi Goshu

Student Researcher

Signature

Date

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Acronyms

AC	Affective Commitment
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
DLB	Destructive Leadership Behavior
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EHEIs	Ethiopian Higher Education Institutions
ETB	Ethiopian Birr (the Ethiopian Currency)
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
IJ	Interactional Justice
NFI	Normed Fit Index
OC	Organizational Commitment
OFAG	Office of the Federal Auditor General
OJ	Organization Justice
VIF	Variance Inflation Factors

Abstract

The main objective of the research is to examine the effect of destructive leadership on the organizational commitment of academic staff at Debre Tabor University, where organizational justice acts as a mediator. The data was collected through a closed-end questionnaire and analyzed quantitatively. The data analysis techniques used were multivariate statistical techniques of the PLS method using Microsoft Office Excel sheet and Smart PLS 3.0. The finding revealed that the three dimensions of destructive leadership were manifested at Debre Tabor University. Tyrannical leadership behavior is highly displayed by leaders, followed by supportive-disloyal and laissez-faire leadership behaviors. The two latent variables, namely supportive disloyal and laissez-faire leadership behaviors, collectively explained 75.9% of the variance in interactional justice. Tyrannical leadership, supportive-disloyal, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors collectively explained 79% of the variance in academic staff commitment. Among others, tyrannical leadership behavior has a negative impact on academic staff commitment. On the contrary, supportive disloyal and laissez-faire leadership behaviors positively affect the academic staff's commitment. A negative direct relationship between tyrannical leadership behavior and academic staff commitment was observed. Moreover, interactional justice appears to play a mediating role between supportive disloyal leadership behavior and academic staff commitment. Thus, in order to decrease the leaders' destructive behavior and to enhance the issues of justice and commitment, it is imperative that leaders and other employees at different levels be willing to take action when destructive leadership behaviors are manifested.

Key Terms: *Destructive Leadership, Organizational Commitment, Organizational Justice*

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

Leadership is considered one of the key ingredients to the success of any organization (Al-Omari, Qablan, Khasawneh, & Khasawneh, 2008; Yukl, 2010; Jabbar & Hussein, 2017). That is why organizations, including universities, adapt and apply different types of leadership approaches to achieve their own missions and goals (Ali & Dahie, 2015). Specifically, it is imperative for public universities to have effective leadership that functions at different levels. With regard to this, Koen and Bitzer (2010) succinctly state that effective leadership can be viewed as the biggest advantage a university can have in a competitive environment.

The vast majority of literature over the past five decades has focused on determining the characteristics of effective leadership (Higgs, 2009). Even in later years, as explained by Kelloway, Mullen, and Francis (2006), studies in different organizations in general and education in particular about leadership have been much more focused on the positive side of leadership behaviors and practices. As for them, researchers were interested in learning about the personality traits and qualities that make a leader effective or constructive. In a similar vein, Larsson, Fors Brandebo, and Nilsson (2012) pointed out that leadership studies have focused on the attributes of effective leadership and how effective leadership can contribute to organizational effectiveness and follower well-being.

In contrast to positive leadership, in recent times, the dark sides of leadership behaviors have attracted the attention of researchers in the field (Martin, 2014). The dark side of leadership in an organization is like a virus in a computer system, which is often tiny but contagious and

fatal (Chung, 2011). According to Chung, viruses in leadership lead to organizational dysfunction and failure. The same source also contends that viruses in leadership are anti-virtues, which repel followers, destroy relationships, and undermine the benefits of organizations. Employee dissatisfaction, poor commitment, and psychological distress result from the dark sides of leadership (Padilla, Kaiser, & Hogan, 2007; Mackie, 2008). Because of its role in causing organizational failure, there is a growing interest in the dark side of leadership in the scientific literature on leadership (Chung, 2011).

Recently, the term "destructive leadership" has been the most widely used to characterize the dark sides of leadership (Craig & Kaiser, 2012; Krasikova, Green, & LeBreton, 2013). The term "destructive leadership" has been defined and interpreted differently by many academicians in the field. Destructive leadership, for example, is described as "the systematic and repeated behavior of a leader that violates the legitimate interests of the organization by sabotaging organizational goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or the motivations, well-being, or job satisfaction of followers" by Einarsen, Aasland, and Skogstad (2007, p. 208). DLB is defined as "a voluntary activity undertaken by a leader, which most people would see as damaging towards followers and the organization" (Thoroughgood, Padilla, Hunter, & Tate, 2012, p. 231).

Different authors assert that there are different features of destructive leadership. Lack of concern for the welfare of subordinates (Reed, 2004), hostility, a negative mindset, narcissism, and an ideology of hate (Padilla et al., 2007; Schmidt, 2008), dominance (Lipman-Blumen, 2005), inability to prioritize tasks, lying, erratic behavior, inability to delegate tasks, bullying, and ineffective conflict management are all examples of poor leadership.

Leaders' behaviors that can fall under DLB are also observed in Ethiopian Higher Education Institutions (EHEIs). EHEIs are largely characterized by centralizing command, control, and leadership practices, whereby power is concentrated on a few individuals at the top level (Lerra, 2015); undemocratic, divorced from tasks; ineffective resource mobilization and inappropriate resource utilization (Teshome, 2003); lack of concern for the followers and unethical behavior (Abeya & Frew, 2016); they make non-transparent decisions (Ibrahim, Rahel, & Gemechu, 2017); they don't treat followers equitably; and are not ethical models for the followers (Frew, Mitiku, & Mebratu, 2016). Behailu (2011) and Mulatu and Befikadu (2017) noted that rigidity and a lack of confidence in giving strategic direction were found to be characteristics of leaders in EHEIs.

Similarly, manifestations of DLB are observed in the HEIs of Amhara state. For instance, though the study lacked sufficient detail, Rani and Abdie (2017) found that the top management bodies in the HEIs of Amhara State are acting unethically in their leadership style. Similarly, a study conducted by Yidnekachew (2015) showed that specific behaviors labeled under DLB were observed at Wollo University. Because of poor leadership, the rights and academic freedom of teachers remained at risk. As for him, teachers are not treated fairly when the university management is not afraid to discriminate against teachers based on their membership and participation in the ruling party. Those with opposite political views are exposed to different problems and sent to jail for fabricating reasons. Teachers who speak their political opinions openly are facing a lot of warnings and discrimination.

Concerning the university's financial management, the audit report by the Office of the Federal Audit General ([OFAG] 2017) revealed that public universities in Ethiopia have lots of problems that can be categorized under DLB practices. For instance, as stated by OFAG

(2017), Bahir Dar University paid ETB 10,518,758.51 to unauthorized contract workers without the legal permission and awareness of the regional as well as the federal government of the country. In addition, ETB 24,184,740.66 was paid for invigilators for second and third degree students without any standards set by the government of the country (OFAG, 2017). Similarly, Debre Markos University and Debre Tabor University paid ETB 1,662,342.75 and Birr ETB 1,396,148.00 and purchased different materials and equipment without proof of receipt, respectively (OFAG, 2018). By the year 2019, Debre Tabor University paid a total of ETB 7,671,634.60 in terms of per diem for unauthorized positions and for field work when employees didn't go there (OFAG, 2019).

All the specific behaviors indicated above can fall under the three dimensions of DLB, namely tyrannical, supportive-disloyal, and laissez faire. For instance, as explained by Aasland, Skogstad, Notelaers, Nielsen, and Einarsen (2010), leaders with a lack of care toward their followers are called tyrannical leaders. These leaders always display pro-organizational behaviors combined with anti-follower behavior. Supportive disloyal leadership, on the other hand, is defined as leadership behavior that goes against the organization's legitimate aims while being supportive of followers' interests (Einarsen et al., 2007). Allowing employees to steal from the organizations, showing up late to work, and doing one's duties inefficiently are the peculiarities of this leadership behavior. Laissez-faire, on the other hand, is defined as the absence of leadership. Leaders in this category fail to respond to their followers' requests, are generally absent when needed, and avoid making decisions.

A number of researchers assert that DLB can have a variety of negative consequences at the organizational and personal level (Erickson et al., 2015; Khan, Imran, & Anwar, 2017). It has been determined that DLB poses a threat at the organizational level (Anand, Ashforth, &

Joshi, 2005; Thornton, 2004). It is also viewed as a way for the development of negative organizational behaviors like poor employee attitudes and intentions toward absenteeism, job dissatisfaction, and turnover intentions (Keelan, 2000), which negatively affects employee performance and motivations (Aydin, Sarier, & Uysal, 2013). Beyond the organization, DLB's effects also include problems with followers (Salin, 2003). The victims of DLB often feel depressed about their work (Tepper, 2000), and this often results in a feeling of anxiety, helplessness, frustration, and job tension (Harvey, Treadway, & Heames, 2007), the development of deviant work behavior (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), and negative feelings such as anger and bitterness (Tepper, Simon, & Park, 2017), which has a devastating impact on how they function at work and in their personal lives. Similarly, due to leadership malpractices and unfair treatment, many senior academic staff in Wollo University have left their jobs, fearing the ever-worsening repression and academic freedom violations by leaders (Yidnekachew, 2015).

Concerning the relationship among OJ, leadership, and OC, a study by Bakhshi, Kumar, and Rani (2009) and Lee (2000) showed that OJ has been found to be a mediator of the relationship between leadership and OC. Similarly, Zhang (2006) believed that if employees perceive that they are treated favorably by their leaders, they feel obligated to pay them back with beneficial behaviors. On the other hand, as explained by Dodman and Zadeh (2014), unfair treatment of an employee by their leaders leads to negative attitudes and brings about low employee OC, which can result in employees quitting the organization. Poon (2012), similarly, points out that if employees perceive an unfair outcome from their leader, their commitment drops. They often end up dreading going to work and decide to leave their organization (Erickson et al., 2015).

In general, though there have been studies examining the relationship between the positive aspects of leadership behavior, OJ and OC, it is seen that the number of studies conducted in HEIs on DLB in general and its relationship with interactional justice(IJ) and and Affective Commitment (AC) in particular has been limited.

1.2 Problem Statement

Due to its multidimensional consequences, Erickson et al. (2015) explain DLB as a serious cancer that ruins the lives of employees, destroys OC, negatively affects work unit stability, and creates ineffective work cohesion. Most leadership research over the past decade has, however, focused on the constructive aspect of leadership (e.g., Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Einarsen et al., 2007; Moreno-Jimenez et al., 2009; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Tepper, 2007). The majority of leadership literature has focused on leadership effectiveness (Higgs, 2009; Padilla et al., 2007); transformational leadership (e.g., Bass, 1985); ethical leadership (e.g., Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005); and authentic leadership (e.g., Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008) that emphasizes positive leadership behavior and its effects.

Studies on DLB have not centered on the education sector (Woestman, 2014). Little research has been conducted on the nature of DLBs and their negative effects on followers (e.g., Kelloway et al., 2006; Tepper, 2000; Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002); their dimensions (Thoroughgood et al., 2012); and solutions to DLBs (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007). Even those who have conducted research in business organizations on DLBs studied without considering the relationship between DLBs with OJ and OC (Aasland et al., 2010; Krasikova et al., 2013; Padilla et al., 2007; Thoroughgood et al., 2012). The majority of them have relied on qualitative methods (Aydin, Sarier, & Uysal, 2013; Keelan, 2000).

Studies by different scholars also confirmed that OJ is not well studied in HEIs. Mahony, Fitzgerald, Crawford, and Hnat (2015), for instance, pointed out that there is limited use of the OJ theoretical framework in HEIs despite the importance of the topic. The same situation holds true in the case of Ethiopia. In the same vein, the relationship between leadership and OC in the HEIs of Ethiopia has not yet been well researched (Kassaw & Golga, 2019).

Another prime motivation of this study is centered around the fact that the previous studies on leadership in EHEIs focused much on the prevalence and effects of positive leadership behaviors such as ethical leadership (Frew, Mitiku & Mebratu, 2016), challenges of leadership (Mitiku & Mitiku, 2017), transformational leadership (Duressa, 2014; Shibru, & Darshan, 2011; Tesfaw, 2014; Abeya & Frew, 2016), leadership effectiveness (Hailu, 2013; Duressa, & Darshan, 2011; Tesfaw, 2014; Abeya & Frew, 2016), educational leaders' multicultural competencies (Abeya & Frew, 2016), leadership (Belay, 2009; Matebe, 2014; Kemal, 2016; Negassa, & Aliye, 2018), and leadership style (Mesfin, 2017; Rao & Gorfie, 2017).

Similarly, Aman and Rani(2017) pointed out that top management's ethical leadership behavior in HEIs in the Amhara region is below the expected average, which indicates top management are acting unethically in their leadership. The same authors added that top management's ethical leadership behavior was below their expectations and that had an effect on their organizational commitment. Therefore, in countries like Ethiopia, where higher education institutions are expected to address complex societal problems, it is increasingly important to study the impact of leaders' behavior on the academic commitment of academic staff, which is a determinant of success in achieving goals. Thus, what provoked the researcher more is that leaders' behavior is the crucial element in achieving HEIs goals. Hence,

the commitment of academic staff in public universities needs to be investigated in relation to leadership behavior.

The unauthorized payment system of the university under investigation is a practical gap as a motivating factor for this study. Concerning this, Debre Tabor University paid ETB 1,662,342.75 and Birr ETB 1,396,148.00 and purchased different materials and equipment without proof of receipt, respectively (OFAG, 2018). By the year 2019, the university paid a total of ETB 7,671,634.60 in terms of per diem for unauthorized positions and for field work when employees didn't go there (OFAG, 2019).

Another practical gap as a motivating factor for this study is the living experience of the researcher. The researcher repeatedly asked a number of academic staff at Debre Tabor University about the leadership behaviors shown by their respective leaders and found that leaders at different positions in the university display destructive behaviors. Leaders are not interested in devoting time to discussing issues concerning their employees' well-being; they are not fair in professional growth and development strategies; they are slow in introducing policies and activities to employees; and they are hesitant to take action when things go wrong. As a result, some of the academic staff feel there is an injustice and become less committed to the university. This indicates that there is a need for better leadership to realize employee OC gearing towards results-orientation and efficiency.

To sum up, though the problem is multidimensional, there is a lack of research work that offers a more comprehensive understanding of DLB in the HEIs. In addition, to the best knowledge of the researcher, studies carried out so far to examine leaders' DLB in the HEIs in Amhara state in general are nil. Specifically, the relationships among the three dimensions of

DLBs(TL, SDL, and LFL) leadership behaviors, IJ, and academic staff AC have not been studied. Thus, the focus of the current study is aimed at investigating the prevalence of DLBs, developing and testing an integrated empirical model that labels the relationship among the aforementioned variables. To achieve the objective of the study, the following basic research questions were formulated:

1. What types of DLBs are often exhibited by leaders in Debre Tabor University?
2. To what extent do DLBs, IJ and AC got manifested in the Debre Tabor University
3. To what extent do DLBs influence IJ and the AC of academic staff in the University under study?
4. To what extent does IJ predict the AC of academic staff in Debre Tabor University?
5. To what extent does IJ mediates the relationship between DLBs and AC of academic staff in the University examined?

1.3 Significance of the Study

This study may have important implications. As indicated in the background and problem statement sections, DLB is a new concept for which little data is available in the literature. As a result, this study contributes to the general body of knowledge and is likely to advance current DLB research one step further. Moreover, no previous study tried to see the effect of DLB on OJ and OC. Thus, the findings of this study will answer many questions that leaders have had regarding the destructive leadership practices in relation to the OJ and OC at public universities. Specifically, this study may have the following practical and theoretical significance:

Theoretically, this study contributes to previous knowledge in a number of ways. The study forms part of a theoretical framework that shows how DLB influences OJ and OC in HEIs. As stated by various scholars, for change to occur in an environment, including HEIs, leadership

styles and OC are the key components (Goetsch & Davis, 2014). Specifically, the study could be a means to provide current leaders and followers in HEIs with knowledge related to meaningful predictors of DLB on how to actively recognize leaders' destructive behavior before they contaminate the employees and universities. This study contributes greatly and forms part of a conceptual framework that shows how DLB dimensions influences IJ and staff AC in Debre Tabor University. Thus, individuals in different leadership positions and practitioners can apply the verified models as well as the conceptual framework of the study to evaluate the leadership behavior practiced in the university.

Practically, this study is crucial as it has been given less attention in the past while the effect of DLB is worsening globally. Thus, this study may add value to the existing knowledge in the areas of university leadership by predicting the consequences of DLB. Drawing on the belief that leaders' destructive behavior has a negative impact on the OC of staff, the researcher suggests that the results of this study will have implications for the development of leaders and universities. Findings from this study could assist administrators to better understand the impact of DLB on AC. Moreover, it will help to bring the severity of DLB to the attention of practitioners and policy makers so that they can consider it in line with the IJ and AC. Thus, the knowledge they gained may also help policymakers to design controlling mechanisms for the causes and consequences of DLBs and practices. Finally, this study may also benefit future researchers who will be inspired by this study and may use it as a basis for further research or to fill in the identified research gaps.

1.4 Delimitations of the Study

To properly manage the study, it was necessary to delimit its boundary. Thus, the study has numerous delimitations. First, the study was confined to Debre Tabor University due to time and budget constraints. In addition to this, literature regarding the symptoms of the dark side of leadership at Debretabor University motivates the researcher to select the area under investigation.

Second, due to the complex nature of destructive leadership (Schyns & Hansborough, 2010; Tepper, 2007), an attempt was made to explore the three dimensions of DLBs, namely tyrannical, supportive-disloyal, and laissez faire leadership behaviors, adapted from the Aasland et al. (2010) model since it is the most recent and broadest in explaining leader behavior labeled under this category. From the four dimensions in the model, derailed leadership and constructive leadership behavior will not be included in the study on the assumption that the specific behaviors of these dimensions fall under the tyrannical, supportive-disloyal, and laissez-faire leadership dimensions of DLB in one or another way.

Third, the issue of fairness in judging the leadership system of the entire organization through the leadership practices of a single unit is not worthwhile. Thus, to get the big picture of the leadership system of the university, an attempt was made to see the leadership behaviors of authorities at different levels(i.e heads, deans and presidents).

Fourth, among the three dimensions of OJ, IJ was included in the study on the assumption that it best explains the effects of leadership on followers work behaviors for two reasons. First, IJ has been shown to be associated with employees' evaluations of their leaders (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001) and to have more significant effects on key outcome variables than perceived distributive and procedural justice (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen,

2002). Second, IJ has been generalized and validated in multiple cultural contexts more than other dimensions (Chiaburu & Lim, 2008; Kwon, Kim, Kang, & Kim, 2008; Leung, Tong, & Ho, 2004).

Fifth, IJ is not treated as a mediating variable between TL and AC on the assumption that employees in a given organization perceive leaders who display anti-follower behavior as unfair.

Sixth, AC is the focus of the study since it is labeled the most perfect to describe the culture of organizations than others' dimensions of OC(Chen & Francesco, 2003; Lavelle et al., 2007; Sabella et al., 2016). It is perceived to be a representation of the overall organization's commitment since a strong affective commitment brings employees to continue employment with the organization and tends to make more effort for the organization (Joo, Yoon, & Jeung, 2012). Finally, the study was conducted from January 2022 to July 2022.

1.5 Limitations of the Study

No study is completed without potential limitations. Therefore, this study has many limitations, which can be used by future studies or researchers to sort out the other issues critically. First, the sensitivity of the topic created challenges for easily communicating with respondents. Second, the researcher considered only the leadership behaviors of heads, deans, and presidents; other leadership positions like quality assurance offices, human resource and finance administration officers were not considered. In addition, other university communities did not participate in the study. This may limit the study to clearly indicating the big picture of the issue under investigation. Third, since the study is purely quantitative, the researcher used questionnaire as the only instruments of the study. This violates the issue of triangulation

and may weigh down the quality of the study. Another limitation is that the data was centered on a single university. Thus, it is difficult to generalize the results to other organizations.

1.6 Operational Definitions

Academic staff: professionals engaged in the teaching, research and community service activities.

Academic Staff Commitment:The degree of attachment an academic staff member has to their university and their work.

Affective Commitment: An academic staff perceived emotional attachment to their university.

Destructive Leadership Behavior: Leaders behavior which violates the interests of their university and academic staff by pursuing their own benefits and interests.

Interactional Justice:The perception of equity in the relationship between leaders and followers

Laissez faire leadership behavior: The behaviors by which the leaders fail to exercise their role and neglect both the interest of the university and academic staff.

Leaders: Department heads, deans and presidents in the selected university.

Supportive disloyal Leadership Behavior: A form of DLB by which leaders have negative attitude towards the university while motivating and backing academic staff.

Tyrannical Leadership Behavior: A form of DLB by which leaders behave destructively toward academic staff.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.1 Theoretical Literature

2.1.1 The Concept of Destructive Leadership

Scholars agreed that pinning down the definition of "destructive leadership" is a challenge. It is not a clearly defined construct (Kellerman, 2004; Lipman-Blumen, 2005), but this is slowly changing. Numerous concepts have been proposed that fall within the domain of destructive leadership, yet scholars have not come to a consensus that explicitly defines it. For instance, Tepper (2000) also defined DLB as a leader's behavior characterized by hostility, conformity, and indifference with the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact. Niazi (2015, p.145) defined it as "an organized behavior of a leader, which spoils the working environment by harming the organization's ultimate goals, everyday jobs, resources, and work efficiency". Pelletier (2010) also explains DLB as follows:

It is a type of leadership behavior which involve acts of physical force (e.g., shoving, throwing things, slamming a fist on a desk, sexual harassment that includes inappropriate physical contact), and passive acts such as failing to protect a follower's well-being, or failing to offer a follower with important information or feedback (P. 375).

Aasland et al. (2010) also stated that destructive leadership is not one type of leadership behavior, but instead involves a variety of behaviors; that it 1) involves systematically acting against the legitimate interests of the organization, whether by abusing subordinates or by working against the attainment of the organization's goals, including any illegal behavior; and

2) emphasizes repeated destructive behavior as opposed to a single act such as an isolated outburst of anger or spontaneous misbehavior.

2.1.1.1 Characteristics of Destructive Leadership

Destructive leadership can have a variety of characteristics, and it is important that organizations acknowledge these characteristics to prevent destructive leadership from occurring. The destructive characteristics include hostility and trait negative affectivity, personal power demands, a pessimistic view of the world, personal charisma, and a dark triad of personalities: narcissistic, Machiavellian, and psychopathic (Krasikova et al., 2013; Padilla et al., 2007; Schaubroeck, Walumbwa, Ganster, & Kepes, 2007).

Research shows these leaders are oppressive, abusive, manipulative, and calculatingly undermining (Tepper, 2007). Their actions are perceived as intentional and harmful and may be the source of legal action against employers (Tepper, 2007). These types of leaders are characterized by charisma, a personal need for power, a negative life history, and an ideology of hate. They are both anti-organization and anti-followers. They engage in unethical behavior and are unable to prioritize or delegate, unable to negotiate, and unable to make good decisions, which creates situations of despair, misery, bullying, lying, and unethical acts. They have a pessimistic outlook on life, are apathetic toward others, and lack the ability to effectively communicate (verbally and nonverbally), which adversely affects the subordinates (Schaubroeck et al., 2007). They are also argumentative, easily angered, emotionally unstable, have a low frustration tolerance, and are less effective as leaders.

2.1.1.2 Models of Destructive Leadership Behavior

There are models explaining why leaders adhere to DLB while others do not. To better illustrate the concept and impact of destructive leadership, three essential models will be

presented: a model of constructive and destructive leadership (Einarsen et al., 2007); the toxic triangle (Padilla et al., 2007); and the susceptible circle (Thoroughgood et al., 2012).

Einarsen et al. (2007) model of DLB included the components of constructive, derailed, supportive-disloyal, and tyrannical leadership. Later on, the constructive-destructive leadership model was modified by Aasland et al. (2010). This model includes five distinct forms: supportive-disloyal, derailed, tyrannical, constructive, and laissez-faire.. The model showed that destructive leaders display both constructive and destructive behaviors. Leadership is not entirely constructive or destructive. Of the five leadership forms, one is wholly constructive, three are actively destructive, and laissez- faire leadership is passively destructive.

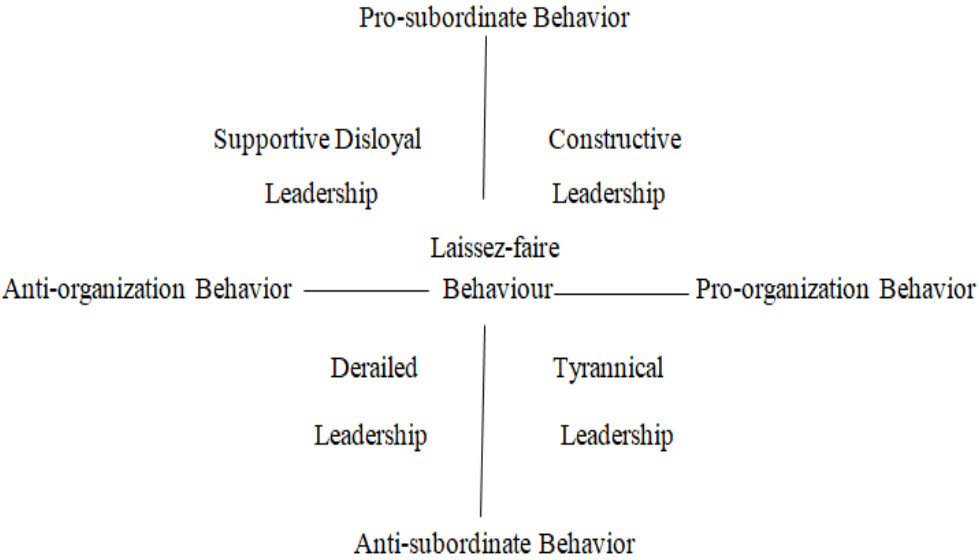


Figure 1.A model of destructive behavior (Aasland et al.,2010)

2.1.1.2.1 Tyrannical Leadership

Petty tyrants, according to Ashforth (1994), are those who abuse their position of power and authority in an arbitrary and sometimes vengeful manner. He noted that the style comprised unfavorable actions including insults, disregarding others, acting arbitrarily, menacing

employees without cause, and discouraging their initiative. This style of leadership will act in accordance with the objectives, duties, missions, and strategies of the organization. Such a leader undermines the subordinate's motivation, well-being, and/or job happiness (Einarsen et al., 2007). On the other hand, they are perceived as sacrificing their subordinates in order to achieve good outcomes. They fall into the categories of humiliating, demeaning, and coercing subordinates into doing the work for them (Aasland et al., 2008).

Aasland et al. (2010) underlined the traits of tyrannical leaders, including how they weaken subordinate motivation, have an impact on welfare, and reduce job satisfaction. Tyrannical leaders may hurt their followers, but they may not always ruin their organization (Einarsen et al., 2007). These leaders sacrifice followers in order to attain their aims (Ma, Karri, & Chittipeddi, 2004). They might do a good job of fulfilling their obligations to the organization, but they might do it at the expense of or to the prejudice of their followers.

The most frequent manifestations of tyrannical leadership are non-physical actions in which a leader publicly mocks or appropriates the labor of followers. Tyrannical leaders use aggressive tactics to complete tasks by demeaning, controlling, or insulting subordinates (Tepper, 2007).

2.1.1.2 Supportive-Disloyal Leadership

According to experts in the industry, supportive-disloyal leadership is the exact opposite of tyrant leadership. Pro-subordinate actions mixed with anti-organizational tendencies make up the supportive-disloyal leadership style (Aasland et al., 2010). They have a penchant for unethical actions including sabotaging organizations, stealing assets, or embezzling (Einarsen et al., 2007). Even though they are kind to their employees, leaders in this group can use their subordinates in ways that are counter to the objectives of the organization (Aasland et al.,

2008). These leaders run the risk of encouraging a lack of ethical behavior in their followers by their decisions and example.

2.1.1.2.3 *Laissez-faire Leadership Style*

Laissez-faire is a passive kind of leadership style (Long & Thean, 2011) and assumes the absence of a transaction, in which the leader abdicates responsibility, does not use their authority, and avoids making decisions. It is considered active only to the extent that the leader "elects" to avoid taking some action. In the same vein, Piccolo, Bono, Heinitz, Rowold, Duehr, and Judge (2012) described this style of leadership as "leaders who avoid making decisions, hesitate in taking action, and are absent when needed" (p. 569). Laissez-faire leadership is a non-leadership component that is exhibited by leaders (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). Leaders here tend to avoid their responsibilities and they are usually absent whenever needed (Breevaart, Bakker, Jom, Olsen, & Espevik, 2014). They also resist expressing their views on critical matters, and they do not follow up on requests for assistance (Wong & Giessner, 2015).

In addition, it is characterized by the leader's non-interference with the activities of the employees in respect of decision-making processes and the way and manner in which employees intend to attain organizational goals that are left to them (Goodnight, 2011). In a similar manner, Bhatti, Maitlo, Shaikh, Hashmi, and Shaikh (2012) noted that the laissez-faire style of leadership comprises a "non-interference policy that allows complete freedom to all workers and has no particular way of attaining goals." (p. 193).

2.1.2 Organizational Justice

OJ is defined as a process by which employees perceive the resource allocation, decision-making, and interpersonal interaction in an organization to be either fair or unfair (Caron,

Ben, Ahmed, & Vandenberghe, 2013). It is thus concerned with workplace behavior, especially in the way and manner in which leaders treat their subordinates with regard to pay (salaries, wages, and rewards), organizational procedures (policies, decision-making), and interpersonal relationships. It describes employees' perception of how an organization treats them fairly (Campbell & Finch, 2004). It is the perceived fairness of employee treatment by an organizational system and its agents (Fernandes & Awamleh, 2006).

Though justice can have a variety of dimensions, interactional justice is the focus of this study. Interactional Justice (IJ) refers to the fairness of the interpersonal treatment received when people are treated with sensitivity, dignity, and respect (Rastgar & Pourebrahimi, 2013). Cropanzano, Prehar, and Chen (2002) simply refer to interactional justice as "usually operationalized as one-to-one transactions between individuals." It focuses on interpersonal relations and on the treatment of subordinates by superiors, including that related to providing information and explanations about decisions that affect employees. The two dimensions of interactional justice proposed are interpersonal and informational justice. These two dimensions of interactional justice are related to each other.

Interactional justice, which emerges as a result of leaders' treatment of their employees, focuses on interpersonal communication and behaviors during the implementation of procedures (Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). The term "interactional justice" was first introduced by Bies and Moag (1986). Within this context, interactional justice requires leaders to treat their employees with respect, to listen to them with devotion, to make adequate explanations of their decisions, to be tolerant during hard times, and to exhibit a sensitive posture in the social sense (Thomas & Nagalingappa, 2012). The more leaders become respectful and kind to every employee without prejudice and the more they show that

all employees are valuable during their communication, the more they will be perceived as fair (Colquitt, Canlon, Wesson, Cristopher, & Yee, 2001).

According to Kickul et al. (2002), interactional justice (interpersonal sensitivity), is the variable which is more influential and having more impact in terms of how worse the employees would react to a negative intrinsic outcomes as compared to the procedural part of the policies and procedures.

2.1.3 Organizational Commitment

OC has been defined as an employee's strong desire to remain a member of a certain institution, his/her willingness to put up more effort on behalf of the organization to achieve more and acceptance of what the organization stands for (Özşahin, et al., 2013). Johns (2005) defined OC as the extent that an individual accepts, internalizes, and views his or her role based on organizational values and goals. It refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization.

Whether in the past or latest studies, organizational commitment is under attention in general. However, AC is obtained most attention from the studies when compare among all three dimensions of organizational commitment (Kwantes, 2009). According to Meyer & Allen (1991), AC is defined as an employee in the passionately committed and participants enjoy as individually with the affective or emotional connection to his/ her organization. An employee with AC is expected to show with their feelings in aspiration and emotional towards the organization (Solinger, Van Olffen, & Roe, 2008).

According to previous research, AC is defined by numerous studies as the employees' emotional attachment to its organization (Grigg, 2009; Kwantes, 2009; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Solinger et al., 2008). Grigg (2009) described employees who have an emotional attachment with a strong desire to stay with their organization.

2.2 Empirical Literature

2.2.1 Effects of Destructive Leadership Behavior

Negative follower views, detrimental follower behavior, and detrimental organizational outcomes are all effects of destructive leadership (Schilling, 2009). Long-lasting repercussions might result from destructive leadership (Webster, Brough, & Daly, 2016). As was already mentioned, interactions between a leader, followers, and the environment lead to toxic leadership (Padilla et al., 2007; Krasikova et al., 2013).

DLB can adversely affect both individual subordinates and the entire organization. Previous studies have shown that this type of leadership behavior has a negative impact on the motivation, satisfaction, and performance of employees in the workplace (Einarsen et al., 2002, p.249). Other outcomes include loss of independence from subordinates or reduced subordinate involvement and understanding of the work environment. All of this creates anxiety and hopelessness for subordinates because the work environment of their subordinates is unpredictable.

As mentioned earlier, destructive leadership affects not only the subordinates but also the organization. Conflicts between a subordinate and a leader with destructive behavior can evolve into problems that affect a whole work group. Both in situations of a work group with a destructive leader and where the leader's destructive behaviour is directed towards one subordinate, will their performance, job satisfaction, and motivation sink. This can eventually spread fear of what the next target will be (Einarsen et al., 2002). Previous research has looked at situations where having a destructive leader has made the subordinates gather as a group in order to protect each other. While others have reported that destructive leaders want to pull the work group apart and then manage it (Ashforth, 1994).

Destructive leaders use coercive power to manipulate for personal gain and employ fear as a motivator. When the leader creates a hostile work environment, it results in negative consequences that trickle down and create a stressful environment that adversely affects the subordinate's professional and personal life (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007). Destructive leadership adversely affects employees' commitment, turnover intent, job satisfaction, physical and emotional wellbeing, and work performance (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Tepper, 2007).

2.2.2 The Relationship between Leadership and IJ

The possible impact of destructive leadership on an organization can be seen through the lens of OJ theory. OJ theory includes the perceived fairness of the methods in the organization use to make decisions (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006). Including OJ theory into an interpretation of educational leadership would mean that principals must not only make decisions that positively impact the programs of a school, but they must also balance those decisions with staff perceptions of the decision, the explanation of that decision, and the execution of the decision. Educational leadership does not address, as a whole, the balancing act that leaders must play when dealing with those perceptions and the impact that perceived injustices among staff can have on an organization, because educational leadership does not address the behaviors on the prohibited end of the spectrum. Based on this assertion, it can be drawn that DLB has a negative effect on OJ.

2.2.3 The Relationship between Leadership and OC

Studies confirmed that leadership in HEIs plays a significant role towards academic staff OC. According to Dodman and Zadeh (2014), leaders' unfair treatment of employees will lead to negative attitude on the part of employees and decrease commitment which can result in

employees quitting the organization. The unfair treatment of staff by their heads and deans, leaders disregard or disrespect for workers. Studies have strongly shown that employee OC strongly relies on the leadership styles adopted by those in authority (Acar, 2012; Top, Öge, Atan, & Gümüş, 2015). Furthermore, leadership style has the potential to motivate and demotivate employees (Chemers, 2014).

The studies confirmed that OC tends to heighten for those employees whose leadership give them the opportunity to take part decision-making (Steyrer, Schiffinger,& Lang, 2008), whose leaders are fair (Lo et al., 2010) and are supportive of their employees.

A relationship between commitment and leadership style was reported in prior studies. Several studies found a positive relationship between the two variables. For instance, Lo et al. (2010) concluded that the leadership styles of supervisors are main dimensions of the social context because they shape subordinates' OC in various ways. Similarly, Ponnu and Tennakoon (2009) found that where the leaders were morally upright it will influence employee OC in a positive manner and raise the employees' confidence in their leadership. There is mounting evidence that advocates leadership styles to be positively correlated with organizational commitment (Khan et al., 2020). Lambert et al. (2016) reported being successful service organizations depends on involved, satisfied, and committed workers.

Many researchers highlighted that leadership type could impact the employee commitment towards any organization (Kim & Brymer, 2011). The studies also suggested that organizational commitment is influenced by leadership (Voegtlin et al., 2012; Miska & Mendenhall, 2015).

In conclusion, though few scholars (e.g. Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Tepper, 2007) found that destructive leadership is found to be a fundamental factor that affects followers' perception of OC and adversely affects employees' work performance, the majority of the researchers in the field attempts to see the relationship between the constructive or positive aspects of leadership and employee OC only. If destructive leaders drive down their employees' affective commitment, then the organization could lose valuable personnel. In addition, employee job performance could suffer (Weaver & Yancey, 2010).

2.2.4 The Relationship between OJ and OC

Social concepts such as equity, fairness and organizational justice play an important role in employees' evaluation of their own workplace environment. The employees who have positive feelings about these concepts are committed more to their organization, which leads to job satisfaction and an increase in the level of organizational success.

Perceptions of OJ have been consistently linked to a variety of organizational outcomes including OC. Literature has revealed that OJ is critical to all organizations as it enhances employee commitment (Baba & Ghazali, 2017; Sarnecki, 2015). As stated in present researches, the employees' perceptions on the fairness of the organizations they work for lead to an increase in their job commitment. The individuals with a higher OJ perception have a higher commitment to their institutions (Bakhshi, Kumar, & Rani, 2009). Individual perceived unfair treatment by their organizations result in lower commitment, increased intention to quit, theft and decreased support for colleagues (Colquitt et al., 2001; Konovsky, 2000).

Ogunyemi and Ayodele (2014) also found out from their study that OJ is a determinant of employees' OC in University. Therefore, employees may increase their efforts and loyalties to

the organization when they perceived that they are equitably and fairly treated (Al-Zu'bi, 2010). This positive result was based on the fact that employees were satisfied with distribution of rewards, methods and procedures of decision making as well as good relations with their supervisors and this fostered their display of positive attitude and commitment to work. In similarity, Arogundade, Arogundade, and Oyebanji (2015) investigated the perception of OJ and its influence on teachers' commitment. The result of their study indicated a positive relationship between OJ and OC because teachers perceived their leader to be fair, respectful and unbiased in their dealings.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

In this study, the constructive-destructive model of Aasland et al. (2010) was used to formulate the conceptual framework since this construct gives a comprehensive definition to actions that acknowledge a full spectrum of leader impact that ranges from destructive to constructive. The extant literature shows that leaders' destructive behaviors have serious consequences, which lead to organizational failure and followers' mistrust. Similarly, the conceptual framework of the current study assumes that the three dimensions of DLB (TL, SDL, and LFL) have a direct effect on academic staff AC. The framework also postulates that if SDL and LFL affect or influence IJ, it will then indirectly affect academic staff AC.

IJ has always been a hot topic in regular organization activities, and previous studies have proved the close relationship between interactional justice and employees' positive working attitudes, trust in leaders, organizational commitment, and job performance (Colquitt et al., 2001), from which it is possible to see that employees and organizations pay attention to fairness. If employees feel treated fairly by their leaders, they will show much more positive attitudes and engage in more behaviors beneficial to the development of the organization. In

this process, the leader plays a key role as the one who communicates with the employees the most. Bies (2005) suggested the integration of the theory of fairness with the theory of leadership behavior. Some studies have found the direct or indirect influence of employees' perception of interactional justice on the acceptance of the leaders' behaviors (Van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Van Knippenberg, 2007).

The other assumption being investigated in this study is whether destructive leaders' behavior affects academic staff AC. Destructive behavior impacts organizational commitment (Gallus, Walsh, van Driel, Gouge, & Antolic, 2013). This can lead to increased self-doubt, feelings of higher stress, anxiety, depression, anger, fear, and physical symptoms (Webster et al., 2016). Supporting this view, the social learning theory is considered crucial. This theory suggests that leaders are assumed to be role models for the behaviors of their followers. They influence their followers through modeling processes. Employees learn what to do, as well as what not to do, by observing their leaders' behavior and its consequences (Treviño & Brown, 2004).

The exchange approach view of OC posits that individuals attach themselves to their organizations in return for certain rewards from the organizations (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Steers, 1977). According to this view, the more abundant the perceived rewards, the greater the OC will be. The perceptions of favorable exchange or rewards from the employees' viewpoint are expected to result in increased commitment to the organization. On the other hand, failure by the organization to provide adequate rewards in exchange for the employees' efforts is likely to result in decreased OC (Becker, 1960). Therefore, employees who perceive that the organization values and treats them fairly will feel obligated to pay back or reciprocate these good deeds with positive work attitudes and behaviors (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Davies & Gould-Williams, 2005; Parzefall, 2008).

The assumption of this theory is also supported by scholars in the field of education. For instance, Yavuz (2010) showed that the positive academic staff OJ can be a means to increasing the academic staff OC in HEIs. Higher perceived injustice leads to lower commitment, while higher perceived justice leads to higher commitment (Cohen-Charaspector, 2001). Thus, based on the reviewed theoretical arguments, a model was formulated, showing the relationships between DLBs (TL, SDL, and LFL), IJ, and academic staff AC. In the model, TL, SDL, and LFL are portrayed as the independent variables, whilst IJ and academic staff AC are presented as mediating and dependent variables, respectively.

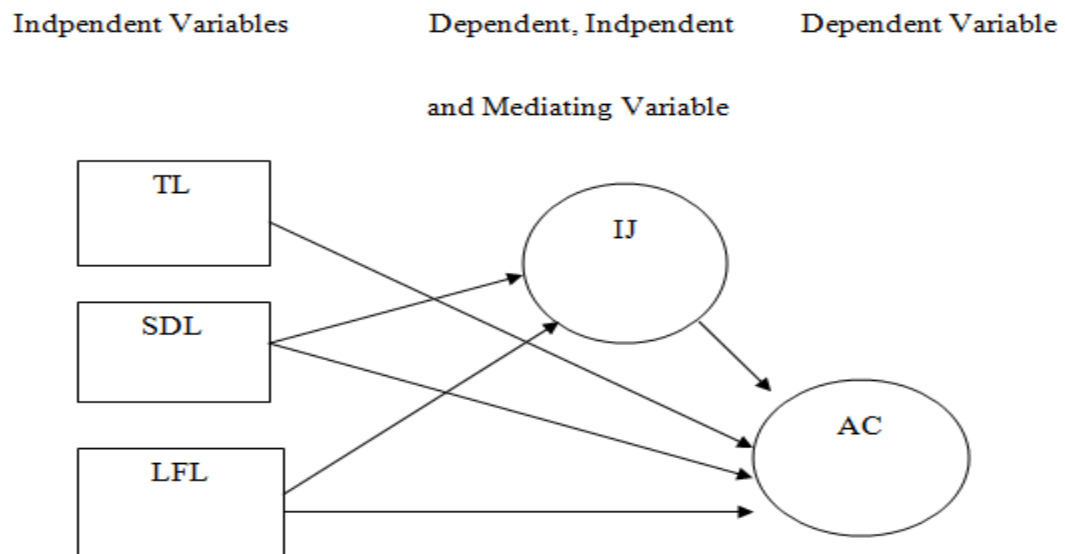


Figure 2: Conceptual Framework

Based on the relationships illustrated on the above conceptual framework model, the hypothesis of the study summarized as follows;

Table 1: Hypothesis

H1	Tyrannical leadership has a strong positive influence on staff academic commitment.
H2	Supportive-disloyal leadership has a strong positive influence on interactional justice.
H3	Supportive-disloyal leadership has a strong positive influence on staff academic commitment
H4	Laissez-faire leadership has a moderate positive influence on interactional justice.
H5	Laissez-faire leadership has a moderate positive influence on staff academic commitment
H6	Interactional justice has a weak positive influence on staff academic commitment
H7	Interactional justice mediates the relationship between supportive-disloyal leadership behaviors and staff academic commitment
H8	Interactional justice mediates the relationship between laissez-faire leadership behaviors and staff academic commitment

Chapter Three

Research Methods

3.1 Research Design

In this study, an explanatory survey design was used to attain the purpose of this study. It's suitable to use the descriptive study with better location to get numerical answers in breadth from large numerical units and scrutinize numerical changes by using the quantitative research design. Concerning the time horizon, this study followed a cross-sectional survey design due to the fact that the study completion time was not more than a year. Using this cross-sectional design, the researcher collected data once at a time and provided information within short time intervals.

3.2 Research Approach

This study used a quantitative research approach to examine the gathered data and determine the results. Creswell (2014) defines quantitative research as a method for testing objective theories by examining relationships between variables. As for him, these variables can in turn be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analyzed using statistical procedures. It has the capability to successfully interpret data into simply quantifiable charts, tables, and graphs. Overall, the quantitative method permits the researcher to use a series of techniques that yield data that is projectable to a larger population (Creswell, 2009). Moreover, quantitative research is beneficial because it enables the researcher to gather objective and numerical data in order to use statistical tools and to establish relationships and causation between variables.

3.3 Data Sources

The researcher used a primary source of data to obtain the relevant information on the issue under investigation. Closed-ended questionnaires were used to collect primary data from the sample population.

3.4 Study Variables

This study consists of five variables, namely TL, SDL, and LFL, all of which act as independent variables on the assumption that they can affect the dependent variables accordingly. The second variable (IJ) acts as a dependent variable, independent variable, and mediating variable on the assumption that it can be directly influenced by the two IVs(i.e SDL and LFL) and influences the DV(AC), as well as explain the relationship between the IVs(i.e SDL and LFL) and the DV(AC). The third variable (AC) is treated as a dependent variable since it is expected to be influenced by both the IVs.

3.5 Target Population, Sample and Sampling Techniques

3.5.1 Target Population

The target populations for this study are all colleges at Debre Tabor University. In addition, presidents, academic staff, deans, heads, and quality assurance directors were included as target populations. Students and selected administrative and supporting staff were not considered as a study population on the assumption that they did not have adequate information about the influence of leaders' behavior at different levels on academic staff AC.

3.5.2 Study Population

In this study, presidents, academic staff, deans, heads, and quality assurance directors who have had at least one year of work experience in a leadership position or teaching/academic area were taken as the sample population. Academic staffs who were on study leave or

working outside of the university during the data collection period and those with work experience of less than one year were excluded from the study.

3.5.3 Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

Since the study population at the selected university is large, the need to use a stratified and random sampling technique has become necessary. This sampling technique was appropriate to reach the required respondents with limited time and cost and to facilitate reasonable control over the sample size without jeopardizing its representatives. In order to get better information about the big picture of the leadership system of the university, the sample size was determined by the use of the Yamane (1967) formula. i.e

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where;

N= Total population

n= Required sample size

e= Level of precision = 0.05(5%), and assuming 95% confidence level and 0.5 variability(P).

The sample for the study was drawn from 539 academic staffs from all colleges that are on duty. The calculation of the sample size was as follows:

$$n = \frac{539}{1+539(.05)^2} = 230$$

Next, the sample size of each stratum was calculated and determined by proportional sample allocation method developed by Pandey and Verma(2008).To do this, a common multiplier for each stratum was used. This was obtained by dividing the population size of the i^{th} strata by total population size and multiplying by the sample size. i.e

$$n_i = \frac{N_i}{N} * n$$

Where;

n=sample size,

N_i=represents population size of the ith strata and

N=represents the population size.

Thus, using the above formula, 230 academic staff from 6 colleges (i.e 30 from business and economics, 65 from medicine and health science, 16 from agriculture, 48 from engineering and computer science, 30 from natural and computational science and 41 from social science and humanities) determined as sample for the study. Finally, the required sample from each college was obtained using simple random sampling techniques (i.e lottery method) on the assumption that this technique gives equal chance for respondents to be included in the sample selection process and avoids bias and eases generalization of the obtained findings. All the sample size from each college is presented in the table below.

Table 2: Population and Sample Respondents by Colleges

No	Colleges	Population	Sample
1	Business and economics	76	30
2	College of medicine and health science	147	65
3	Agriculture	36	16
4	Engineering and computer Science	112	48
5	Natural and computational science	71	30
6	Social science and humanities	97	41
Total		539	230

Source: own calculation, 2022

3.6 Instruments of Data Collection

In this study, closed-item questionnaires were used as the main data collection instruments. The questionnaire in this study is comprised of three sections. The first section consists of a leadership questionnaire. Sections two and three consist of the IJ and AC questionnaires, respectively. The questionnaire was used to collect data from academic staff. To protect respondents' bias, academic staff acting as leaders were not asked to rate their leadership behaviors. This is due to the fact that leaders always view themselves as having transformational characteristics, so studies should not focus only on leaders' self-reporting of their leadership characteristics (Hutchinson & Jackson, 2013). Further, Harms and Crede (2010) argue that leadership is best measured from the viewpoint of followers in order to gain a complete understanding of leadership styles.

The data was collected through the direct administration of the questionnaire by the researcher and data collectors and through the use of some volunteer individuals in the selected university. The questionnaire was designed in the English language on the assumption that all the respondents are proficient in the use of the English language. A five-point Likert scale ranging from "1" strongly disagree to "5" strongly agree was used for measuring DLBs, "1" never" to "5" always (5) for measuring IJ and "1" not at all to to "5" to a very great extent for measuring IJ.

To measure leaders' destructive behavior, the three dimensions were adapted from the works of researchers in the field. Thus, to measure the tyrannical dimensions of leaders' destructive behavior, the scale developed by Ashforth (1994) and Thoroughgood et al. (2012), consisting of six items were adapted and used. On the other hand, to measure the supportive disloyal behavior, the scale developed by Shaw, Erickson, and Harvey (2011) consisting of five items

were adapted. In addition, five items were adapted from the works of Bass and Avolio (1990) to measure the laissez-faire leadership behavior of leaders.

IJ was measured with a five-item scale from Niehoff and Elma (2013); Moorman (1993) and Colquitt (2001). The scale is composed to measure the interpersonal behaviour of the immediate supervisor when decisions are made about subordinates' jobs.

To measure academic staff AC, the researcher adapted and used the shortened version of the organizational commitment survey developed by Allen & Meyer (1990). The scale consists of the six items with the highest loadings that were chosen for inclusion. This is widely used by several researchers (e.g., Alam, 2011; Bohorquez, 2014; Nawab & Bhatti, 2011). Finally, the analysis was conducted using 15 items having a 0.5 or above loading factor.

3.7 Procedures of Data Collection

A letter of permission to conduct the study was obtained from Bahir Dar University prior to the distribution of the questionnaire. The researcher then requested permission from Debre Tabor University to fulfill the mandatory ethical requirements. After permission had been granted, the researcher asked for consent from the participants. Then, consented individuals were handed the questionnaires and informed of their rights, which included the right to participate at will, the right not to complete the questionnaire if they were not happy with the content, and the fact that they were not obliged to answer all questions. Then, questionnaires were personally distributed by the researcher and data collectors to sample respondents to complete. Finally, the filled questionnaire was collected accordingly.

3.8 Pilot Testing

Prior to the main study, the research instrument for this study was tested at the University of Gondar. This university was selected for two reasons: 1) due to the fact that the selected university is easily accessible to the researcher in terms of transport and communication; and 2) because, in many aspects, the characteristics of this university, including the participants, are similar to the target university. A proportionate stratified sampling technique was used to get an appropriate sample from colleges and schools. Respondents were selected using a random sampling technique. Thus, 30% of the population making a total of 90 academic staff were a sample. This technique was used because it allows every member of the population to be selected without bias and it is also easy to use. This sample size was sufficient because according to Mugenda and Mugenda (2008) a sample size between 10% and 30% is acceptable as a sample for social science in using descriptive research though the bigger the sample the better.

Table 3: Distribution Sample Respondents for Pilot Testing

No.	Colleges/Faculties/Schools/Academies	Population	Stratum	Sample Size (Proportional Allocation)
1	Agriculture and environmental science	93		31
2	Business and economics	150		50
3	School of law	28		9
Total		271		90

Source: own calculation, 2022

The content validity was tested by pilot testing due to the researcher's strong belief that the feedback from the pilot was used to improve the clarity of items, instructions, organization, wording, and readability of the items, question types and their format, and redundant and

irrelevant items. After comments were obtained from the advisor and other professionals in the field of management, 60 questionnaires were distributed to the selected respondents for pilot testing, of which 42 were properly filled out and used for pilot testing analysis.

3.9 Reliability Test

Reliability is a measure that indicates stability and consistency. It also measures the concept and helps to assess the goodness of a measure in the instrument. In this study, the reliability of the items in the instrument was measured using Cronbach's alpha, which is the most frequently used reliability test to measure internal consistency when using the Likert scale. As suggested by Sekaran (2003), the reliability coefficient that is closer to 1.0 is better, and those values over .80 are considered good. Those values which are .70 or more are considered acceptable, and those with a reliability value of less than .60 are considered to have poor reliability.

Table 4. Reliability result of the pilot testing

Variables	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha	Skewness	Kurtosis
Tyrannical leadership (TL)	6	.6	-.019	-.128
Supportive-disloyal leadership (SDL)	5	.7	-.957	.362
Laissez-faire leadership (LFL)	5	.8	.504	-.907
Interactional Justice (IJ)	5	.9	1.057	-.130
Affective Commitment (AC)	6	.8	.952	.268

Source: own calculation using SPSS version 20, 2022

It can be inferred from Table 4 above that, despite the slightly positive or negative skewnesses in each of the variables, the values (ignoring the negative signs) of skewness and kurtosis for all the items utilized are in an acceptable range of normality. Concerning this, Larson-Hall

(2010) and Blaikie (2003) noted that normality is not violated as long as the absolute value of the skewness ratio is below 2.0 or even below 3.0. George and Mallery (2010) also noted that the values for asymmetry and kurtosis between -2 and +2 are considered acceptable in order to prove normality. Therefore, the scores of both skewness and kurtosis for all the items were within the acceptable range of values.

The reliability coefficients (Cronbach Alpha) of the subscales in each package after improvement were .6, .7, .8, .9, and .8 for TL, SDL, LFL, IJ, and AC respectively. The majority of these values were considered suitable for the purpose of the current study because, according to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), 0.7 levels were recommended as a cut-off point, which showed that scales were reliable. However, reliability of between 0.5 and 0.6 is considered sufficient (Peterson, 1994).

In addition, face validity was used to evaluate the appearance of the questionnaire in terms of feasibility, readability, consistency of style and formatting, and the clarity of the language used. It was assessed by giving the questionnaire to three experts (with educational leadership and management backgrounds). Based on the comments given by the individuals, adjustments to margins, font size, and spacing were made.

3.10 Data Analysis Technique

The data was analyzed using a Microsoft Office Excel spreadsheet and SmartPLS 3.0 software. The researcher chose factor analysis with the Structural Equation Model because the research model is multivariate and has multi-causal relationships among different variables that require SEM. The model is somewhat complex because it employs indirect effect variables via latent variables. Thus, both the strength of the relationship between variables and the effect of manifest and latent variables as well as statistical significance were assessed. At

the end, the data was presented in the form of tables as desired, so as to make all the data readable and understandable.

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were applied. To check the status of each variable, descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and coefficient of variation were used. On the other hand, inferential statistics were also conducted to estimate the effect of independent variables on the dependent variable. Inferential analysis includes various tests of significance for testing hypotheses in order to determine the validity of data in making conclusions. Microsoft Office Excel was used to complement Smart PLS Ver. 3.0, especially in the production of diagrams and tables.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

The consideration of ethical issues was required to ensure the privacy of participants as well as the confidentiality of respondents' data. In order to secure the consent of the selected participants, the researcher and data collectors clarified the purpose of the study and the role of participants in completion of the study. The researcher had also informed participants that their participation in the study was based on their willingness, and the ideas and comments they raised were highly honored and kept confidential. In the final result of the research paper, personal information was not included; only the summary of relevant data that helped in answering the research questions was incorporated.

Chapter Four

Data Analysis, Presentation and Interpretation

4.1 Data Editing and Coding

Once the primary data was collected, prior to the analysis, the questionnaire was reviewed and it was to be certified that if questionnaires were filled out appropriately, any incomplete or missing responses were rejected from the subsequent analysis. In this research, steps such as coding, eliminating coding and data entry errors were performed.

4.2 Questionnaire Response Rate

The questionnaires were physically distributed to 223 academic staff members of Debre Tabor University. From the dispatched questionnaires, a total of 200 responses were remaining for the data analysis, with a response rate of 89.7%, which can be considered a very good rate. Supporting this, Mugenda & Mugenda (2003) have argued that a response rate of 50% is adequate, where 60% is good, and rates above 70% are very good.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics of the variables are presented in Table 5 here below, revealing the mean, standard deviation, kurtosis, and skewness score of the variables. The average score from the 5-point likert scale, with 5 as strongly agreed and 1 as strongly disagreed, for all the variables was computed to show the proportion of the respondents that either strongly agreed or disagreed with the items of the variables. Where the mean for the variable is more than half of the 5 point likert scale (i. e. 2.5), the respondents agreed; where the mean for the variable is less than half of the 5 point likert scale (i. e. 2.5), the respondents disagreed.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics of Variables

Latent variables	Items	Mean	Kurtosis	Skewness	VIF
TL	TL1	3.780	-0.210	-0.634	1.099
	TL2	3.660	-0.668	-0.454	1.413
	TL3	3.945	0.074	-0.717	1.164
SDL	SDL1	3.255	-0.795	-0.253	1.680
	SDL2	3.355	-0.774	-0.322	1.475
	SDL3	3.410	-0.776	-0.363	1.461
LFL	LF1	3.285	-0.702	-0.476	1.793
	LF2	3.085	-0.856	-0.185	1.581
	LF3	3.055	-0.926	-0.049	1.750
IJ	IJ1	3.675	-0.423	-0.731	1.745
	IJ2	3.325	-0.788	-0.311	1.792
	IJ3	3.455	-0.649	-0.392	1.407
AC	AC1	3.180	-0.233	-0.259	2.811
	AC2	3.340	-0.623	-0.264	2.701
	AC3	3.325	-0.554	-0.290	1.174

Source: Own survey result of SmartPLS data output, 2022

It can be inferred from Table 5 above that, despite the slightly negative skewnesses or kurtosis in each of the variables, the values for all the items utilized are in an acceptable range of normality. Concerning this, Larson-Hall (2010) and Blaikie (2003) noted that normality is not violated as long as the absolute value of the skewness ratio is below 2.0 or even below 3.0. Therefore, the scores of both skewness and kurtosis for all items were within the acceptable range of values.

4.4 Validity and Reliability Test

4.4.1 Reliability Test

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016), the reliability of a measure is an indication of the consistency with which the instrument measures the concept and helps to assess the "goodness" of a measure. In conducting the reliability test using SPSS version 20 for Windows, the researcher calculated Cronbach's alpha values for the items in each construct as indicated in Table 4 here below. As to them, reliabilities of less than 0.60 are considered poor, those in the 0.70 range are acceptable, and those over 0.80 are good.

Table 6. Construct reliability and validity

Construct Identifier	Initial Number of Items	Number of Items and their Loading Factor(LF)		Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE	P Values
		Items	LF				
TL	6	3	1→0.818	0.618	0.859	0.572	0.000
			2→0.634				
			3→0.804				
SDL	5	3	1→0.855	0.778	0.835	0.572	0.000
			2→0.836				
			3→0.805				
LF	5	3	1→0.787	0.758	0.861	0.674	0.000
			2→0.867				
			3→0.807				
IJ	5	3	1→0.596	0.708	0.871	0.635	0.000
			2→0.875				
			3→0.885				
AC	6	3	1→0.635	0.747	0.799	0.676	0.000
			2→0.912				
			3→0.890				

Source: Own survey result of SmartPLS data output, 2022

As indicated in Table 6, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for SDL, LFL, IJ, and AC are all above 0.70, which shows good reliability of the variables of measurement. However, the

Cronbach's alpha coefficient of TL is below 0.70 but above 0.60. Thus, the overall reliability of the measures used in this study can be considered acceptable. Supporting this, Sekaran and Bougie (2016) pointed out that reliability of less than 0.60 is considered to be poor, those in the 0.70 range are acceptable, and those over 0.80 are good.

Composite reliability is used to assess internal consistency. From Table 6 above, such values are shown to be larger than 0.7, which indicates that the reflective latent variable has been demonstrated to have a high level of internal consistency reliability. The value of composite reliability needs to be above 0.7 or higher for confirmatory research and above 0.6 for exploratory research (Wong, 2014). It can be seen in Table 6 above, the value of the outer loadings for each of the indicator variable has met the required threshold and therefore it is possible to conclude that all the items in the indicator variables met the required threshold. Supporting this, Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2021) noted that outer loadings between 0.5 and 0.7 are acceptable.

4.3.2 Validity Test

To check whether the instrument accurately measures the constructs in the framework, convergent and discriminant validity as types of construct validity was used.

4.3.2.1 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity was evaluated through an assessment of item factor loadings and their statistical significance, followed by an assessment of the factors' average variance extracted (AVE) and construct reliabilities (CRs). As indicated above, an item factor loading of 0.5 (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009), an AVE of 0.5, and a CR of 0.7 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) indicated convergent validity.

As indicated in Table 6 above, the convergent validity of the measurement model tested using Average Variance Extracted (AVE) to check whether the constructs are related. The AVE measures the level of variance captured by a construct versus the level due to measurement error. Values above 0.7 are considered very good, whereas, the level of 0.5 is acceptable (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015).

4.3.2.2 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity was used to determine whether there was no relationship between the constructs. Thus, to establish the discriminant validity of measures, confirmatory factor analysis was used using SmartPLS Ver. 3.0. Confirmatory factor analysis was done for all the variables separately to check whether the items of each variable converge significantly on the respective variable or not. The values for factor loading for all the items were checked. In addition to this, CFA was done for self-reported variables to make sure respondents understood that the five variables are different from each other.

To assess discriminate validity, two common methods are used by research. According to Hair et al. (2010), if the correlations of two latent variables exceed 0.9, they have significant overlapping constructs. In other words, multicollinearity exists among them. Another approach to assessing discriminant validity is by using Fornell-Larcker. The value of Fornell-Larcker is the root of the average variance extracted (AVE). It is suggested that the square root of the AVE of each latent variable should be greater than the correlations among the latent variables (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The result indicates that discriminant validity is well established. Table 7.below shows the value of Fornell Larcker.

Table 7. Fornell-Lacker Criterion Analysis for Discriminant Validity

Variables	TL	SDL	LF	IJ	AC
TL	0.757				
SDL	0.482	0.832			
LF	0.367	0.339	0.821		
IJ	0.505	0.468	0.361	0.868	
AC	0.443	0.508	0.553	0.805	0.822

Source: Own survey result of SmartPLS data output, 2022

Note 1: The values in the diagonal are the square root of the AVE.

Note 2: All correlations are significant at 1.

Table 8. Cross loading test for discriminant validity of enabler

Variables → Items ↓	TL	SDL	LF	IJ	AC
TL1	0.818	0.430	0.216	0.430	0.343
TL2	0.634	0.330	0.376	0.334	0.301
TL3	0.804	0.333	0.257	0.379	0.359
SD1	0.373	0.855	0.340	0.751	0.680
SD2	0.482	0.836	0.217	0.754	0.609
SD3	0.351	0.805	0.288	0.661	0.721
LF1	0.391	0.314	0.787	0.305	0.445
LF2	0.291	0.290	0.867	0.323	0.475
LF3	0.221	0.230	0.807	0.261	0.443
IJ1	0.410	0.417	0.235	0.596	0.425
IJ2	0.435	0.808	0.331	0.875	0.726
IJ3	0.395	0.775	0.295	0.885	0.774
AC1	0.334	0.384	0.387	0.406	0.635
AC2	0.386	0.797	0.353	0.817	0.912
AC3	0.374	0.749	0.319	0.770	0.890

Source: Own survey result of SmartPLS data output, 2022

The second criterion for discriminant validity is cross loadings, where the indicators loadings on its own enabler must be higher than all of its cross loadings with other enablers. The difference of loading less than .10 also indicates that the item is cross loading onto the other construct and hence could be a threat to discriminant validity (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015).

4.4 Hypothesis Testing for Mediation Effect

The model includes 15 items describing 5 latent constructs: TL, SDL, LFL, IJ, and AC. The SmartPLS 3.0 software was used to provide the necessary analysis to serve the objectives of this study. The measurement model test resulted in statistically accepted goodness of fit between the data and the proposed measurement model.

Table 9. Model Fit

Criteria	Saturated model
SRMR	0.0701
d_G	0.922
Chi-Square	1198.901
NFI	0.94

Source: Own survey result of SmartPLS data output, 2022

The fit values that can be used to assess the model fit are indicated in the above Table 9. Accordingly, the SRMR is an index of the average standardized residuals between the observed and the hypothesized covariance matrices (Henseler, Hubona, & Ray, 2016). As for those authors, a value of less than 0.10 is considered a good fit. Therefore, in this study, the value of SRMSR is 0.067, which is lower than 0.10 and considered a good fit. Similarly, indicated in the Table, the NFI results in values can be ranging between 0 and 1. Therefore, in this study, the NFI value 0.9 was closer to 0.90 represent acceptable fit; thus we can conclude that the data fits the model well. Supporting this, Portela (2012) noted that NFI is considered

very good if it is equal to or greater than 0.95, good between 0.9 and 0.95, suffering between 0.8 and 0.9 and bad if it is less than 0.8.

4.5 Hypothesis Testing

After conducting a partial least square algorithm using SmartPLS 3.0, hypothesis testing can be done in order to test whether the proposed hypotheses were accepted or rejected. Hypothesis testing was done by using a 5% significance level ($\alpha = 0.05$). As a result, the hypothesis was accepted if the p-value (Sig.) was less than 0.05, and rejected if the p-value (Sig.) was greater than 0.05. The summary of hypothesis testing is shown in Table 10.

Table 10. Summary of hypothesis testing results for total effects

Variables	Hypothesis	Coefficients	T Statistics	P Values	Decisions
TL -> AC	H1	-0.060	1.426	0.154	Rejected
SDL -> IJ	H2	0.843	28.944	0.000	Accepted
SDL -> AC	H3	0.322	13.179	0.000	Accepted
LF -> IJ	H4	0.075	1.918	0.056	Rejected
LF -> AC	H5	0.294	5.500	0.000	Accepted
IJ -> AC	H6	0.475	5.157	0.000	Accepted

Source: Own survey result of SmartPLS data output, 2022

Table 10 above depicts the results of path analysis. As illustrated, five out of seven structural model relationships proposed for estimating the direct effects were significant, confirming the proposed hypothesis. The model shows that the effects of SDL on IJ, SDL on AC, LFL on AC, and IJ on AC ($\beta=0.843, 0.322, 0.294$ and $0.475, p<0.05$) confirmed that stated hypothesis were accepted. On the other hand, the effects of TL on AC and LFL on IJ (at $=-0.060, 0.075, p>0.05$) were not accepted.

4.6 Coefficient determination

Table 11. R-squared

Variables	R Square	R Square Adjusted
IJ	0.759	0.756
AC	0.790	0.786

Source: Own survey result of SmartPLS data output, 2022

Based on Table 11 above, the result of statistical computation using SmartPLS 3.0 for coefficient of determination was 0.759, which can be interpreted to mean that 75.9% of interctional justice(IJ) explained by SDL, and LFL. Meanwhile, 24.1 % of IJ were influenced by other predictor variables that were not examined in this research. The Table also depicted that 0.790, which can be interpreted as that 79% of affective commitment (AC) can be explained by TL, SDL, LFL, and IJ. Whereas 21% of AC were influenced by other predictor variables that were not examined in this research.

4.7 Structural Equation Modeling

There are two sub models in a structural equation model, namely the outer and inner model. The outer model, also known as the measurement model, aims to specify the relationships between the latent variables and their observed indicators (Wong, 2014). In addition, this research used a reflective measurement model, which assumes that the indicator variables are highly correlated and interchangeable. Therefore, the reflective measurement model is based on the reliability and validity of the indicator variables.

4.8 Mediation Effect

Once the significance of the indirect effect is established, the strength of the mediator can be examined through the use of total effect and variance account for (VAF). In this study, in

addition to the direct effect of the construct, indirect effects of the construct through mediating constructs are investigated. In the PLS path model, TL, SDL, LFL, and IJ have a direct effect on AC. On the other hand, SDL and LFL have indirect effects on AC through the mediating role of IJ. Figure 3 shows the result of the PLS algorithm procedure. In this study, the effects of each independent variable on the dependent variable (AC) were examined through the mediating role of IJ.

Figure 3: Mediation Diagram

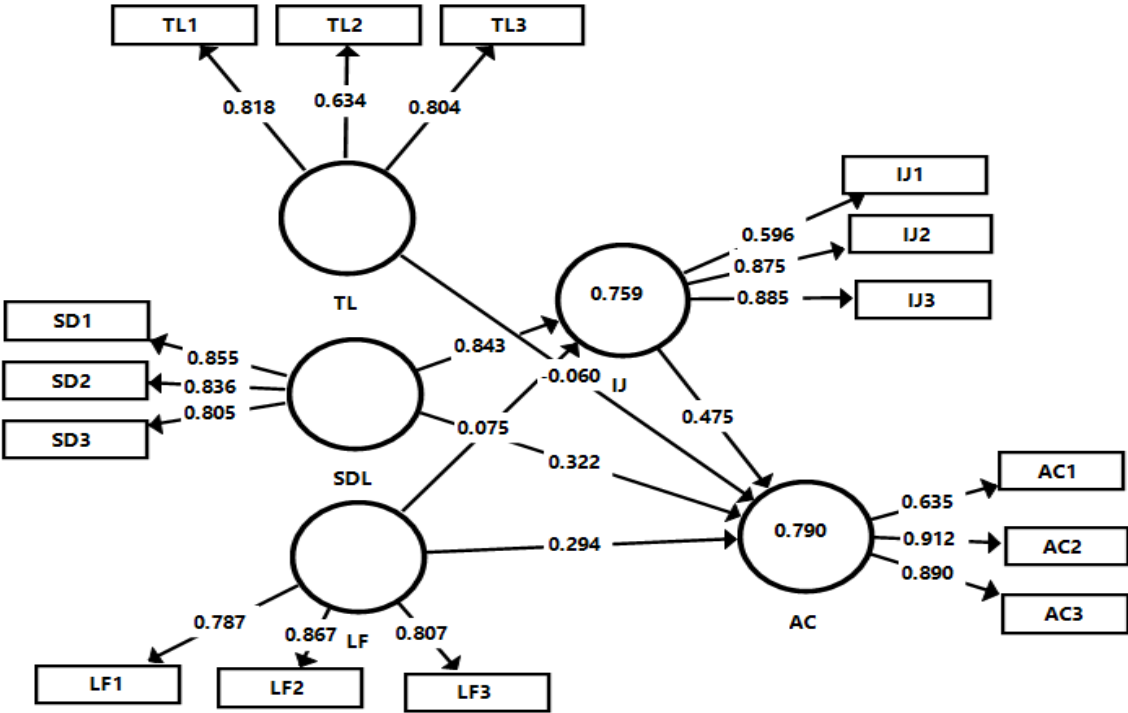


Table 12. Specific Indirect Effects

Paths	Hypothesis	Specific Effects	Indirect T Statistics	P Values	Decision
SDL -> IJ -> AC	H7	0.400	5.280	0.000	Accepted
LF -> IJ -> AC	H8	0.036	1.708	0.088	Rejected

Source: Own survey result of SmartPLS data output, 2022

Table 12 above demonstrated that the effect of SDL behavior on academic staff AC through the mediating role of IJ was positive and significant ($\beta = 0.400, p < 0.05$). This result further demonstrated that the effect of SDL on academic staff AC through IJ is in favor of mediation. LFL behavior on academic staff AC through IJ was not significant ($\beta = 0.036, p > 0.05$) and thus hypothesis 8 is not accepted.

4.9 Discussion of the Result

The key contribution of this study was to empirically reveal the constructs that affected academic staff AC through the mediating role of IJ in Debre Tabor University using the PLS-SEM technique. In order to test the hypothesis of the study, both Microsoft Office Excel and SmartPLS 3.0 software were used. The results from PLS-SEM analysis support most of the proposed hypotheses.

The conceptual paths were tested using SEM based on the PLS technique. Descriptive statistics such as the mean value, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis values were measured. The results of the kurtosis and skewness values of the measurement model were between +1 and -1, which implied that there was no violation of the normality assumptions of the collected data.

The results of hypothesis testing in this study are elaborated as follows:

Hypothesis 1: states that tyrannical leadership has a strong positive influence on academic staff affective commitment.

Based on the statistical analysis that has been conducted, the path coefficient shows a value of -0.060 for the relation between tyrannical leadership (TL) and academic staff affective commitment (AC). This indicates that there was a weak negative influence of tyrannical leadership behavior (TL) on academic staff affective commitment (AC). In addition, it also shows 0.154 (> 0.05) for its p-value and 1.426 for its t-value, which means that TL doesn't positively Affect AC. Therefore, the first hypothesis was rejected. This finding was inconsistent with previous studies. For instance, job embeddedness model by Mitchell and Lee (2001), suggests that an employee will be more likely to remain with his or her organization to the extent that he or she has strong connections to the organization and the community. Thus, if leaders lower employees' affective commitment, this could make them feel less embedded within the organization and, subsequently, more likely to leave. Similarly, Tesfaye (2004) noted that employee commitment in EHEIs was significantly predicted by the perceived quality of the leader. Other studies also indicate that employees with destructive leaders tend to have lower levels of organizational commitment, life and job satisfaction, and perceptions of organizational justice. Finally, they tend to have higher levels of turnover, conflict between work and family, emotional exhaustion, and psychological distress (Tepper, 2000; Duffy et al., 2002; Zellars et al., 2002).

Hypothesis 2: states that supportive-disloyal leadership has a strong positive effect on interactional justice.

Based on the statistical analysis that has been conducted, the path coefficient shows a value of 0.843 for the relationship between supportive disloyal leadership (SDL) and academic staff IJ. This indicates that there was a strong positive relationship between the leaders' SDL behavior and IJ. Furthermore, it has a p-value of 0.000 (<0.05) and a t-value of 28.944, indicating that SDL in IJ has a positive effect. Therefore, it can be concluded that the second hypothesis, which states that SDL in IJ has a positive impact, was significantly accepted. From this, it is possible to say that leaders' SDL behavior and IJ go in the same direction. Thus, it is possible to conclude that academic staff judge justice in accordance with their fair treatment by their leaders but at the expense of their university.

Hypothesis 3: Supportive-disloyal leadership has a strong positive influence on academic staff affective commitment.

Based on the statistical analysis conducted so far, the path coefficient shows a value of 0.322 for the effect of supportive disloyal leadership (SDL) on academic staff AC. This indicates that there was a strong positive effect of SDL behavior on AC. Furthermore, it has a p-value of 0.000 (<0.05) and a t-value of 13.179, indicating that SDL in AC has a positive effect on AC. Therefore, it can be concluded that the third hypothesis was significantly accepted, and it is possible to say that academic staff commitment highly depends on SDL behavior and their leaders. Similarly, the role of responsible leadership with organizational commitment has been investigated by many studies, but only a few have linked leadership with affective commitment. The significant and positive relationship between these variables explains that responsible leadership can effectively influence employees' affective commitment

(Almohtasb, Aldehayyat, & Alaodat, 2021). Alserhan and Shbail (2020) viewed an employee's affective commitment as the bond to their institute, treated as a useful determinant of conviction and loyalty.

Hypothesis 4: states that laissez-faire leadership has a moderate positive influence on interactional justice.

Based on the statistical analysis conducted so far, the path coefficient shows a value of 0.075 for the relationship between supportive laissez faire leadership (LFL) behaviors and IJ. This indicates that there was a strong positive relationship between the leaders' LF behavior and IJ. In addition, it also shows 0.056(> 0.05) for its p-value and 1.918 for its t-value, which means that LFL has a positive effect on IJ. Therefore, it can be concluded that the fifth hypothesis was rejected. From this, it is possible to say academic staff commitment does not depend on LFL behavior leaders.

Hypothesis 5: Laissez-faire leadership has a moderate positive influence on academic staff affective commitment.

Based on the statistical analysis conducted so far, the path coefficient shows a value of 0.294 for the effect of supportive laissez faire leadership (LFL) on academic staff AC. This indicates that there was a moderate positive correlation between leaders' LFL behavior and academic staff AC. Furthermore, it has a p-value of 0.000 (0.05) and a t-value of 5.500, indicating that LFL has a positive effect on academic staff AC. Therefore, it can be concluded that the fifth hypothesis was significantly accepted. On the contrary, Befekadu and Feleke (2015) pointed out that no significant correlation was observed between laissez-faire leadership behavior and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 6: Interactional justice has a weak positive influence on academic staff affective commitment.

Based on the statistical analysis carried out so far, the path coefficient shows a value of 0.475 for the relation between interactional justice (IJ) and academic staff AC perceptions. This indicates that there was a weak positive correlation between IJ and AC. Furthermore, it has a p-value of 0.000 (<0.05) and a t-value of 5.157, indicating that IJ has a positive effect on AC perceptions. Therefore, it can be concluded that the sixth hypothesis was significantly accepted. With regard to this, researchers (e.g., Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001) on the contrary succinctly state that positive perceptions of organizational justice have been shown to relate to high levels of employee organizational commitment. This assumption supported by scholars in the field of education. For instance, Yavuz (2010) showed that the positive academic staff perception of justice can be a means to increasing the commitment of academic staff in HEIs. Higher perceived injustice leads to lower commitment, while higher perceived justice leads to higher commitment (Cohen-Charaspector, 2001). A study conducted by Simons and Roberson (2003) also added that interactional justice has positive influences on continuance or affect commitment.

Hypothesis 7: Interactional justice mediates the relationship between supportive-disloyal leadership behaviors and academic staff affective commitment

Based on the statistical analysis carried out so far, the path coefficient shows a value of 0.400 for the mediating role of IJ between supporting disloyal leadership (SDL) academic staff AC. This indicates that IJ plays a mediating role in the relationship between SDL and AC. Furthermore, it has a p-value of 0.000 (<0.05) and a t-value of 5.280, indicating that IJ mediates the relationship between SDL and AC. Therefore, it can be concluded that the

seventh hypothesis is accepted. In the same vein, a study done by Parzefall (2008) has suggested that if employees are fairly treated by their leaders, they are bound to express their gratitude by increasing their commitment to the organization.

Hypothesis 8: Interactional justice mediates the relationship between laissez-faire leadership behaviors and academic staff affective commitment

Based on the statistical analysis carried out so far, the path coefficient shows a value of 0.036 for the mediating role of IJ between laissez faire leadership (LFL) and academic staff AC. This indicates that IJ doesn't play a mediating role in the relationship between LFL and AC. Furthermore, it has a p-value of 0.088 (>0.05) and a t-value of 1.708, indicating that IJ fails to mediate the relationship between LFL and AC. Therefore, it can be concluded that the eighth hypothesis was rejected. From this, it is possible to say that academic staff don't feel a sense of injustice or the issue of fairness in relation to their leader's laissez faire behavior.

Chapter Five

Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1 Conclusion

What is clear from the findings of the study in the selected university is that destructive leadership behavior is common. Based on the results and discussion, it is concluded that the three dimensions of destructive leadership were manifested at Debre Tabor University. Tyrannical leadership behavior is highly displayed by leaders, followed by supportive-disloyal and laissez-faire leadership behaviors. Among the three dimensions of destructive leadership, tyrannical leadership has a negative effect on academic staff commitment. Further, the results indicated that perception of justice mediates the relationship between leaders' supportive disloyal and academic staff's affective commitment. From a mindful perspective, it is possible to conclude the need for education and training for employees and leaders by considering the adverse traits of destructive leaders and the consequences of destructive behaviors; providing a support system for those who have been victimized; stopping enabling destructive leaders; and instituting a zero-tolerance policy for destructive behaviors. In conclusion, this research offers a promising start toward unravelling especially insidious forms of leadership, particularly if future research can successfully isolate leaders who do not merely display destructive leadership behavior but who can be truly described as destructors.

5.2 Recommendation

Cognizant of the major findings and conclusions of the study, the following recommendations were drawn.

- Since it has not been studied by others, it is safe to recommend the university needs to identify and discuss matters related to the dark side of leadership in general and destructive behavior in particular. The university should actively and consistently encourage a climate where employees feel free to voice issues that they may feel have disregard for not only their own values but those of the university.
- The university should practice checks and balances, conduct a regular open discussion with the community regarding leadership behavior, and take corrective measures to lessen the spread of destructive leadership behavior. These components enhance employees' commitment and job performance and build trust in their organization.
- It is recommended that 360-degree feedback mechanisms be employed to ensure employees of the university are able to evaluate their immediate leaders. Such feedback mechanisms may contribute to a culture of employee empowerment and collaboration by emphasizing leadership accountability, communication and feedback, and employee participation in the management process. This type of intervention would also help leaders to identify destructive leadership that is occurring within the university before it substantially and negatively influences individual, group, and organizational outcomes, satisfaction, and commitment. However, in order for this type of intervention to be successful, it is imperative that

leaders at the top are both willing and able to take action when destructive leadership is identified.

- In addition, the university should have appropriate support mechanisms in place so that those who report destructive leadership at more senior levels are supported. If they come forward, they will be supported. However, employees must not feel that the only way to deal with destructive leaders is to put their own careers on the line and serve as whistleblowers. There must be a variety of checks and balances throughout the organization, such as comprehensive hiring and training procedures, the promotion of an ethical and collaborative culture, inclusive performance reviews, and strong oversight by top leaders. Overall, employees must ensure that top leaders are involved and consistent. Rooting out destructive leadership through a variety of methods whenever it is found in a university.

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Appendix
Bahir Dar University
College of Business and Economics
Department of Management

A Questionnaire to be filled by the Academic Staff

Dear respondent,

I am carrying out a study entitled ‘**Destructive Leadership and Academic staff Commitment in Debre Tabor University: The Mediating Role of Organizational Justice**’. As a member of this organization, you are in an ideal position to give valuable firsthand information from your own perspective. The information collected will be used for academic purpose only and will be treated with the utmost confidentiality. Your participation is voluntary, and your genuine responses will contribute a lot to the successful completion of this study.

Thank you for your cooperation!!

Section One: Questions related to the study variables

Tyrannical Leadership Behavior (Type I): In the table below, lists of descriptive statements are given. Please select the response that you believe would be most true about your immediate leader, where 1 = Strongly disagree and 5 = Strongly agree.

No	Items	Response				
My Immediate Leader I am Rating		1	2	3	4	5
1	Criticize academic staffs’ about personal matters					
2	Treat academic staffs’ in a humiliating manner					
3	Exaggerate the size of academic staffs’ errors and weaknesses					

Supportive Disloyal Leadership Behavior (Type II): in the table below, lists of descriptive statements are given. Please select the response that you believe would be most true about your immediate leader, where 1 = Strongly disagree and 5 = Strongly agree.

No	Items	Response				
		1	2	3	4	5
My Immediate Leader I am Rating is						
1	Show up employee late to work					
2	Uses college property for personal use					
3	Provide benefits to selected academic staff and that are not reasonable or in line with organizational standards					

Laissez Faire Leadership Behavior (Type III): In the table below, lists of descriptive statements are given. Please select the response that you believe would be most true of your relationship with your immediate leader, where 1 = Strongly disagree and 5 = Strongly agree.

No.	Items	Response				
		1	2	3	4	5
My Immediate Leader I am Rating						
1	Avoids making timely decisions					
2	Delays responding to urgent questions					
3	Fails to interfere until problems become serious					

Part Two: Interactional Justice: Interactional Justice Scale (IJS), which was determined as a five-point Likert scale, included the following options; “Never” (1), “Rarely” (2), “Sometimes” (3), “Mostly” (4) and “Always” (5).

No	Items	Response				
		1	2	3	4	5
Interactional Justice- your relationship with your immediate leader. My leader						
1	Always considers my opinions when making a decision					
2	Observes my rights as an academic staff					
3	My leader does his/her best for me					

Part Three: Affective Commitment: Listed below are statements that may represent how you feel about the university you are working. Please, indicate the degree of your agreement for each statement with respect to your own by putting an “X” mark under the scale which represents your choice. 1=Not at all, 2= To some extent, 3.Difficult to decide, 4= To a great extent, and 5= To a very great extent.

No	Items	Response				
		1	2	3	4	5
Organizational Commitment: Because of the leadership behavior of my immediate leader						
1	I feel emotionally attached’ to this organization					
2	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me					
3	I feel a sense of belonging to my organization					