The Relationship of Principals/Directors' Leadership Styles, as Perceived by the Faculty, to the Job Satisfaction of the Faculty Members in a Public University of Punjab, Pakistan

Thesis submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Education

(Educational Leadership and Management)

at the University of Leicester

by

Muhammad Amin (M.S.Ed, M.B.A)

School of Education

University of Leicester

2012

The Relationship of Principals/Directors' Leadership Styles, as Perceived by the Faculty, to the Job Satisfaction of the Faculty Members in a Public University of Punjab, Pakistan

Muhammad Amin

Abstract

The purposes of the study are to identify the leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) of the campus principals/divisional directors of a public university in Pakistan, examine the relationship between these leadership styles and the faculty's job satisfaction, investigate which elements of the faculty's job satisfaction are influenced/not influenced by the leader, explore which leadership style is conducive/barrier to the faculty's job satisfaction, and define the role of a leader in enhancing the faculty's job satisfaction. The study adopted a mixed methods approach, and all the 287 faculty members of the university were included in the sample to collate quantitative data through two questionnaires, whereas to generate qualitative data 15 faculty members were interviewed through the semi-structured protocol.

The findings suggest that the transformational leadership style is comparatively being more often exercised by the leaders of the case public university in Pakistan, followed by the transactional leadership style, while the laissez-faire leadership style is the least practised. There are significant relationships between leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and the faculty's intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction. The transformational leadership style, in relation to the transactional and laissez-faire styles, has a strong positive and statistically significant effect on faculty's job satisfaction. Whereas, the laissez-faire leadership style, relatively, has weak positive and statistically insignificant effect on the job satisfaction of faculty members. The transactional leadership style, on the other hand, has comparatively weak negative and statistically insignificant effect on faculty's job satisfaction. Most of the faculty job satisfaction elements related to the institution, leader and job are influenced by the leader; whereas, several factors that are more linked with the faculty members themselves, their colleagues and students are not influenced by the leader. The authoritative and laissez-faire leadership styles have been considered to be barriers to the faculty's job satisfaction, whereas the participative, transformational and transactional (first dimension) leadership styles have been perceived as conducive and necessary to be exercised in order to enhance the faculty's job satisfaction. Some implications for theory and practice are offered and suggestions for future research are proposed.

Acknowledgements

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background to the Study

Powerful political, social and economic shifts in the environment in which universities are located, as well as significant changes in the education industry itself, such as the way institutions are managed, demand that university leaders need to be well developed to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century (Coleman and Earley, 2005; Northouse, 2010). Moreover, increased competition, technological advancements, the global demands of a professional workforce and the diverse needs of students are just a few indicators of why university leaders need to be efficient and to continually foster development to enable their universities to be sustained within a challenging environment in an era of globalization (Bono and Judge, 2003; House and Javidan, 2004).

Furthermore, there are several central forces within the continually changing educational contexts in which university leaders operate, such as university demographics, multifarious governance structures, accountability frameworks and the professionalization of teaching, that demand the use of informed leaders to cope with the challenges of the changing environment (Dimmock, 1996; Murphy, 2002). These educational contexts are now more complex, dynamic and fluid than ever before, suggesting various scenarios that could affect the ways in which leaders perform their roles and deal with problems challenging them. Hanna and Latchem (2001) conclude that an increasingly uncertain, fast-paced and competitive environment is forcing change upon universities, and that leaders need to focus on their leadership practices and faculty job satisfaction to excel.

Research has consistently acknowledged and emphasised the critical role played by educational leaders in improvements to the performance and quality of institutions and individuals (Al-Omari, 2008; Dimmock, 2003; Simkins *et al*., 2003). Regarding the significance of leadership in educational institutions, Simkins (2005:9) argues that "leadership is one of the major factors—sometimes it seems the only factor—that will determine whether an educational organization, be it a school, a college or a university, will succeed or fail". This generally accepted notion is supported by significant initiatives undertaken for the development of educational leadership in England (Bush and Jackson, 2002; Bush and Middlewood, 2005). For example, the development of the "National College for School Leadership [in 2002] and the ...Centre for Excellence in Leadership for the learning and skills sector" (Simkins, 2005:9), and establishment of the "Leadership College for Further Education [in] 2003 [and] Leadership Foundation for Higher Education [in] 2004" (Currie and Lockett, 2007:344).

As leadership is considered very significant for the improvement of individual and institutional performance, it has attracted the attention of researchers, theorists and educational institutions, where programmes in leadership studies have been started, throughout the world (Northouse, 2010). Some theorists conceptualize leadership as an attribute or behaviour, whilst other researchers consider it from the relational point of view (Northouse, 2010). Bush (2003) argues that leadership has no agreed definition and every author defines leadership in their own way. Leadership researchers, after exploring this concept from different perspectives, highlight that it is a multifaceted and complicated 'process' (Northouse, 2010). Similarly, many of the definitions perceive leadership as a process by means of which a leader influences a team of colleagues/subordinates in order to attain a collective objective (Davies *et al*., 2001; Northouse, 2010).

In the case of the present study, leadership is also considered to be a process through which a principal/director (leader) influences their faculty members in order to accomplish the common objectives of the campus/division. The reasoning behind taking leadership as a process is that, in the context of the present study, leadership is considered to be a phenomenon which is shaped by the relationships and contacts between the principal/director and the faculty members. This implies that both the principals/directors and faculty members are involved in the leadership process, and leadership does not reside only within the leader as is the case in the trait perspective. Transformational leadership, defined later in this chapter, which underpins the current study is considered to be a process (Northouse, 2010), which coincides with the chosen process view in the above mentioned working definition of leadership. Further critique of this concept is presented in the next chapter. However, exercise of leadership is shaped and defined by the context, which is explained next.

1.2 The Study Context

The present study engages with international literature to explore and theorise the interplay between leadership style/s and faculty job satisfaction with a focus on exploring and theorising the phenomenon in a public university of Pakistan. In Pakistan, there are 129 (73 public and 56 private) universities or degree-awarding institutes (Higher Education Commission (HEC), 2011). These universities are semi-autonomous in their functions and are accountable to the provincial government, for their administrative issues, and the HEC, Pakistan. The HEC is the main governing body for higher education in Pakistan, which provides assistance to these institutions in terms of academics, human resource development, pedagogy, quality assurance, research, planning and development, reforms, monitoring and evaluation, and financial support (HEC, 2011). Most of the contextual information provided below is taken from the

website of the university under study, and some are based upon the researcher's personal experience as a student in the said university.

The public university in Pakistan, which is the focus of the present study and will remain unnamed, was established in 2002 and is the first specialized university in the field of Education in Pakistan. This university has 10 campuses in eight different cities of the Punjab province. These campuses were colleges, predominantly offering education programmes and training for new students and in-service school teachers, before the establishment of the university. There are also three divisions (division of education, division of science and technology, and division of arts and social sciences) in two of these campuses. The constituent campuses of the university include two century-old institutions for teacher education and training with a good standing and a tradition of excellence in the sub-continent. One of the constituent campuses was offering teacher education and training to only females before the establishment of university in 2002, and this tradition is still continued. Each campus is headed by campus principal and each division is headed by a separate divisional director. In the context of the present study the campus principal and divisional director work under the vice-chancellor and are responsible for the entire administrative, academic and research affairs of the subordinate faculty and campus or division (Provincial Assembly Punjab (PAP), 2004). In the hierarchical structure of Pakistani universities faculty members are seen as subordinates. In almost all Pakistani universities these roles and positions are similar and equally crucial, although they might be labelled differently, such as head of department or chairperson, in different Pakistani universities.

The university is offering degree programmes ranging from bachelor to PhD in education and other disciplines. Presently the university has nearly 13000 students on

the roll including about 150 in MPhil and PhD programmes. The university is also running a school franchise project all over the Punjab province to facilitate schools in private sector. The purpose of offering franchise to private schools, with the name of 'public university school', by the university is to provide necessary guidance and support to give opportunity to the teachers and students to have actual classroom experience and to offer leadership to the school system to improve the quality of education. The university provides assistance to these schools in recruiting, curriculum development, training and support, equipment and supplies, communications, marketing, financing, and campus development. Moreover, there are 45 colleges situated across the Punjab province that are affiliated with the university and mainly offer education programmes and trainings. The university oversees the admission, curriculum, examination and degree awarding issues of these institutions.

The university aims to prepare dynamic leaders and practitioners in teaching, research and management having content excellence, pedagogical competence, commitment and integrity who may ensure quality and sustainable development at all tiers and sectors of education. In order to achieve this aim, the university's focus is to offer nationally and internationally accepted academic programmes to produce classroom teachers to the need of public and private schools of various levels such as primary, secondary and higher secondary, educational leaders and managers, educationists, researchers and curriculum developers. The university is also focused on providing certificate and degree programmes through continuous and virtual education modes for teachers of tertiary level, integrating pre-service with in-service teacher education, and making university a thriving hub of educational research and knowledge creation. Moreover, the university focuses on making the teaching profession attractive to the youth by providing quality programmes, providing fast track degree acquisition routes to abler

students with equal emphasis on quality and quantity of the product. Furthermore, the university is focused to emerge as leader institution in various branches of education by learning and contributing through linkages with national and international academic community and society along with taking equity measures to provide quality education.

Similar to the Pakistani context, there is considerable agreement in the literature, irrespective of the country or the type of institution to which it relates, regarding the importance of the head and his/her role (Smith, 1997). For example, Weinberg claims that "the academic department chairperson is the most pivotal of all positions concerned with instructional development" (1984:301). Bennett and Figuli argue that "any organizational chart will testify to the critical role the chair plays, however unsung that role may be... [and] chairs set the academic tone of the institution" (1990:28). Further, Mathias points out that "the head of department occupies [a] key institutional position" (1991:65), and Brook and Davies (1994) also agree with this statement. In essence, "…departmental chairs play a pivotal role… [and] they are higher education's first line academic leaders" (Green and McDade, 1991:137). However, while comparing the head's role with that of leaders generally holding comparable positions in different fields, heads are characterised by Tann as "people managing at the middle level" (1995:85). Yet, Middlehurst argues that because of its importance "the departmental headship role [is] not directly comparable to middle management positions in private [non-academic] sector organizations" (1993:130), but is "more akin to the managing director of a not insignificant business concern" (Mathias, 1991:68).

1.3 Significance of the Study

The "quality of higher education in Pakistan falls short of international standards" (Shah, 2010b:90), which is evident from the fact that until 2006 "no Pakistani university

met international standards and none ranked among the top 1,000 universities of the world" (Rehman, 2006:1). Although, currently four Pakistani universities are listed in the top 700 universities of the world (Quacquarelli Symonds, 2011), "this does not diminish perceptions and concerns about the quality of education in Pakistani universities in general" (Shah, 2010b:90), because one of these four universities occupies the position between 401 and 450 whereas the other three universities lie between 600 and 700. Researchers highlight ineffective leadership along with many others reasons for this situation (Iqbal, 2004; Isani, 2001), yet there is a general scarcity of research on leadership or leadership styles at the university level in Pakistan. Whatever limited research has been carried out in Pakistan in this field is focused on the school context. There is also a substantial corpus of international literature in the area of educational leadership focusing on the school context, but relevant literature on leadership in the university context is much more limited (Ribbins, 1997). In addition, "little has been written about... heads of faculties and departments" (Inman, 2011:228); these positions are comparable to the divisional director and campus principal positions investigated in this study. Furthermore, the proposed conceptual framework, the relationship of leadership styles to faculty job satisfaction, has limited international literature at university level (Grosso, 2008), and there is no single study which investigates this conceptual framework at the university level in Pakistan. In view of the importance of leadership and its relationship with faculty job satisfaction, and to attend to the scarcity of research in this area in a higher education context, this study focuses on university leadership and its relationship with faculty job satisfaction.

Moreover, empirical research on leadership or leadership styles is confined to the Western world rather than the developing world (Bush and Coleman, 2000; Dimmock, 2000a; Shaw, 2005; Simkins *et al.*, 2003; Leithwood *et al.*, 1999), which includes

Pakistan. More specifically, leadership research based on the transformational and transactional approach in educational settings comes "only... from the Western world" (Nguni *et al*., 2006:149). In particular, the research conducted using the transformational and transactional leadership approach in the higher educational context is limited, and most of it is focused on the American context; thus, naturally the findings are rooted in the American societal culture and belief system (Dimmock, 2000a). Pakistan is an Islamic country, situated in Southeast Asia and has its own norms, values and traditions, which make its cultural context significantly different from those of Western cultures. Hofstede (2001) establishes that cultural differences exist between Pakistan and the Western world (taken to be the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and Europe) and demonstrates these cultural differences by highlighting that in the case of Pakistan 'power distance' has a high score and 'individualism' has a low score compared to the results for the Western world. The literature suggests that culturally endorsed leadership behaviour enhances faculty job satisfaction. Therefore, to understand and improve educational leadership practices in Pakistan, there is a need for leadership studies within the Pakistani culture and context.

There is not a single study focused on the Pakistani university context which has investigated leadership styles and their relationship with faculty job satisfaction by employing the transformational and transactional leadership theoretical paradigm. This study responds to this specific need, along with the international demand for leadership studies from non-Western cultures and contexts (Northouse, 2010; Walker and Dimmock, 2002), by expanding the research based upon transformational and transactional leadership theoretical paradigm and taking the case of a public university in Pakistan. "No matter where you look in or for this subfield [transformational leadership in public services], the needs are great and the research opportunities are

manifold" (Van Wart, 2003:225, quoted in Currie and Lockett, 2007:342). The present study also responds to Bass's (1999:23-24) call for research since "although the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership are found universally, much more still needs to be learned about how they are affected by the context in which the leadership occurs". Furthermore, the intended study falls within the area of 'leading', one of the two under-represented areas, leading and leaders, of leadership (Ribbins and Gunter, 2002). This point is discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

In addition, this study responds to Bogler's (2001:677) call regarding job satisfaction that "future studies should investigate the concept of teachers' job satisfaction by distinguishing its constituents". Santhapparaj and Alam (2005:72) highlight that "there have been several job satisfaction studies, [however] very few of them have been focused on the job satisfaction of the university teachers, in general" (see also Toker, 2011:156; Tasnim, 2006). They further point out that "most of the studies have been reported before 1981 [and] ...most of these relevant studies were focused on UK universities... [and] academic staffs in... US" (Santhapparaj and Alam, 2005:72, see also Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2006:229; Alam *et al.*, 2005:88-89), and "literature on ...[and] research ...[regarding] teacher job satisfaction in developing countries is relatively limited" (Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2006:229). Whatever limited research has been carried out on this concept in developing countries "was based on a set of theoretical assumptions that had been developed from findings in developed countries" (Garrett, 1999, cited in Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2006:232). Furthermore, the reason behind investigating job satisfaction factors in the present study is that these factors differ in different cultural contexts (Toker, 2011; Giacometti, 2005; Oshagbemi, 1997; Tasnim, 2006; Karimi, 2008; Dusitsutirat, 2009), because of "the social context of the teachers, the teachers' attitudes and their working conditions [which] are

intimately related in a very complex manner" (Garrett, 1999:2) and differ in distinct cultural contexts and settings. For example, in some contexts such as UK, USA, New Zealand and Australia teachers join the teaching profession because of intrinsic factors (Dinham and Scott, 2000; Evans, 2001; Scott and Dinham, 2003), whereas teachers in Cyprus join this profession because of extrinsic factors (Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2004). Intrinsic factors come from within the individual – such as job-related factors, whereas extrinsic factors are related to the external world of an employee such as factor linked with working environment (Al-Omari, 2008). This point is critiqued and discussed in more detail in the next chapter. Moreover, the faculty members' job satisfaction in the higher educational context is critical (Toker, 2011; Küskü, 2003) because "higher education institutions are labour intensive and their budgets are predominantly devoted to personnel and their effectiveness is largely dependent on their staff" (Toker, 2011:156, see also Capelleras, 2005). Therefore, job satisfaction "needs to be researched further in academic work life" (Toker, 2011:166). However, there is a paucity of research in this area in Pakistan, as there is not a single study that explores the factors affecting university faculty job satisfaction in Pakistan. The present study is also aimed at bridging this research gap.

This study is expected to contribute to improved practice and to the development of theory, as well as informing policy. The intended study may be useful for the HEC, Pakistan, to initiate further such research projects in this field and consequently to introduce reforms for the development of university leadership. This study can be of interest to the vice-chancellor, campus principals and divisional directors of the university which is under study in particular and also to the vice-chancellors and other university leadership, comparable to campus principals and divisional directors, of other Pakistani universities in general, to reflect and critique the current leadership practices

and to improve them so as to enhance faculty job satisfaction. This may ultimately contribute to an improvement in the overall performance of the universities.

Furthermore, the study may offer an opportunity to compare and contrast the same kind of studies from other international contexts, and to explore the influence of a specific country's context and culture on the choice of leadership style(s). The study may also be helpful to the understanding of relevant issues in other developing countries, such as India, Bangladesh and Iran, which feature more collective societies like Pakistan (Hofstede, 2001). Finally, the study could draw the attention of future researchers from Pakistani and international contexts to investigate this particular theme at the college and university level.

1.4 Delimiting the Leadership Styles

Leadership is a widely theorised and debated subject. Different leadership styles have strengths and weaknesses, and function in specific contexts (Dinham and Scott, 2000; Shaw, 2005). Models of leadership, for example charismatic, situational, distributed, authoritarian, democratic and servant leadership, have been debated widely in the literature along with different leadership theories (Bush, 2003; Coleman and Earley, 2005; Daft, 1999; Northouse, 2010). All these debates highlight the range of views and concepts in the field, emphasising the need to locate and discuss these theories with reference to specific contexts, which this study aims to do. From the array of leadership styles, three leadership styles, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire, have been selected for investigation in the present study.

The term leadership style in this study is taken as the pattern of the principal/director's interaction or behaviour that he/she exerts to guide, structure and facilitate activities and relationships in a campus/division. The three selected leadership styles

(transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) further have nine dimensions which map these three leadership styles (see Figure 4.1 and Appendix B). The three chosen leadership styles are briefly defined below, but a detailed discussion and critique of these leadership styles and their nine dimensions is offered in the next chapter. *Transformational leadership* comprises behaviour that motivates subordinates to higher-order needs, addresses the subordinates' developmental needs individually, results in performance ahead of expectations, promotes new approaches to solve issues, shares the leader's vision efficiently, encourages change, and becomes a source of satisfaction among followers (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 2000; Avolio *et al*., 1995). *Transactional leadership* is underpinned by exchange theory, where a leader and subordinates decide the aims and the procedure of attaining objectives by means of an exchange of rewards and the use of coercion to acquire the subordinate's compliance and endeavour in order to accomplish organisational performance (Bass, 1985; Avolio *et al*., 1995). *Laissez-faire leadership* is characterized as non-leadership or the absence of leadership. A laissez-faire leader renounces their liability, delays decisions, gives no feedback and offers less attention to assist subordinates to fulfil their needs (Avolio *et al*., 1999; Northouse, 2010).

The reason behind choosing these leadership styles is threefold: first to employ the best option available to achieve the first two objectives of the study, detailed later in this chapter; secondly to bridge the research gap, as there is no study which investigates leadership using this approach at the university level in Pakistan; and finally the comprehensiveness of this approach (Northouse, 2010). These leadership styles are based on the transformational and transactional leadership approach which is one of the contemporary and widely accepted approaches to leadership (Northouse, 2010: Nguni *et al*., 2006). This theoretical framework is also a part of the new leadership paradigm

(Northouse, 2010) and has been widely researched over the previous 25 years in a variety of cultural contexts and organizational settings, however the majority of these studies are focused on the Western context, and occupies a pivotal position in leadership research (Bass and Avolio, 2004; Bryman, 1992; Lowe and Gardner, 2001; Northouse, 2010). The transformational and transactional leadership theoretical paradigm offers a wider view of leadership that augments other leadership models (Northouse, 2010; Webb, 2003). It brings together the relationships between different aspects of leadership, such as influence, consideration, high Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC), transformational leadership, and participative leadership, in addition to power, initiation structure, low Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC), directive leadership, and transactional leadership (Grosso, 2008). These different concepts of leadership are discussed and critiqued in detail in the literature review chapter.

Furthermore, Bass (1985 and 1999) empirically demonstrates that efficient leaders possess and use different dimensions of both transformational and transactional leadership at different levels and with different intensities (see also Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999; Waldman *et al*., 1990). Grosso (2008) argues that this supports the notions highlighted in earlier studies by Fiedler (1964), Hersey and Blanchard (1982), House (1971), Stogdill (1974) and Vroom (1964) through meeting the need for leaders to tailor their styles and behaviours to a specific situation. The focus is specifically on the three leadership styles proposed and debates how these are understood in the context of this study.

1.5 Conceptual Framework

The relationship between perceived leadership styles of the directors (leaders) and the professionals' (faculty members) job satisfaction has been studied by many researchers.

Stumpf (2003) examined this relationship in North Carolina at the university level, in an informal educational setting. She claims that professionals' overall job satisfaction is positively related to transformational leadership and the first two dimensions of transactional leadership, whereas it is negatively related to third dimension of the transactional leadership and the laissez-faire leadership. Leary *et al.* (1999) also investigated a similar relationship between deans or department chairs and subordinate faculty members at the higher-education level in West Virginia, and the findings confirm a strong relationship. Leary and associates found that a stronger relationship exists between leadership styles and the faculty's extrinsic job satisfaction and overall job satisfaction. The relationship between leadership styles and the faculty members' intrinsic job satisfaction is statistically significant, but this relationship is not as strong as the relationships between leadership styles and the faculty's extrinsic and overall job satisfaction.

There are a number of studies from a variety of cultural contexts and settings which investigate the conceptual framework involving leadership styles and teachers/faculty job satisfaction to examine the relationship between them; these studies reveal this relationship to be significant (Al-Omari, 2008; Bogler, 2001; Dinham and Scott, 2000; Evans, 2001; Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006). More specifically,

> "extensive research undertaken in different countries across the world and in a variety of organizational contexts, both non-educational and educational, showed that transformational leadership affected employee... job satisfaction... [However] despite the accumulated evidence on the effects of transformational leadership on job satisfaction... in business, military, health service

organizations..., research into the effects of transformational school [and university] leadership on teachers' job satisfaction... is scarce".

(Nguni *et al*., 2006:146)

The leadership style that the leaders of an institution choose to exercise is underpinned by the culture and context of that institution, which may affect the teachers/faculty's job satisfaction (Al-Omari, 2008). So, it might be inferred that the leadership style may result in a satisfied or dissatisfied teacher/faculty member. This indicates that leadership style is an independent variable and job satisfaction is a dependent variable. These two variables have been taken, with the same arrangement, in the present study. A satisfied teacher/faculty member is more likely to deliver enhanced performance, and could be a prime element in improving the quality and performance of an educational institution (Chen and Silverthorne, 2005; Sharma and Jyoti, 2009; Toker, 2011; Woods, 2007; Karimi, 2008, see also Judge *et al*., 1995; Wright and Crapanzano, 1997). Furthermore, "teachers' satisfaction from the job is highly important for the nexus between teachers and students, for satisfied teachers will be more enthusiastic about investing time and energy in teaching their students" (Bogler, 2001:679, see also Dusitsutirat, 2009:1091; Sharma and Jyoti, 2009). Therefore, it is important to adopt an appropriate leadership style that can possibly enhance job satisfaction among the teachers/faculty (Fowler, 1991), to potentially increase their performance (Madlock, 2008), and consequently to achieve likely institutional success (Nguni *et al*., 2006). This argument underpins the present study.

The conceptual framework designed is informed by a review of the rich relevant literature and the purpose of the study. Underpinning this study is the conceptual framework which encompasses the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire

leadership styles of the campus principals/divisional directors (leaders) and the job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic and overall) of the faculty members to examine the relationship between them. The leadership styles here are taken as an independent variable; whereas, faculty members' job satisfaction is taken as a dependent variable.

In the context of this study, job satisfaction refers to positive and favourable attitudes and feelings which faculty members may have about their jobs (Armstrong, 2006). Evans (2001:292) argues that teachers' job satisfaction is "influenced much less by externally initiated factors, such as salary, education policy and reforms and conditions of service, than by factors emanating from the more immediate context within which [the] teachers work: institution-specific or, more precisely, job-specific factors". Evans establishes that "leadership emerged as a key attitudes-influencing factor, since it shapes teachers' work contexts and has the capacity, through policy [implementation] and decision-making, to enable or constrain and to determine individuals' proximity to their ideal jobs" (2001:294). In essence, there are a number of factors which might influence faculty job satisfaction (Al-Omari, 2008; Wetherell, 2002), but for the purpose of this study job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic and overall) as influenced by the leadership styles is investigated. However, an important factor in this regard is the cultural context influencing leadership concept, styles and practices.

Leadership is underpinned by culture-informed leadership style(s) and, therefore, in different cultural contexts different leadership styles are preferred and practiced because the practices that we take for granted may become distorted in different contexts (Shah, 2006b; Shahin and Wright, 2004). The studies on leadership styles in educational settings reveal that in different cultural contexts different leadership styles have a significant impact on the job satisfaction of teachers/faculty members (Bogler, 2001;

Madlock, 2008). Therefore, researchers recommend the practice of those leadership styles which have been found to have a significant impact on teacher/faculty member job satisfaction in that specific context in order to enhance institutional effectiveness (Dimmock and Walker, 2005; Nguni *et al*., 2006). This shows that there is a variety of views and theories, and there is no 'one leadership style' which may consistently contribute to productivity within an institution and can match all cultural contexts (Al-Omari, 2007). A great deal of academic research on leadership in general, albeit within a variety of theoretical paradigms, is "predominantly reflective of Western perspectives" (Shah, 2010a:27; see also Simkins *et al*., 2003 and Northouse, 1997), and "most if not all evidence from research on transformational and transactional leadership [in particular] has been more confined to the Western world than in the developing world" in its origin and orientation (Nguni *et al*., 2006:146; see also Foskett and Lumby, 2003; Geijsel *et al*., 2003), including Pakistan. Naturally, the resulting notions of leadership are embedded in this intellectual and cultural tradition, and these cannot be applied unmodified in other countries (Little, 1996; Rodwell, 1998). The question rises, then, "How far do the assertions and models of school [or university] leadership developed there pertain to the societies and cultures of the developing world?" (Simkins *et al*., 2003:275), such as Pakistan. Shah (2006a, 2006b and 2010a) consistently emphasised the need to locate and exercise context-specific leadership practices because these develop in and influence by societal culture and context. Therefore, to improve the effectiveness of educational institutions, leaders need to know and use the appropriate leadership style(s) in their specific cultural context (Shaw, 2005).

Previously, there has been interest in the link between educational leadership, institutional effectiveness and teacher/faculty member job satisfaction (Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006; Smallwood, 2008); however, most research in this regard has

been focused on the school context (Grosso, 2008; Somech, 2005). Effectively leading a university into the future is not an easy task for university leaders (Grosso, 2008). They find themselves demanding more from the faculty in order to cope with the challenges of an ever changing environment (Bohen and Stiles, 1998). Therefore, university leaders have the critical task of ensuring a high level of faculty job satisfaction in order to motivate the faculty to give the extra effort required to efficiently progress the university (Grosso, 2008). Thus, institutions need to focus on context-based leadership style/s to likely increase a teacher/faculty member's performance by keeping him/her satisfied in their job (Grosso, 2008; Madlock, 2008), and consequently to possibly achieve institutional aims. This implies that it is important to investigate leadership style/s and their interplay with faculty job satisfaction in a specific cultural and organisational context.

1.6 Research Objectives and Questions

Keeping in view the focus and significance of the study, the objectives of the study are:

1. To identify the leadership styles of the principals/directors as perceived by the faculty.

2. To examine the relationship between perceived leadership styles of the principals/directors and the faculty's self-perceived job satisfaction.

3. To investigate which elements of faculty job satisfaction might and might not be influenced by the leader as perceived by the faculty.

4. To explore which leadership style is more conducive and which can be a barrier to faculty job satisfaction as perceived by the faculty.

5.   To define the role of a leader in enhancing the faculty members' job satisfaction as perceived by the faculty.

Conversant with the objectives the following research questions are advanced:

1.   What are the leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire), as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X-Short, of the principals/directors of a public university in Pakistan as perceived by the faculty?

2.(a)   What is the relationship between the <u>faculty's perceived</u> transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and the faculty members' self-perceived intrinsic job satisfaction, as measured by the Mohrman-Cook-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS), in a public university of Pakistan?

2.(b)   What is the relationship between the <u>faculty's perceived</u> transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and the faculty members' self-perceived extrinsic job satisfaction, as measured by the MCMJSS, in a public university of Pakistan?

2.(c)   What is the relationship between the <u>faculty's perceived</u> transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and the faculty members' self-perceived overall job satisfaction, as measured by the MCMJSS, in a public university of Pakistan?

3.   Which elements of faculty job satisfaction might and might not be influenced by the leader in the Pakistani context as perceived by the faculty?

4. Which leadership style(s) is/are more conducive and which can be a barrier to faculty job satisfaction in the Pakistani context as perceived by the faculty?

5. What is the role of a leader in enhancing faculty job satisfaction in the Pakistani context as perceived by the faculty?

1.7 Thesis Overview

The second chapter presents a review of the literature related to leadership, job satisfaction, and the relationship between them. Both leadership and job satisfaction constructs will be defined, followed by discussion about different theories related to these concepts. However, in the leadership section, more discussion will be focused upon transformational and transactional leadership as this theoretical framework underpins the present study. A number of research articles and doctoral theses, from a variety of cultural contexts, related to the present study will be evaluated and discussed. The focus of most of these studies is on transformational and transactional leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction, and all of these are from the higher educational context. Finally in this chapter the relationship between leadership and culture will be debated. In the third chapter, the research design will be discussed, which provides the study focus and approach, and population and sampling. Furthermore, in this chapter, data collection methods, procedure, issues of validity and reliability/trustworthiness, and frame for analysis will be presented before finally discussing ethical issues.

The fourth chapter will deal with the presentation of quantitative data, findings from the quantitative set of data and discussion of these findings with a specific focus on the first two research questions. In the fifth chapter, the qualitative data presentation, related findings, and discussion of these findings with regards to the last three research

questions will be addressed. In both these chapters, the data presentation, accompanying findings and discussion is managed according to the sequence of the research questions. In the sixth chapter, in-depth analysis and synthesis of different sets of data will be provided. In this chapter, the leadership styles and their relationships to faculty job satisfaction are analysed with a focus on how these are perceived and practised within the context of this study with reference to Pakistani culture, societal structure and patterns of behaviour; this will be followed by comparing and contrasting the present study findings with the practices of leadership styles and their relationships to faculty job satisfaction from a variety of cultural contexts. Finally, in the seventh chapter, a brief outline of the thesis and a summary of the main findings of the study will be offered. Furthermore, in this chapter, conclusions and the implications for theory and practice, followed by the limitations of the study are discussed, before finally providing suggestions for future research and other relevant recommendations.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

A review of the literature related to the 'relationship between leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction' results in the identification of the following major areas, discussed in this chapter: (a) leadership theories and leadership styles, (b) job satisfaction and relevant theories, and (c) the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction. At the end of this chapter the nexus between leadership and culture is discussed.

2.1 Leadership Theories and Leadership Styles

Leadership can be defined through a number of ways (Dimmock and Walker, 2005; Northouse, 2010); according to Yukl (2002), Simkins (2005) and Dimmock and Walker (2005) the concept of leadership in terms of its definition is elusive, arbitrary and subjective. Northouse argues that "it is much like the words democracy, love and peace" (2010:2), which might be defined differently by different individuals. Regardless of its present significance, leadership has no agreed definition (Bush, 2003; Bush and Middlewood, 2005). However, there are several definitions that are more helpful as compared to other definitions for some people, although none of these could be recognised as being definitive (Yukl, 2002). According to Northouse (2010), some researchers conceptualize leadership from the trait aspect, which means a leader has a set of certain characteristics which make him/her a leader; for others, it is the behaviour of the leader which enables him/her to accomplish the goals of the institution. Northouse further argues that for some theorists leadership is a relationship between the leader and followers in terms of power; whereas, some theorists view leadership from the leader's capacity with respect to the skill and knowledge aspect. Bass (1990) defines leadership as a group process where the leader holds a central place and embodies the

team members' will, which aligns better with the current research context where campus principals/divisional directors interact with their faculty members, and this process of interaction within the group shapes the leadership. Therefore, as mentioned in the first chapter, the present study considers leadership as a process whereby a campus principal/divisional director influences a team of faculty members to accomplish a shared aim of the institution.

There are a number of leadership definitions which consider leadership as a process through which a leader influences a team of followers to accomplish a shared goal (Davies *et al*., 2001; Dimmock and Walker, 2005; Hersey *et al*., 1996; Northouse, 2010; Yukl and Van Fleet, 1998). Leadership style in such cases is reflected in the leader's interaction or behaviour that s/he exerts while influencing followers in order to guide, structure and facilitate activities and relationships in an institution (Jago, 1982; Northouse, 2010). Some important elements related to leadership as a process are that it involves influence, it occurs in teams, and it involves shared objectives (Northouse, 2010).

Consideration of leadership as a 'process' means that it is a two-way phenomenon and both the leader and the followers are integral parts of leadership (Hollander, 1992). This approach understands leadership as an interactive phenomenon between a leader and followers, which is neither a highly structured top-down relationship nor confined to the person who is nominated within the team officially, rather it is accessible for each and every member of the team (Northouse, 2010; Simkins, 2005). Involvement of 'influence' in leadership implies the way a leader affects their subordinates/colleagues. Leadership happens in 'teams', which means that the group is the setting/situation in which leadership takes place, and it is the team which allows the phenomenon of leadership to happen or to be complete (Northouse, 2010). This stresses the ethical

aspect of leadership through considering the combined responsibility of both the leader and the followers, and has the potential to decrease the chance of unethical leadership behaviour towards subordinates (Northouse, 2010). Rost (1991) argues that it might also enhance the likelihood of joint effort by the leader and subordinates towards a common good. Different theorists and researchers broadly link leadership with vision, values, establishing the institutional culture, change and movement through maintaining direction, people and inspiration (Gunter, 2001; Kotter, 1990).

The field of "educational leadership research involves analysing the concept of leadership itself, the types and styles of leadership and their relevance to educational settings" (Briggs and Coleman, 2007:2). In spite of the increasing literature on leadership, Ribbins and Gunter (2002) assert that research in the two essential fields of leadership has not been conducted sufficiently. Firstly, the research related to leading: "what individual leaders do... why they do... and with what outcomes" (Ribbins and Gunter, 2002:362). Secondly, the research related to leaders: "what leaders are, why and by whom they are shaped into what they are, and how they become leaders" (Ribbins and Gunter, 2002:362). The present study is located within the first category and it addresses 'what individual leaders do' in terms of leadership styles as perceived by the faculty, and 'with what outcomes' in terms of the faculty's self-perceived job satisfaction.

The debate on leadership can be traced back to the era of Aristotle (Northouse, 2010) and the literature written by Confucius, Plato, Plutarch, and Caesar highlights discussion on leadership (Ayman, 1992; Bass, 1981). A review of literature related to leadership unveils an evolving series of 'schools of thought' (Bolden *et al*., 2003). Early theories were focused upon leaders' traits and their personality, whereas later theories considered the followers and the situation into the phenomenon of leadership (Bolden *et*

al., 2003). Thereafter, researchers directed their focus towards the leader's behaviour, and the movement of leadership theories shifted from the leader's personality to the leader's behaviour (Kreitner, 1983). Different researchers categorise leadership theories differently (see Bensimon *et al*., 1989; Bolden, 2004; Bolden *et al*., 2003; Bush, 2003; Northouse, 2010) and "many approaches to their classification are possible" (Simkins, 2005:11). The following is a discussion of some leadership theories, arranged in sets according to a shared conceptual base (Levine, 2000), to inform the theory development and later analysis:

    i.   Early Theories

        a. Great Man theories

        b. Trait Approach

   ii.   Interactive Theories

        a. Situational Approach

        b. Contingency Approach

  iii.   Style Approach

  iv.   Modern Theories

        a. Transformational and Transactional theories

2.1.1 Early Theories

These theories perceive the leader as a result of a set of forces, and do not take into account the relationship among the leader and setting as important in the debate of leadership (Levine, 2000). 'Great Man' theories have their basis on the idea that a leader is an extraordinary person who has inborn excellence and possesses superior characteristics designed to lead (Northouse, 2010). Jennings (1960) states this is a basis

for the trait approach by arguing that if a leader is gifted with greater features, then these qualities could be recognised.

In the 'Trait Approach', it is considered that key leadership characteristics can be identified and the individual who has the required qualities could be nominated as leader (Stogdill, 1974). This approach has strengths in that it has intuitive appeal, and provides a standard regarding leadership qualities (Northouse, 2010). The criticism, however, with this approach exists in the truth that more or less the same number of characteristics as studies conducted were found (Bolden *et al*., 2003); in other words, there is a subjective determination of traits (Northouse, 2010). Although there have been a number of studies over a long period of time which have tried to find a universal set of leadership characteristics, the findings are, in general, inconsistent (Gray and Smeltzer, 1989; Green, 1994; Northouse, 2010; Stogdill, 1948; Yukl and Van Fleet, 1992). If a leader has some specific characteristics, it does not mean that in the absence of these traits he/she is no longer a leader (Bolden *et al*., 2003). Moreover, this approach does not consider the attributes in relation to leadership effects/results, does not consider the situation, and cannot be used to train and develop leaders (Northouse, 2010).

2.1.2 Interactive Theories

These theories maintain that leadership is conditional to certain variables, for example, the setting, the individuals, the activity, the organisation and other environmental factors (Levine, 2000). 'Situational Approach' maintains that different leadership styles might be required at different levels of the same institution (Bolden *et al*., 2003). This means that in order to be an effective leader a particular leadership style needs to be adopted by the leader according to the requirement of the situation (Northouse, 2010).

This theory was extended by Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1977 and 1988) through their situational leadership model. They introduced the terms 'directive behaviour' and 'supportive behaviour'. Directive (task) behaviour might include giving directions to team members, usually through one-way communication; whereas, in supportive (relationship) behaviour leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships with their team members through open channels of communication, providing support, recognition, appreciation and positive feedback to followers (Hersey *et al.*, 1996; Mosley *et al.*, 1989; Northouse, 2010). In this approach a leader matches their leadership style to the competence and commitment level (development level) of the followers (Northouse, 2010); however, this approach could not clearly define the followers' development levels and the matching of leadership styles with these levels (Northouse, 2010).

The 'Contingency Approach' is a modification of the situational point of view. This approach takes into account leadership style and situation, and here situation is characterised by three variables: "leader-member relations, task structure and position power" (Northouse, 2010:112). In this approach the effectiveness of the leader depends upon the appropriate matching of the leadership style and the context or setting (Northouse, 2010). Therefore, a leader's effectiveness is contingent to the situation within which the leader operates (Fiedler, 1967; Mumford, 1986; Northouse, 2010; Vroom and Jago, 1998), and leadership styles here are labelled as 'task-motivated' or 'relationship-motivated'. Leaders with a task-motivated style are more inclined towards the accomplishment of targets, whereas leaders with a relationship-motivated style prefer to build interpersonal relationships (Northouse, 2010). The 'relationship-motivated and task-motivated' concepts are similar to the 'consideration and initiation structure' notions respectively put forwarded by the Ohio State studies - discussed in the

next section. Regardless of the strengths of this approach, it is unable to clarify the link among certain styles of the leader and subordinates' satisfaction and performance (Grosso, 2008). Hemphill (1955) and Homans (1950) give central importance to the interaction between the leader and team members, and the leader's concern for their subordinates (Evans, 1970), in order to make the leadership successful and to achieve the required performance from team members.

2.1.3 Style Approach

This approach "focuses exclusively on what leaders do and how they act" (Northouse, 2010:69), that means it specifically emphasises the behaviour of the leader rather than the leader's personality traits (Bolden, 2004). Lewin *et al*. (1939) started to recognize different leadership styles, although later studies have found many specific leadership styles, Lewin *et al*.'s work is still considered seminal as it was they who identified three main styles of leadership: authoritarian, participative and laissez-faire. A leader with an authoritarian style presents targets and instructions very clearly to followers, such as what to do, when to do it, and how to do it (Lewin *et al*., 1939). The problem with this leadership style is that it is perceived that the leader has total control, behaves as a boss and dictates (Druskat and Wheeler, 2003; Fiedler, 1989; Sagie, 1997; Stogdill, 1974). A leader with the participative style contributes to the group and tries to be a member of the team, provides guidance to the team members, and obtains participation from the members of the team in the decision making process, and because of this the participative style is commonly believed to be the more useful in practice (Druskat and Weeler, 2003; Koopman and Wierdsma, 1998; Lewin *et al*., 1939). A laissez-fair leader provides no supervision to subordinates and the followers take decisions on their own (Lewin *et al*., 1939); in other words, there is no leadership in this style.

Moreover, significant research into the style approach was done by Blake and Mouton in 1964, 1978 and 1985. They utilised the concepts of 'concern for people' and 'concern for production' in their Managerial Grid, later renamed the Leadership Grid, which describes how a leader enables an institution to achieve its goal (Northouse, 2010). Concern for people considers how a leader treats the followers who are striving to attain their aims. It comprises promoting friendship, developing institutional dedication and trust, facilitating employees to accomplish their job through a conducive working environment, enhancing the followers through self-respect, and considering those issues which are concerned with employees, such as reasonable pay and good social environment (Blake and Mouton, 1964). Concern for production means a concern for accomplishing institutional activities/assignments towards attaining whatever an institution is trying to achieve for its success (Blake and Mouton, 1964).

Furthermore, important studies were conducted at two American universities: The Ohio State University (Campbell, 1956; Campbell and Gregg, 1957; Fiedler and Chemers, 1974; Scott, 1956; Stogdill, 1974; Stogdill and Coons, 1957), and the University of Michigan (Cartwright and Zander, 1960; Kahn and Katz, 1953; Likert, 1961 and 1967; Mann, 1965). The researchers at The Ohio State University were concerned with analysing the behaviour of leaders which influenced the satisfaction and efficiency of the team members. They maintain that leaders using the 'initiating structure' style try to provide supervision at each stage and maintain a very strict check to achieve excellent performance and standardized processes. The spirit of this style is to keep the focus on achieving the aims dominant (Grosso, 2008; Hack *et al*, 1971; Hoy and Miskel, 1991; Sergiovanni and Carver, 1980). In contention, 'consideration' is leadership behaviour in which a leader prefers and maintains camaraderie, mutual trust and respect, liking and affection in the leader and subordinate relationships (Northouse, 2010; Sergiovanni and

Starratt, 1971). This style of leader is worker-oriented; the leader is less concerned with task, and gives more importance to the relationship.

The researchers at the University of Michigan initially perceived that 'employee orientation' and 'production orientation' are at opposite ends of the same continuum; however, later they conceptualised these two concepts as independent, similar to the Ohio State investigators (Kahn, 1956). Thereafter, researchers from both Ohio State and Michigan universities carried out a large number of studies to find out "how leaders could best combine their task and relationship behaviours to maximise the impact of these behaviours on the satisfaction and performance of followers" (Northouse, 2010:72). The results were generally contradictory, unclear, and inconclusive (Yukl, 1994); however, these studies directed the focus of future research towards finding out the effects of leadership styles upon followers' satisfaction and performance (Grosso, 2008).

2.1.4 Modern Theories

House (1976) argues that leadership style affects followers' job satisfaction. The qualities of a leader determine a specific style for the leader, which creates a positive picture of the leader among subordinates. This constructive opinion about leader may lead towards a positive change in the group members' attitude and behaviour, which in turn may enhance the subordinates' job satisfaction and efficient performance (Grosso, 2008). This assumption signals the transformational capacity of charismatic leadership and the influence it may have on the subordinates (Grosso, 2008).

However, changes in the field of education and educational leadership have highlighted the need to study the full range of leadership behaviour. This full range model involves the passive/avoidant (management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire) leadership

behaviour at one end, and leadership behaviour such as inspirational and charismatic on the other end (Bass and Avolio, 1990). The shift of institutions away from more rigid power hierarchies, which demands more transactional leadership behaviour, towards more flexible structures of authority, emphasises the investigation of the full range of leadership styles (Bass and Avolio, 2004). Cascio (1995) asserts the demand to develop and exercise transformational leadership characteristics because of the changes, such as the increase in the diversity of employees and more networking and interdependence of institutions due to globalization.

The full range leadership model facilitates understanding of higher and lower order outcomes of leadership behaviour, as it includes transformational, transactional and passive/avoidant leadership. This model is based on the previous leadership models, for example the autocratic and democratic model, participative and directive model, initiation and consideration model, and concern for task and concern for relationship model (Bass and Avolio, 2004). As there is a shift in the focus of theory and research towards the transformation and development of individual employees, teams and institutions, this represents a change in the leadership paradigm from the merely exchange of effort with reward to adopting a more participative, democratic, relationship-oriented and considerate leadership along with exchange relationship (Bass and Avolio, 2004). This leadership paradigm relates each leader's behaviour to expected performance (Bass and Avolio, 2004). The critique on transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and their all nine dimensions presented in the following section provides the items for the MLQ (see Appendix A) - used to measure these three chosen leadership styles. The MLQ items measure the nine leadership dimensions, which then map the three chosen leadership styles (see Figure 4.1 and Appendix B).

2.1.4.1 Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Researchers in the beginning of the 1970s emphasized transactional leadership (Levine, 2000), extending the theoretical development to include transformational leadership in the 1980s (House *et al.*, 1988). Downton (1973) first differentiated transactional and transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1990; Leithwood *et al.*, 1996; Nguni *et al.*, 2006; Silins, 1994). Burns (1978), building upon House's charismatic leadership theory (1976) and Downton's work (1973), characterizes two leadership types that are transactional and transformational in his research on political leadership. Zaleznik's (1977) work on managers has been considered as a parallel to Burns's (1978) distinction of transformational leadership from transactional leadership (Bass and Avolio, 2004). Burns (1978) broadened the research in order to understand leadership with the notions of collective and interconnected values, moralities and ethics. A main characteristic of Burns' theoretical framework (Nguni *et al.*, 2006) is that differentiation between transformational and transactional leaders is dependent primarily upon the procedure/s through which leaders inspire subordinates or the method/s leaders use to appeal to subordinates' ethical values and feelings, which makes it very relevant for investigating the educational context of this study.

Transactional leadership refers to a number of leadership frameworks, which concentrate upon the exchange that takes place between the leader and subordinates and which brings a shared advantage to them (Northouse, 2010). This theory is based upon the path-goal theoretical framework of incentive for required acts (Grosso, 2008). The transactional leader inspires subordinates by identifying and satisfying their motives and needs, and it revolves around an exchange relationship, in which subordinates' obedience is exchanged with likely compensation (Nguni *et al.*, 2006). This kind of

leadership involves the exchange value of things, and is only effective in certain situations and cultural contexts. In contrast, according to Burns (1978), the transformational leader inspires subordinates further than just exchanging values, and consequently, subordinates' self-actualisation as well as excellent results might be achieved. It is perceived as a process which transforms followers, increases the moral and inspiration level among the leader and subordinates, and involves feelings, principles, moralities, norms and greater purposes (Northouse, 2010). Burns believes that transformational and transactional are at different ends of the same leadership continuum (Nguni *et al*., 2006).

Some researchers argue that it requires more than just a transactional activity to enhance followers' satisfaction within their jobs (House, 1971; Burns, 1978), which has led towards advancement in this theoretical framework. Bass (1985) contradicts Burns' (1978) idea that both forms of leadership, transformational and transactional, are mutually exclusive. Instead, Bass asserts that the two forms of leadership build upon each other (Bass and Avolio, 1993; Waldman *et al*., 1990). Bass sees transformational and transactional leadership as consisting of two theoretically separate but interconnected leadership aspects, and he theorises a continuum of the 'full range of leadership styles' in which a leader utilises these two kinds of leadership in combination to be successful (Bass and Avolio, 2004; Grosso, 2008). Moreover, Burns (1978) argues that transformation is always for good; whereas, Bass contends that it could be a good as well as a destructive transformation (Grosso, 2008). Bass expands House's conceptualization through focusing on emotional aspects and the basis of charisma. He further asserts that for transformational leadership, charisma is an essential aspect, however it is not enough requirement for transformational leadership (Yammarino, 1993). The transformational leader encourages subordinates to perform better in

comparison to their expectations or what they even thought possible, and inspires them to sacrifice their benefits for the good of the group or institution (Kuhnert, 1994). Furthermore, transformational leadership enhances transactional leadership to develop subordinates for the intention of change, improved performance, and to attend to the aims of the leader, team and its members, and the institution, in addition to improving satisfaction with and the perceived efficiency of the leader (Bass and Avolio, 1990). Whereas, the transactional leader alone sustains the status quo (Bass, 1985; Hater and Bass, 1988). In transformational leadership, the leader engages with followers to develop them into leaders, and this process might be bottom-up (where followers influence their leader), between two followers, or top-down (Bass and Avolio, 2004).

On the basis of a number of research articles (Avolio *et al*., 1999; Bass and Avolio, 1990; Hater and Bass, 1988) and books by Bass (1985 and 1998), Bass and Avolio (1994), Bass and Riggio (2006) and Gill (2006) on transformational leadership, the following four dimensions of transformational leadership have been identified.

Charismatic Leadership or Idealized Influence: Transformational leaders display such behaviour which makes them role models for their subordinates (Nguni *et al*., 2006). These leaders, due to their exceptional competence, persistence and willpower, are appreciated, recognised and believed to be trustworthy (Avolio *et al*., 1995). They give importance to subordinates' needs rather than their own, develop and practice higher ethical and moral principles, are risk-takers and do not use authority for their benefit (Bass and Avolio, 1994). Moreover, these leaders are believed to be correct decision-takers, and those who communicate the vision and mission properly (Northouse, 2010). Owing to these leadership behavioural characteristics, subordinates copy such leaders and want to be identified with them. This dimension has two conceptually distinct

aspects: first 'idealised influence behaviour' - linked with the behavioural characteristics of the leader, and second 'idealised influence attributed' - associated to the facets which are attributed to the leader by their subordinates (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Charismatic leaders have confidence in their subordinates to achieve the communicated goals, which increases the possibility of subordinates internalizing and realizing these goals (Levine, 2000).

Inspirational Motivation: This is considered an aspect of charismatic leadership (Nguni *et al.*, 2006) in which leaders inspire the subordinates by means of emotional appeals and charming visions of upcoming circumstances, raising subordinates aims, and showing passion and hopefulness (Northouse, 2010). These leaders evoke the spirit of the group, communicate clear expectations which subordinates are ready to fulfil and exhibit dedication to aims and collective vision (Bass and Riggio, 2006). The leader who is inspirational is perceived as being well-informed, enlightened and responsive to arising issues, with no demand of trusting compliance from subordinates, and makes subordinates more commanding by supporting them to meet the agreed goals (Levine, 2000). Bass (1990) maintains that a charismatic leader is likely to be very much inspirational, but an inspirational leader might not always be charismatic; however, both these types of leaders give required importance to the personal development of followers, which classifies them as transformational leaders (Levine, 2000).

Intellectual Stimulation: A transformational leader stimulates their subordinates' endeavours in order to enhance innovation and creativity in them through encouraging questioning and critical reflection (Bass and Avolio, 1994). This sort of leadership also encourages subordinates to challenge their own viewpoint and morals along with the leader's and the organization's philosophy (Northouse, 2010). Moreover, a participative

approach to finding the solution is adopted. Creative ideas from the followers are welcomed, even if these ideas oppose the leader's views (Bass and Avolio, 1994). It is appreciated if subordinates adopt different approaches and resolve problems in their own way (Northouse, 2010).

Individualised Consideration: A transformational leader focuses upon subordinates' success and development to their highest level by means of performing the role of a mentor (Avolio, 1999). Bass and Avolio (2004) argue that if the leader wants to successfully develop their followers, the leader must develop himself/herself as well. Here the leader acknowledges the personal differences of followers in terms of requirements and aspirations through demonstrating different types of behaviour for different people (Bass and Avolio, 1994). The leader creates an encouraging environment for learning and the growth of followers through maintaining two-way communication, tailoring their contact with subordinates, listening to them carefully, and delegating tasks with continuous evaluation and support if needed (Bass and Avolio, 1994). Consideration behaviour is regarded as a significant element of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), as well as transactional leadership (Seltzer and Bass, 1987).

Research also debates the three dimensions of transactional leadership and laissez-faire behaviour of the leader (non-leadership behaviour) (Avolio *et al.*, 1999; Bass, 1985 and 1998; Bass and Avolio, 1990; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Gill, 2006; Hater and Bass, 1988). These four dimensions are inclined, with different levels, towards an exchange relationship between the leader and the followers (Bass, 1985). Here, unlike the transformational leader, the focus is neither upon individual subordinates' needs nor growth. However, transactional leadership, like transformational leadership, has an

ethical aspect. Bass and Steidlmeier (1999:185) argue that "the moral legitimacy of transactional leadership is demanding in many ways. It depends on granting the same liberty and opportunity to others that one claims for oneself, on telling the truth, keeping promises, distributing to each what is due, and employing valid incentives or sanctions". Some authors/researchers classify three transactional leadership dimensions and one laissez-faire aspect of leadership differently, while others consider that all four of these leadership facets underlie transactional leadership (Nguni *et al.*, 2006). Some researchers prefer to place contingent reward and management-by-exception (active) under transactional leadership, and label management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire as 'passive/avoidant leadership' (Bass and Avolio, 2004); whereas, others, such as Northouse (2010), label contingent reward, management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive) as transactional leadership aspects, and discuss laissez-faire separately as a non-leadership behaviour. The present study follows Northouse's (2010) classification, which is more widely used, as it aligns better with the focus and conceptual framework of the study.

Contingent Reward: In this model there is an exchange relationship between the leader and their subordinates where particular compensation is provided to the subordinates for their obedience and labour (Northouse, 2010). The transactional leader decides a contract with their subordinates in which he/she specifies the targets to be achieved and the incentives for these targets, and then the leader gives agreed incentives on the achievement of the decided objectives (Nguni *et al.*, 2006). Contingent reward has been perceived as useful in offering reinforcement and satisfaction to subordinates (Klimoski and Hayes, 1980; Peters and Waterman, 1982); however, many studies highlight that contingent reward is not as useful as different transformational leadership aspects for achieving subordinates' satisfaction, excellent performance and growth (Bass and

Avolio, 1994). In some countries, such as England, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, South Africa (white sample) and United States, employees would prefer to receive agreed rewards for their all efforts/time invested to the institution because these countries are high in 'performance orientation' and low in 'in-group collectivism', which means these societies are more competitive, result oriented, and have less cohesiveness in their families and institutions (House *et al*., 2004). Performance orientation refers to the degree to which a society has a culture of compensation for team members for defining and accomplishing challenging targets; whereas, in-group collectivism is concerned about the extent to which individuals are attached, devoted and loyal to their organisations and families and can make sacrifices for them (House *et al*., 2004). In some other countries, for example Iran, Philippines, Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand and India, people would prefer appreciation and obligation from their leader and colleagues rather than compensation for the extra help/time they have given to the institution because these countries are high in 'humane orientation' and 'in-group collectivism', which means that the people of these countries have strong bonds, loyalty and concern for their families, institution and community (House *et al*., 2004). Humane orientation refers to the degree to which a society or culture encourages the individuals to be fair, selfless, generous, helpful, considerate and sensitive to others (House *et al*., 2004).

'Management-by-exception' entails constructive criticism, unconstructive comments and reinforcement, and is discussed in two different forms 'active and passive' (Northouse, 2010; Bass and Avolio, 2004). It is less productive compared to the previous leadership dimensions but is needed in particular circumstances (Bass, 1999; Bass and Avolio, 1994).

Management-by-Exception (active): A leader using this form of leadership behaviour keenly observes subordinates' performance, maintains records of mistakes and deviations from criteria, and takes measures to correct these as required (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999; Northouse, 2010).

Management-by-Exception (passive): A leader who adopts this form of management-by-exception remains inactive until inaccuracies and deviations from benchmarks occur, might not know about issues before being notified about them by their followers, and usually remains unsuccessful in taking corrective measures until issues deteriorate (Bass, 1999; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999).

Laissez-Faire Leadership: This is characterized as non-leadership or absence of leadership, "as the French phrase [laissez-faire] implies, the laissez-faire leader takes a 'hands-off, let-things-ride' approach" (Northouse, 2010:182). The leader with laissez-faire behaviour refrains from their duty, is reluctant to take decisions, is not present when his/her help is required, is unable to follow up when requested and is less interested in supporting subordinates to fulfil their needs (Bass and Avolio, 1989 and 1994). With this sort of behaviour the leader does not facilitate subordinates to develop and there is no transaction between the leader and subordinates. Bass (1985) argues that laissez-faire is not the opposite of management-by-exception (active) or transformational leadership, but rather that it shows a negative relationship with the dimensions of transformational leadership.

In conclusion, transformational leadership emerges as more than just an exchange of followers' effort with reward and counteractive orientation, which is the case in transactional leadership. In the case of transformational leadership, leaders have much influence upon their followers because they inspire the followers intellectually, provide

vision, develop the followers personally and professionally, and challenge and motivate them to increase their performance. There is substantial evidence from a variety of organisations and cultures that because of these characteristics transformational leaders are considered more effective compared to transactional leaders (Antonakis *et al*., 2003; Avolio and Yammarino, 2002; Bass and Avolio, 2000 and 2004; Bass *et al*., 2003; Catanyag, 1995; Molero and Morales, 1994). In contrast, transactional leaders use constructive role, work with teams and individual followers, discover their potential, negotiate agreements to achieve institutional goals and compensate followers with agreed incentives in return for achieving defined targets (Bass and Avolio, 2004). Bass and Avolio (2004) further state that transactional leaders in their corrective role concentrate upon defining standards, in their active role keep a strict check upon the occurrence of errors, and in their passive role wait for faults to happen and then take action. However, in both their active and passive roles these leaders concentrate upon the identification of followers' errors.

Nevertheless, following these leadership styles or certain dimensions of these leadership styles would again be dependent on societal values, culture and patterns of behaviour. For example, Dastoor *et al*. (2003) in the context of Thailand at university level investigated the relationship between leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction through utilising the transformational and transactional leadership theoretical paradigm. The findings highlight that transformational leadership style has a stronger relationship with the faculty's self-perceived job satisfaction, and the transactional leadership style comparatively has a less strong relationship with faculty job satisfaction. However, Grosso (2008), who explored a similar relationship in a university from the Mid-Atlantic region of the United States by using the same leadership approach, maintains

that "the transformational leadership behaviours ...had strong relationships with faculty satisfaction ...[but] the transactional [leadership] behaviours ... did not" (p.104).

The practice of these leadership styles and their dimensions might vary in different parts of the same societal context. For example, in comparison to Grosso (2008), Stumpf (2003) examined a similar relationship in North Carolina (United States) at university level, in an informal educational setting, through utilising the same leadership theoretical paradigm. Stumpf found that the transformational leadership style has a significantly positive relationship with faculty members' job satisfaction. Further, the first dimension, contingent reward, of the transactional leadership style has a stronger positive relationship with faculty job satisfaction as compared to management-by-exception (active), the second dimension of the same style; whereas, the last dimension, management-by-exception (passive), of this style has a significantly negative relationship with faculty job satisfaction.

Many researchers criticise and point out several issues with the transformational and transactional leadership approach. However, it has an appeal because of its concern for change for people and its visionary aspect (Northouse, 2010). In this approach leadership is taken as a process between the leader and their followers, which addresses the needs of both of them. Moreover, this approach offers a broader picture of leadership which augments the former approaches to leadership. A number of previous leadership approaches emphasise the exchange process between the leader and the followers, which is characterised as a process of transaction, but this approach, along with the exchange process, also focuses on the concentration of the leader towards the needs and development of subordinates (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985). In addition, this sort of leadership includes moral and ethical aspects to leadership which makes it

distinctive amongst the various models of leadership. In this approach, the leader focuses on subordinates' values and raises their morality, which involves inspiring them to go beyond their personal benefit for the interest of the group, institution or society (Avolio, 1999; Burns, 1978; Howell and Avolio, 1993; Shamir *et al.*, 1993). Finally, there is considerable empirical support, from both quantitative and qualitative studies in different settings and contexts, that this approach is an efficient type of leadership and that it has a positive relationship with the satisfaction, inspiration and outcomes/results of the followers (Yukl, 1999).

The transformational and transactional leadership approach also has numerous shortcomings, for example, it is theoretically ambiguous because it is a combination of various leadership theories. It is difficult to delineate the definite boundaries of this approach, as it aims to perform a number of functions with reference to the followers, organisation and society (Northouse, 2010), which makes it difficult to be trained or taught. There is considerable conceptual overlap between the transformational leadership dimensions - idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration, indicating that these aspects are not obviously defined (Tracey and Hinkin, 1998; Yukl, 1999). Transformational leadership is also not clearly delimited and it overlaps with other theoretical notions; for example, charismatic and transformational leadership are sometimes taken as being synonymous (Bryman, 1992; Khatri, 2005; Yukl, 1999), although charismatic leadership is considered just one dimension of the transformational model (Bass, 1985). Yukl (1999) highlights the ambiguity in the usage of the notion of influence, and Bryman (2004a) further observes on this criticism that there should be an established relationship between charismatic leadership and the influence it has on followers evidenced by the

followers' behaviours which correspond with the leader's aims. However, Hoyt and Blascovich (2003:702-704) successfully challenged the basis of Yukl's (1999) criticism.

This approach has also been criticised on its measurement aspect. Some researchers have criticised and questioned the validity of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which has generally been utilised to evaluate transformational and transactional leadership quantitatively. This criticism is linked with the point above, and indicates that in the MLQ the four transformational leadership dimensions (termed the four Is: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration) have a higher level of correlation among themselves, which indicates that these dimensions are not unique (Tejeda *et al*., 2001). Further in this criticism, few transformational facets have correlation with the aspects of transactional and laissez-faire, for example there is an element of delegation in intellectual stimulation, management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire; this indicates that such transformational dimensions are not distinctive to it (Tejeda *et al*., 2001). However, Antonakis *et al.* (2003) countered Tejeda *et al*.'s (2001) criticism by pointing out flaws in their research.

This approach further receives criticism from several other researchers who argue that it does not perceive leadership as a behaviour that could be learnt but instead considers leadership to be a personality attribute or personal characteristic (Bryman, 1992). Numerous researchers, such as Bass, House and Weber have argued that this approach focuses on the behaviour of the leader, for example the way a leader engages with their subordinates, but a perception still exists that this leadership approach is oriented towards the trait standpoint. The reasons behind such observation are certain tendencies, such as considering a leader with transformational characteristics as an individual with

extraordinary capabilities to transform subordinates and provide them with a vision, and considering that individual as the main character of the process of leadership. These tendencies and perceptions highlight the trait characterization of this approach, although the subordinates and their contribution are involved in the whole leadership process (Northouse, 2010). Moreover, some critics maintain that in the process of transformation, by providing followers with a vision and new horizons a leader with transformational behaviours takes the role of leading, which generates the perception that the leader is performing alone without subordinates; therefore, this leadership approach is elitist and antidemocratic (Avolio, 1999; Bass and Avolio, 1993). It is essential that instead of the 'heroic leadership' bias, the focus should be shifted upon the way a leader might stimulate their subordinates to challenge the vision of the leader and to participate in the process of leadership (Northouse, 2010).

Furthermore, as this leadership approach is focused upon providing a new vision to the followers and bringing a change in their ethics, it raises a question about who decides that the new values and vision are better. Therefore, this approach could be abused. If the changed values are not an improvement nor more redeeming than the old, it might result in the leadership being challenged; however, the way in which subordinates could challenge their leader and question the leader's vision is not explained adequately (Northouse, 2010). Another issue is that in some collective societies, such as Pakistan, colleagues may not think it appropriate to challenge the leader or it may not be considered appropriate socially or politically to do so. In such societies challenging the leader is thus considered to be against sobriety although it leads towards the discouragement of debate and discussion (Shah, 2008 and 2009). For example, among South Asian countries, such as Iran, India, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia and the Philippines - which are considered to have collective societies (Hofstede, 2001) -

effective leadership is characterised as cooperative, encouraging, people oriented and having more concern for status and face-saving (House *et al*., 2004). Some other collective societies from Confucian Asian countries, such as Singapore, China, Japan, Taiwan, South Korea and Hong Kong (Hofstede, 2001), also characterise effective leadership very similarly to South Asian countries (House *et al*., 2004). These societies consider that self-centred, procedural and autocratic leaders who use their position and associated legitimate power to take decisions are more effective as compared to participative leaders who involve colleagues in the processes of decision-making and implementation; furthermore, leaders are considered authority figures and are not challenged even, sometimes, if they take the wrong standpoint (House and Javidan, 2004).

As the charismatic aspect of this approach could be used for negative intentions, it can be seen as a serious threat to institutions (Conger, 1999; Howell and Avolio, 1993), and this is highlighted as the negative aspect of charisma (Yukl, 1989). There are a number of examples of charismatic leaders who have utilised their authority negatively to guide subordinates/followers towards immoral directions, for example, Osama Bin Laden, "Adolf Hitler and Saddam Hussein, who were transforming but in a negative way" (Northouse, 2010:173). Such leaders have incredibly high self-belief, and therefore may lead their followers into terrible situations, that indicates that there is potential for the abuse of power in this approach (Hall *et al*., 2002). Bass (1998) and Bass and Steidlmeier (1999:184) named such leaders as 'pseudo-transformational', because these leaders are attributed with machiavellianism, flawed vision, personal identification and narcissism, are deceptive, self-consumed, manipulative, exploitive and authority-oriented, use their abilities coercively, and have distorted ethical values (Bass and Riggio, 2006; Conger and Kanungo, 1988 and 1998; Northouse, 2010). This kind of

leader places their personal interest ahead of subordinates/followers' interest (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999) and "many such leaders resist empowering associates, finding it a threat to their own leadership" (Bass and Avolio, 2004:27). Therefore, this approach places responsibility on the subordinates and the institutions to evaluate the way they are being influenced and lead (Northouse, 2010).

Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) usefully summarise several of the other criticisms made by various researchers (Keeley, 1995; McKendall, 1993; Snyder, 1987; Stevens *et al*, 1995; White and Wooten, 1986). They argue that in spite of the fact that the transformational approach is considered by the majority of the researchers to be linked to the moral maturity and moral uplifting of followers (Burns, 1978; Kuhnert and Lewis, 1987), its ethics have been criticised and questioned because it:

> ...lends itself to amoral puffery since it makes use of impression management; ...manipulates followers along a primrose path on which they lose more than they gain; ...encourages followers to go beyond their own self interests for the good of the organization and even emotionally engages followers irrationally in pursuits of evil ends contrary to the followers' best interests; ...is antithetical to organizational learning and development involving shared leadership, equality, consensus and participative decision-making; ...lacks the checks and balances of countervailing interests, influences and power to avoid dictatorship and oppression of a minority by a majority; ...and the distinction between authentic and pseudo transformational leadership is not applicable across cultures.

> (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999:192-193)

Many other researchers have criticised and questioned the morality of transformational leadership (Yukl, 1989), because "...its rhetoric may appeal to emotions rather than to

reason [and] it lacks the checks and balances of democratic discourse and power distribution" (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999:211). While motivating followers by appealing to emotions, the transformational leader may not consider the eventual effect upon followers and may not keep high moral values in view; furthermore, this kind of leadership may transfer such characteristics to the followers (Stone *et al.*, 2004). Thomson (2007) highlights that this approach does not consider the organisational context, however the validity of this approach in different settings is proven (Bass, 1998). Thomson (2007:6) further points out another criticism linked to "the incapability of transformational leaders to make their followers meet certain outcomes"; however, it has been countered through the full-range leadership theory (Bass and Avolio, 1994).

Thomson (2007:7) argues that "the most severe criticisms to ...[transactional] leadership style relate to the limited motivation it has in creative followers. Even though pre-determined goal helps followers to stay focused on its achievement, it might discourage extra efforts as these would not be rewarded" (Bryant, 2003, cited in Thomson, 2007:7). Furthermore, "certain aspects of transactional leadership may be counterproductive to the aims of the leader, associates, and the overall organization. For example, people may take shortcuts to complete the exchange of a reward for compliance to a task or objective" (Bass and Avolio, 2004:24). Moreover, there are also some constraints of the transactional leadership practice. Bass and Avolio (2004:21) highlight that "time pressures, poor appraisal methods, doubts about the efficacy of positive reinforcement, discomfort to leader and associate, and lack of skill or confidence are all partly responsible for the failure to use transactional leadership". More issues relating to transactional leadership include feedback provision and its utility problems with regard to the improvement of followers' motivation, performance and development (Bass and

Avolio, 2004; Kluger and DeNisi, 1996), and leader's reputation in term of reward delivery (Tsui, 1982).

2.2 Job Satisfaction and Relevant Theories

Job satisfaction has been defined differently by numerous researchers (Armstrong, 2006; Evans; 2000; Locke, 1976; Lofquist and Dawis, 1991; Schultz, 1982; Siegel and Lane, 1987; Spector, 1997; Tobias, 1999; Vroom, 1982), and it has no agreed definition (Worrell, 2004; Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2006) because of its "elusive" (Castillo and Cano, 2004:65) and "even mythical" nature (Karimi, 2008:3). In general, job satisfaction is defined as the extent to which a job meets the needs of a worker and provides him/her with pleasure. Some researchers perceive it as the emotional satisfaction which results from an employee's job experience (Locke, 1976; Siegel and Lane, 1987). This emotional satisfaction is achieved when an employee's job offers something that s/he feels is worthwhile (Nguni *et al*., 2006; Lofquist and Dawis, 1991). Whereas, others consider job satisfaction to be the attitude or feeling that an employee has towards his/her job (Evans, 1999; Roberts, 2001; Smith *et al*., 1969). The definition of job satisfaction has developed over many years, however, "most versions share the belief that job satisfaction is a work-related positive affective reaction" (Worrell, 2004:11). In the context of the present study, job satisfaction refers to the positive and favourable attitudes and feelings which faculty members have about their jobs (Armstrong, 2006). Some investigators have defined and measured job satisfaction as a general notion (Nguni *et al*., 2006; Worrell, 2004), and others (Al-Omari, 2008; Cerit, 2009) have defined and measured this concept "with two distinct facets, which include intrinsic (level of satisfaction with features associated with the job itself) and extrinsic (level of satisfaction with various features associated with the environment in which the

work is performed) job satisfaction" (Nguni *et al*., 2006:152). The present study measures this concept from two distinct facets.

Similar to the discussion of the 'leadership' construct presented in the earlier section, "there are numerous theories attempting to explain job satisfaction" (Worrell, 2004:12), and different researchers classify theories of job satisfaction in different ways (Castillo and Cano, 2004; Dawis, 2004; Houser and Chace, 1993; Locke, 1976; Mathieu *et al*., 1993; Ololube, 2006; Ramatulasamma and Rao, 2003; Siripak, 2006; Worrell, 2004). Early theorists considered job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction to be at opposite ends of the same continuum, whereas later researchers perceive that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are on two different continua (Brown *et al*., 1998). The important classification that is more frequently discussed in the literature and covers three well-researched theoretical frames related to job satisfaction (Siripak, 2006; Worrell, 2004) is discussed in the present study. This classification covers content theories, process theories and situational theory.

2.2.1 Content Theories

These theories are also called need-based theories (Ololube, 2006), and are based on the assumption that all people have a similar group of needs and hence define what features a job should possess. There are two important theories in this school of thought: Maslow's (1954) 'Need Hierarchy Theory' and Herzberg's (1974) 'two-factor theory' (Ololube, 2006). Maslow's (1954) 'Need Hierarchy Theory' is the basis in this theoretical framework which proposes that job satisfaction is achieved when an employee's needs or desires are fulfilled through his/her job and related work atmosphere (Siripak, 2006). In this theory, the job satisfaction of an individual is based on the five-level model of a person's needs, in which need levels are organised in an

ascending sequence with reference to their significance. At the first level, the needs, for example water, food and protection are defined which are considered as necessary to continue life (Siripak, 2006). The second tier of needs comprises physical and economic protection; whereas, the next level consists of societal recognition, affiliation and affection needs (Worrell, 2004). The second last level includes the needs of self-respect and acknowledgment from colleagues; and at the peak level of the need hierarchy, independence and self-direction are identified which are also called self-actualization needs (Worrell, 2004).

Maslow argues that the hierarchy of human needs is very logical, and that the needs which are at the lower level should be fulfilled prior to the next tier needs. The leader who wants to satisfy his/her followers, therefore, should identify those needs of the followers which are not yet met and assist subordinates to satisfy such needs first (Worrell, 2004). Maslow further asserts that once a lower level need is fulfilled, it ceases to motivate employees any further. At this stage, the next tier of needs appear and serves the purpose of a motivator for individuals to perform and fulfil them (Siripak, 2006). Therefore, if a job provides an opportunity for advancement and fulfilment of the next tier needs which emerge because of the satisfaction of the previous level needs, the employee is more likely to experience job satisfaction (Worrell, 2004). Although a number of researchers have been attracted to this theory and found it interesting (Naylor, 1999), this approach has remained unsuccessful in gaining substantial support in its favour from the studies focused upon its validation (Ifinedo, 2003; Lawler and Suttle, 1972; Ololube, 2006). One of the reasons behind its failure might be that this theory does not take into account situational and job-related factors in the job satisfaction phenomenon.

Based on Maslow's work, Herzberg (1959, 1966 and 1974) proposed a motivator-hygiene theory which suggests that the job itself might be the main cause of an individual's satisfaction within the said job. This theory argues that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not on the same continuum that moves from satisfaction to dissatisfaction, but rather are on two separate continua which do not depend on each other (Lawler, 1994). The continuum which addresses job satisfaction starts from satisfied and ends on neutral, and similarly the continuum which deals with job dissatisfaction starts from dissatisfied and ends on neutral. Therefore, an employee might feel satisfaction and dissatisfaction at the same time (Lawler, 1994). Herzberg argues that work characteristics identified because of satisfaction are totally different from those caused by dissatisfaction. According to him job satisfaction has two aspects: intrinsic and extrinsic. He recognized two types of factors: a) the factors that influence job satisfaction are called 'motivators' or also labelled as 'satisfiers' and are intrinsic in nature and relate to job or work itself; and b) the factors which must be fulfilled to avoid job dissatisfaction are called 'hygiene' and are extrinsic in nature and relate to working conditions or environment (Worrell, 2004). The motivators may include variables such as accomplishment, acknowledgment, the work itself, responsibility and development; whereas, hygiene may include factors such as institutional policies, management, pay, interpersonal relationships with the leader and colleagues, and working environment (Stumpf, 2003).

In order to prevent job dissatisfaction hygiene factors should be fulfilled; however, even if hygiene factors are meet, it does not lead to job satisfaction but results in neutrality on the continuum dealing with job dissatisfaction (Worrell, 2004). In the same way, the presence of motivators causes job satisfaction among employees; but if the motivators are not present it does not lead to dissatisfaction but instead causes neutrality on the

continuum addressing job satisfaction (Stumpf, 2003). The motivators and hygiene factors are both variables that do not depend upon each other. This theory has been investigated extensively (Castillo and Cano, 2004; Karimi, 2008; Hardman, 1996; Moses, 1986; Sergiovanni, 1991), and it has been the main contributor to the theory of job satisfaction which has permitted comprehension of the nature of job satisfaction (Locke, 1976).

Herzberg's theory, however, has received criticism because of its view that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are mutually independent, that is, there is a question of whether these two dimensions are in reality independent or not. Locke (1976:1318) argues that these two aspects are theoretically and empirically separable but interdependent. Further, Locke *et al.* (1983) highlight that this theory is method dependent. Herzberg employed 'critical incident technique' in developing this theory, and this has been the lone method which constantly leads to findings which substantiate this theory. Locke and associates maintain that the researchers who used other applied methods of research found that motivators might be linked with job dissatisfaction and similarly hygiene might be related to job satisfaction (p.343-365). Therefore, it might be concluded that motivators and hygiene both might be the sources of individuals' job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction (Oshagbemi, 1997; Bowen, 1980). There are also issues of interpretation (King, 1970:18-19; Tang and Gilbert, 1995) and the validity of this theory (House and Wigdor, 1967). The MCMJSS, used in this study to measure faculty job satisfaction, shares some job satisfaction elements with this theory.

2.2.2 Process Theories

These theories describe job satisfaction through considering how well the job fulfils an individual's expectations in terms of compensation with regard to the efforts invested.

In this conceptual frame, Adams's (1963) and Vroom's (1964 and 1982) work is very important; Adams' work is also known by the name of the 'Equity Theory' of job satisfaction, where employees recognize their job in terms of a series of inputs and outcomes. Inputs might include variables, for example the employee's experience, capacity, endeavour, time and education or any other element which an individual contributes to their job; whereas, outcomes might involve variables such as pay, benefits, status, opportunity for growth, job security and acknowledgment or any other element that an employee wishes and attains from their job (Worrell, 2004). The basic assumption which underpins this theory is that workers' job satisfaction is the result of their perception about to what extent they are being compensated fairly as compared to their colleagues.

Adams argues that employees contrast their own outcomes which they are obtaining from their job to the inputs they offer to the job. The standard that workers utilise to compare their input-outcome ratio is the other colleague or team within the same organization that has the same job or employees within similar organizations having the same job (Milkovich and Newman, 1990). People want social equity in the effort they are investing and the rewards they are getting with reference to co-workers. Thus, if social equity is achieved workers feel satisfaction in their jobs and they show motivation to sustain their present input-outcome ratio, if they desire more rewards they increase their inputs, and if social equity is not achieved it becomes a source of job dissatisfaction, and causes motivation in an employee to restore social equity (Siripak, 2006). This negative effect, which appears in the case of failure to achieve social equity, upon job satisfaction is similar to the hygiene notion in Herzberg's theory (Naylor, 1999). This theory does not consider other variables, such as situational and job-related factors, which might have an effect upon an employee's input and outcome, and a

worker's satisfaction or dissatisfaction. It also does not address the issue of how a worker's compensation is decided if an employee or team which is being taken as standard or point of reference and an individual who wants to compare their outcomes, have different satisfaction levels with regards to outcomes.

Vroom's (1964) 'Expectancy Theory' of job satisfaction also emphasises the relationship between employees' input and compensation aspects. However, Vroom further included the facet of employee expectations. In essence, an employee expects that if he/she exerts more effort or input to increase performance, then he/she will be rewarded according to the effort exerted. Any difference between the anticipated reward and the actual reward leads towards job dissatisfaction. If the workers have the perception that they are not being compensated fairly or they are receiving less as compared to what they expected, it causes job dissatisfaction; if they are overcompensated, it also might cause job dissatisfaction and the worker might be embarrassed (Worrell, 2004). The theorist argues that compensation may not be in the form of money; however, it depends more upon the cultural contexts and behavioural patterns of society. In some collective societies, such as the Thai, Indian and Iranian (Hofstede, 2001), which are humane-oriented, show high-levels of in-group collectivism and where people are encouraged to be devoted to their institution and caring to others, employees would prefer appreciation/recognition from the leader, colleagues and institution. Thus in this type of situation, different facilities such as housing or medical care, and a caring and respectful attitude from the institution is more suitable in return to the employees' extra effort and time as compared to monetary compensation (House *et al*., 2004). Whereas, in some individualistic societies, such as the American, Australian, Canadian and British (Hofstede, 2001), which are more performance-oriented and where people are compensated for defining and achieving

challenging targets, employees would prefer money in return for their any extra time and effort exerted (House *et al*., 2004).

Gruneberg (1979) views this from another perspective by arguing that salary is the more evident and more easily adjustable component of reward, and it has more importance than just economic worth. Gruneberg maintains that pay is a sign of accomplishment, organizational status and acknowledgment, and an employee might fulfil their material desires through it. In Equity Theory it is the other employee's or team's reward (an employee or team which is taken as standard), which determines whether the received compensation by an employee is fair or not; whereas, Vroom maintains it is the personal expectation of an individual against their invested input that decides whether he/she is treated fairly or not in terms of compensation.

Vroom (1982) modified his theory by including the employee decision to either perform or not in carrying out job activities according to their capability to execute those activities and receive fair reward. In order to make clear the employee's decision making process and to identify job satisfaction systematically, Vroom established a three-factor equation which includes expectancy, instrumentality and valance (Siripak, 2006). Expectancy is the level of self-assurance an employee has in their capability to carry out the job effectively. Instrumentality is the perception of that employee of being rewarded honestly if he/she executes the job efficiently. Valance is the worth an individual specifies on anticipated compensation. In Vroom's equation each of three variables are assigned a probability value. For high employee motivation and job satisfaction all three variables should have high positive values, and if any variable has a low value then employee job-related performance and motivation will drop. Vroom (1982) considers an individual's personal and compensation-related factors as

responsible for employee job satisfaction; however, Vroom does not consider factors related to the situation, working environment and job in the phenomenon of job satisfaction.

2.2.3 Situational Theory

Quarstein *et al*. put forward their situational theory in 1992, in which they proposed that job satisfaction is defined by two kinds of variables: 'situational characteristics' and 'situational occurrences'. Situational characteristics include factors, for example, advancement opportunities, working environment, institutional policies, salary, and management (Siripak, 2006). These factors are similar to some of the 'motivators and hygiene' factors in the Herzberg theory. Situational characteristics are taken into account by workers generally when they are going to accept a job offer. Whereas, situational occurrences are factors that are faced by employees after accepting a job, and these might be physical or those which cannot be touched and seen, and constructive or negative (Worrell, 2004). Positive occurrences may involve any good thing, such as getting a long break from work and receiving any incentive; whereas, negative occurrences may include any bad thing, for example out of order apparatus in the workplace or stressed relations with colleagues. Quarstein *et al*. assert that employees' overall job satisfaction is more strongly predicted through combining both situational characteristics and situational occurrences. Oshagbemi (1997:355) highlights that "Quarstein *et al.*'s theory neglects the role of personal factors, such as age and education, in influencing job satisfaction".

There are a number of studies throughout the world from different educational settings, such as schools and universities, that have investigated the factors that affect teachers/faculty members' job satisfaction (Al-Omari, 2008; Bogler, 2001; Cerit, 2009;

Nguni *et al*., 2006; Rahim and Afza, 1993; Seseer, 2007; Siripak, 2006; Webb, 2003; Wetherell, 2002). The studies from different cultural contexts and organisational settings found some different factors which significantly influenced the teachers'/faculty members' job satisfaction. This highlights the significance of culture and context in the study of job satisfaction. Some job satisfaction factors are considered more critical than others in different societal contexts and organisational settings. Giacometti (2005), for example, in the American school setting (an individualistic societal context), highlights that emotional factors, compensation and benefits, cultural shock, induction, mentoring, professional development, administrative support, a positive environment within the institution and student-related issues are the significant factors that affect teachers' job satisfaction. The researchers from more individualistic societies, such as Ingersoll (2001), Luekens *et al*., (2004), Ambrose *et al*. (2005) and Castillo and Cano (2004) from the American school and university context, and Oshagbemi (1997) from the British context support these findings.

These are in contrast to Sharma and Jyoti (2009) from a collective societal context (in Jammu and Kashmir at university level). They explored the factors which affected faculty members' job satisfaction significantly. They found that job-related factors, such as sense of achievement, creativity, autonomy within the job, and being appropriate and ideal for the job, and other factors, for example mentoring, opportunity for higher education, professional development, appreciation and recognition, compensation, issues related with students and colleagues, working environment, and promotion affected faculty members' job satisfaction significantly. Other researchers from more collective societies, such as Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2006) from the Cypriot school context, Karimi (2008) from the Iranian university context, Dusitsutirat (2009) from the Thai university context, Sargent and Hannum (2005) from the Chinese school

context, Toker (2011) from the Turkish university context and Alam *et al*. (2005) and Tasnim (2006) from the Bangladeshi school context support these findings.

2.3 Relationship between Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction in Higher Education

Leary *et al.* (1999) investigated the relationship between leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction in the higher education context of the United States. The study focuses on the college level, and faculty members rated the leadership styles of their leaders and their own job satisfaction. The findings demonstrated that generally there was a statistically significant relationship between leadership styles and the faculty's overall job satisfaction. In detailed findings a stronger relationship was indicated between extrinsic job satisfaction and both dimensions of the leadership - consideration and initiation structure. On the other hand, the study showed a weaker relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and both dimensions of the leadership. Al-Omari (2008) conducted a similar study at university level in the context of Jordan and the findings confirmed Leary *et al.*'s results. Al-Omari argues that the weaker relationship between leadership aspects and the faculty's intrinsic satisfaction within their job is logical, because the factors which cause intrinsic job satisfaction come from inside the person, whereas leadership style is from the outside environment of the individual. In both these studies only two dimensions of the leadership, consideration and initiation structure, were investigated, which is a potential limitation of these studies.

In another study, Seseer (2007) also examined a similar relationship in the Mongolian university context. The results of the study again endorsed the findings of the previous studies through maintaining that there is a strong relationship between faculty job satisfaction and the leadership styles, and faculty members express more job satisfaction

when their leaders are perceived highly in both initiating structure and consideration leadership dimensions. Seseer's study also showed that the financial issues of the universities and behaviours of the leaders are the main factors which contribute to faculty members' job dissatisfaction. The findings, furthermore, highlighted that faculty members want their leader to have professional abilities, excellent communication and managerial expertise, and to treat them fairly, give them respect and involve them in the decision-making process. Klein and Takeda-Tinker (2009) and Mckee (1990) also explored a similar relationship between leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction in the higher education context of the United States and their findings support the above discussed results. The leadership behaviours that are investigated by the above studies are part of the transformational and transactional leadership approach.

2.3.1 Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Job Satisfaction in Higher Education

A great deal of literature on transformational and transactional leadership within the educational setting does not focus on higher education (Bents and Blank, 1997; Bogler, 2001; Fields and Herold, 1997; Barnett and McCormick, 2004; Nguni *et al.,* 2006). There are some studies from different cultural contexts that were carried out in the higher education setting, such as Grosso (2008), Tucker *et al.* (1992), Stumpf (2003), Burns (2007), Levine (2000) and Webb (2003) from the American context, Sung (2007) from the Taiwanese context and Dastoor *et al*. (2003) from the Thai context, which investigated the relationship between leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction. All these studies utilised the transformational and transactional leadership theoretical paradigm to explore the leadership styles. The findings of these studies highlight that generally transformational leadership behavioural characteristics are practised more frequently by leaders as compared to the transactional leadership characteristics, and

laissez-faire leadership behaviour is exercised with least frequency. The findings further show that the transformational leadership style has a positive and stronger relationship with, or accounts for more of the variance in, faculty members' self-perceived job satisfaction as compared to the transactional leadership style. However, Grosso (2008:104) contradicts this and maintains that "the transactional [leadership] behaviours ... did not" have significantly positive relationship with faculty job satisfaction.

The above studies differed in their detailed findings. Stumpf's (2003) study is the most relevant to this present research because the two variables 'leadership style and job satisfaction' are being investigated with the same instruments (MLQ and MCMJSS respectively) in order to examine the relationship between them at university level, as in Stumpf's case. Stumpf, similar to Dastoor *et al*. (2003) and Tucker *et al*. (1992), found that the relationship between the transactional leadership characteristics of the leader and followers' job satisfaction exists to varying degrees. The first two dimensions, contingent reward and management-by-exception (active), of transactional leadership have a positive relationship with followers' job satisfaction, but contingent reward has a stronger relationship as compared to management-by-exception (active). However, the third dimension, management-by-exception (passive), of transactional leadership has a significantly negative relationship with faculty job satisfaction. Similarly, laissez-faire behaviour by the leader was also perceived to have a significantly negative relationship with faculty members' job satisfaction. This means that in Stumpf's study context a leader should not practise the behaviours related to management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire, because these lead the faculty members towards job dissatisfaction.

Tucker *et al.* (1992) found that when the transactional style of the leaders was augmented by the transformational style the followers' perception of being satisfied was more frequent. Moreover, similar to Sung's (2007) findings, the faculty members

working with the leader who was exercising transformational leadership behavioural characteristics showed more satisfaction as compared to the followers whose leader was practicing transactional and laissez-faire leadership behaviour. Tucker *et al.*, therefore, argue that leaders who want to enhance their subordinates' satisfaction should exhibit transformational leadership behaviour. This practice will improve their job relationships with their followers, and in turn will boost the followers' satisfaction. The potential weakness of this study is that some of the leaders were rated by only one or two subordinates. Levine (2000:84) asserts that "transformational leadership is in fact a highly suitable leadership style in educational settings". This claim endorses the findings from studies conducted by Tucker *et al*. (1992) and Roueche *et al*. (1989) regarding the appropriateness and successfulness of transformational leadership in higher education institutions. Grosso (2008) also supports this notion by arguing that if the leaders utilise transformational leadership style, it might encourage an atmosphere of harmony and efficiency to achieve the collective aim or vision, and might offer faculty members an authority to develop and contribute to different plans.

The basic aim of Webb's (2003) study was to find a model comprising joint leadership behaviour linked with transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles to better predict subordinates' job satisfaction as compared to any of these leadership styles alone. The results highlighted that a combined four-factor model, including attributed charisma, individual consideration, contingent reward and laissez-faire, accounts for faculty job satisfaction "slightly better than the transformational model and much better than the transactional or laissez-faire models" (Webb, 2003:89). The above debated studies highlight that there is a relationship between leadership and culture, and leadership practices might vary in different cultural contexts.

2.4 Leadership and Culture

The "concepts, theories and practices in education [are] predominantly embedded in Western philosophy and values" (Shah, 2006b:363) and this applies equally to the notions and theories/models associated to educational leadership (Shah, 2010a; Simkins *et al*., 2003; House, 1995). Whereas, educational "theory and practice are shaped by the values, beliefs, ideologies, behaviour and conventions in [a specific] ...social system" (Shah, 2006b:365). With the increasing recognition of significant interplay between culture and leadership practices (Dimmock, 2002; Dimmock and Walker, 2002a; Hofstede, 2001), "there is a growing awareness of need for a better understanding of the way in which leadership is enacted in various cultures and a need for an empirically grounded theory to explain differential leader behaviour and effectiveness across cultures" (House, 1995:443-444). Consequently, the notion of exercising culture and context informed/specific leadership behaviour is gaining attention by leadership researchers (Dimmock, 2000a; Dimmock and Walker, 2000a and 2005; House and Javidan, 2004; House *et al*., 2004; Shah, 2010a).

There is also increasing concern regarding the extent to which leadership conceptions, theories and models can be used in a certain societal context that were developed in an entirely different cultural context (Simkins *et al*., 2003), because "the context of leadership is [perceived] crucial" in the emerging view of leadership (Simkins, 2005:12). Shah (2006b:364) argues that "the concept of educational leadership varies across societies and cultures [and] different interpretations of leadership reflect the ways of looking at it and the philosophical and theoretical assumption behind them". For example, "the notion of educational leadership in Islam derives from Islamic philosophy of education, and contextual variations of conceptualisation and practice across Muslim

societies involve interpretations informed by an understanding of religious texts, which reinforces the interplay between faith and concepts" (Shah, 2006b:367); whereas, in the Chinese context the concept of leadership is underpinned by the Confucius philosophy or system of social beliefs (Tung, 2003).

In this particular field of leadership and culture House *et al*. (2004) carried out important research. House and associates conducted studies in 62 different societies or cultures across the world to find out how people from various cultures perceive leadership and how the characteristics of a specific culture are linked with culturally endorsed leadership behaviour. In summary, they aimed to determine how cultural differences among different societies influence desirable leadership practices in those societies. Some of their findings are presented here. These researchers found that in Germany, The Netherlands, Switzerland and Austria, an effective leader is perceived as more autonomous, participative, charismatic, and also perceived as moderately humane and team oriented, but also one who is not concerned with status and face-saving because these societies are more performance and future oriented, have more assertiveness, and have less orientation towards humane, institutional collectivism and in-group collectivism (House *et al*., 2004). These societies think an ideal leader should be independent, should involve colleagues in the decision-making process, should inspire and support others through self-sacrifice and keep moral values in view, and should also develop a sense of collective aim among group members, but should not be self-centred (House and Javidan, 2004).

This is in contrast to Middle Eastern countries, which include Egypt, Morocco, Turkey, Kuwait and Qatar, where face-saving, status consciousness, being self-centred and more procedural are significant attributes of an ideal leader (House *et al*., 2004). These societies also give importance to autonomy and familiality for a leader, but in these

cultures being participative, charismatic and team-oriented are less important aspects for an effective leader, because these societies are more oriented towards in-group collectivism, and individuals express faithfulness to and pride in their institutions and families. Further, these societies are less future-oriented and generally importance is given to prevailing issues. Gender discrimination is common and fewer women are in higher positions as compared to men because women are accorded lower status compared to men. In these cultures people place less emphasis on orderliness and policies (House and Javidan, 2004; House *et al*., 2004). These findings endorse the argument, regarding the important nexus between culture and leadership practices, debated in the first paragraph of this section.

There is a great deal of research that has been conducted across the world in different cultural contexts, including both collective and individualistic societies and in different educational settings such as school, college and university in order to determine the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and teachers/faculty job satisfaction. The findings highlight that a relationship exists between transformational and transactional leadership behaviour and teachers/faculty job satisfaction (Al-Omari, 2008; Bogler, 2001; Grosso, 2008; Nguni *et al*., 2006; Stumpf, 2003). However, the degree of the relationships between different transformational and transactional leadership dimensions and job satisfaction vary in different societies because of organisational and societal cultures (Bass, 1997). Various studies debated in the previous section focusing upon transformational and transactional leadership highlight that in different cultural contexts some aspects of these leadership styles are more preferred as compared to others, while some aspects are even not practised in some contexts and are perceived as having a negative influence on job satisfaction (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998; Bass and Avolio, 1993 and 2000; Levine, 2000).

This supports the researchers who advocate the practice of culturally and contextually informed leadership behaviour (Shah, 2006b; Shahin and Wright, 2004; Shaw, 2005).

The review of the literature highlights the importance of culturally informed leadership styles/practices to enhance the faculty job satisfaction, which in turn might be helpful to improve institutional performance and quality. The complex and elusive nature of both, leadership and job satisfaction, the concepts and the significant relationship between them informed the research focus, conceptual framework and research questions of the study, with implications on the research design, discussed in the next chapter, to investigate the issues under study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The research methodology provides the theory of how investigators obtain information in their research settings, as well as offering a justification for the methods through which investigators carry out research activities (Scott and Morrison, 2006). In this chapter, the methodology and research design is discussed, which details the study focus and approach, followed by population and sampling. Further in this chapter, the methods of data collection, procedure, issues of validity and reliability/trustworthiness and the frame for analysis are discussed, before finally highlighting the ethical issues.

3.1 Methodology and Research Design

In social and behavioural science research, there is a long-standing debate regarding the unique nature of the ontological, epistemological and methodological considerations of the interpretive and positivist approaches (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2009; Cohen *et al*., 2007; Fan, 2009; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Morrison, 2007). There are number of methodologists/researchers who describe ontology and epistemology in different ways but the underlying notions are similar (Bryman, 2008; Cohen *et al*., 2007; McKenzie, 1997; Morrison, 2007; Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Ontology is linked to the nature of reality and addresses questions of reality; whereas, epistemology deals with questions about knowledge and how we acquire it. The nature of the topic, the purpose of the study and the issues under investigation, generally determine a researcher's view about the phenomenon under investigation, which influences a researcher's ontological and epistemological decisions. Ontology and epistemology are important concepts to the research endeavour, and they are interlinked notions as the former affects the latter (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Morrison, 2007). These ontological and epistemological decisions may then define methodological considerations and consequently the overall

approach (Fan, 2009; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Morrison, 2007). Research approaches, such as the interpretive and positivist, "represent different ways of looking at social reality and are constructed on correspondingly different ways [for example subjective or objective] of interpreting it" (Cohen *et al*., 2007:7).

Cohen *et al*. (2007:78) suggest that "research design is governed by the notion of 'fitness for purpose' [and that] there is no single blueprint for planning research", which concurs with Bryman's (2008) and Morrison's (2007) suggestion regarding the adaptation of a research design that fits the aim of the investigation. Cohen *et al*. (2007:78) further assert that "the purposes of the research determine the methodology and design of the research". Fraenkel and Wallen also suggest that while making methodological decisions "the important thing is to know what questions can be best addressed by which method or combination of methods" (2003:443) in order to develop a coherent research design. The present study utilises a 'mixed methods approach', with both quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection and analysis "in line with Bryman's call for methodological diversity and the benefit of a multi-method approach to studies of leadership (Bryman, 2004a, cited in Currie and Lockett, 2007:342). The underpinning argument is practicality and the appropriateness of a mixed methods approach for this study (Morrison, 2007). The rationale behind taking the mixed methods approach in conducting the current inquiry is underpinned by two important considerations; first, the philosophical position of the researcher about the issues under investigation and, second, to use the best opportunity to achieve the purpose of the study and to address the planned research questions (Morrison, 2007).

Of the various types of research designs which utilise mixed methods, 'design triangulation', where the researcher simultaneously collects qualitative and quantitative

data, analyses both the data sets separately but concurrently to obtain results, and the researcher then compares and contrasts results and utilizes the findings to see if they authenticate each other (Creswell, 1994), is taken in the present study. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007:62) labelled this design as "the triangulation design" and Creswell (2009:213) named this design as "concurrent triangulation strategy". The aim of the design is "to obtain different but complimentary data on the same topic" (Morse, 1991:122) in order to best understand the research issues. The purpose of adopting this design into this study is to combine the different strengths and to overcome the weaknesses of qualitative and quantitative methods (Creswell, 2009; Patton, 1990). Moreover, the aim of the researcher is to compare and contrast the quantitative results with qualitative findings or to validate results from the quantitative set of data with qualitative set of data (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). The rationale behind taking the chosen model into the study is twofold: first the weight given to the quantitative and qualitative methods is approximately equal, and secondly none of these methods is aimed to inform the other in the present case – opposed to the sequential explanatory and exploratory strategies. Sequential explanatory strategy "is characterised by the collection and analysis of quantitative data in a first phase of research followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data in a second phase that builds on the results of the initial quantitative results" (Creswell (2009:211), or vice-versa in the case of sequential exploratory strategy. Furthermore, the data collection in the concurrent triangulation strategy takes less time as compared to the sequential approaches, which was advantageous to the researcher (Creswell, 2009).

The chosen design "is a one-phase design in which researchers implement the quantitative and qualitative methods during the same timeframe and with equal weight" (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007:63-64). The one-phase timing is the reason this design

is labelled as concurrent triangulation design (Creswell *et al*., 2003). This design "generally involves the concurrent, but separate, collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data so that the researcher may best understand the research problem. The researcher attempts to merge the two data sets, typically by bringing the separate results together in the interpretation" (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007:64). More specifically, the chosen design is the 'convergence model' – one of the triangulation design variant. In the convergence model, "the researcher collects and analyzes quantitative and qualitative data separately on the same phenomenon and then the different results are converged (by comparing and contrasting the different results) during the interpretation" (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007:64). The researchers utilize the convergence model when they are aimed to compare and contrast the results or to validate, confirm or corroborate the results from statistical set of data with findings from qualitative data (Creswell, 2009), which is the focus of the present study. The overall purpose of this model is to provide the valid and well-established conclusions regarding an event (Creswell, 2009).

The researcher collected both the qualitative and quantitative sets of data simultaneously and then compared the findings to see if they validated one another. This chosen model of collecting both the qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously was also informed by the piloting, which was done before conducting the main study. This was carried out on five faculty members selected from the population, who were not included later in the participants of main research. More elements related to the piloting are mentioned in relevant sections. The researcher believes that a mixed methods approach is useful for developing a rigorous and robust account which would add to the credibility of the study because the "combination of methods may facilitate a better understanding of the relationship between variables"

(Morrison, 2007:31), which this study aims to examine. In the following paragraphs, qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches are discussed and the chosen approach is justified.

Qualitative research emphasises the socially constructed nature of truth, the interdependence between the investigator and what is investigated, and the situational constraint which form the investigation. Qualitative research stresses the value-laden nature of the research process and its output. The qualitative researcher looks for answers to issues which emphasise how social events are shaped and given meaning (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998). On the other hand, quantitative research stresses the measurement and analysis of causal relationships among different factors instead of processes. Investigation is conducted in a value-free framework (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998). Furthermore, quantitative research has its basis upon observation, which is changed into discrete units which might be contrasted to other units through utilising statistical analysis; whereas, qualitative research usually analyses the individuals' worlds and behaviours through narrative or descriptive methods, demonstrating the circumstances as experienced by the respondents (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). These two kinds of inquiries are based upon two competing approaches of recognizing the world, and influence the way research data is gathered/generated, such as words versus digits, the viewpoint of the investigator, subjective versus objective, and findings versus verification (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994).

Newman and Benz (1998) argue that qualitative and quantitative kinds of inquiries might not be considered polar opposites or dichotomies; rather, these are present at different ends of the same continuum. The mixed methods approach exists in the centre of this continuum because it involves the features of both the qualitative and

quantitative research; consequently, it offers more credibility to a study as compared to qualitative or quantitative research alone (Creswell, 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). Some researchers criticise the above described dichotomy of qualitative and quantitative traditions by arguing that this over-simplistic view fails to appreciate the complexity of the research process, and the investigators' biases concerning the inappropriateness of research approaches might decrease their flexibility with regard to adapting the different methodological choices (Patton, 2002). Thus, they advocate the use of the mixed methods approach (Creswell, 2009; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

The mixed methods approach has its own philosophical position as well as mode of inquiry. This approach is philosophically more oriented towards pragmatism (Biesta and Burbules, 2003; Bryman, 2006; Maxcy, 2003; Morgan, 2007); however, some proponents of this approach are inclined towards the transformative perspective (Mertens, 2003). Pragmatism is

> a deconstructive paradigm that debunks concepts such as "truth" and "reality" and focuses instead on "what works" as the truth regarding the research questions under investigation. Pragmatism rejects the either/or choices associated with the paradigm wars, advocates for the use of mixed methods in research, and acknowledges that the values of the researcher play a large role in interpretation of results.
>
> (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003:713)

Research questions in this approach guide the inquiry and are addressed with data that is obtained in the forms of both narratives and numbers (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). The mixed methods approach involves the collection/generation and analysis of data, integration of findings, and drawing inferences through the use of both the quantitative

and qualitative modes of inquiry in a single investigation (Tashakkori and Creswell, 2007). This approach involves the use of both quantitative and qualitative modes of inquiry in tandem at various phases of the same investigation to increase the strength of the study than either qualitative or quantitative mode of inquiry; therefore, it is not simply a collection and analysis of two types of data (Creswell, 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003).

There are a number of researchers who discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the positivist, interpretive and mixed methods approaches (Bryman, 2008; Cohen *et al*., 2007; Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Layder, 1994; Morrison, 1998 and 2007; Nesfield-Cookson, 1987). However, keeping in view the relevance and scope of this study, the strengths and limitations of the mixed methods approach are discussed briefly. This approach has strengths, for example, words, narrative, pictures and numbers can be used together to add meaning and precision (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The strengths of both quantitative and qualitative research can be availed of to help overcome the weaknesses of either approach (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morrison, 2007). Mixing methods could support each other, a process known as 'facilitation' (Hammersley, 1995), which enhances triangulation and offers a fuller general research scenario through involving the viewpoints of the insider and outsider (Morrison, 2007). It might offer more credible evidence for inferences by means of the combination and substantiation of findings (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004), and might assist in minimising the issue of generalisability for qualitative research if it is the purpose of the study (Morrison, 2007). This approach has the potential to encourage better links between different levels of analysis and allows appropriate emphases at various phases of the research process (Morrison, 2007). Therefore, it can potentially address a broader and more

comprehensive range of research questions, particularly as it is not limited to a single method (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

In contrast, this approach also has some challenges and weaknesses, which might include that it is expensive, time consuming, requires more effort and is difficult to conduct for a single researcher (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morrison, 2007). Also, the approach raises some questions, such as to what degree can qualitative and quantitative research be combined in reality as they have dissimilar epistemological stances (Morrison, 2007)? Furthermore, is this combination of different enquiry methods more an instance of distinct work proceeding in tandem or is it, in reality, a combination (Morrison, 2007)? Sometimes contradictions occur between results, which can be significant, especially in a case where a set of results obtained from one method of enquiry seems to challenge those obtained from a different method of enquiry (Morrison, 2007).

Some aspects of the mixed methods approach still need to be defined in detail by research methodologists (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Investigators need to have sufficient proficiency in different approaches and know how to combine them properly for the mixed methods approach to be successful (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Scott and Morrison, 2006). This approach also faces criticism by methodological purists who argue that researchers must carry out their research work using one method of inquiry, either qualitative or a quantitative (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

The positivist approach asserts that apprehendable reality exists and can be apprehended, rather that statements that can be 'verified' on sense experience and only be progressed through means of observation and experiment (Cohen *et al*., 2007).

However, Cohen *et al*. (2007) warn that "where positivism is less successful is...in its application to the study of human behaviour where the immense complexity of human nature and the elusive and intangible quality of social phenomena contrast strikingly with the order and regularity of the natural world" (p.11). Although the application of the positivist approach in the social world is challenging, it is appropriate for this study as it aligns well with the first two research questions and the intended quantitative data collection tools. However, the last three research questions seek more detailed personal views and in-depth data. They search for perspectives and opinions requiring a combination with the interpretive approach. Morrison (2007) argues that "for an interpretivist there cannot be an objective reality which exists irrespective of the meanings human beings bring to it (though they may disagree about the extent to which reality is re-constructed by researchers)" (p.27). In this approach knowledge is constructed as personal, subjective and unique, and is created interactively by the research participants (Cohen *et al*., 2007). This approach places emphasis on an explanation and understanding of the unique particular individual case(s). This approach is criticised because of its subjectivity and having no systematic procedure for data interpretation and analysis (Cohen *et al*., 2000), however, in view of the under-explored complexity of the research context and the demands of the specific research questions the two approaches are combined by acknowledging that both search for truth but in different ways and with different aims generating different sets of data (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2003; Morrison, 2007).

The mixed methods approach allows this study to investigate the first two research questions using a quantitative method and last three research questions using a qualitative method of inquiry. Both sets of research questions examine the relationship between the campus principal's and divisional director's leadership style and faculty job

satisfaction, which is the basic aim of the study. This approach allows comparison and contrasting of the findings from both quantitative and qualitative sets of the data, whether they support each other or not, and the development of a more credible argument regarding the inferences of the study.

Generalization "refers to the degree to which the results can be generalized to the wider population, cases or situations" (Cohen *et al*., 2007:136) and is problematical and debatable especially in mixed methods approach. In the case of cross-sectional quantitative research - similar to the quantitative part of this study, "the researcher is usually concerned to be able to say that his or her findings can be generalized beyond the confines of the particular context in which the research was conducted" (Bryman, 2008:156). However, the sample should be as representative as possible in order to make a claim that the findings are not unique to the specific group upon whom the investigation was carried out (Bryman, 2008). Bryman (2008:157) suggests that "we should not make inferences [or generalize] beyond the population from which the sample was selected". In the case of present study, since the whole population is taken as a sample for quantitative part, therefore the quantitative results of the study are generalizable to the whole population.

With reference to the qualitative findings of the current research, "it is often suggested that the scope of the findings of qualitative investigations is restricted... [because] the people who are interviewed in qualitative research are not meant to be representative of a population" (Bryman, 2008:391, see also Bogdan and Bicklen, 1992). The qualitative research findings are to generalize to theory instead to populations because it is the cogency of the theoretical reasoning, rather than statistical criteria, which is critical in taking the qualitative research findings into consideration for generalization (Bryman,

2008; Mitchell, 1983). Schofield (1990) suggests that in qualitative research it is critical to offer a clear, comprehensive and in-depth account so that readers could make a decision regarding the degree to which findings from a study are generalizable to different context - this addresses both the issues of translatability and comparability (see also Lincoln and Guba, 1985:316 and Cohen *et al.*, 2007).

In the current research case, five campuses out of total thirteen units have been selected purposefully, as mentioned in detail in the following section, keeping in view the geographical location. From the five selected campuses fifteen faculty members – three from each campus, who agreed for the interview and were available, are interviewed. Therefore, the findings from the qualitative part are limited to these interviewees from the selected campuses because "the intent of this form of inquiry is not to generalize findings to individuals, sites or places outside of those under study... [and] the value of qualitative research lies in the particular description and themes developed in [specific] context" (Creswell, 2009:192-193). In quantitative research, particularity, instead generalizability is of fundamental importance (Greene and Caracelli, 1997). However, the qualitative findings are aimed to add to the credibility and comprehensiveness of the quantitative findings, and detailed and in-depth description of the qualitative data has been provided for the readers and users of the research to offer them an opportunity to decide to what extent transferability is possible (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:316).

The researcher has been a student and is currently a lecturer in the university which is under study; however, the researcher has no working experience at the university as after selection he was sent for his doctorate. Therefore, the researcher's role, perhaps, is defined in-between the roles of an insider and outsider researchers. Morrison (2007:32) asserts an important notion of 'reflexivity' which "is the process by which researchers

come to understand how they are positioned in relation to the knowledge they are producing". Reflexivity at one point rejects the likelihood of investigators constantly attaining a completely objective perspective with reference to research, as the researchers are part of the social, political and educational worlds which they are investigating. Therefore, with reference to reflexivity, investigators need to take into account "that 'the sense' they make of the world is reflected in, and affected by, the norms and values that have been absorbed as part of life experience" (Morrison, 2007:32). Further, Hammersley and Atkinson (1995:19) argue that one should "abandon the idea that the social character of research can be 'standardised out' or avoided by becoming a 'fly on the wall' or 'full participant'". This argument makes the role of the investigator clearer as a participant in the research process. The researcher agrees with Morrison, and Hammersley and Atkinson, and therefore cannot separate himself, being a social researcher, from the social enquiry (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995); however, at the same time the researcher takes an honest role. As Morrison states, "reflexivity is not exclusive to either positivist or interpretive research" (2007:32). Hence, the researcher recognises that his role as a professional and cultural insider is critical. This self-awareness and positioning in relation to the intended research is empowering for him; being a researcher of educational leadership and management, this empowerment is useful for producing insightful, critical, systematic and skilful accounts (Morrison, 2007). This position allows the researcher reflection and celebration with reference to his/her critical role as contributor and participant in the research process, and in addition it rejects the supremacy of either quantitative or qualitative methods of enquiries (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995: Morrison, 2007).

The quantitative part of the proposed study is a cross-sectional survey and is 'descriptive' and 'analytic' in nature (Cohen *et al*., 2007:207). A co-relational design is

adopted to seek information from the quantitative set of data. A survey is considered a suitable means of gathering data for descriptive and analytic research, as it allows the identification and investigation of relationship patterns between variables (Bryman, 2008; Cohen *et al*., 2007), which this study aims to do in the first two research questions. The chosen design permits for a larger number of participants to be surveyed at a particular point in time (Cohen *et al*., 2007; Gay *et al*., 2006), which facilitates inferential statistics to be conducted in a short period of time and at less cost and effort as compared to either direct observation or interview (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2006). Data analysis also takes comparatively less time in this design (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Moreover, survey design "has the attraction of anonymity, non-traceability and confidentiality for respondents… [however] the individual stance is sacrificed" in it (Cohen *et al*., 2007:207). The survey research is the most frequently used research method in education and this was revealed to be equally true for research related to educational leadership in content analysis, encompassing a period of two years, of *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership* in 2002 (Fogelman and Comber, 2007). The proposed design for the quantitative part of the present research has been adopted by a number of studies which investigated similar conceptual frameworks to those being undertaken in the present study (see Cerit, 2009; Grosso, 2008).

3.1.1 Population and Sampling

The study focuses on seeking perceptions and opinions of the faculty members of a particular university in Pakistan. Pakistani public universities are semi-autonomous, and rules and regulations, procedures and operating systems along with university demographics and regional societal culture, to name but a few, may vary across the universities. These variables define the organisational culture of a university which

might have an effect on faculty job satisfaction and leadership practices, and leaders in different universities may adopt entirely different leadership styles. Therefore, selecting one university in the study, instead of looking at more universities, may avoid blending the effects of different universities' organisational cultures; and, thus, offers more credible results. The sampling strategy should be governed by the criterion of suitability or fitness for purpose. The purpose of the study, time and effort constraints associated with the researcher, the data collection methods, and the research methodology informed the chosen sampling strategies in this study – which might add to the research validity (Cohen *et al*., 2007).

The whole faculty, 287 faculty members - as identified by the central administration office of that university, of the selected university was defined as the sample for the quantitative survey, excluding the five faculty members who participated in piloting. As the whole population is taken as a sample, therefore the question of sampling here has no relevance (Cohen *et al*., 2007:117). The university under study has 10 different sites with 13 different units (10 campuses and three divisions); so, in total there are 13 leaders (campus principals/divisional directors). Bass and Avolio, who are the authors of the MLQ, suggest that "ideally the MLQ should be administered to all of a focal leader's associates [followers]" (2004:14), which this study did. For the qualitative part, out of the total 13 units, five campuses were selected from where 15 faculty members were interviewed - three from each site. The 15 faculty members were interviewed keeping in view the time and effort constraints, and the scope of the study; therefore, selecting five campuses provided an opportunity to generate more detailed data from these sites, instead of taking all 13 units and then interviewing one faculty member from each of the units, which makes the data more trustworthy and meaningful.

The five campuses are selected using the purposive sampling strategy. This sampling strategy is often used in qualitative research to select the individuals, campuses, organizations or documents. The aim of this kind of sampling is to select the sites or participants in a purposeful manner to best understand the social phenomenon (Bryman, 2008). It is a non-probability form of sampling; therefore it does not allow the researcher to generalize to a population (Bryman, 2008; Cohen *et al*., 2007). The total ten campuses of the university under study are located in five different regions of the Punjab province. The five campuses are selected, one from each region, based upon their geographical location to represent each region. The reason behind selecting the five campuses purposefully was that these regions have slightly different societal culture which might have influence on the organisational culture. The organisational culture might influence the practices, such as leadership style and faculty job satisfaction, within a campus. The fifteen faculty members, three from each of these five selected campuses, were interviewed based upon their willingness for interview and availability. This kind of sampling strategy in the literature is termed as convenience sampling and is often used in social research (Bryman, 2008). Convenience sampling involves the participants "who happen to be available and accessible" (Cohen *et al*., 2007, see also Bryman, 2008:183) – as is the case with the interviewees in the present study.

The sample is heterogeneous in terms of gender, age, qualification and experience, and represents all the academic faculty positions, which are lecturer, assistant professor, associate professor and professor (see Appendix D). All the leaders and participants have a working relationship of more than one year in the current campus/division. This might be helpful in producing meaningful data, which consequently might add to the trustworthiness of the data.

3.2 Data Collection Methods

The purpose of the study, the proposed research questions and accordingly the defined approach of the enquiry guided the decision to use the chosen data collection methods. A number of doctoral theses and research articles which investigated a conceptual framework similar to the present study used data collection/generation methods that bear similarities to those being used in this study (Al-Omari, 2008; Cerit, 2009; Grosso, 2008; Kirkbride, 2006). As mentioned earlier, the quantitative section addresses the first two research questions, whereas the qualitative section deals with the last three research questions. This sequence has been observed in data presentation and analysis. The first research question aims to describe the campus principal/divisional director leadership styles, and the second research question seeks to objectively explore the relationship between these leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction; therefore, in order to collect extensive quantitative data two structured questionnaires have been adopted. The main reason that underlies the use of the two self-completion structured questionnaires for the quantitative part of this study was to obtain the wider view of the issues under investigation. The triangulation was another purpose to see whether the wider view and the in-depth sight of the same phenomena under study, obtained through qualitative approach, endorse each other or not to make the findings credible and to develop more robust account. The survey instruments are also aimed to overcome the issue of generalizability associated with the qualitative approach.

The first questionnaire, MLQ Form 5X-Short (see Appendix A), has been used to describe the three specific leadership styles (Avolio and Bass, 1995) detailed in the research questions. This questionnaire allows the quantifying of the extent and pattern of these leadership styles (Bass and Avolio, 1993). The MLQ has been purchased from

Mind Garden Inc. (see Appendix H), which is the copyright holder of the MLQ. This questionnaire is based on the transformational and transactional leadership approach, which underpins the present study. The MLQ not only measures a wide range of leader behaviours, from passive/avoidant to charisma, but it also makes a distinction between efficient and inefficient leadership. The range of leadership behaviours, which the MLQ aims to assess, is much wider than the leadership behaviours that are measured through other questionnaires generally used for this purpose (Bass and Avolio, 2004). It considers the leaders' behaviours, as assessed by the followers, which are responsible for the transformation of the followers and institution along with those leadership characteristics which inspire the followers to attain the defined performance benchmarks (Bass and Avolio, 2004). The MLQ appraises, at its efficient end, such characteristics of the leader which produce maximum development, transformation, inspiration and performance outcomes. The MLQ items which appraise the development facet of transformational leadership involve the assessment of both the personal and intellectual aspects. This end of the full range of leadership styles is labelled transformational leadership. In contention, on the other end, the inefficient end, of the leadership styles continuum, the MLQ measures the behaviour that represent the escape of the leaders from their responsibilities (Bass and Avolio, 2004). This end of the leadership styles continuum is known as laissez-faire leadership.

Bass and Avolio (2004), who are the authors of this questionnaire, claim that the MLQ can be used universally through different cultures. The MLQ provides an opportunity to measure the leadership behaviour of a leader at all levels of the institution from a variety of participants, such as peers (people who are at the same organizational level), subordinates, and those with higher authority than the leader being rated, in addition, the leader can rate him/her as well. In the case of the present study, subordinates

(faculty members) appraised their leaders – campus principals/divisional directors. The MLQ Form 5X-Short contains 45 items which measure nine leadership scales, which include five transformational leadership scales, three transactional leadership scales and one laissez-faire leadership scale, along with three leadership outcome variables, effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction (see Appendix B). These leadership behaviours have been found in previous studies to have strong relationships with both institutional and individual achievement (Bass and Avolio, 2004). The five transformational leadership scales include idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behaviour, inspirational motivation, individual consideration and intellectual stimulation. The three transactional leadership scales include contingent reward, management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive); whereas, a non-leadership scale is described as laissez-faire.

The MLQ Form 5X-Short is the latest version of the MLQ, which was originally composed of six leadership scales and was developed by Bernard Bass in 1985. For the purpose of this study nine leadership scales have been measured through this questionnaire. Therefore, the first 36 items of the MLQ, 4 items for each leadership scale (see Appendix B), have been considered in the current case, excluding the remaining 9 items (from 37 to 45) which measure three leadership outcome variables, effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction, that are not being considered in the present study. Recently, Stumpf (2003) used this instrument in the same arrangement for the same purpose. The four items that are intended to measure a specific leadership scale are highly inter-correlated with each other, but these four items have low correlation with other items of the remaining eight leadership factors (Bass and Avolio, 2004). All the 36 items of the MLQ, which are being taken in the current case, are in the form of short descriptive statements to describe the specific behaviour of the leader. The

participants decide how frequently their leader employs a specific behaviour on a 5-point Likert scale against each statement. These options include '0 (not at all), 1 (once in a while), 2 (sometimes), 3 (fairly often), and 4 (frequently, if not always)'. The form of the MLQ which the present study uses has been utilised by a number of doctoral theses and research articles in the educational setting (Grosso, 2008; Kirkbride, 2006; Levine, 2000; Ozaralli, 2003; Stumpf, 2003; Webb, 2003). For further explanation and information regarding MLQ see Appendices A and B, and Figure 4.1.

The second dimension of the focus of this study is faculty job satisfaction. There are many researchers who have developed different surveys to measure employee job satisfaction. The Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS) developed by Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman, Duncan, and Zaltman (1977), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967), the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969), and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) developed by Spector (1994) are examples of these surveys. Many researchers have also measured teacher/faculty job satisfaction through the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), developed by Avolio and Bass (1995); Grosso (2008), Kirby *et al*. (1992) and Webb (2003) are several examples of these researchers. Although this instrument is mainly used to measure leadership styles, it also measures employee job satisfaction as an outcome variable. There are also many researchers who have developed their own surveys for measuring teacher/faculty job satisfaction; Bogler (2001), Mehrotra (2002), Giacometti (2005) and Heller *et al*. (1993) are some of them. These job satisfaction surveys measure different facets of job satisfaction, and these have been used in numerous studies in the educational setting across different cultures (Spector, 1997). Some of these studies with regard to the specific survey are mentioned here. The MCMJSS has been used by Al-Omari (2008),

Cerit (2009), Karen (1999), Leary *et al*. (1999), McKee (1990), Nestor and Leary (2000) and Stumpf (2003). The MSQ has been used by Newby (1999), Nguni *et al*. (2006), Seseer (2007) and Worrell (2004). The JSS has been used by Wetherell (2002), and the JDI has been used by Rahim and Afza (1993).

The present study uses MCMJSS (see Appendix C) as a second questionnaire to complement the quantitative data collection, along with the MLQ questionnaire, to measure the faculty job satisfaction, as this tool is designed to measure subordinates' self-perceived job satisfaction with a specific focus on leadership styles and both facets (intrinsic and extrinsic) of job satisfaction (Mohrman *et al*., 1977), which aligns with the aims of this study. The MCMJSS is free to use for research purposes and the researcher secured permission from the author of this questionnaire before its use in the study (see Appendix E). Out of a total of eight items, the first four measure intrinsic job satisfaction and the last four measure extrinsic job satisfaction. The response format is made up of a 6-point Likert scale with 1 being the lowest score for job satisfaction and 6 being the highest score for job satisfaction. The intrinsic job satisfaction aspects include self-esteem/self-respect, personal growth and development, achievement, and expectations. The extrinsic job satisfaction facets involve respect and fair treatment, being informed, the amount of supervision by the immediate supervisor/leader, and the opportunity to participate in the determination of methods, procedures and goals of the institution. This instrument has been used in many doctoral theses and research articles in the educational setting (Hebert, 2004; Karen, 1999; McKee, 1990; Nestor and Leary, 2000).

The use of the questionnaire, whether MLQ or MCMJSS, as a research method in this study has some advantages, for example it is inexpensive, quick to administer as compared to observation or interview, allows easy processing and comparison of

answers with the elimination of interviewer effects and variability, and is convenient for the respondents (Bryman, 2008; Cohen *et al*., 2007). However, it also has limitations; for instance there is no opportunity to probe or prompt the respondents or their answers. It is difficult to collect additional data as the respondents cannot be identified. Some other elements are that it may not be appropriate for some types of respondent, there is a loss of spontaneity, there may be variations amongst respondents in the interpretation of answers, a greater risk of missing data and a lower response rate (Bryman, 2008). After carefully considering the strengths and weaknesses, MLQ and MCMJSS were used to collect quantitative data to address the first two research questions.

To address the last three proposed research questions a semi-structured interview schedule has been used to provide insights into how research participants view the world (see Appendix F). Because of a clear focus of the study, semi-structured interview with probes and prompts was seen as appropriate (Bryman, 2004b). Interviewing, however, has several issues, for example it might be expensive in terms of time and effort, is open to interviewer bias, might be inconvenient for some respondents, and the issues of an interviewee's fatigue/bad mood/disinterest could affect the interview (Cohen *et al*., 2007). Yet, it also has many strengths, such as enabling multi-sensory channels to be used (for example, spoken, heard and non-verbal communication – in face-to-face interviewing) to generate in-depth data and give deeper insights into the complexities of the phenomenon through probes and prompts (Cohen *et al*., 2007). Furthermore, it gives control over the order of the interview and research focus, offers spontaneity and provides flexibility so that the interviewer might press not only for comprehensive responses, but also allow the respondents to reply in their own way (Bell, 2008; Cohen *et al*., 2007).

3.3 Procedure

After obtaining written permission from the vice-chancellor to access the research sites and the participants, the researcher obtained a list of the principals/directors and faculty members, along with their contact details such as e-mail address and telephone number, of all the intended research sites from the administration department with the formal written permission of the registrar. In the instruments' administration process the researcher himself visited all the research sites and handed over the research packages to the available participants. The research package contained a request form for participation in the study and two questionnaires. Further, the researcher requested the principals/directors to obtain help from their office assistants in distributing the research packages to those participants who were not available on the day the researcher visited that site. The participants had the option to either hand in the completed questionnaires to the principals/directors' office assistants or return them directly back to the researcher on mutually agreed dates. The principals/directors' office assistants were involved in the administration process in order to maximise the response rate.

From a total of 287 faculty members, 268 received the research packages, excluding the 19 (five who participated in piloting and 14 who were on leave); 228 usable responses were received, which is an 85% response rate. The interviews were conducted telephonically. The participants were requested via e-mail or telephone to participate in the study and the prospective participants were also asked, if they agreed, to specify their desired dates and times for interviews. The researcher himself conducted all the 15 interviews and this offered an opportunity to the researcher to acquire the required information through probes and prompts (Cohen *et al.*, 2007). A separate recording device was used to record the interview, while the interview was conducted on

telephone, through putting the telephone on loudspeaker mode in order to ensure clear and proper recording. The recording files were then copied from recording device to computer where the window media player was used to transcribe them. In order to obtain meaningful data following strategies were used where needed: first the participants were asked to provide explanation/clarification of their brief response – sometimes the question was repeated to provide time to the participant for understanding the question properly and thinking about it. This was aimed at obtaining the detailed data. Secondly, the participants were provided with prompts; however the cues and leading statements were avoided. Finally, to generate in-depth data, 'how' and 'why' questions were asked from the participants in order to obtain the justification, rationale or reasoning behind their responses. This strategy also helped to avoid the issue of acquiescence, as mentioned in the following section.

The criterion used to judge the quality of the data developed through interview accounts is twofold: first the relevance of the data with the pre-defined themes, which are directly related to the research questions and are informed by the literature and the researcher's experience of having studied in Pakistani public universities, and the new themes that emerged from the empirical data in this study. The depth and comprehensiveness of the data is the second aspect of the criterion that has been observed. All the interviews were conducted in the English language which adds to the reliability and validity of the data, because sometimes the meaning of the participants' responses becomes changed in the process of transcribing from the local language to the language of the thesis. The decision of the questionnaires' and interview's language was informed by the piloting study – as at the time of piloting participants felt no difficulty while responding in English language. Although in telephonic interviewing, rather than face-to-face interviewing, both parties are deprived of non-verbal communication, it might save

time, money and effort which are advantageous to the researcher (Cohen *et al*., 2007), particularly when interviewing the participants based overseas.

3.4 Validity and Reliability/Trustworthiness

Validity refers "to judge whether the research accurately describes the phenomenon that it is intended to describe" (Bush, 2007:97); whereas "reliability refers to the consistency of a measure of a concept" (Bryman, 2008:149). To make the research valid and reliable/trustworthy, it is critical to take careful decisions at various stages throughout the study, for example while defining the population and sample, deciding the methods for data collection/generation, using the data analysis frameworks, and the administration of the instrument(s) (Cohen *et al*., 2007). Crucially, validity and reliability in survey research mainly depend on the chosen instrument(s) (Bush, 2007). In this section the validity and reliability/trustworthiness relating to the research instruments will be discussed, whereas how the current study deals with the other points raised above regarding this issue is discussed within their respective sections. Two quantitative questionnaires, the MLQ and the MCMJSS - with a specific focus on leadership and both (intrinsic and extrinsic) aspects of job satisfaction, and a semi-structured interview have been used in this study.

There are various kinds of validity and reliability, and "threats to validity and reliability can never be erased completely; rather the effects of these threats can be attenuated by attention to validity and reliability throughout a piece of research" (Cohen *et al*., 2007:133). In other words, "it is impossible for research to be 100 per cent valid" (Cohen *et al*., 2007:133) and reliable - more specifically the quantitative research because "it possesses a measure of standard error which is inbuilt and which has to be acknowledged" (Cohen *et al*., 2007:133). Therefore, validity should be considered as a

matter of degree instead as an absolute state (Grounlond, 1981). The possible threats to the validity and reliability of the survey data and the strategies used to minimise these risks are discussed here, whereas the issues of validity and reliability related to the interview data and how these are addressed are discussed in the final paragraph of this section.

The well developed, recognised and comprehensive survey instruments have been used to minimise the threats to content and construct validity. The whole population has been taken as a sample, which is reasonable in a sense that it is not too large or too small, to minimise the threat to external validity (Cohen *et al*., 2007). The appropriate sampling also enhances the overall validity and reliability of the survey data (Cohen *et al*., 2007). In order to maintain internal validity appropriate data analysis frameworks have be used and cautious interpretations have been provided. The threat to accuracy, whether the respondents completed the questionnaires accurately and honestly (Belson, 1986) and they have not painted the picture falsely (Cohen *et al*., 2007), has been addressed through triangulation. This means that data has also been generated through interviews, from a small group of respondents taken from those who responded the survey instruments, on the same issues. The findings from this interview data were then used to compare and contrast the results from the survey data to see whether it support or not.

In order to address the issue of 'volunteer bias' (Belson, 1986) or lower response rate, the researcher took various measures. These include, first, the distribution and collection (on mutually agreed dates) of the questionnaires by the researcher himself in all the campuses which provided the researcher an opportunity to request the faculty members personally for the participation in the study. Secondly, reasonable time given to the participants for the questionnaires' completion offered them opportunity to

complete questionnaires at their own convenience in their preferred surroundings and time (Cohen *et al*., 2007). This allowed the participants to think about the responses as well. It was useful instead getting pressure by the respondents of completing the questionnaires in certain time because of the presence of researcher which may lead to completing the questionnaires without thinking (Cohen *et al*., 2007). So, allowing reasonable time to participants might help to obtain valid and reliable data also along with increasing the response rate.

Thirdly, the involvement of the campus principal's and divisional director's office assistant in the administration process, as mentioned in the previous section, was also useful to minimise this issue. The reminder at appropriate intervals given to the respondents was the fourth measure to increase the response rate. This was done personally by the researcher where he had convenient access and where it was difficult because of long travel, this job was done by the campus principal's office assistant. Moreover, phone calls and e-mails were also used for this purpose by the researcher. The features of the questionnaire itself such as easy to complete in shorter time because of its reasonable length and no sensitive questions were also helpful to manage the issues of lower response rate (Cohen *et al*., 2007).

The Cronbach alpha, a measure of reliability as internal consistency, has also been calculated and is presented in the following paragraphs to ensure the reliability of survey instruments (Cohen *et al*., 2007). The misinterpretation of the questionnaires' item statements by the respondents because of the ambiguity and difficulty in understanding them is another threat to the validity and reliability (Cohen *et al*., 2007). The pilot study was conducted to address this issue in which respondents found no

ambiguity and difficulty in understanding the surveys' item statements or interview questions. This added to the overall validity and reliability/credibility of the data.

The MLQ Form 5X-Short (Avolio and Bass, 1995) has been used in extensive educational research including doctoral theses, master dissertations, research projects and research articles to measure the leadership styles in a variety of settings such as schools, colleges and universities (Bass and Avolio, 2004; Lowe and Gardner, 2001; Northouse, 2007 and 2010; Mind Garden Inc., 2011). Bass and Avolio (2004) also establish that the MLQ has been used in different languages across cultures throughout the world at different levels of various organizations, and this practice has continued for more than the last 25 years in over 30 countries (p.12). They further maintain that the MLQ has been used with a broad range of leaders who were rated and raters in terms of gender, qualification, age and work experience. Bass and Avolio (2004) claim that the MLQ has been found, in all these conditions, equally effective, valid and reliable for measuring transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership behaviours. It offers the best validated and reliable, and most appropriate and adequate measures to capture all the aspects of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership (Antonakis *et al.,* 2003; Grosso, 2008; Hinkin and Schriesheim, 2008; Mind Garden Inc., 2011; Muenjohn and Armstrong, 2008). Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008) conducted a reliability check for the MLQ and the Cronbach's Alpha value was 0.86. Reliability for this instrument, as reported by Bass and Avolio (2004) in the MLQ manual, ranges from 0.70 to 0.83 for the nine leadership scales. The rater in this case is at a lower organisational level than the focal leader, which is the case in the present study. Reliability of the MLQ has also been calculated in the present study and the Cronbach's Alpha value was 0.93.

The MCMJSS (Mohrman *et al*., 1977) has been widely used in doctoral theses and research articles in educational settings (Al-Omari, 2008; Cerit, 2009; Hardman, 1996; Leary *et al*., 1999; Proffit, 1990; Stumpf, 2003); this indicates the acceptable validity and reliability of this instrument. In a study of teachers' participation in a decision-making process conducted by Mohrman *et al*. (1978), the reliability coefficient for intrinsic satisfaction was established at 0.86 and the reliability coefficient for extrinsic satisfaction was established at 0.71. Reliability on the intrinsic scale ranged from 0.81 to 0.87, and the extrinsic scale reliability ranged from 0.77 to 0.83 (Al-Omari, 2008; McKee, 1990; Mohrman *et al*., 1977; Proffit, 1990). In recent evidence, Cerit (2009:609-610) confirms the validity and reliability of MCMJSS:

> Factor analysis was applied to the job satisfaction questionnaire for structure validity… [as a result] load values of the items of intrinsic satisfaction factor ranged from 0.721 to 0.773 and that of extrinsic satisfaction factor from 0.764 to 0.775. Internal consistency was measured by using Cronbach alpha coefficient and the alpha was 0.83 for intrinsic satisfaction, 0.84 for extrinsic satisfaction and 0.89 for the whole questionnaire [overall job satisfaction]. It was also found that the item-total correlation of the job satisfaction questionnaire ranged from 0.62 to 0.69. Therefore, the internal consistency of the survey instrument was reliable at an acceptable level.

Reliability of the MCMJSS has also been checked in the current study and the Cronbach's Alpha value for the intrinsic aspect of job satisfaction was 0.84, whereas for the extrinsic aspect it was 0.83 and for overall job satisfaction reliability value was 0.89. As the reliability values for both the questionnaires, MLQ and MCMJSS, are more than

or equal to '0.70 threshold', this shows a satisfactory statistical testing level (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010:126; Nunnally, 1967; see also Cohen *et al.*, 2007:506).

In qualitative research, researchers prefer to use the term 'trustworthiness', rather than reliability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), as it "can be regarded as a fit between what researchers record as data and what actually occurs in the natural setting that is being researched, i.e. a degree of accuracy and comprehensiveness of coverage" (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992:48, cited in Cohen *et al.*, 2007:149). It might include "fidelity to real life, context-and situation-specificity, authenticity, comprehensiveness, detail, honesty, depth of response and meaningfulness to the respondents" (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:149). It is believed that the semi-structured interview has generated comprehensive and in-depth data. Respondent validation and 'inter-coder agreement' (or cross-checking) have been used to increase trustworthiness (Anfara *et al.*, 2002; Creswell, 2009). Further, to manage the issue of acquiescence, 'why' and 'how' questions were asked, and to avoid the researcher bias, leading questions and cues have been avoided (Creswell, 2009).

3.5 Frame for Analysis

Data collection/generation methods, the purpose of the study, the planned research questions and a defined approach of the study guide defining the frame for analysis. There are many studies, similar to the present case, which have investigated the relationship between leadership styles and teachers/faculty job satisfaction. These studies have also used data collection methods similar to the methods used in the quantitative part of the present study. These studies have employed frames for analysis as have been adopted for the quantitative set of data of the present study (see Al-Omari, 2008; Cerit, 2009; Grosso, 2008; Karen, 1999; Leary *et al.*, 1999; Levine, 2000; Nestor and Leary, 2000; Newby, 1999; Stumpf, 2003; Webb, 2003). For question one,

descriptive statistics (measure of central tendency - mean, and measure of variability - standard deviation) along with the MLQ scoring key have been used to describe nine dimensions of the three specific leadership styles. These nine dimensions have then been used to describe three leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) - as measured by the MLQ. One-sample *t*-test (1-tailed) has been used to determine whether the difference between the practices of these three leadership styles is statistically significant or not.

With regard to faculty self-perceived job satisfaction (as measured by the MCMJSS), similar descriptive techniques (mean and standard deviation) have been used to examine and establish intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction scores, as well as an overall job satisfaction score. These measures have been used to analyse research question two. Furthermore, multiple regression analysis has been employed to test research question 2 (a, b & c) to determine if there is a significant relationship, with an Alpha level set at 0.001, between the three leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and faculty job satisfaction (extrinsic, intrinsic and overall). A multiple regression analysis is an appropriate technique for measuring the relationship between more than one independent variables and a dependent variable (Cohen *et al*., 2007; Pallant, 2007; Pavkov and Piece, 1997), as is the case in the present study, where the three leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) are independent variables and the faculty job satisfaction (extrinsic, intrinsic and overall) is a dependent variable.

In this study, the multiple regression analysis has a threefold use: firstly, to predict and weight the relationship between three *explanatory* - independent - variables (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles) and an *explained* - dependent - variable (extrinsic, intrinsic and overall job satisfaction), instead of

analysing the one-by-one relationship between the three leadership styles and the three measures of faculty job satisfaction, for which linear regression analysis is used (Cohen *et al*., 2007; Carver and Nash; 2005). Secondly, it enables to calculate the relative weightings of the independent variables on a dependent variable simultaneously; however, each of the independent variables has its own separate and distinct Beta (β) weighting in relation to the dependent variable (Cohen *et al*., 2007:540-541; Carver and Nash; 2005). Finally, multiple regression analysis is an inferential statistic which measures the 'statistical significant relationship' and allows researchers to make inferences about a population based on findings from a sample (Cohen *et al*., 2007: Fraenkel and Wallen, 2006). Thus, it does not just describe the relationship as the descriptive statistics, for example 'Pearson r' or 'Spearman's rho', do (Cohen *et al*., 2007). The descriptive and inferential analyses have been performed through the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) - version 18.0.

Regarding qualitative data, different authors discuss various classifications and ways to analyse such data (Bryman, 2008; Cohen *et al*., 2007; Watling and James, 2007), and there is no standard approach to analysis (Riessman, 2008). Therefore, following Cohen *et al*.'s (2007) advice of 'fitness for purpose' the qualitative set of data has been analysed through 'thematic analysis' (Bryman, 2008), instead of open coding "that involves exploring the data and identifying units of analysis to code for meanings" which then leads towards the emergence of themes (Cohen *et al*., 2007:493). Thematic analysis aligns better with the purpose of the inquiry as the data generated through semi-structured interview is under pre-defined broader themes in line with the objectives and research questions of the present study. These themes are enlightened by a wider literature review and the personal experience of having studied in Pakistani public universities. The proposed frame has been useful for exploring the similarities

and differences across the participants' responses, in order to organize, conclude and report the main content and message of the data under pre-defined themes, and add any new themes and sub-themes as they emerge from the empirical data (Bryman, 2008; Cohen *et al*., 2007).

3.6 Ethical Issues

Ethical issues vary across studies depending upon the nature of the issues explored by social researchers and the method/s they employ to collect/generate credible data. Many authors have identified several issues that researchers should address whilst conducting research (Bryman, 2008; Busher and James, 2007; Cohen *et al*., 2007; Creswell, 2009; ESRC, 2005). Informed consent, access to the participants and research site, anonymity, confidentiality and responsibilities to the participants are some of these issues (BERA, 2011; University of Leicester, 2008).

As mentioned in the procedure, in the present research prior approval from the gatekeepers, who are the vice-chancellor, campus principals and divisional directors, was sought and received in order to access the research sites and the participants. To deal with the informed consent issue a request form (see Appendix G) for participation in the study was enclosed in the research package along with the questionnaires and an anonymous envelope; whereas for interview purposes the participants were contacted through e-mail or telephone. The interviewees were informed of their right to quit the interview at any stage without explaining the reason for doing so. To ensure anonymity the participants were asked not to write their own, their leaders' or their campus/division's name either on the questionnaires or on the envelope while returning. The authorities and participants were assured that their data will be kept confidential,

will only be accessed possibly by the supervisors/examiners other than the researcher and will only be used for academic purposes.

In conclusion, the study adopted a mixed methods approach, and all the 287 faculty members, excluding the five who participated in the piloting, of a Pakistani public university were included in the sample to collect quantitative data through two questionnaires (MLQ and MCMJSS), whereas to generate qualitative data 15 faculty members were interviewed through the semi-structured interview. Simple linear regression analysis along with descriptive techniques (percentage, frequency distribution, mean and standard deviation) have been utilised to analyse the quantitative data; whereas, to analyse the qualitative set of data thematic analysis has been used.

Chapter 4: Quantitative Data Presentation, Findings and Discussion

This chapter presents the quantitative data and the research findings drawn from the quantitative set of data, followed by discussion (comparing and contrasting the present study's findings with previous research findings) with reference to the first two research questions posed earlier. To serve this purpose, the conceptual framework introduced in the first chapter, the literature review and the methodology chapter will be used. In-depth analysis and synthesis will be offered in Chapter 6. The quantitative data collected by the two questionnaires, detailed in Chapter 3, with specific focus on seeking information regarding the first two research questions and related findings are organised under two main headings: leadership styles, and the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction. The quantitative data presented throughout the chapter is based upon 228 responses.

4.1 Leadership Styles

In this section, the data collected in response to the MLQ Form 5X-Short is presented to address the *first research question*. The mean and standard deviation, descriptive statistics, have been used to define the leadership styles of the campus principals/divisional directors of a public university in Pakistan. The faculty members' perception of their leaders' styles is presented at the leadership dimension and leadership style level. The presentation of data in this part is informed by the conceptual framework presented in figure 4.1, explaining how many dimensions each of the three leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) have, and how many and which MLQ items constitute and measure each leadership dimension. Appendix B explains which specific item numbers of the original MLQ Form 5X-Short constitute a particular leadership dimension.

Figure 4.1: Conceptual Framework: Mapping of Nine Dimensions of the Three Chosen Leadership Styles

------------------------MLQ Item Level--, -------Leadership Dimension Level-------, ---Leadership Style Level

Instils pride in me for being associated with him/her
Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group
Acts in ways that builds my respect
Displays a sense of power and confidence

→ Idealized Influence (attributed)

Talks about their most important values and beliefs
Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose
Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions
Emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission

→ Idealized Influence (behaviour)

Talks optimistically about the future
Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished
Articulates a compelling vision of the future
Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved

→ Inspirational Motivation

→ Transformational Leadership

Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate
Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems
Gets me to look at problems from many different angles
Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments

→ Intellectual Stimulation

Spends time teaching and coaching
Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group
Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others
Helps me to develop my strengths

→ Individual Consideration

Provide me with assistance in exchange of my efforts
Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets
Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved
Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations

→ Contingent Reward

Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards
Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures
Keeps track of all mistakes
Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards

→ Management-by-Exception (active)

→ Transactional Leadership

Fails to interfere until problems become serious
Waits for things to go wrong before taking action
Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it"
Demonstrate that problem must become chronic before taking action

→ Management-by-Exception (Passive)

Avoids getting involved when important issues arise
Is absent when needed
Avoids making decisions
Delays responding to urgent questions

→ Laissez-Faire Leadership

100

4.1.1 Leadership Dimension and Leadership Style Level

The descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) of the three leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and their nine dimensions are presented in table 4.1. The mean score presented for each leadership style represents the aggregate mean for each respective leadership dimension. Table 4.1 shows that the mean score of the transformational leadership style is 2.49 (0.68 standard deviation) which is numerically higher than that of the transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. On the other hand, laissez-faire style has relatively the lowest mean score of 2.00 (0.98). The mean score of transactional leadership style is 2.37 (0.57) which lies between the mean scores of the transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles. Based on the descriptive statistics, it can be argued that according to the perceptions of the participants a transformational leadership style is comparatively more likely to be practised by the leaders of a public university in Pakistan than is a transactional leadership style. The laissez-faire leadership style, on the other hand, is the least exercised by the leaders of a public university in Pakistan.

Table 4.1: Faculty Members' Perception of their Leader's Leadership Styles: Means, Standard Deviations (SD), and Dimensions' Reliabilities (α).

Leadership Styles, Leadership Dimensions and their Component Items	Mean	SD	α
Transformational Leadership Style	**2.49**	**.68**	
1. Idealized Influence (Attributed)	**2.48**	**.80**	**.75**
Instils pride in me for being associated with him/her	2.36	1.09	
Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	2.34	1.12	
Acts in ways that builds my respect	2.35	1.05	
Displays a sense of power and confidence	2.79	.98	
2. Idealized Influence (Behaviour)	**2.56**	**.70**	**.67**
Talks about their most important values and beliefs	2.50	1.01	
Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	2.62	.97	
Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	2.48	1.01	
Emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission	2.51	.99	
3. Inspirational Motivation	**2.63**	**.74**	**.75**
Talks optimistically about the future	2.61	1.03	
Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	2.65	.96	
Articulates a compelling vision of the future	2.50	.94	
Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	2.66	1.02	
4. Intellectual Stimulation	**2.41**	**.83**	**.76**
Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	2.36	1.00	
Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	2.44	1.04	
Gets me to look at problems from many different angles	2.31	1.10	
Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	2.44	1.16	
5. Individual Consideration	**2.34**	**.85**	**.71**
Spends time teaching and coaching	2.32	1.20	
Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group	2.37	1.17	
Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	2.19	1.10	
Helps me to develop my strengths	2.39	1.18	
Transactional Leadership Style	**2.37**	**.57**	
1. Contingent Reward	**2.42**	**.75**	**.76**
Provide me with assistance in exchange of my efforts	2.25	.96	
Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	2.43	.94	
Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	2.33	.99	
Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations	2.56	1.09	
2. Management-by-Exception (Active)	**2.56**	**.67**	**.64**
Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	2.64	1.01	
Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	2.64	.94	
Keeps track of all mistakes	2.46	.94	
Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards	2.39	.98	
3. Management-by-Exception (Passive)	**2.18**	**.81**	**.65**
Fails to interfere until problems become serious	2.10	1.22	
Waits for things to go wrong before taking action	2.05	1.24	
Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it"	2.28	1.01	
Demonstrate that problem must become chronic before taking action	2.18	1.16	
Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	**2.00**	**.98**	**.75**
Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	1.99	1.27	
Is absent when needed	1.78	1.30	
Avoids making decisions	1.97	1.34	
Delays responding to urgent questions	2.14	1.25	

On examining the difference between the practices of the three leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire), see table 4.2, no statistically significant difference between the degrees of practice of transformational and transactional leadership styles was found. However, the difference between the degrees of transformational and laissez-faire leadership practice, and transactional and laissez-faire leadership practice is statistically significant.

Table 4.2: Difference between the Practices of Three Chosen Leadership Styles

Difference Between…	Mean (SD)	Mean Difference	*t* test statistics	
			t	Sig. (1-tailed)
Transformational Leadership Style & Transactional Leadership Style	2.49 (.68) 2.37 (.57)	.12	2.58	.005
Transformational Leadership Style & Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	2.49 (.68) 2.00 (.98)	.49	10.82	.000
Transactional Leadership Style & Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	2.37 (.57) 2.00 (.98)	.37	9.74	.000

In order to attain a deep insight into the practice of three leadership styles, a mean comparison of leadership dimensions within each leadership style and between the three leadership styles is presented in figure 4.2. The data reveal that within the transformational leadership style 'inspirational motivation' (mean: 2.63), 'idealised influence' both behaviour (mean: 2.56) and attributed (mean: 2.48) dimensions are relatively more practised by the leaders of a public university in Pakistan as compared to 'intellectual stimulation' (mean: 2.41) and 'individual consideration' (mean: 2.34).

Figure 4.2: Faculty Members' Perception of Leadership Dimensions: Mean Values

-------------Transformational-------------, -----Transactional-------, Laissez-Faire
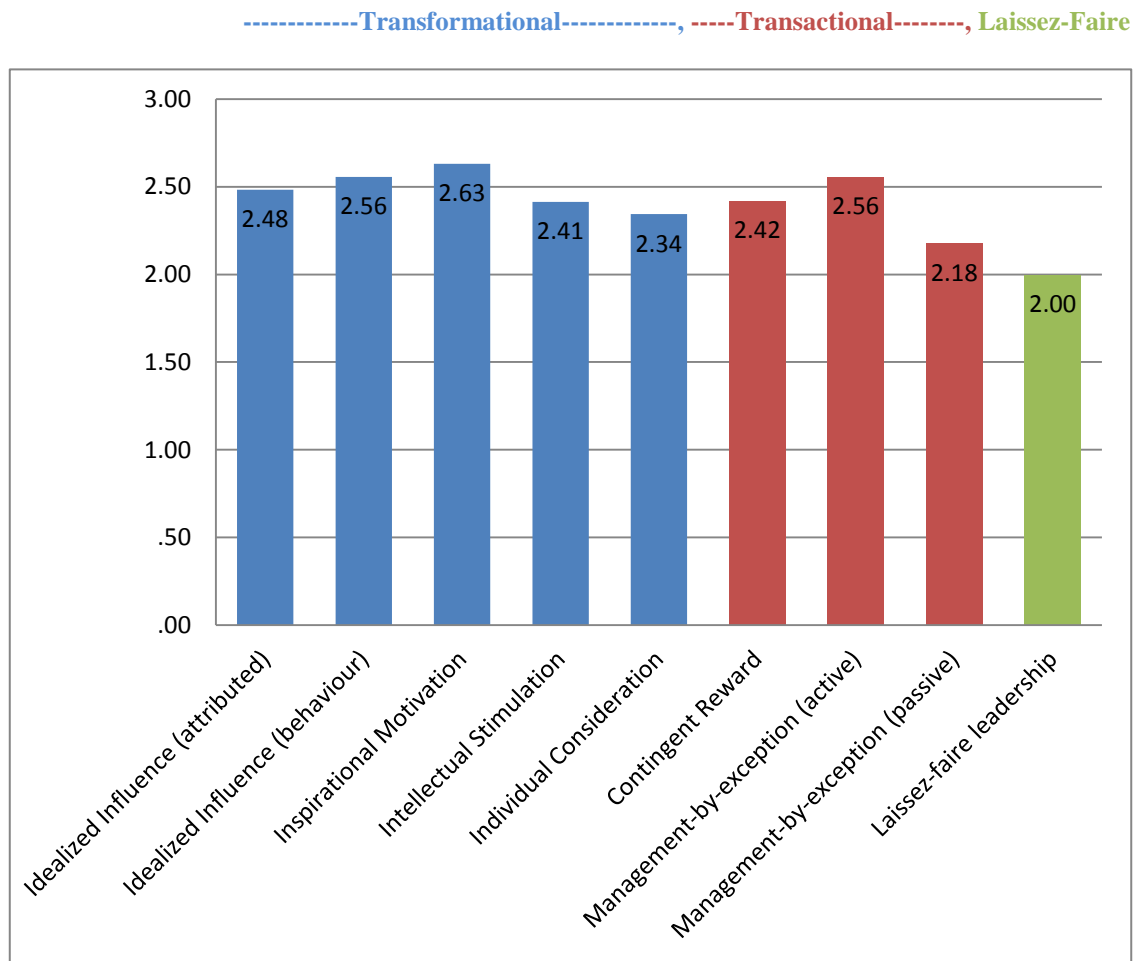
In the case of transactional leadership style, the data show that 'management-by-exception' (active) is a more exercised dimension with a mean of 2.56, followed by 'contingent reward' (mean 2.42), whereas 'management-by-exception' (passive) is the least contributing dimension with mean 2.18 in this leadership style. The 'laissez-faire' leadership style has only one dimension having a mean score of 2.00. From another perspective, in comparison to all nine dimensions of the three leadership styles, inspirational motivation with the highest mean is the key leadership dimension practised by the leaders in a public university in Pakistan. Idealised influence (behaviour) and management-by-exception (active) dimensions also play a pivotal role in shaping the leadership style of Pakistani public university leaders. On the other hand, the laissez-

faire leadership aspect, with the lowest mean score, is the least exercised. The next section provides discussion regarding these findings.

The descriptive statistics (mean) of the nine dimensions of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles, obtained in the present study, will be compared and contrasted with the international MLQ (5X-Short rater form – lower level) norms (descriptive statistics - mean) for the United States, Europe, Oceania (Australia, New Zealand and the Pacific Islands) and South Africa, which are provided by Bass and Avolio (2004). Moreover, an overall comparison of the three leadership styles, transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire, in terms of their practise in a public university in Pakistan and in the United States, Europe, Oceania (Australia, New Zealand and the Pacific Islands) and South Africa will also be provided. In all of these cases respondents are at a lower organizational/institutional level than the person they are rating.

Table 4.3 shows that the findings from this study in Pakistan for transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership dimensions, in terms of their practise by the leaders, *in general* follow a similar trend to those established norms for the MLQ within the United States, Europe, Oceania (Australia, New Zealand and Pacific Islands) and South Africa provided by Bass and Avolio (2004). The data highlight the trend that transformational leadership dimensions are practised relatively more, followed by the transactional and laissez-faire leadership dimensions in all these Western countries, similar to the present study. However, on comparing the results of the present study with the established norms for the MLQ within the United States, Europe, Oceania (Australia, New Zealand and Pacific Islands) and South Africa provided by Bass and Avolio (2004), the perceived mean values for transformational leadership dimensions

for Pakistan are less than the MLQ established norms for all the above mentioned Western cases.

Table 4.3: MLQ (5X-Short Rater Form – Lower Level) Mean Comparison: Present Study and US, Europe, Oceania (Australia, New Zealand and Pacific Islands) and South Africa Norms

	II(A)	II(B)	IM	IS	IC	TfLS	CR	MBEA	MBEP	TsLS	LF
Present Study (N: 228)	2.48	2.56	2.63	2.41	2.34	2.49	2.42	2.56	2.18	2.37	2.00
US Norms (N: 4,376)	2.93	2.73	2.97	2.76	2.78	2.83	2.84	1.67	1.02	1.84	0.66
Europe Norms (N: 3,061)	2.72	2.69	2.83	2.82	2.66	2.74	2.77	2.33	1.10	2.06	0.79
Oceania Norms (N: 4,376)	2.94	2.86	3.05	2.88	2.85	2.92	2.88	1.78	1.07	1.91	0.70
South Africa Norms (N: 2,245)	2.88	2.76	2.88	2.71	2.58	2.76	2.80	2.37	1.14	2.10	0.83

II(A)   Idealized Influence (Attributed)
II(B)   Idealized Influence (Behaviour)
IM   Inspirational Motivation
IS   Intellectual Stimulation
IC   Individual Consideration
TfLS   Transformational Leadership Style
CR   Contingent Reward
MBEA Management-By-Exception (Active)
MBEP Management-By-Exception (Passive)
TsLS   Transactional Leadership Style
LF   Laissez-Faire

Whereas, the mean scores of the transactional and laissez-faire leadership dimensions for all these Western countries are comparatively less than those for Pakistan, with the exception of the contingent reward dimension which has a higher mean score than Pakistan. This can lead to the conclusions that overall the transformational leadership style is practised relatively more in the United States, Europe, Oceania (Australia, New Zealand and Pacific Islands) and South Africa, whilst the transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles are practised more in a public university in Pakistan.

The findings of the present study with reference to the first research question, apart from the international MLQ (5X-Short rater form - lower level) norms (descriptive

statistics - mean) for the United States, Europe, Oceania (Australia, New Zealand and the Pacific Islands) and South Africa, provided by Bass and Avolio (2004), are also consistent with many other studies from educational settings. These studies come from several different countries, such as Bragg (2008), Grosso (2008), Kirby *et al.* (1992), Levine (2000), Moore and Rudd (2006), Stumpf (2003) and Webb (2003) from the United States, Dastoor *et al.* (2003) from Thailand, Nguni *et al.* (2006) from Tanzania, Bogler (2001) from Israel, and Bodla and Nawaz (2010) from Pakistan. These studies broadly agree with the findings from the present study, as they highlight the trend that in general the transformational leadership dimensions are practised more in comparison to the transactional leadership dimensions; the laissez-faire aspect is the least practised by the leaders. This might lead to the inference that the transformational leadership style, overall across the countries, is the most practised style among leaders, followed by the transactional leadership style; whereas, the laissez-faire leadership style is the least practised by leaders. These findings are also consistent with the findings of a cross-cultural study by Ardichvili and Kuchinke (2002) from Russia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Germany and the US in business settings.

Looking at this from a different perspective, some researchers (Bass, 1999; Bass *et al.*, 1996; Eagly *et al.*, 2003) note that female leaders have higher scores for transformational leadership and lower scores for transactional leadership as compared to male leaders, "and to some degree this is accompanied by greater satisfaction and rated effectiveness according to both male and female subordinates" (Bass, 1999:17, see also Bass and Avolio, 2004). In the present study, however, this relationship is not being explored. The next section presents statistical findings, focusing on research question 2, with regard to the relationship between the faculty-perceived transformational,

transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and the faculty members' self-perceived job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic and overall) in a public university of Pakistan.

4.2 Relationship between Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction

Research Question 2 (a, b & c)

The Mohrman-Cook-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS) (see Appendix C), which measures faculty job satisfaction, was used along with the MLQ Form 5X-Short to collect data to measure the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction. The descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) of faculty job satisfaction are presented in table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Faculty Members' Self-Perceived Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction	Mean	Std. Deviation
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	4.01	.94
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	3.85	.95
Overall Job Satisfaction	**3.91**	**.87**

The table shows that faculty members are more satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their job as compared to the extrinsic, which is consistent with the previous research findings (Bogler, 2001:676; Dinham and Scott, 1998:375); however the main focus of the study is to analyse the relationship between leadership styles and the faculty's job satisfaction.

The descriptive statistics of three leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) - presented in table 4.1, together with descriptive statistics of the intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction have been used to perform multiple regression analysis to address research question 2 (a, b & c). This analysis technique has been

utilised to find the relationship between the three leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and the faculty's intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction. Prior to running this procedure, all the four assumptions - *Normality, Zero mean, Homogeneity of variance*, and *Independence* - (Carver and Nash, 2005:178) of multiple regression analysis were checked and found to be satisfied. This ensures that the estimates and results of the multiple regression analysis are unbiased and otherwise reliable and can be used for consequent decisions (Carver and Nash, 2005).

The three leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) represent independent (predictor) variables; whereas, the job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic and overall) is the dependent (criterion) variable. Multiple regression analysis explains or predicts variation in a dependent variable because of the independent variables which is assessed using the coefficient of determination known as 'adjusted R square'(Carver and Nash, 2005:166; Cohen *et al*., 2007:540). The larger the coefficient, the larger the effect of the independent variables upon the dependent variable. Generally in social sciences an alpha level of 0.05 or 0.01 is used as levels of significance, which represents that results are at 95% and at 99% confidence level respectively (Carver and Nash, 2005; Cohen *et al*., 2007:517). However, in the present study an alpha level of 0.001 has been set as the level of significance, which means that the results of the study are at a 99.9% confidence level. The reason underpinning the use of this high level of significance is to obtain statistically more accurate results and to increase the credibility of the study. The alpha level or significance level is also called the *p*(probability)-value, a term which will be used in this study.

The output of the multiple regression analysis to address the research question 2 (a, b & c) is presented in tables 4.5-4.7. The second column in these tables shows the adjusted

R square (also called the coefficient of determination) instead of an unadjusted R square; this is because the adjusted R square is considered as more accurate and therefore its use is advocated (Cohen *et al*., 2007:538). The adjusted R square represents "how much variance in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variable[s] in the calculation" (Cohen *et al*., 2007:538), which indicates the degree of "goodness of fit" (Carver and Nash, 2005:166). The R square can range from 0.000 to 1.000, with 1.000 showing a perfect fit that indicates that each point is on the line (Carver and Nash, 2005:167). The next two columns in tables 4.5-4.7 show, respectively, the *F* test statistics and their corresponding *p*-values denoted by 'sig.', which indicates whether or not the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable is statistically significant (Cohen *et al*., 2007:540). Based on this significance a decision can be made as to whether or not it is appropriate to continue with the analysis (Cohen *et al*., 2007). The tables 4.5-4.7, furthermore, provide the coefficient Beta (β) weighting – which "allow[s] …to compare the relative importance of each independent variable" (Carver and Nash, 2005:198) rather than "independent of each other" (Cohen *et al*., 2007:540). These tables also provide *t* test statistics and their corresponding *p*-values, which determine whether the coefficient Beta (β) is statistically significant or not (Carver and Nash, 2005; Cohen *et al*., 2007).

Research Question 2 (a)

The output of multiple regression analysis to address research question 2 (a) is presented in table 4.5. The data indicate that the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles accounts for 24% of the variance in intrinsic job satisfaction (adjusted R square 0.24). The *F* test statistics for the adjusted R square is 24.32 and the associated *p*-value is 0.000. It indicates that $p < 0.001$; therefore, a statistically significant relationship exists between intrinsic job satisfaction and the

transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles at the 99.9%
confidence level. It is important, however, to note that this relationship is 'modest'
(Muijs, 2004:165).

Table 4.5: Relationship between the Faculty's Intrinsic Job Satisfaction and the Transformational,
Transactional and Laissez-Faire Leadership Styles

	Adjusted R Square	F test statistics	
		F	Sig.
Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	0.24	24.32	0.000
	Beta (β)	t test statistics	
		t	Sig.
Transformational Leadership Style	0.57	5.80	0.000
Transactional Leadership Style	-0.12	-1.12	0.266
Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	0.09	1.34	0.181

As mentioned earlier, it is essential to point out here that the Beta (β) weighting for the
three independent variables (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership
styles) are calculated *relative* to each other instead independent of each other.
Therefore, relative to each other, the transformational leadership style has the stronger
positive effect on the intrinsic job satisfaction (β = 0.57), and that this is statistically
significant at the 99.9% confidence level because the t test statistics for the Beta is 5.80
and the associated p-value (0.000) is less than 0.001. The transactional leadership style
has a negative effect on the intrinsic job satisfaction (β = -0.12), but that this is
statistically insignificant as the t test statistics for the Beta is -1.12 and the associated p-
value is 0.266, which shows that $p > 0.001$. The laissez-faire leadership style has a
positive effect on the intrinsic job satisfaction (β = 0.09), however this is not statistically

significant since the *t* test statistics for the Beta is 1.34 and the associated *p*-value is 0.181, which is greater than 0.001.

Research Question 2 (b)

As presented in the table (4.6), the data show that the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles accounts for 38% of the variance in extrinsic job satisfaction (adjusted R square 0.38). The *F* test statistics for the adjusted R square is 46.31 and the associated *p*-value is 0.000. It validates that $p < 0.001$; therefore, a statistically significant relationship exists between extrinsic job satisfaction and the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles at the 99.9% confidence level. It is important, however, to highlight that this relationship is 'moderate' (Muijs, 2004:165).

Table 4.6: Relationship between the Faculty's Extrinsic Job Satisfaction and the Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-Faire Leadership Styles

	Adjusted R Square	*F* test statistics	
		F	Sig.
Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	0.38	46.31	0.000
	Beta (β)	*t* test statistics	
		t	Sig.
Transformational Leadership Style	0.68	7.59	0.000
Transactional Leadership Style	-0.09	-0.93	0.354
Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	0.08	1.28	0.203

The transformational leadership style, in relation to the other two leadership styles, has the stronger positive effect on the extrinsic job satisfaction (β = 0.68), and that this is statistically significant at the 99.9% confidence level since the *t* test statistics for the

Beta is 7.59 and the associated *p*-value is 0.000, which verifies that $p < 0.001$. The transactional leadership style has a negative effect on the extrinsic job satisfaction (β = -0.09), however this is not statistically significant as the *t* test statistics for the Beta is -0.93 and the associated *p*-value is 0.354, which is greater than 0.001. The laissez-faire leadership style has a positive effect on the extrinsic job satisfaction (β = 0.08), but that this is statistically insignificant for the reason that the *t* test statistics for the Beta is 1.28 and the associated *p*-value is 0.203, which highlights that $p > 0.001$.

Research Question 2 (c)

Statistical data for research question 2 (c) is presented in the table 4.7. The data highlight that the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles accounts for 36% of the variance in overall job satisfaction (adjusted R square 0.36). The *F* test statistics for the adjusted R square is 44.04 and the associated *p*-value is 0.000. It substantiates that *p* is less than 0.001; therefore, a statistically significant relationship exists between overall job satisfaction and the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles at the 99.9% confidence level. It is important, however, to signify that this relationship is 'moderate' (Muijs, 2004:165).

Table 4.7: Relationship between the Faculty's Overall Job Satisfaction and the Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-Faire Leadership Styles

	Adjusted R Square	*F* test statistics	
		F	Sig.
Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	0.36	44.04	0.000
	Beta (β)	*t* test statistics	
		t	Sig.
Transformational Leadership Style	0.68	7.60	0.000
Transactional Leadership Style	-0.12	-1.19	0.234
Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	0.10	1.52	0.129

The transformational leadership style, relatively, has the stronger positive effect on the overall job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.68$), and that this is statistically significant at the 99.9% confidence level because the t test statistics for the Beta is 7.60 and the associated p-value is 0.000, which validates that $p < 0.001$. The transactional leadership style has a negative effect on the overall job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.12$), but that this is statistically insignificant as the t test statistics for the Beta is -1.19 and the associated p-value (0.234) is greater than 0.001. The laissez-faire leadership style has a positive effect on the overall job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.10$), however this is not statistically significant in view of the fact that the t test statistics for the Beta is 1.52 and the associated p-value is 0.129, which confirms that $p > 0.001$.

In conclusion, the quantitative data indicate significant relationships between the group of independent variables (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles) and the faculty's intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction. However, the group of independent variables has slightly stronger relationship with extrinsic job satisfaction as compared to overall job satisfaction, and the relationship of independent variables with intrinsic job satisfaction is relatively least strong. The transformational leadership style, in relation to the other two independent variables (transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles), has a strong positive and statistically significant effect on faculty's intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction. Whereas, the laissez-faire leadership style, relatively, has weak positive and statistically insignificant effect on faculty's intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction. The transactional leadership style, on the other hand, has comparatively weak negative and statistically insignificant effect on faculty's intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction. Discussion regarding these findings is offered in the following section.

In order to analyse the relationships between the department heads' leadership styles and the faculty's intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction at the university level, Al-Omari (2008) selected faculty members to determine their leader's leadership style/s and their own intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction. The results of Al-Omari's study are similar to those in the current study. In both cases, leadership style has been found to have a statistically significant relationship with the faculty's extrinsic job satisfaction and overall job satisfaction. As in the current study, the relationship between leadership style and the faculty's intrinsic job satisfaction in Al-Omari's case is statistically significant, but not as strong as the relationships between leadership style and the faculty's extrinsic job satisfaction and overall job satisfaction. Mckee (1990) also examines the relationship between leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction in the higher education context. However, unlike the results of the present study and Al-Omari's study, Mckee found that leadership styles have approximately similar statistically significant relationships with the faculty's intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction. In the current study, the less strong relationship between leadership style and the faculty's intrinsic job satisfaction is logical. Intrinsic job satisfaction means that "the degree to which a respondent feels satisfied is determined by internally motivated factors" (Al-Omari, 2008:118). Since the internal factors come from within the individual, the external leadership behaviours in the case of the current study, therefore, have less effect on the intrinsic job satisfaction of the faculty than on the faculty's extrinsic job satisfaction.

The results of the current study are also consistent with the findings of Leary *et al.* (1999). These researchers investigate the relationship between the leadership styles of the deans and departmental chairs and their subordinate faculty members' job satisfaction in the context of higher education. They reveal that, similar to the current

study, a significant relationship exists between leadership styles and the faculty's extrinsic job satisfaction and overall job satisfaction. Like the present study, the relationship between leadership styles and the faculty's intrinsic job satisfaction is statistically significant, but less strong than the relationships between leadership styles and the faculty's extrinsic and overall job satisfaction. Similarly, there are a number of studies from educational contexts which support the results of the current study (Cerit, 2009; Karen, 1999).

In a recent study, Grosso (2008) explores the relationship between job satisfaction and leadership styles, similar to the present study, in the higher education context. In this study the transformational and transactional leadership theoretical frame is used to identify leadership styles. Grosso finds that, like the present study, there is a significantly positive relationship between the transformational leadership style and faculty job satisfaction. The difference between the two studies is that in the present case the relationship between the transactional leadership style and faculty job satisfaction is insignificantly negative, whereas in the Grosso's study this relationship is insignificantly positive.

Tucker *et al*. (1992) and Nguni *et al*. (2006) examine the relationship between leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction in educational settings; however, Nguni *et al*. focus on school settings, whereas Tucker *et al*. conduct their study in the higher educational context. These researchers use the transformational and transactional leadership framework to determine leadership styles. In both these cases, similar to the present study, the transformational leadership style is found to have a statistically significant and positive relationship with faculty job satisfaction. The transactional leadership style in these two studies has also significantly positive relationship with

faculty job satisfaction, but this relationship in the present case is insignificantly negative. Levine (2000) also explores a similar relationship between transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and job satisfaction in the higher education context. Levine's findings state that the transformational leadership style, like the present study, has a significantly positive relationship with job satisfaction. The transactional leadership style also has a positive and significant relationship with job satisfaction, whilst in the current study this relationship is negative but insignificant. The laissez-faire leadership style in the present study has the positive and insignificant relationship with job satisfaction; whereas, in the case of Levine (2000:73) this relationship is found to be significantly negative.

The pattern of the findings revealed by Tucker *et al*. (1992), Nguni *et al*. (2006) and Levine (2000) is substantiated by meta-analyses of the literature. Lowe *et al*. (1996) and Dumdum *et al*. (2002), in their meta-analyses of the literature, found that irrespective of the method (subjective or objective) used to measure the followers' satisfaction, and also without taking into account the level of the leader within the institution, transformational leadership behaviours, relatively, have more positive impact on the followers' satisfaction; this is in agreement with the current study. The transactional leadership characteristics also have positive effect on followers' job satisfaction – but this effect is relatively less positive as compared to transformational impact; however this effect in the present case is insignificantly negative. They further maintain in their meta-analyses that the laissez-faire, in comparison to transformational and transactional, has a least positive impact on the followers' satisfaction, whilst in the current study this effect is insignificantly positive.

In the university context, Dastoor *et al*. (2003) examine the relationship between the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction. They found that the transformational leadership style is positively and significantly related to faculty job satisfaction, which is similar to the findings of the present study. The findings of Dastoor *et al*.'s study also slightly differ from this study's findings. In the current case the transactional leadership style has insignificantly negative relationship with faculty job satisfaction; whereas, in Dastoor *et al*.'s study the two dimensions, contingent reward and management-by-exception (active), of the transactional leadership style are positively and significantly related to faculty job satisfaction and the third dimension, management-by-exception (passive), of this style has insignificantly negative relationship with faculty job satisfaction. The laissez-faire leadership style in Dastoor *et al*.'s study has a strong negative relationship with the faculty members' job satisfaction; whereas, in the current study the laissez-faire leadership style has an insignificantly positive relationship with faculty job satisfaction.

Webb (2003) explores the relationship between the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles of leaders and faculty job satisfaction in the higher educational context. In the findings of the current study, the transformational leadership style has a significantly positive relationship with faculty job satisfaction, which is consistent with the respective findings of Webb's study; however, there are several differences as well. In the present case, the transactional leadership style has insignificantly negative relationship with faculty job satisfaction. Whereas, Webb's study highlights that all three of the transactional leadership style dimensions demonstrate different types of relationship with faculty job satisfaction. The first dimension of contingent reward demonstrates a positive and significant relationship with faculty job satisfaction, whilst the second dimension management-by-exception

(active) exhibits a strong negative relationship with faculty job satisfaction, and the third dimension management-by-exception (passive) has also a negative but insignificant relationship with faculty job satisfaction. Finally, in Webb's study, the laissez-faire leadership has a significantly negative relationship with faculty job satisfaction; whereas, in the current study this relationship is positive but insignificant.

In another study, Stumpf (2003) investigates the relationship between leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction in the higher education context. She uses the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles framework to measure leadership behaviours. Stumpf's results indicate that, similar to the findings of the current study, the transformational leadership style has significantly positive relationship with faculty job satisfaction. Stumpf's study has also number of differences with the present study; the transactional leadership style in the current study has insignificantly negative relationship with faculty job satisfaction. Whereas in Stumpf's case, the first dimension, contingent reward, of the transactional leadership style has a strong positive relationship with the faculty members' job satisfaction, the second dimension, management-by-exception (active), of this style also has a positive but insignificant relationship with faculty job satisfaction, whereas the last dimension, management-by-exception (passive), of this style has significantly negative relationship with the faculty members' job satisfaction. The laissez-faire leadership style, in Stumpf's case, has significantly negative relationship with the faculty job satisfaction; whilst in the present study this relationship is an insignificantly positive.

In conclusion, the above discussion highlights that the findings from the current study with reference to the second research question have some similarities and differences with the results obtained from previous studies in educational settings carried out in

different cultural contexts throughout the world. The findings of these previous studies, similar to the present study, *in general* indicate that there is a relationship between leadership styles and teacher/faculty job satisfaction; however, the nature and degree of this relationship vary with regards to the specific leadership style/s and particular context (Allen, 1996; Al-Omari, 2008; Altman, 2002; Atwater and Bass, 1994; Avolio *et al*., 1999; Bass, 1997; Bass and Avolio, 2000; Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999; Belcher, 1996; Bogler, 1999 and 2001; Dinham and Scott, 2000; Evans, 1999; Falah, 1999; Grosso, 2008; Hilosky and Watwood, 1997; Karen, 1999; Kirby *et al*., 1992; Koh *et al*., 1995; Leary *et al*., 1999; Leithwood *et al*., 1996; Lowe *et al*., 1996; Madlock, 2008; NFER, 2001; Nguni *et al*., 2006; Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006; Roberts, 2001; Rossmiller, 1992; Smallwood, 2008; Stumpf, 2003; Yukl, 2002).

There are many other studies from different educational levels, such as school, college and university, conducted in various cultural contexts across the world which highlight that the group of transformational leadership behaviours, like the present study, has a positive and relatively stronger relationship with the teacher/faculty job satisfaction (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985 and 1998; Bass and Avolio, 1993; Bogler, 2001; Bragg, 2008; Bycio *et al*., 1995; Kirby *et al*., 1992; Stumpf, 2003). In the current study, the group of transactional leadership behaviours has insignificantly negative relationship with faculty job satisfaction. Whereas, in most of the previous studies the transactional leadership behaviours have a significantly positive relationship with the teacher/faculty members' job satisfaction; but this relationship is not as strong as in the case of transformational leadership style (Tucker *et al*., 1992; Nguni *et al*., 2006; Levine, 2000; Lowe *et al*., 1996; Dumdum *et al*., 2002). However, in some of the previous studies this relationship is insignificantly positive (Grosso, 2008). This relationship further varies in

its nature and degree at the dimension level of transactional leadership style, as highlighted in the above discussion.

Furthermore, in the present study the laissez-faire style has an insignificantly positive relationship with faculty job satisfaction. Some of the previous studies have found that the laissez-faire leadership style has a positive but statistically insignificant relationship with the faculty members' job satisfaction (Levine, 2000), which corresponds with the current study. However, most of prior research demonstrates that the laissez-faire style has a negative influence on job satisfaction (Bass and Avolio, 2000 and 2004; Gaspar, 1992; Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Kirby *et al*., 1992; Stumpf, 2003), which is contrary to the findings from this study in Pakistan.

The findings from the quantitative part of the present study suggest that an increased practice of transformational leadership behaviours could enable leaders to enhance the faculty members' job satisfaction. Satisfied faculty members are more likely to perform better and, in turn, they might contribute to an improvement in the quality and performance of the concerned educational institution (Chen and Silverthorne, 2005; Woods, 2007). Satisfaction within a job might also increase the faculty members' propensity to remain in that specific job (Rahim and Afza, 1993).

Chapter 5: Qualitative Data Presentation, Findings and Discussion

This chapter presents the qualitative data and the related research findings followed by discussion (comparing and contrasting the present study's findings with previous research findings) with regards to the last three research questions as presented in the first chapter. This discussion will be supported by various research studies drawn from diverse cultural contexts and educational settings encompassing different educational levels (school, college and university); however, a point to be noted is that almost all of these studies have been carried out quantitatively. In-depth analysis and synthesis of the different sets of data/findings will be provided in the next chapter.

The qualitative data was generated by semi-structured interview (see Appendix F), which explicitly addressed the last three research questions using six open-ended questions. Research question three is focused on faculty job satisfaction and the extent to which it is influenced by the leader, which is debated next. The findings unveiled by the question items investigating research questions four and five will be discussed in the subsequent sections in this chapter.

In order to address the third research question, the participants were asked to identify significant elements of their job satisfaction, before enquiries were made into which significant elements of their job satisfaction were influenced by the leader, and which significant elements of their job satisfaction were not influenced by the leader. This helped to generate rich and in-depth data which were collated under two headings: significant elements of faculty job satisfaction and faculty job satisfaction elements influenced/not influenced by the leader.

5.1 Significant Elements of Faculty Job Satisfaction

The data generated in response to the first question of the semi-structured interview, 'What are the significant elements of job satisfaction for you as a faculty member in a public university of Pakistan?,' revealed an array of significant elements. These factors are grouped under the following six themes: institutional factors, leader-related factors, colleague-related factors, student-related factors, personal factors and job-related factors, as presented in figure 5.1.

Institutional Factors

Working conditions and facilities, institutional policies and operating procedures, communication within the institution, compensation, institutional vision, personal and professional development and promotion, and social environment.

Colleague-Related Factors

Relationships with colleagues and administrative staff, respect and appreciation/recognition from colleagues, cooperation from colleagues and their moral values, and attitude of colleagues.

Personal Factors

Faculty members' personal interest, sense of achievement, living away from family because of job, and family's liking or disliking of the job.

Faculty's Job Satisfaction

Student-Related Factors

Relationships with students, respect and recognition/appreciation from students, performance of students, cooperation from students, and students' competence and their interest in the study.

Leader-Related Factors

Leadership style or attitude and behaviour of the leader, sincerity and honesty of the leader towards institution and facilities and standards provision by the leader, good relationship and trust between the leader and faculty, decision making process, authority and responsibility, guidance, supervision and mentoring, recognition, appreciation, enthusiasm and respect from the leader, discouragement, motivation/de-motivation and interruption, transparency, and moral values.

Job-Related Factors

Social status associated with being in a particular job, stress in the job and independence in work, job nature or job security, long distance commute, workload and the nature of the assignments/tasks.
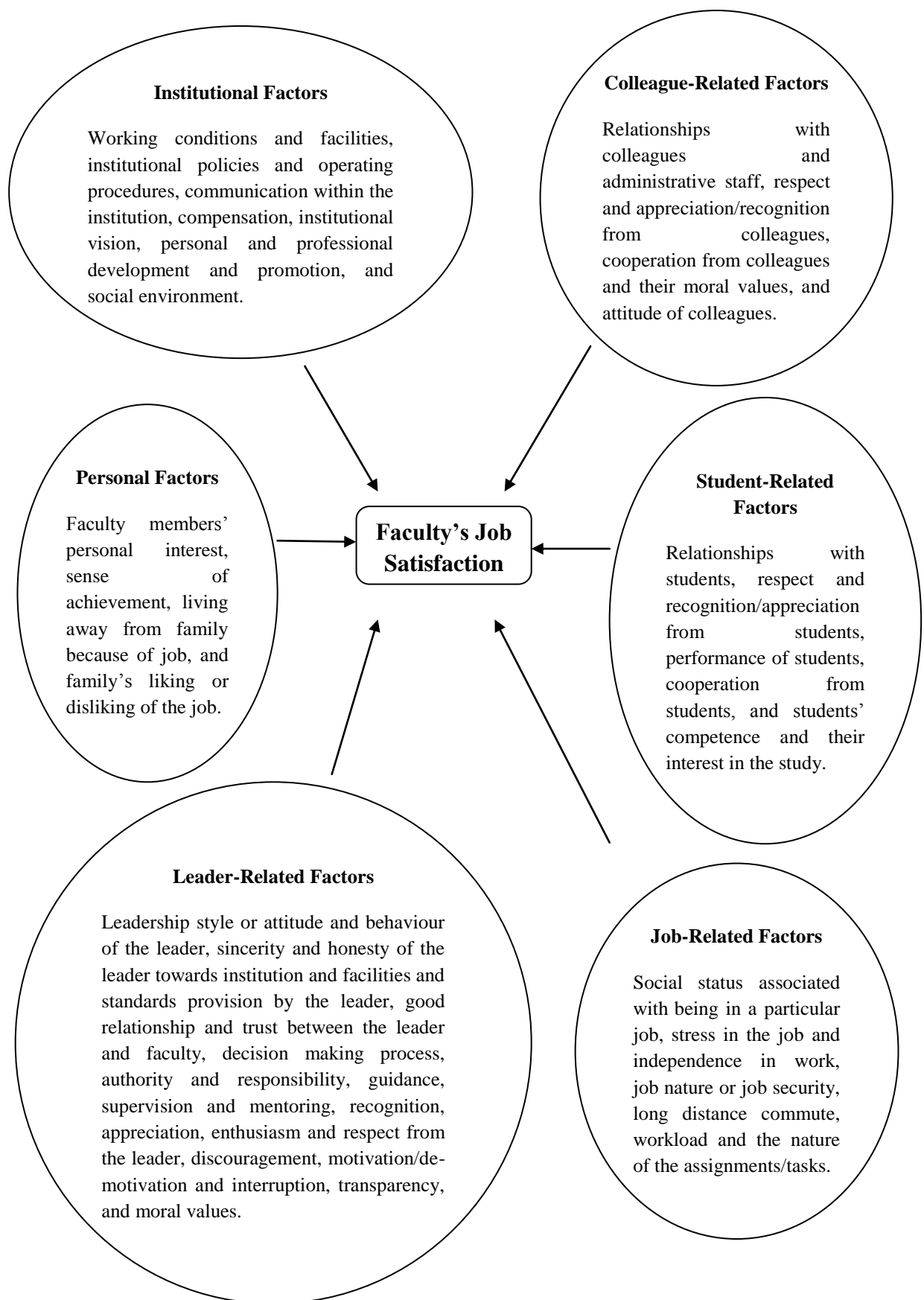
Figure 5.1: Summary of Factors which Influence the Faculty Job Satisfaction Significantly

124

5.1.1 Institutional Factors

The data evidenced that all fifteen of the respondents considered the institutional factors as significant in contributing to their satisfaction within their jobs. Under this theme, faculty members highlighted certain factors as more significant. These factors included working conditions or working environment and facilities, institutional policies and operating procedures, communication within the institution, compensation against the job done, institutional vision, personal and professional development and promotion, and social environment.

Working Conditions and Facilities

Most participants maintained that the working conditions and facilities, provided by the institution to the faculty members to perform their jobs, played a vital role in their job satisfaction. The respondents further argued that if working conditions and facilities were not appropriate, this might affect their job satisfaction negatively. Twelve out of the fifteen interviewees asserted that good working conditions or a congenial environment and proper provision of facilities for executing their assigned job enhanced their job satisfaction, as one of the respondents stated:

> *[A] congenial environment within the institution enhance the...job satisfaction of the faculty. Working conditions affect the job satisfaction...of the faculty because in good working conditions faculty members complete their assignments in better way and they feel more satisfied. (Respondent (R)14)*

The negative effect of bad working conditions was acknowledged by another respondent in the following way:

In bad working conditions, things become problematic and lead towards job dissatisfaction. (R15)

Regarding the impact of facilities, which could help the faculty members to perform their jobs better, leading to job satisfaction, one of the respondents said:

Proper provision of facilities...by the university for job [execution]...is most significant element for job satisfaction of faculty. These facilities may include office facilities...other facilities like stationary, AV [audio visual] aids etc. (R13&3)

Concerning the same issue another participant stated:

Lack of office facilities and teaching resources affect the faculty job satisfaction negatively. (R11)

An interesting and distinctive point about the 'research facilities' was raised by one respondent, which resonated with the recent developments in the Pakistani public sector universities where the main criterion for the promotion of a faculty member to the next academic position is a certain number of publications:

Provision of the facilities for research has a significant effect on the faculty job satisfaction. (R13)

Institutional Policies and Operating Procedures

The majority of the respondents emphasized that favourable institutional policies, their proper implementation, and reasonable operating procedures within the institution contributed towards faculty members' satisfaction with their job, as articulated by an interviewee:

Institutional policies, ...the way these are implemented [and] other operating
procedures within the institution have significant effect upon the faculty job
satisfaction. (R13)

Regarding the positive effect of favourable operating procedures and policies within the institution one participant maintained:

Good operating procedures, policies and implementation of these policies within
institution affect the job satisfaction of faculty positively. (R7)

Communication within the Institution

The research findings revealed that the majority of the participants believed that good formal communication within the institution had a positive effect upon their job satisfaction:

Good communication within the institution [and] clear and proper
communication between the leader and the faculty affects the job satisfaction of
...faculty members significantly and positively. (R7&8)

Compensation

Thirteen out of the fifteen respondents asserted that rewards, which included attractive salary packages along with benefits, must be at an optimum level because these were perceived as enhancing the faculty members' job satisfaction as reflected in the statements of these respondents:

I think salary is also [a] significant factor for the job satisfaction of faculty
members when they have kids. (R1) Reasonable compensation is very important

to support family and to develop professionally… [or] to build professional capacity. (R14)

The participants also pointed out that unfair reward caused job dissatisfaction among those who felt they were being treated unfairly, as is evident from the following response:

Unfair distribution of compensation - salary and other benefits, might cause job dissatisfaction. (R9)

Institutional Vision

One participant mentioned institutional vision as a significant factor which might affect faculty job satisfaction, claiming that:

Future plan of the institution affects my job satisfaction significantly. (R2)

Personal and Professional Development and Promotion

Another important finding revealed by the data relates to the provision of opportunities for promotion and the personal and professional development of the faculty members. This issue, although only raised by five of the respondents, seemed to be an important factor with implications for the faculty members' job satisfaction - as reflected in the participants' responses.

Availability of opportunities for carrier growth and for higher education [PhD or post-doctorate] - to develop personal and professional capacity of faculty is [a] significant factor for faculty job satisfaction. (R12&13)

Social Environment

Finally, under the theme of institutional factors, the social environment has been identified as one of the main elements that had a significant effect upon faculty job satisfaction. This factor, although highlighted by only two of the respondents, is justifiable as an essential aspect for faculty job satisfaction because a healthy social environment might enhance job satisfaction among faculty members, as stated by these respondents:

> *Conducive and friendly social environment is an important factor for faculty members' satisfaction within their job. (R3&10)*

There are a number of studies, conducted in various cultural contexts and at different educational levels (school, college and university), that found most of these institutional factors significant for teacher/faculty job satisfaction (Alam *et al*., 2005; Castillo and Cano, 2004; Heller *et al*., 1993; Karimi, 2008; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Nestor and Leary, 2000; Schneider, 2003; Stumpf, 2003; Toker, 2011; Webb, 2003). For example Santhapparaj and Alam (2005:72) pointed out that "pay, promotion, working condition and support of research have significant effect on job satisfaction", while a lack of proper promotion and conducive policies cause job dissatisfaction (Oshagbemi, 1997:357; Tasnim, 2006; Sharma and Jyoti, 2009; Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2006; Sargent and Hannum, 2005). Santhapparaj and Alam (2005:72) show that unreasonable "fringe benefits and support of teaching have [a] negative effect" on faculty job satisfaction. Regarding compensation, similar to the current study, Dusitsutirat (2009:1097) argues that "the university administrators have to be fair on payment for teacher's teaching hour... [and] if the university delivers a good welfare, teachers will satisfy with [their] current job status". Personal and professional development and the

social environment are also highlighted as important factors in faculty job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001; Giacometti, 2005; Hugick and Leonard, 1991; Luekens *et al*., 2004). 'Institutional vision', on the other hand, has been found to be a unique significant element of faculty job satisfaction in the Pakistani context, which has not been shown in the previous research referred to in this study.

5.1.2 Leader-Related Factors

All the fifteen respondents claimed that the leader, the leader's leadership style and other factors related to the leader were more important than any other factor for the faculty members' job satisfaction. The participants highlighted a number of factors under the theme of 'leader-related factors' which in their view might affect faculty members' job satisfaction significantly. These factors included the leadership style or attitude and behaviour of the leader, sincerity and honesty of the leader towards the institution and the facilities and standards provision by the leader, a good relationship and trust between the leader and faculty, the decision making process, authority and responsibility, guidance, supervision and mentoring, recognition, appreciation, enthusiasm and respect from the leader, discouragement, motivation/de-motivation and interruption, transparency, and moral values.

Leadership Style or Attitude and Behaviour of the Leader

All the respondents acknowledged the importance of the leader's style of leadership or their attitude and behaviour as a key factor in satisfying the faculty members within their jobs, as reflected in these quotes:

> *For me the most important and crucial factor which significantly might affect*
>
> *my job satisfaction is leadership style or attitude and behaviour of the leader;*

[these behaviours might] include appreciation from the leader at the completion of assignment, when leader calls me to participate in the decision making process, when he/she gives me authority and place confidence upon me that I am responsible for certain task, and the way he/she guides and supervises me. (R1)

Regarding the positive and negative effects of the good or bad attitude of the leader upon faculty members' job satisfaction the respondents said that:

If there is bad attitude of the leader then it affects the job satisfaction badly [and] good attitude of the leader might be a source of satisfaction. (R8&14)

Sincerity and Honesty of the Leader towards the Institution and the Facilitates and Standards Provision by the Leader

The data revealed that the sincerity and honesty of the leader towards the institution was a significant factor for faculty job satisfaction. Similarly, facilities and working standards for performing a job provided by the leader were also considered to be important elements of faculty members' job satisfaction:

Sincerity and honesty of the leader towards [the] institution affect the faculty job satisfaction significantly. If the leader is not sincere to the institution he cannot do anything beneficial for the institution, for colleagues and for students. ...[in fact the] leader has to provide you facilities, the working environment and all the [other working] standards which could affect the [faculty] job satisfaction, ...disinterest of the leader cause[s] dissatisfaction among the faculty members. (R2)

Good Relationship and Trust between the Leader and Faculty

Twelve out of the fifteen respondents maintained that a good and trustworthy relationship between the leader and the faculty members was important for the job satisfaction of the faculty members:

> *If [the] relationship with the leader is [a] good and trustworthy one, [then] it enhances the...job satisfaction of the faculty. (R14)*

One participant emphasized the significance of trust between the leader and faculty members in the following way:

> *Trust between faculty and the leader is an important factor for the faculty job satisfaction. (R5)*

Decision Making Process

The large majority of the participants claimed that the faculty's participation in the decision making process caused an increase in their job satisfaction. They argued that when the faculty members were given a chance to provide input in the process of decision making, and if their opinions were valued, then they felt more satisfaction with their jobs:

> *Leader's invitation to share in the decision making process...where we [faculty members] have our own perceptions about different issues...[and where] we can give our opinions; and if our opinion is valued, ...it is a great source of satisfaction for us [within our job]. (R12)*

Authority and Responsibility

The respondents considered the leader's sharing of authority and responsibility with the faculty as a source of satisfaction for them within their jobs:

> *When leader gives me authority and place confidence upon me that I am responsible for any task, it is a source of satisfaction [for me] within the job. (R1)*

Guidance, Supervision and Mentoring

The data also revealed that guidance, mentoring (personal and professional development) and supervision provided by the leader to the faculty members played an important role in their job satisfaction:

> *The way [the] leader guides and supervises me is a significant factor for my job satisfaction. (R1)*

Another respondent remarked:

> *When leader develops me personally and professionally, it provides me great satisfaction within my job. (R13)*

Recognition, Appreciation, Enthusiasm and Respect from the Leader

The participants broadly agreed that acknowledgement and admiration of faculty members' achievements increased their job satisfaction:

> *Recognition and appreciation from the leader is a source of motivation and honour to me and [because of it] I might perform better for the university [and] it also helps me to do something extra for the university. (R13)*

Enthusiasm and respect from the leader also emerged as significant factors affecting faculty job satisfaction:

Enthusiasm and respect from leader increase the self confidence of the faculty and they then perform [their] job more confidently and effectively. (R7&11)

The element of respect was further emphasised by another participant in a different way, arguing that:

No respect from the leader might be a source of my job dissatisfaction. (R9)

Discouragement, Motivation/De-motivation and Interruption

The data showed that motivation from the leader led the faculty members towards satisfaction within their jobs. The data also revealed that discouragement, de-motivation and interruption from the leader had a negative impact upon faculty job satisfaction, as highlighted by a participant:

Discouragement from the leader, hurdles from the leader [while] ...doing any good job, and de-motivation from the leader reduce faculty satisfaction within the job. (R13)

And another respondent commented:

Undue interruption in the work from the leader is a significant source of dissatisfaction for me in my job. (R10)

Transparency

Many participants raised the issue of transparency, that is if the leader treated the whole faculty fairly this would enhance their job satisfaction; whereas, if the leader treated the faculty members unfairly it affected their job satisfaction negatively:

> *Fair treatment in the assignment of tasks (work load) is a source of job satisfaction. (R14)*

And:

> *Unfair treatment by the leader with faculty members [regarding work load] causes job dissatisfaction. (R9)*

Moral Values

Most participants agreed that the moral values of the leader not only affected the faculty's job satisfaction but also might affect the students and the whole academic environment in a positive or negative way:

> *High moral values of the leader are critical for faculty job satisfaction and it develop [sic] trust between faculty and the leader, if moral values of the leader are weak then the faculty remains dissatisfied, in tension and [it] causes conflicts during job (R5), [and] ...because of this I can leave the job. (R10)*

Regarding the spectrum of the effects of the leader's moral values and leader's conduct as a role model, participants remarked:

> *Ethical values or moral standards maintained by the leader affect the whole environment of the department...[including] all the faculty and other staff and*

students (R11); ...leader should be an example to be followed...[because]

followers inculcate leader's behaviours in them as they see in their leader. (R12)

One of the participants described his/her experience of weak moral values and the misuse of authority by a leader and their adverse effects in the following way:

Moral values of the leader are very important, when the leader [for example] demands undue favour, against or in favour of some students to fail or pass them, and you cannot say no to your leader [because of his power], and you are doing injustice and again it is the moral obligation of the faculty member, then [the] faculty member becomes disturbed in such situation and he/she does not know how to take correct decision, basically [the] leader mix up [sic] his/her personal issues with the teaching/learning environment, [therefore] faculty members become frustrated and a person [faculty member] might leave the job. (R15)

Many of these leader-related factors have been pointed out as significant elements of teacher/faculty job satisfaction in past studies (Bogler, 2001; Castillo and Cano, 2004; Grosso, 2008; Karen, 1999; Karimi, 2008; Kirby *et al.*, 1992; Leary *et al.*, 1999; Seseer, 2007; Toker, 2011; Wetherell, 2002). For example, Sharma and Jyoti (2009:64) highlight that "good administration, appreciating the subordinates, [and] impartiality ...have added to the satisfaction of the university teachers. It indicates that positive attributes and behaviour of the leader heightens the degree of satisfaction of his subordinates" (see also Oshagbemi, 1997). Tasnim (2006) points out that the relationship with the leader and their leadership style are important factors for teacher job satisfaction. Ingersoll and Kralik (2004) maintain that mentoring from the leader is a significant factor for their teachers' job satisfaction. However, some factors such as

sincerity and honesty of the leader towards the institution, trust between the leader and the faculty, motivation from the leader, facilitation and standards provision, interruption caused or hurdles created by the leader, discouragement from the leader, transparency and the moral values of the leader, have not been highlighted as significant factors in faculty job satisfaction/dissatisfaction in the previous research. These factors have been found as new elements that are significant for faculty job satisfaction/dissatisfaction in this research context.

5.1.3 Colleague-Related Factors

Four factors were highlighted, by fourteen out of the fifteen participants, under the theme of colleague-related factors that influence the faculty members' job satisfaction significantly. These factors included relationships with colleagues and administrative staff, respect and appreciation/recognition from colleagues, cooperation from colleagues and their moral values, and the attitude of colleagues.

Relationships with Colleagues and Administrative Staff

Most participants maintained that good relationships within the faculty and between faculty members and administrative staff were a source of job satisfaction; whereas, bad relationships increased job dissatisfaction:

> *Good relationships with colleagues enhance the job satisfaction of the faculty members, whereas bad relationships with colleagues cause job dissatisfaction. (R14)*

Regarding the faculty members' relationships with administrative staff, two respondents expressed:

Interpersonal relationships with the administration [people working in the administration department] is a significant factor that affect faculty job satisfaction. (R10&15)

Respect and Appreciation/Recognition from Colleagues

Most respondents maintained that respect and appreciation/recognition extended to a specific faculty member from his/her colleagues contributed to the job satisfaction for that faculty member:

Respect and appreciation from my colleagues on my achievements…increase my job satisfaction. (R1) Appreciation and respect from other faculty members…increase the self-confidence of the faculty, which is a source of job satisfaction and faculty members then perform [their] job more confidently and effectively. (R11)

Cooperation from Colleagues and their Moral Values

Concerning the impact of colleagues' moral values on faculty job satisfaction, a participant remarked:

Moral values of my colleagues ...are one of the significant factors of my job satisfaction. (R7)

Cooperation from other colleagues enhanced job satisfaction:

Cooperation from faculty to perform my job effectively and cooperation in other matters is a source of satisfaction for me within my job. (R9)

Attitude of Colleagues

The colleagues' attitude towards faculty members appeared to affect job satisfaction both positively and negatively as observed by two respondents:

> *Good attitude of other faculty members towards me increase my job satisfaction, ...[but] if there is de-motivation and no appreciation from other colleagues [and] problems are created by other faculty members, it dissatisfies me from my job (R11), ...in our context leg pulling [sic] [meaning jealousy and creating problems for others] is common which has negative effect on job satisfaction. (R14)*

The findings from previous studies affirm the significance of the relationship between colleagues as an important factor for teacher/faculty job satisfaction (Alam *et al*., 2005; Castillo and Cano, 2004; Dinham, 1995; Heller *et al*., 1993; Karimi, 2008; Nguni *et al*., 2006; Rahim and Afza, 1993; Tasnim, 2006; Worrell, 2004). Ramakrishnaiah (1998) points out that those college academics who expressed job satisfaction had good relationships with their colleagues. Manger and Eikeland (1990) highlight bad relationships between faculty members and their colleagues as the main factor in the intention to leave the university. Sharma and Jyoti (2009) and Oshagbemi (1997) show that university faculty members' satisfaction within the job might be influenced by their colleagues' behaviour, which is somewhat similar to the 'attitude of colleagues' factor highlighted in the present study. Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2006) report that cooperation from colleagues is a main source of teacher job satisfaction. The current study, however, reveals some new factors related to the colleagues that have a significant effect on faculty job satisfaction; these include, respect and appreciation/recognition from colleagues, and the moral values of the colleagues.

5.1.4 Student-Related Factors

The data highlighted that all the fifteen respondents pointed out various student-related factors as critical to satisfying faculty members within their jobs. These factors included relationships with students, respect and recognition/appreciation from students, performance of the students, cooperation from students, and students' competence and their interest in the study.

In this regard, the relationships with students were seen as an important element of job satisfaction:

> *Relationship[s] with the students is a significant factor that might effect on my job satisfaction [because] good relationships [with students] help to maintain good teaching-learning environment in the class. (R2)*

Many respondents were of the view that if students show respect to their teachers (faculty members) and recognized/appreciated their achievements, it might be a source of job satisfaction for the faculty:

> *Respect and recognition/appreciation from students is a significant element that causes increase in ...job satisfaction. (R7&13)*

Performance of Students

Many participants highlighted student performance as an important element for faculty job satisfaction:

> *Performance and achievements of the students both in curricular and extracurricular activities lead towards job satisfaction. (R 12)*

Another respondent remarked:

Response of the students, result of the students, students' learning which is related to the performance of the teacher and the input you gave to your job also satisfy you, ...[student] performance is the outcome what a faculty member is doing, and if faculty member is doing good job then there will be good performance from the students, which results [in] appreciation of [that] faculty member and definitely [it] increases his/her job satisfaction. (R14)

Student performance was seen as evidence of high contributions from their teachers. The data indicated that cooperation from students was also seen as a significant factor for job satisfaction:

Cooperation from the students is a significant element for my job satisfaction. (R9)

The students' competence and their interest in study was another important element affecting faculty members' job satisfaction:

Competent students and their interest in the study is a significant factor for my satisfaction within my job. (R10)

Dinham (1995), Tasnim (2006) and Shann (1998) highlighted the relationship with students, and Oshagbemi (1997) found respect from students as significant factors for faculty job satisfaction. Plihal (1982), Heller *et al*. (1992) and Taylor and Tashakkori (1995) pointed out that student achievement/good performance is important for faculty job satisfaction, and Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2006) identified that students' failure is a source of job dissatisfaction for the faculty members. However, the other student-related factors, such as recognition/appreciation from students, cooperation from

students, and students' competence and their interest in the study, were identified as significant for faculty job satisfaction and are new findings specific to this context.

5.1.5 Personal Factors

Data revealed that the majority of the participants indicated that the faculty members' personal issues were also significant factors affecting their job satisfaction. These factors included a faculty member's personal interest within the job, sense of achievement, living away from family because of the job, and their family's liking or disliking of the job.

Faculty Members' Personal Interest

The data showed that the faculty members' interest or disinterest in their jobs was seen as a major element that affected their job satisfaction positively or negatively:

> *A person should be in the profession of his/her interest, harmony between the faculty members' personal interest/temperament and the assigned job is a significant factor for their job satisfaction (R14), No personal interest in the job leads towards job dissatisfaction. (R9)*

The data also highlighted that the faculty members' own sense of achievement was an important factor for their satisfaction within the jobs:

> *Sense of achievement because of my any success is also a significant source of job satisfaction for me. (R6)*

Family

Eight participants pointed out that living away from their family because of their jobs was an important factor in job dissatisfaction:

Living away from family due to [my] job is a significant reason for my job dissatisfaction. (R7)

With reference to the female faculty members' special concern regarding this issue, one of the participants commented:

Living away from the family, especially with reference to the female faculty members, is a crucial factor that has negative impact upon their job satisfaction. (R15)

Family's liking or disliking of the faculty member's job also impacted their job satisfaction/dissatisfaction:

Family's liking or disliking of the job matters a lot, because if family do not like [the job] you cannot be confident and proud to do that particular job. (R15)

The prior studies which explored the personal aspect of teachers/faculty job satisfaction examined the 'sense of achievement' factor, and the findings of the present study regarding this factor are consistent with the previous studies (Al-Omari, 2008; Bogler, 2001; Castillo and Cano, 2004; Cerit, 2009; Karimi, 2008; McKee, 1990; Newby, 1999; Sharma and Jyoti, 2009). For example, Tasnim (2006:87) argued that "the teachers are the architect of nation building. They are building the future of the nation. This belief is [a] great achievement of the teachers. Such achievement is [a source of] job satisfaction to them". However, factors such as personal interest in the job, living away from family because of the job, and family's liking or disliking of the job, have not been identified by earlier studies.

5.1.6 Job-Related Factors

All the participants indicated a number of job-related factors that might influence job satisfaction positively or negatively. These factors included the social status associated with being in a particular job, stress in the job and independence in work, job nature or job security, a long distance commute, workload and the nature of the assignments/tasks.

Social Status Associated with being in a Particular Job

Thirteen out of the total fifteen participants highlighted that the social status of or social respect for faculty members had a critical impact upon their job satisfaction:

> *Social respect from the society being a faculty member has a significant impact upon my job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, ...in the Pakistani context society response and attitude is discouraging and disappointing towards [teachers] sometimes, ...as we are the nation builders, we should be respected, but here is opposite scenario in Pakistan, here is no due honour and respect for the teachers of any level, but sometimes when students get top positions [in exams] then teachers are honoured in the society. (R14)*

On the other hand, one respondent believed that for females this profession was more respectful from society's point of view, and that this had a positive effect on their job satisfaction:

> *Social respect or social status [that] I receive being a faculty member enhance my job satisfaction because in our society office work or job in business companies is not appreciated more than teaching for females like me. (R15)*

Stress in the Job and Independence in Work

The participants also highlighted job-related stress and independence in work as significant elements for their job dissatisfaction and satisfaction respectively:

Stress in the job affects my job satisfaction significantly and negatively. (R2)

With respect to the positive effect of independence in work one of the respondents stated:

Independence in my job execution leads me towards more satisfaction within my job. (R15)

Job Nature or Job Security

Most respondents considered the nature or security of the job as a significant element in faculty job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Regarding the nature of the job, the participants believed that if the job was permanent and secure, the faculty members felt more satisfaction; whereas, if the job was contractual, it was not secure and it led towards dissatisfaction:

Permanent or contractual nature of [the] job matters a lot because in our culture if you are on contract, you have every time threat from your leader that you might be terminated any time, so it matter a lot for [the faculty] job satisfaction (R13), [whereas] *permanent job holders are more satisfied within their jobs in the context of Pakistan. (R5)*

Long-Distance Commute

Many participants highlighted that travelling a long distance to reach their workplace was a significant factor affecting their job satisfaction negatively:

Long distance to travel to reach the job site has [a] significant and negative impact on faculty job satisfaction, ...but if it is tolerable, like me, about 35 km from one side, but [again] sometimes I need to wait a long on bus stop, then it causes irritation and then I get dissatisfied. (R12)

On the other hand, living close to the workplace contributed to job satisfaction:

If the job site is near home, it definitely will have positive impact on your performance because it will give you more time to spend in the institution with students, ...which in turn results in job satisfaction. (R14)

Workload and the Nature of the Assignments/tasks

Workload and the nature of the assignments/tasks also emerged as important factors affecting faculty job satisfaction. Workload was perceived to have a negative effect on job satisfaction if it was considered to be too high:

Workload is a significant element of [the] faculty job satisfaction, overload leads towards job dissatisfaction because [the] overloaded person cannot do justice with the job and he/she feels exhausted and frustrated in the job, which leads towards job dissatisfaction. (R15)

Whereas:

Reasonable working hours or workload affects the job satisfaction in positive manner... (R14)

A participant who considered the nature of the assignments/tasks as an important factor for faculty job satisfaction remarked:

Nature of assignments/tasks should not have clash with the moral values of the faculty because it becomes a source of [job] dissatisfaction. (R14)

The majority of the findings in the present study regarding job-related factors are consistent with many previous studies (Al-Omari, 2008; Bellamy *et al*., 2003; Castillo and Cano, 2004; Mehrotra, 2002; Nguni *et al*., 2006; Oshagbemi, 1997; Smerek and Peterson, 2007; Wetherell, 2002; Worrell, 2004). For example, Bogler (2001:676) found that social status and independence in work "contribute the most to job satisfaction" (see also Toker, 2011:164; Tasnim, 2006; Giacometti, 2005). Regarding the nature of work, Dusitsutirat (2009:1097) maintains that "work characteristic was a key factor which motivates or encourages staffs to have job satisfaction and work more effectively" (see also Karimi, 2008:9). Sharma and Jyoti (2009:63) argue that "the element of job security [that] keeps the teachers intact with their present jobs ... [and] proper workload... are some of the elements of [the] job that account for maximum job satisfaction of university academicians" (see also Tasnim, 2006; Luekens *et al*., 2004). Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2006) highlight that a lack of respect, status and recognition from society and a lack of autonomy lead towards job dissatisfaction. Contrary to the findings of the present study, Sargent and Hannum (2005:202) found that "teachers with greater workloads tend to have higher levels of [job] satisfaction"; however, Luekens *et al*. (2004) support the findings of the current study in this regard. Yet, some factors such as stress in the job and a long commute have been examined in relatively few studies (Hugick and Leonard, 1991). Giacometti (2005) and Blackburn *et al*. (1986) establish that job-related stress, similar to the present study, has a negative effect upon teachers/faculty job satisfaction.

There are a number of studies from a variety of cultural contexts in different educational settings, such as schools, colleges and universities, which identified many significant factors influencing teacher/faculty member job satisfaction. These factors and their level of importance might differ across cultural and educational contexts; however, some basic factors remain the same (Spector, 1997). These factors include achievement (a feeling of accomplishment stemming from work), communication within the institution, advancement (opportunity for promotion), the institution itself, authority and responsibility (being in-charge of others and able to use personal judgement), the nature of the work, institutional policies and procedures and their implementation, personal growth, participation in the decision making process, compensation (salary and benefits received), professional development, and colleagues (relationships with colleagues) (Al-Omari, 2008; Ambrose *et al*., 2005; Dusitsutirat, 2009; Karimi, 2008; Leary *et al*., 1999; McKee, 1990; Mehrotra, 2002; Sargent and Hannum, 2005; Seseer, 2007; Alam *et al*., 2005; Toker, 2011). There are several more factors, such as managing students, assessing students, an encouraging social environment (Giacometti, 2005; Hugick and Leonard, 1991), independence in work, interesting work assignments/tasks, moral values (opportunity to act in ways that do not go against beliefs), job stress, short commute, recognition (appreciation for an achievement), flexible hours (reasonable workload), job security (anticipation of a steady job), social status (respect in society for being in the specific job), leadership (relationship between the leader and colleagues), working conditions (working environment), supervision, respect from the leader, social service (working for society), vacations, creativity (trying one's own ways to do the job), activity (keeping busy), and variety (the opportunity to do different sorts of tasks) (Bogler, 2001; Cerit, 2009; Grosso, 2008; Heller *et al*., 1993; Karen, 1999; Kirby *et al*.

1992; Nestor and Leary, 2000; Newby, 1999; Nguni *et al.*, 2006; Rahim and Afza, 1993; Spector, 1997; Stumpf, 2003; Webb, 2003; Wetherell, 2002; Worrell, 2004).

The majority of these factors have been found to have significant influence on faculty job satisfaction in the case of the present study, as mentioned above. There are some factors, such as social service, vacations, creativity, managing students, assessing students, and variety (the opportunity to do different sorts of tasks), which have also been considered to have significant influence on job satisfaction but these factors are investigated in relatively less number of previous studies (Giacometti, 2005; Hugick and Leonard, 1991; Seseer, 2007; Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2006). However, these are not identified by the participants of the current study as important elements in faculty job satisfaction. The findings support the "view that the job of workers alone may not fully explain their job satisfaction... [and] contrary to the two-factor theory, there are situational occurrences about a job which are often important in determining overall job satisfaction or dissatisfaction" (Oshagbemi, 1997:359). Therefore, the findings support the situational theory of job satisfaction which argues that any factor can cause either job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

5.2 Faculty Job Satisfaction Elements influenced/not influenced by the Leader

In response to the second question in the interview schedule, the respondents pointed out a number of factors which in their view significantly affected faculty job satisfaction either positively or negatively and were *influenced* by the leader. The majority of these factors were related to the leader as an individual, while some of these were related to the institution and the job. The factors which positively affected job satisfaction included leadership style, attitude/behaviour of the leader with faculty members or

colleagues, sincerity and honesty of the leader towards the institution and his/her future plan/s regarding the institution, relationship or interaction between the leader and faculty members, trust between the leader and the faculty, faculty's participation in the decision making process, confidence placed by the leader upon faculty members through sharing authority, responsibility and providing autonomy in job execution, guidance, supervision and mentoring provided by the leader, appreciation and recognition by the leader, respect given by the leader to the faculty, motivation from the leader to the faculty, a conducive working environment and facilities provision, fair distribution of workload and assignment of work according to the interest of the faculty members, fair compensation of rewards according to the workload, implementation of institutional policies, enthusiastic leadership, communication within the institution, and the moral values of the leader and maintenance of these values in the faculty. The factors which negatively affected job satisfaction included discouragement and de-motivation from the leader, hurdles and undue interruption by the leader, and no respect from the leader.

Earlier studies have not investigated the question, 'Which elements of the teachers/faculty job satisfaction are influenced by the leader?' Darling-Hammond and Sclan (1996), however, maintain that a 'conducive working environment' is directly influenced by the leader. Sargent and Hannum (2005:183), similar to the present study, also argue that "...leadership and supervision affects a range of factors in the school environment, including the overall organizational climate of the school". With regard to other leader-related factors no empirical evidence has been found in previous research that these elements are significantly influenced by the leader. However, associating all these factors to leaders in the current research context can be linked to the organisational structure and culture in the context of this study because of the leader's

legitimate power and responsibilities linked to his/her position. As mentioned in the introductory chapter, in the context of the present study the leader (campus principal/divisional director) works under a vice-chancellor and is responsible for the entire administrative, academic and research affairs of the subordinate faculty and campus/division (PAP, 2004). Therefore, the leader's influence emerges as significant with regard to faculty job satisfaction.

In response to the third question in the interview schedule, which has not been explored by the previous studies, the data unveiled a number of factors which affected the faculty job satisfaction significantly, but were *not influenced* by the leader. Such factors were often related to the faculty members themselves, their families, colleagues and students, while several were linked with the job, society and the institution. These factors included interpersonal relationships with other faculty members and students, respect and recognition/appreciation given to a faculty member by other faculty members and students, living away from family because of the job, permanent or contractual nature of the job, a long distance commute, social respect or status a faculty member received from society for being in a particular job, compensation including all kinds of fringe benefits, allowances and annual increment, institutional policies, personal interest of the faculty member within the job, family's liking or disliking of the job, faculty member's sense of achievement, and performance of the students. All these findings will be analysed in depth in the next chapter. The next section addresses the fourth research question.

5.3 Leadership Style and Faculty Job Satisfaction

In response to the questions 'Which leadership style is more conducive/a barrier to faculty job satisfaction in the Pakistani context? And why?' a high majority of the

participants believed that a democratic or participative leadership style was more conducive to faculty job satisfaction:

There should be [a] democratic leadership style because authoritative leadership style does not come up according to the expectations of the faculty. In [a] democratic [leadership style] opinion [and] work of [the] faculty is respected that leads to job satisfaction. When [a] leader shares responsibility and involves faculty members in decision making, it leads towards job satisfaction. In this style both the leader and faculty work together in the same way with harmony to achieve the specific targets and goals of the institution. So, this style is good for [faculty] job satisfaction in the Pakistani context. (R11)

Another respondent argued:

If [a] leader is not cooperative with faculty, then there will be a problem. So, I think leader must make decision in a democratic way and should involve all faculty [members]. It is more better, because then people feel the empowerment when they are involved in decision making [process] and they think it is their own institution. [But] if there is autocracy it is not good for the institution. (R6)

This is consistent with the previous research findings, which maintain that a democratic leadership style and the participation of teachers/faculty members in the decision-making process enhance their job satisfaction (Awan *et al*., 2008; Maeroff, 1988; Smylie *et al.,* 1996; Schneider, 1984; Tasnim, 2006) compared to autocratic leadership (Foels *et al*., 2000). Luekens *et al*. (2004) argue that no proper participation from teachers in the decision-making process leads towards job dissatisfaction. One of the participants, who critiqued the authoritative leadership style, suggested a number of transformational and transactional (contingent reward dimension only) leadership

characteristics along with advocacy of the democratic or participative leadership style to increase faculty job satisfaction:

> *The authoritative leadership style is not effective, [and] decision should be done [taken] with the input from the faculty. There should be cooperation between leader and colleagues. Leader should behave professionally and should give adequate authority to the faculty for job execution. ... Leader should give fair rewards to all, if the reward of my work is given, it increases job satisfaction, [and] if there is no reward but only criticism, this is not fair and it will affect my job satisfaction negatively. If the leader will not understand and solve the problems of the subordinates, and will not support them, then how can be worker [become] a good worker in that environment. (R2)*

Hwa (2008) investigated the impact of a principal's transformational democratic leadership style on teacher job satisfaction. The results of this study highlight that principals who demonstrate democratic and transformational leadership characteristics achieve greater teacher satisfaction within their job (see also Cheah *et al*., 2011). Rossmiller (1992) and Maerof (1988) also report that transformational leadership and participative decision making have positive relationships with job satisfaction. Hall *et al*. (1992), Sheppard (1996), and Poulin and Walter (1992) furthermore highlight that higher autonomy at work/empowerment, which is similar to leader behaviour highlighted above in that he/she *should give adequate authority to the faculty for job execution (R2)*, is linked to job satisfaction. Moreover, many studies endorse these findings by establishing the argument that supportive/cooperative and problem solving behavioural characteristics from a leader help the faculty/colleagues feel satisfied within their jobs (Al-Omari, 2008; Clark and Astuto, 1994; Koh *et al*., 1995; Patton and

Kritsonis, 2006; Yukl, 2002). In this study also, most of the respondents maintained that transformational leadership style was more conducive to faculty job satisfaction. These participants did not specifically mention transformational leadership style, but almost all the characteristics they highlighted for the leadership style conducive to faculty job satisfaction characterised transformational leadership style:

Leader must be helping and should share power with [the] faculty, [and he/she] should involve [faculty members] in decision making. Leader should have good attitude… [and] good communication within the institution. [Leader] should develop faculty personally and professionally [and] should maintain high moral values. (R8)

Another participant stated:

Leader must be highly qualified, visionary… [and] should have [a] broad spectrum of leadership characteristics, [and] should have greater/higher moral values. (R3)

Many respondents including R2, R3, R6, R8 & R11 in particular highlighted a number of transformational and transactional (contingent reward dimension only) leadership characteristics as conducive to faculty job satisfaction. They suggested, among others, respect for faculty members' opinions and work done, sharing authority and responsibility, faculty involvement in the decision-making process, working together with the faculty to achieve common institutional goals, cooperation, leader as problem solver, good attitude of the leader, good communication within the institution, faculty personal and professional development, high moral values maintained by the leader, visionary leadership, and fair rewards as significant elements in faculty job satisfaction. These elements are associated with five dimensions (idealized influence − attributed;

idealized influence – behaviour; inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation; and individual consideration) of the transformational leadership style and one dimension (contingent reward) of the transactional leadership style. These six dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership styles along with their associated characteristics are presented in tables 4.1 in the previous chapter. These findings partially support the quantitative results revealed in response to research question two (a, b & c) in the previous chapter, evidencing a statistically significant positive relationship between the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction. However, it is important to highlight that on analysing the relative effects the transformational style has significantly positive, transactional style has insignificantly negative and laissez-faire style has insignificantly positive effect on faculty job satisfaction. These findings are also supported by a number of previous studies where transformational and transactional leadership behavioural characteristics are highlighted as enhancing teacher/faculty job satisfaction (Dinham and Scott, 2000; Leithwood *et al*., 1996; Nguni *et al*., 2006; Stumpf, 2003; Webb, 2003). Bogler (2001:666) also supports these findings by highlighting that "overall, teachers report greater satisfaction in their work when they perceive their principal as someone who shares information with others, delegates authority, and keeps open channels of communication with the teachers". However, a small number of interviewees interestingly argued that the autocratic or authoritative leadership style is more conducive to their job satisfaction:

> *Autocratic leadership style is more useful for job satisfaction than democratic leadership style, because in the democratic [style], leader has to listen and satisfy all the people, and just to satisfy the people, leader's decision might be in line of certain persons' opinion. So, the other [faculty members] might get*

dissatisfied. If the leader is competent enough and has the ability to tackle things ...he/she should use autocratic leadership style. I am more satisfied with authoritative leadership style. It is difficult to agree with suggestions of all the faculty members if leader is to take feedback from faculty; but if leader is taking decision [alone], it will be accepted by all faculty members. (R14)

This is not consistent with prior research findings claiming that if the leader alone takes decisions and provides instructions to teachers/faculty members to act accordingly, it results in imperfect decisions and a decline in the teacher/faculty member performance and job satisfaction (Dunlap and Goldman, 1991; Gaziel, 1998; Kottkamp *et al.*, 1987). However, "educational leadership and its practices vary across societies and cultures" (Shah, 2010a:29). For example, House *et al.* (2004) maintain that in the South Asian region, where Pakistan is located, authoritarian leaders are perceived as more appropriate than leaders who use the participative approach. This concurs with Simkins *et al.*'s (2003) observation in the educational setting that Pakistani society supports and emphasises the practice of an authoritarian approach to leadership.

Nevertheless, the majority of the research participants considered that the autocratic or authoritarian leadership style was a barrier to their job satisfaction:

Autocratic [leadership] style is a barrier to my job satisfaction because leader is all in all and he can do anything. Leader can take any decision without asking you [faculty member] or without discussing with you...and implement those [decisions], ...these behaviours hamper my job satisfaction. So, this style is [a] barrier for my job satisfaction. (R13)

Most participants emphasised that a lack of transformational and transactional (contingent reward dimension only) leadership behaviour, and the exercise of an autocratic leadership style were barriers to their job satisfaction:

> *Lack of recognition by the leader against job done [and] if the leader is not delegating authority ...not placing responsibility and not placing trust [upon faculty] to do assignments, where most of the time leader imposes the decisions, and do not recognizes faculty's work, where there is no innovative ideas and assignments, where ...the whole power [is] within the leader – an authoritative leader, [and] where the leader has no vision to develop or increase the standards of the organization. All these are barriers to my job satisfaction. (R15)*

Another interviewee commented:

> *No proper growth to all the faculty members and no ...opportunities [for advancement] and promotions, no benefits in the job, [and] irregular distribution of the assignments [workload]. Injustice in the benefits for different faculty members is [a] barrier in job satisfaction. If there is no appreciation from the leader for [completing] assignment, or [if leader is] giving reward to another person who have not done that assignment. No respect from the leader. If a leader is not providing all these it is a barrier for [the faculty] job satisfaction. (R2)*

These findings are consistent with the previously presented findings in this section regarding the practice of transformational and transactional (contingent reward dimension only) leadership behaviour to enhance faculty job satisfaction, and partially support the results of research question two (a, b & c) presented in the previous chapter.

157

Research in the educational context shows that teachers/faculty members are satisfied within their jobs in institutions where the leader demonstrates democratic behaviour compared to those institutions where the leader exhibits authoritative or autocratic leadership behaviour (Kottkamp *et al*., 1987; Smart, 1990). Unlike the autocratic leadership style, the participative leadership style allows for teacher/faculty member involvement in the decision-making process and thus enhances their job satisfaction (Imper *et al*., 1990; Rice and Schneider, 1994). Oshagbemi (1997) points out that the authoritative style leads university faculty members towards job dissatisfaction. Finally, a respondent who maintained that laissez-faire leadership style was a barrier for his/her job satisfaction remarked:

> *Laissez-faire leadership style is a barrier for my job satisfaction because it may enhance the satisfaction of the individual but it is not for the collectivism, because everybody has right to do whatever they want and leader is there just to see what people are doing, it leads towards individualism, people choose their own responsibility and they are responsible for their own to solve the problems. But there is no guidance from the leader and it leads towards loss of the institution which is a source of my job dissatisfaction. (R14)*

A number of prior studies support this finding by arguing that a strong negative relationship exists between the laissez-faire leadership style and faculty job satisfaction (Bass, 1999; Dastoor *et al*., 2003; Stumpf, 2003; Webb, 2003).

5.4 The Leader's Role in Enhancing Faculty Job Satisfaction

The fifth and final research question investigated 'the role of a leader in enhancing faculty job satisfaction in the Pakistani context as perceived by the faculty'. In response to the related question in the interview all the participants emphasised the importance of

the leader's role in enhancing the faculty members' job satisfaction. They mentioned leadership characteristics and behaviour which they believed as being necessary for enhancing their job satisfaction. The respondents maintained that these characteristics and behaviours, which in fact were very similar to the characteristics of the transformational leadership style, defined the leader's role:

> *A leader should be with humanistic approach, ...leader should...place trust and understand that his/her subordinates are capable and could do good job, and he must provide opportunity to faculty to do work at their own which help people to build their confidence, leader should delegate authority to faculty, leader should treat faculty with respect, there should be mutual trust ...and good relationships between leader and faculty, there should be justice ...and leader should not impose his/her decisions, there should be conducive environment where all should work as a ...team, ...leader should help the faculty in their progress ...and to achieve the institutional goals, ...leader [should] communicate with the faculty while implementing the policies and exercising rules and regulations, ...[and] leader should maintain high moral and ethical values. (R15)*

Another respondent mentioned several more leadership characteristics which influenced the leader's role towards enhancing the faculty members' job satisfaction:

> *Leader is a role model. He/she is just like a perfect man. So, his/her actions ...affect the faculty members..., [for example] if he does anything which is useful for the institution ...it will give ...motivation to the faculty to do the similar things. So, the role of the leader is very important. Democratic style is best if he is taking decision regarding anything. He/she should involve the faculty in the decision making process, in this way faculty will feel very good because they are*

159

being involved [in decision making process]. ...He/she should be cooperative and facilitative to the faculty. ...Leader should develop the faculty personally and professionally, [and] he/she should have good vision, because these all things affect very much on the job satisfaction of faculty. (R13)

Again, the qualitative data show that the findings linked to different research questions in the qualitative part are consistent to each other and also broadly affirmed the findings drawn from the quantitative data. However, the flexibility of the qualitative approach offered the possibility of in-depth explorations of individual's views and perspectives during the interviews. There are many previous studies which support these findings and acknowledge the leader's key role in enhancing teacher/faculty member satisfaction within their job (Al-Omari, 2008; Bogler, 2001; Dinham and Scott, 2000; Evans, 2001; Madlock, 2008; Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006). The findings of the present study, with regards to the leadership behaviour necessary for enhancing faculty job satisfaction, are consistent with the findings of the prior research conducted elsewhere in the educational setting (Cheah *et al*., 2011; Awan *et al*., 2008; Basham, 2010; Dastoor *et al*., 2003; Grosso, 2008; Levine, 2000; Nguni *et al*., 2006; Stumpf, 2003; Tucker *et al*., 1992; Webb, 2003) and also at the head of department level - similar to the divisional director/campus principal position in the case of the present study (Ambrose *et al*., 2005; Benoit and Graham, 2005; Bland *et al*., 2005; Harris *et al*., 2004; Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002; Lindholm, 2003; Murry and Stauffacher, 2001; Trocchia and Andrus, 2003).

The qualitative data highlight a number of factors which affect faculty job satisfaction significantly. These factors are linked with the institution, leader, faculty members themselves, their jobs, colleagues, and students. Some of these factors were influenced

by the leader significantly; whereas, others were not influenced by the leader in that specific educational system, organisational structure and societal culture. Although many of these factors have been identified by previous studies, a number of factors generally related with the faculty members themselves, their students and colleagues emerged as new context-specific factors which significantly affect faculty job satisfaction. On the other hand, there are also several factors, which are considered significant elements of faculty job satisfaction in other contexts, that in the context of the present study are not considered significant for faculty job satisfaction. Furthermore, the findings demonstrate that it is necessary and conducive to exercise the participative or democratic leadership style and leadership behaviours associated with transformational and transactional (contingent reward dimension only) leadership in order to enhance faculty job satisfaction. On the other hand, the exercise of autocratic or authoritative and laissez-faire leadership styles emerged as a barrier to faculty job satisfaction. The findings finally highlight that the leader's role is critical for faculty job satisfaction/dissatisfaction. The findings related with different research questions in the qualitative part not only support each other, but also broadly endorse the results of the quantitative part. Both sets of data broadly affirm a significant relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership behaviours and faculty job satisfaction.

Chapter 6: Analysis and Synthesis

This chapter offers analysis and synthesis of the findings from the quantitative and qualitative sets of data. The quantitative data describe the principals/directors' leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire), and the relationship between these styles and faculty job satisfaction. The qualitative data highlight which significant factors affecting faculty job satisfaction are influenced/not influenced by the leader, which leadership style is conducive/unfavourable to faculty job satisfaction, and define the leader's role in enhancing faculty job satisfaction. The findings from the previous two chapters, chapter four which dealt with the quantitative data with a particular focus on the first two research questions and chapter five which addressed the qualitative data focusing on the last three research questions, will be examined and synthesised followed by conclusions and recommendations drawn from the data and related debates.

The first section presents analysis of the leadership styles that are presently being exercised by the leaders, this is followed by examination of the interplay of these styles with faculty job satisfaction. In the third section faculty job satisfaction factors and leader's influence upon these factors is debated before finally reflecting on the role of leaders in enhancing faculty job satisfaction.

6.1 Leadership Styles

This section analyses the current practice of leadership behaviours/styles in a public university of Pakistan. The findings from the quantitative data highlight that inspirational motivation, idealised influence (behaviour) and management-by-exception (active) are the leadership dimensions which are relatively more practised by the

leaders, followed by idealized influence (attributed), contingent reward, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration. Whereas, management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire are the leadership dimensions which are least exercised by the principals/directors. Overall, the transformational leadership style is more practised as compared to the transactional leadership style; while, the laissez-faire leadership style is the least exercised by the leaders of the public university in Pakistan examined in this study.

There are a number of studies from a variety of cultural contexts across the world, such as Grosso (2008), Burns (2007) and Webb (2003) from the American context, Sung (2007) from the Taiwanese context, Nguni *et al*. (2006) from the Tanzanian context, Bogler (2001) from the Israeli context and Dastoor *et al*. (2003) from the Thai context, which have investigated transformational and transactional leadership in educational settings. Most of these studies are focused on the higher educational context, and two of them, Nguni *et al* (2006) and Bogler (2001), have been conducted at the school level. Bass and Avolio (2004) also carried out studies in different cultures, such as the United States, Europe, Oceania (Australia, New Zealand and the Pacific Islands) and South Africa, to explore transformational and transactional leadership. The findings from all of these studies point out that in different societies some leadership behaviours/styles are being more practised as compared to others, which is consistent with Shah's (2010a:29) argument that "the concepts of educational leadership and its practices vary across societies and cultures". In different cultural contexts perceptions of educational leadership vary because of differences in cultural and belief systems (Shah, 2010a), and differences in leaders' power sources linked with positions in formal organisational systems, such as legitimate, reward and coercive power, and associated with leaders' own personalities, such as referent and expert power (Northouse, 2010). Many other

researchers (Dimmock, 2000b; Dimmock and Walker, 2000b and 2005; House and Javidan, 2004; House *et al.*, 2004) highlight that the values and norms of the people in a particular society or culture, and patterns of societal behaviour influence leadership practices and choices in different societies. Therefore, keeping in view the findings from this study it might be inferred that the leaders in the Pakistani public university context, based on the above mentioned variables, are practising certain leadership style (transformational) and leadership dimensions (inspirational motivation, idealised influence (behaviour) and management-by-exception (active)) relatively more than others.

This inference is further based on the local interpretations of the concept of leadership and its translation into practice. Regarding the interpretation of leadership and other such practices, Shah (2009:5) emphasizes the importance of local context by arguing that "in spite of emerging similarities of policies, structures, and legal provisions across the world [or regions], local societal structures, patterns of behaviour, cultural traditions, belief systems, and organisational conventions influence how concepts are translated into practices". Therefore, focusing on the local context, Pakistani society is predominantly Muslim "and this religious ideology guides the discourses and practices in all fields including education" (Shah, 2009:9). Pakistani society has a high power distance culture and is highly collective; thus, subordinates generally show willingness to accept the autocratic decisions taken by their leader (Hofstede, 1991). This is similar to countries such as Malaysia, Indonesia, Singapore, India, Iran, Thailand and others of that region, as compared to Anglophone Western countries including the United States, Great Britain, Australia, New Zealand and Canada (Hofstede, 2001). Simkins *et al.* (2003) in their study on school leadership in Pakistan affirm that "there is clear evidence ...that support[s] Hofstede's finding that Pakistan's is a relatively high power

distance culture. In such cultures there is a belief in the ''naturalness'' of hierarchy, [and] subordinates exhibit a strong sense of dependence on their superiors" (p.288). Simkins *et al*. (2003:288) further argue that in Pakistani society "teachers and members of the community seem to expect ...heads to act decisively and relatively autocratically", which has implications on the perception and interpretation of the concept of leadership and its practice.

Furthermore, role socialisation is gendered in Pakistani society, which has further implications for leadership practices. Women are generally considered to be responsible for domestic issues (Shah, 2010a), whereas, men are believed to be responsible for earning money, and for other issues outside the home. Mostly, decision making within the family is associated with the male head of the family and often the other family members do not challenge his decisions. The majority of these practices are linked with the local societal and regional culture of the subcontinent that includes India, Pakistan and Bangladesh, and have implications for how the concept of leadership is perceived and translated into practice. In the case of Pakistan, religion emerges as an additional factor shaping roles and practices. Shah (2010a:30) argues that "in Muslim societies, education and educational leadership are influenced by the religious teachings derived from the sacred texts, as is the case with many other belief systems". Influenced by the regional culture of extended families and baradaries (clans) and the Islamic concept of Muslim Ummah or community, Pakistan emerges as a collective society, where people are attached to their families, groups and organizations and, therefore, show concern for them and are inclined towards societal help and community values (Hofstede, 2001; House *et al*., 2004). Overall, "the dominant societal culture in Pakistan is a mix of Islamic and Asian traditions, and apparently this determined professional practice and interpersonal relations in educational institutions" (Shah, 2009:9). This implies that, as

in other societies, some culturally-endorsed leadership behaviours/styles are being exercised more frequently than others in the context of the present study.

On comparing Bass and Avolio's (2004) studies, carried out in the United States, Europe, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa, with the present study, it is noted that overall the transformational leadership style is relatively more practised in these Western countries, whilst the transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles are more exercised in a public university in Pakistan. It is important to note that when the results of the present study are compared with each other, it is found that the transformational leadership style is comparatively more practised, as mentioned above, as compared to the transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. House *et al.* (2004) establish that these Western countries are more competitive and performance oriented, and individuals in these societies are encouraged toward enhanced results and excellence, but that people in these countries do not have strong bonds with their families nor institutions and therefore are less devoted towards them. These societies perceive that being charismatic and value-based are the most important characteristics of their ideal leader; whereas, orientation towards status and face saving characterise the ineffective leader (House and Javidan, 2004; House *et al.*, 2004). House *et al.*'s (2004) findings are consistent with Elenkov's (1998) findings regarding the leadership choices in the American and Russian context. In other words, based on their cultural values these Western societies idealise their leader as one who has the capability to inspire and motivate others to perform highly through his/her vision, altruism, dependability and decisiveness, and who is not self-centred nor status conscious. This indicates that because of the societal culture of the United States, Europe, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa, the transformational leadership style is comparatively more exercised in those countries.

On the other hand, House *et al*. (2004) maintain that societies from Southern Asia, including Pakistan, are more humane oriented and the societal culture of this region encourages people towards self-sacrifice and generosity, while emphasising kindliness to and consideration of others. These societies, based on their cultural values and behavioural patterns, perceive that an effective and ideal leader is one who is more self-oriented, procedural, face saving, status conscious and autocratic along with charismatic, value-based, collaborative, inspirational and sensitive to people's needs; while the leader who involves colleagues in the decision-making process is believed to be ineffective (House and Javidan, 2004). This implies that owing to the societal culture and norms of Pakistani society, the transactional and laissez-faire leadership behaviours are also practised in the context of the present study along with transformational leadership, which is consistent with Ardichvili and Kuchinke's (2002) findings from Russia, Georgia, Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan. Yet, more studies are needed from the present research context to verify these findings. However, despite the major influence of societal culture upon leadership practices, these practices are also influenced by the particular organisational setting, such as school or university context, power and responsibilities associated with the leader's formal position, organisational structure and culture, and leaders' "personal orientations which emerge from their histories and personalities" (Simkins *et al*., 2003:288).

6.2 Relationship between Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction

This section analyses the findings drawn from both the quantitative and qualitative sets of data that relate to the relationship between principals/directors' leadership style/s and faculty job satisfaction. The quantitative data indicate significant relationships between leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and the faculty's

intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction. However, the leadership styles have slightly stronger relationship with extrinsic job satisfaction as compared to overall job satisfaction, and the relationship of leadership styles with intrinsic job satisfaction is relatively least strong. The transformational leadership style, in relation to the other two leadership styles (transactional and laissez-faire), has a strong positive and statistically significant effect on faculty's job satisfaction. Whereas, the laissez-faire leadership style, relatively, has weak positive and statistically insignificant effect on the job satisfaction of faculty members. The transactional leadership style, on the other hand, has comparatively weak negative and statistically insignificant effect on faculty's job satisfaction. The findings suggest that leaders need to exercise leadership behaviours that are associated with transformational leadership to satisfy faculty members in their jobs more effectively. This suggestion concurs with previous researchers' observations that effective educational leaders practise the transformational leadership aspects (Bass and Avolio, 1990; Nguni *et al*., 2006).

As mentioned in the previous section, the findings obtained from the quantitative data highlight that currently the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles are being practised by the campus principals/divisional directors in the sample public university of Pakistan. Whereas, the findings from the regression analysis show that the effect of transformational leadership style on faculty job satisfaction, in comparison to the transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles, is stronger and significantly positive; while the effects of transactional and the laissez-faire leadership styles on faculty members' job satisfaction are relatively weak and statistically insignificant. This implies that the principals/directors' behaviours which characterise the transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles, discussed in the literature review chapter, have no significant effect on faculty job satisfaction, and the

principals/directors, therefore, should not practise such behaviours. The qualitative data broadly support this inference as the participants contended that the laissez-faire style and other behaviours, which are roughly similar to the certain characteristics of the transactional style, were barriers to their job satisfaction:

> *Laissez-faire leadership style is a barrier for my job satisfaction because...*
> *everybody has right to do whatever they want and leader is there just to see*
> *what people are doing... but there is no guidance from the leader, and it leads*
> *towards loss of the institution which is a source of my job dissatisfaction (R14),*
> *if the leader is fail to implement the real policies of the institution, and there is*
> *communication gap [and] lack of trust between leader and faculty, and if leader*
> *do[sic] not respond to the needs of the faculty, so it is a big barrier to increase*
> *the faculty job satisfaction. (R5)*

There are also a number of previous studies which highlight that these behaviours have an insignificant relationship with faculty job satisfaction or have a negative effect upon job satisfaction (Bass and Avolio, 2000; Gaspar, 1992; Levine, 2000; Stumpf, 2003).

Based on the quantitative findings, it is also implied that the principals/directors should, instead, exercise such behaviours which are associated with the five transformational leadership dimensions, detailed in the second chapter. The qualitative data along with the transformational leadership behaviours also emphasise the practise of contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership. However, some of these behaviours have different interpretations in the Pakistani context. The transformational leader motivates followers to challenge their own personal ideas and values along with the leader's and institution's values. However, in Pakistan challenging the leader's values is considered inappropriate (Shah, 2009) because of the cultural and religious values and norms

associated with leaders and the led. Furthermore, in some societies giving monetary rewards to employees as an acknowledgement against their investment of extra time and effort is normal practice; however, in the context of the present study faculty members do not prefer monetary rewards. Rather, acknowledging colleagues fully by recognising and appreciating them through prize shields/medals or recognition certificates awarded at formal ceremonies against the investment of their extra time and effort for the institution, and obliging them with benefits or facilities is more appropriate because they prefer such recognition and reward, which increases their motivation and job satisfaction level. Such faculty member behaviour can be explained by the cultural and religious values and norms of a collective society (Hofstede, 2001; House *et al.* 2004), as Shah (2009) observes that in Pakistan subordinates are expected by their heads "to 'obey' and 'work' without anticipation for [monetary] rewards" (p.10) in return for their extra time and effort invested. The findings support Bass's (1999:10) claim that "transformational leadership, which fosters autonomy and challenging work, became increasingly important to followers' job satisfaction" and Bass's (1985 and 1999) argument that a combination of both the transformational and transactional leadership behaviours has a high level of influence on colleagues' satisfaction (see also Avolio and Bass, 1991). A number of studies from the business and military contexts confirm Bass's argument (Howell and Avolio, 1993; Seltzer and Bass, 1990; Waldman and Bass, 1986). The qualitative data, as mentioned above, also endorse the inference drawn from the quantitative findings, as a number of respondents indicated that many transformational leadership characteristics along with the behaviours associated with contingent reward aspect of transactional leadership were conducive to faculty job satisfaction:

Style in which the leader respects the subordinate, where worker works with independence, and worker is treated as human, leader involves the faculty in decision-making, where leader knows what is going on within the organization (R15), where leader place[s] confidence in faculty ...and believes in team work (R12), leader cooperates and sort[s] out the solutions of the faculty problems (R5), motivation from leader towards research and professional development and the moral standard maintained from the leader (R4), leader ... should share power with [the] faculty, ...leader should have good attitude... [and] good communication within the institution (R8), leader must be highly qualified, visionary... [and] should have [a] broad spectrum of leadership characteristics (R3), leader should give fair rewards to all, if the reward of my work is given, it increases job satisfaction (R2).

Many studies from educational settings, carried out in various cultural contexts, also highlight these leadership behaviours as conducive to teacher/faculty job satisfaction (Avolio, 1999; Dastoor *et al*., 2003; Bogler, 2001; Bragg, 2008; Nguni *et al*., 2006; Stumpf, 2003).

The findings further indicate that the relationship of leadership styles with extrinsic job satisfaction is slightly stronger as compared to intrinsic job satisfaction. The slightly weaker relationship between leadership styles and intrinsic job satisfaction is justified because "intrinsic job satisfaction indicates that the degree to which a respondent feels satisfied is determined by internally motivated factors... [which] come from within the individual" (Al-Omari, 2008:118), whereas leadership styles do not come from within the individual. Rather, these styles, which represent the behaviour of the campus principals/divisional directors, stem from the faculty members' working environment

and are therefore considered to be external behaviours/factors or extrinsic in nature (Al-Omari, 2008; Stumpf, 2003; Worrell, 2004); thus, they have a weaker relationship with the faculty's intrinsic job satisfaction as compared to extrinsic job satisfaction.

6.3 Faculty Job Satisfaction Factors

The findings from the qualitative data revealed a number of significant elements of faculty job satisfaction, as presented in the previous chapter. These factors are collated under the following six themes: institutional factors, leader-related factors, colleague-related factors, student-related factors, personal factors and job-related factors. Most of the faculty members' personal, family-related, colleague-related, job-related and student-related job satisfaction factors are influenced by cultural values and norms, and patterns of behaviour in Pakistani society. Pakistani society is characterised as being more collective where people exhibit devotion, loyalty, pride and more cohesiveness in their families, groups and organisations as compared to the more individualistic societies such as the American, Australian and British (Hofstede, 1991 and 2001; House *et al*. 2004). Further, being a Muslim society, the family in Pakistan is believed to be a very important and fundamental unit of society (Shah, 2006a) because it "serves as a reference for rights and duties [and] Islam is very emphatic about the significance of family and its priority in different matters" (Shah, 2010a:34). The importance of the concept of family is highlighted by Shah (2009) in her study on college heads in Pakistan. She points out that college heads in Pakistan perform the role of a family head within a college, because of the religious and cultural influences, through considering all teachers, other employees and students as family members, as is indicated by a principal's response quoted in Shah's (2009:10) study:

"We work as a family. My staff members co-operate and do even those tasks which are not in their jobs descriptions. But then I also support them in all areas, whether that's work-related or personal. When they come with personal or family problems, I listen, advise and occasionally intervene (PF3)".

This highlights how strong the bonds are that people have within their groups in Pakistani society, even in professional places. This response also supports the argument made in the previous section regarding the higher importance of non-monitory rewards against the extra time and effort invested by the faculty members for the institution. The faculty members' families, colleagues, society and students or groups-related factors detailed in the previous chapter are, therefore, significant elements in creating job satisfaction because of the collective nature of the societal context of the present study, as indicated from the responses below:

Living away from the family, especially with reference to the female faculty members, is a crucial factor that has negative impact upon their [faculty members] job satisfaction (R15), family's liking or disliking of the job is important for me (R8), social status which I receive from this job also increase[s] my job satisfaction because I have circle of friends because of this job who are highly educated (R1).

The societal culture of Pakistan has additional implications for female faculty members' job satisfaction because a woman is believed to be responsible for the family's 'honour' (Shah, 2010a). Indeed, women are expected to maintain this responsibility for 'honour' within the professional context as well. Working women in Pakistan express more satisfaction in the teaching profession/job because this occupation is considered socially respectable and more suitable for women, as one participant stated:

Social respect or social status [that] I receive being a faculty member enhance[s] my job satisfaction because in our society office work or job in business companies is not appreciated more than teaching for females like me. (R15)

Nevertheless, within the teaching profession women have to be mindful of how to interact/communicate with their male colleagues, and during interaction they have to keep in view the "issues like proximity, critical space, eye contact, posture, gestures, manner of conversing, and physical appearance, [because these] all [have]...implications for interpersonal relations" (Shah, 2009:12, see also Shah, 2004) and other practices that have an effect upon their job satisfaction. If a female faculty member neglects such issues, it might sometimes damage her repute which may ultimately lead towards her leaving the job.

The majority of the faculty job satisfaction factors linked with the institution, leader and faculty members' own job, and several student-related and colleague-related factors, are influenced by the higher educational system of Pakistan and the organizational culture and context of the specific university under study. More specifically, the higher educational system specifies a particular position and associated power and responsibilities for campus principals and divisional directors within an institutional hierarchy, and defines broader policies which further might affect faculty job satisfaction. Therefore, the faculty job satisfaction elements emerged in the present study, such as job nature or job security, sharing of authority and responsibility by the leader with the faculty, working standards provision by the leader, promotion, institutional vision, working conditions, professional development, compensation and institutional policies, are all influenced by the higher educational system. The

organizational culture, similar to societal culture, is a significant dimension of the specific context where educational leaders and faculty members operate and it offers a more immediate framework for their actions (Bush and Middlewood, 2005). Bush and Middlewood (2005) and Bass and Avolio (2004) maintain that leaders and faculty members contribute to the development of organisational culture and are influenced by it as well (see also Sargent and Hannum, 2005). Organizational culture focuses upon the values and beliefs of people working within an educational institution which underpin the behaviour and attitudes of these members. These individual values of the members of an institution join together to shape shared norms and beliefs to represent the organizational culture of that institution (Bush, 2003). Shah (2009:5) also argues that "often patterns of behaviours and accepted conventions in work-related contexts differ across culture and nations [which shape] culture-specific practices". Therefore, the organisational context of the present study has also a critical role in defining the elements affecting the faculty job satisfaction.

The organisational culture and context of the public university under study might be based upon its semi-autonomous status, organisational structure, its rules/regulations and policies, working practices and conventions, procedures and operating systems along with its demographics, which might differ from those of other institutions. As Shah (2009) maintains, in Pakistan different sectors of education such as public, private and religiously-affiliated institutions "have different procedures for selection, employment, promotion, staff development, appraisal and other related practices" (p.5); therefore, this difference in practices may develop different organisational cultures in diverse sectors which might have distinct effects upon faculty job satisfaction. Furthermore, within the public and more specifically within the higher education sector, different degree colleges and universities have different practices. As mentioned in the

first chapter, public universities within Pakistan are governed and are answerable at two levels: the provincial government which keeps check on their administrative issues, and the HEC which as the main governing body for universities looks after all their other affairs, such as academic issues, quality, human resource policies, reforms and financial matters (HEC, 2011). Public universities have their own systems for the selection, employment, development, appraisal and promotion of faculty members in line with HEC rules and instructions. Therefore, this might shape the organisational culture of the public university under study further unique that may influence the job satisfaction of the faculty in a particular way. The organisational culture is furthermore affected by some non-organisational and more external factors that might have negative influence on some faculty members' job satisfaction. As Shah (2009) observed, "the interplay of formal structures and legal processes with social networks, political links, economic status, social class, age, relationships, and *baradari*/kinship networks complicated the structural procedures [through] ...social and political pressures in appointments, promotions and transfers of teaching staff" (P.6) and other related practices. The participants in the present study also understand that the interplay of such social or *baradari*/kinship networks and political links with the formal processes in a university manipulate the structural procedures and, therefore, have a negative effect upon their job satisfaction:

> *A leader should not be allowed to appoint his family members within the institution (R7), Selection of the head/leader is based on the liking and [sic] [or] disliking of the vice chancellor. Leader should be appointed on the basis of academics and other eligibility criteria ...but mostly he/she is appointed because of his/her relationship with the vice chancellor or [due to] any political reference. (R9)*

The above debate on organisational culture supports the argument that in the present study context numerous faculty job satisfaction factors associated with the institution, leader, faculty members' own job, students and colleagues, detailed in the previous chapter, are influenced by the organizational culture of the public university under study along with the wider societal culture. In essence, "multiple factors including faith, culture, ethnicity, dominant values, [gender] and relationships influence patterns of work, attitude to work, attitude to professional development, response to leadership role and other practices on professional sites" (Shah, 2009:10), which have significant effects on faculty job satisfaction. As these factors vary across societies and nations, faculty members in different societal contexts have highlighted different faculty job satisfaction factors (Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2006; Castillo and Cano, 2004; Karimi, 2008; Oshagbemi, 1997). Therefore, several faculty job satisfaction factors revealed in this study, as highlighted in the previous chapter, are unique to this research context.

Looking at these findings from a different perspective that has not been explored in the previous studies, the present study examined which of these faculty job satisfaction factors are influenced/not influenced by the leader. The participants highlighted many elements which they think have significant effects upon faculty members' job satisfaction, either positive or negative, and are influenced by the leader. The majority of these elements were linked with the leader as an individual and some of these were associated with the institution and the faculty's job. This indicates that the leader as an individual, their leadership style and other factors related to the leader are critical with regards to faculty job satisfaction, which endorses the above discussed findings with respect to the relationship between leadership styles and faculty members' job satisfaction. However, relating these faculty job satisfaction elements to the leaders in

the present study context might be associated to the Pakistani higher educational system, organizational structure including all types of operating procedures in this research context, and organizational culture - because the significant role of a leader in developing the organizational culture cannot be denied (Dimmock and Walker, 2005). In the context of the current study there is "a Director/Principal of each Division/...[Campus], who... [is] Chairman and Convener of the Division/[Campus]... [and] plan, organize and supervise the work of the Division/[Campus] and... [is] responsible for the entire academic and research affairs of the Division/[Campus]" (PAP, 2004:18-19). The campus principal/divisional director works under the vice-chancellor, and all the faculty members in a campus/division work under him/her (PAP, 2004). Therefore, because of the leader's official authority and the liabilities associated to their position within an organisational structure, defined by the higher educational system, the leader's influence becomes important regarding the faculty members' job satisfaction.

Further, the faculty job satisfaction factors are also influenced by their leaders because of the leaders' powers, which they draw from culture, religion and societal sources. Due to these power sources some college heads run their institutions like a family, believing the institution as their home and employees and students as their family members, and therefore "the heads were positioned to command[,] respect and authority" (Shah, 2009:11). Shah (2009), however, argues that leaders exercise such authority differentially based upon their social, religious and political power sources. Some specific faculty job satisfaction factors, revealed in this study, such as trust, cooperation, respect and the relationship between the leader and faculty, delegation of power, distribution of workload and independence in work in the Pakistani context might be defined by the "cultural expectations, family, age, seniority, gender" (Shah, 2009:11)

178

and other such factors, for example friendship, same subject area, attachment with the same academic union, and even sometimes same residential area of the leader and the faculty members. Whereas, the other faculty job satisfaction elements were not influenced by the leader because these were linked with societal culture, the personal issues of the faculty members and students as individuals, faculty members' families, and institutional and HEC policies over which a leader has no direct or indirect control.

6.4 The Leader's Role in Enhancing Faculty Job Satisfaction

Shah (2006b:365-366) argues that "different cultures, societies and communities construe leadership in different ways, [therefore] how a particular society perceives and constructs educational leadership, ...needs to be understood and debated in context [because] when leadership is wrenched from the context and theorised, the complexity and ambiguity of the concept and subsequent difficulties in interpretation/s increase". Simkins *et al*. (1998) in their study regarding the role perception of school leadership in Pakistan argue that "the role of the headteacher can only be fully understood within its own particular context... [and] that contextual factors will influence the nature of headship in Pakistan as they will elsewhere" (p.132). The researchers further argue that in developing countries most of the debate regarding the headteacher's role is focused on leadership models/theories developed in the Western world rather than investigation of educational leaders' roles in the particular local context. These arguments are equally true for university leadership. The present study extended Simkins *et al's*. (1998) argument from school leadership to university leadership and explored the leader's role in enhancing faculty job satisfaction. Pakistani societal culture possibly has considerable influence on educational leaders and their colleagues' behaviour (Ali *et al*., 1993), as is the case in the context of present study. The findings from the qualitative

data highlight that the leader's role is very critical, and there are a number of leadership behaviours considered to be significant, which design this role, to enhance the faculty members' job satisfaction, as indicated from the following responses:

Leader's role is very important, leader should be helping, should develop faculty personally and professionally, [and] provide facilities [to faculty] on the job, ...he should take all the faculty with him/her in all matters, [and] there should not be one man show (R8), I think leader at the university level should be visionary and optimistic, ...and he should be energetic and positive minded, and leader should always try to enhance the standard of the university in academics and office facilities and other facilities, [and] should develop/support faculty in research and higher education ...and should maintain high moral standards. (R10)

Several more leadership behaviours are highlighted by other respondents:

Leader should be caring and be aware [of] and [should] solve the problems of the faculty, should share authority with all faculty and he should not spare [sic] [use] someone for his personal interest, ...he is a key factor of my job satisfaction because he is my guide and he is my coach, he can guide me in positive and negative way, if the leader is good then the culture of the institution is good. (R7) Leader ...should respect the faculty ...and should [be] cooperative, should [provide] ...fair rewards (R2) and believes in team work (R12), she/he should encourage if someone is doing/performing good [job] (14).

These leadership behaviours are very similar to the characteristics of the five dimensions of transformational and the first dimension, contingent reward, of transactional leadership. This indicates that the qualitative data again support the

previous findings, because these leadership dimensions also have significant positive relationships with faculty job satisfaction and have also been believed to be conducive to faculty members' job satisfaction. However, further studies from the current research context are required to verify these findings. The above defined role of an educational leader in the present study context is based upon the societal culture, beliefs and values of the people of that specific context (Shah, 2006b), because individuals with different faith backgrounds, systems of social beliefs and doctrines conceive and conceptualize educational leadership in different ways (Shah, 2006a). These findings are consistent with the previous studies, from various countries in educational settings, regarding the leader's key role designed by the above highlighted leadership behaviours to enhance the teachers/faculty members' job satisfaction (Al-Omari, 2008; Awan *et al*., 2008; Bogler, 2001; Dastoor *et al*., 2003; Grosso, 2008; Nguni *et al*., 2006; Stumpf, 2003). This discussion supports Simkins *et al.*'s (2003) argument regarding transformational leadership, that "unlike some other styles of leadership, [it] ...is not culture specific. However, such views are not uncontested" (p.278). Criticism on transformational leadership is offered in detail in the second chapter.

The findings also resonate with the results of Hwa (2008) and Cheah *et al*. (2011), who point out that in the Malaysian context principals' transformational democratic leadership behaviours are more conducive to enhancing teacher job satisfaction. The findings furthermore support the Huczynski and Buchanan's (2007) argument that a fast changing competitive environment calls for the exercise of participative, inspirational and visionary leadership behaviours. However, these findings are contrary to Hofstede's (1991) and Simkins *et al.*'s (2003) argument that Pakistani society expects their leaders to take decisions in an autocratic way and are ready to accept such decisions. This inconsistency among findings might be due to differences in research context, as

Hofstede's study was broader and generally represented the country's culture, while Simkins *et al.*'s study focused on the school context in different province of Pakistan which has a different societal culture in comparison to the current research culture and context. These findings are also inconsistent with House *et al.*'s (2004) studies carried out in 62 different societies aimed at defining culturally endorsed leadership behaviours/styles. House *et al.* establish that in Southern Asia, where Pakistan is located, autocratic leaders are more effective as compared to participative leaders who involve their subordinates in the decision-making process. Whereas, in the current study the participative leadership style is highlighted as conducive to enhancing faculty job satisfaction, and the autocratic style is shown to be a barrier to faculty members' job satisfaction. For example, one participant regarding the leadership style conducive to faculty job satisfaction remarked:

> *Democratic style because leader involve[s] faculty in decision-making [process] and leader respect[s] the views or opinion of the faculty, and all issues can be discussed by the faculty with the leader, and in this style whatever the decision is made is acceptable by the all faculty members. (R10)*

While another respondent commented about the leadership style which is a barrier to faculty job satisfaction:

> *The authoritative style where ...the whole power is occupied by the leader, and where there is no participation from staff or no value given to faculty's opinion or judgement, so such style is barrier for the job satisfaction of the faculty. (R12)*

Nevertheless, more research is called for to validate these findings. As mentioned in the first chapter, the ten campuses of the university under study were colleges,

predominantly offering education programmes and training for new students and in-service teachers, before the establishment of the university in 2002. The colleges' principals and teachers continued their services within the same institutions after the change in status from college to university campus. After 2002, these institutions saw a radical change in terms of organisational/governance structure - as discussed in the previous section, with the commencement of new programmes and new faculty members. Under their previous status these institutions were not different from the government-owned schools. Regarding the structure of public schools in the Pakistani context Simkins *et al*. (2003) highlight that "it is based on a ''top-down'' bureaucratic model ...controlled through centralised policy decisions. The federal Ministry of Education is responsible for formulating education policies and plans with provincial Governments acting as implementing agencies rather than taking independent initiatives for education development in their respective provinces" (p.279)[1]. However, as mentioned earlier, currently campus principals are responsible for all types of academic, research and administrative matters of the campus and the faculty, and are answerable to the vice-chancellor, which demands a new role from the campus principals. Regarding the head's role Simkins *et al*. (2003) argue that "the nature of the ...system in which a head worked had significant implications for how they saw their role and how they played it" (p.280). Therefore, because of the new university system which gives principals authority and makes them responsible, the campus principals' role should be influenced and changed; however, perhaps, they still seem to perceive their role as it was before the 2002 change in system.

The reason behind this argument is that the present study findings highlight that the campus principals and divisional directors are exercising, to varying degrees, all the

---

[1] However, from 2011 education has come under provincial control because of the delegation of power regarding education from the federal level to the provinces.

transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership dimensions; whereas, faculty members want them to exercise transformational style and first dimension (contingent reward) of transactional leadership, to enhance faculty job satisfaction. The leaders now have to change their previous role of being "effectively receivers of policy decisions rather than playing an active role in [institutional] ...development for quality improvement" (Simkins *et al.*, 2003:279) towards becoming more independent, participative and transformational, as highlighted above. There are challenges in the Pakistani context in exercising such practices, for example "the limited professional training and socialisation experienced by most teachers and, indeed, by many principals" (Simkins *et al.*, 2003:278-279), "the degree to which "transformational" leadership is attainable" (Simkins *et al.*, 2003:281) and societal and organisational context compatibility, as societal culture promotes dependency and the practice of the autocratic style (Simkins *et al.*, 2003). However, there is no highly bureaucratic structure in the present study context as mentioned in the rules of the university (PAP, 2004) that might support the practice of such leadership choices. Further, the findings of the current study regarding the leader's role in enhancing faculty job satisfaction are consistent with Simkins *et al.*'s (2003) study findings carried out in the Pakistani school context, where principals highlighted their leadership role as treating teachers with politeness and respect, being positive, friendly and democratic instead of dictatorial in order to gain cooperation from colleagues and to improve the institution in spite of "the incessant social pressure to adopt a predominantly assertive, authoritarian or even disciplinary approach to leadership" (Simkins *et al.*, 2003:284). Furthermore, Simkins *et al.* (2003:285), regarding a principal's role, established that:

> Farhat clearly exemplifies many of the characteristics of the transformational leader... She came to the school with a clear mission; she articulates a clear set

of values which she attempts to instil in her staff both through discussion and direct modelling; and she positively revels in change ...while recognising that her staff do not always find this commitment easy to cope with. However, she brings to her role a level of ascribed social status that appears to leave her unchallengeable in both the school and the community.

This discussion supports the argument that adopting a transformational leader's role in the present study context is, although challenging, not impossible.

In conclusion, the leadership behaviours that are being exercised by the leaders in the present study context are based upon and informed by the societal context of the current research. In order to substantiate the findings from present study more research from this context is needed. Therefore, the readers of this research should bear in mind these considerations along with limitations of the present study discussed in the next chapter. Regarding educational leadership Bush and Middlewood (2005:7) argue that "it is vital to be aware of the powerful differences between countries and not to overestimate their similarities. Some of the problems may be the same but their solutions often depend more on local circumstances than on importing ready-made answers from very different contexts", because "practices vary across societies and nations, and to label any 'one way' as the route to effective practice would not only be simplistic but could be disastrous" (Shah, 2009:3). Simkins *et al*. (2003:289) further warn by arguing that:

While we may indeed have much to offer each other from our different cultural settings and perspectives, we should move forward with great caution. Assumptions about the applicability of theories and models of effective leadership style and effective leaders from the West should be treated with a health warning attached. Context would seem to be a major determinant; and

because contexts can be so culturally different, any attempt to translate notions and models of leadership, and in particular, successful leadership, from one context to another, is fraught with difficulties.

Furthermore, Shah (2010a:29) asserts that "how a particular society perceives and constructs educational leadership is influenced by the dominant cultural and belief systems prevailing in that society or community". Moreover, as the common and rightly argument is made that the majority of the leadership theories and concepts have been developed in and, therefore, are underpinned by Western cultures and "they often fail to acknowledge and incorporate international perspectives and practices, particularly those from the developing world and non-Western societies" (Shah, 2009:14) such as Pakistan. This argument is equally true for the claims made regarding educational leadership based upon the findings from non-western and developing countries – as is the current case. The leadership behaviours/styles highlighted by the participants of this study as contributive to or a barrier to their job satisfaction are linked to societal culture, the higher educational system in Pakistan, organizational settings and institution-specific factors such as institutional culture, hierarchy, policies, operating procedures and demographics, because these settings influence the practices (Shah, 2009). Regarding the influence of societal and organisational culture upon the leadership perception and conceptualizations, Bush and Middlewood (2005) maintain that perhaps societal culture causes major differences among different countries. This is because:

> Societal cultures differ mostly at the level of basic values, while organisational cultures differ mostly at the level of more superficial practices, as reflected in the recognition of particular symbols, heroes, and rituals. This allows organisational cultures to be deliberately managed and changed, whereas

societal or national cultures are more enduring and change only gradually over longer time periods.

(Dimmock and Walker, 2002b:71)

The researcher agrees with this argument and contends that in the present research context societal culture has a more significant influence upon the perception of leadership behaviours to enhance faculty job satisfaction, and faculty members' job satisfaction factors as compared to organisational culture influence. This concurs with Simkins *et al*.'s (2003) and Ali *et al*.'s (1993) assertion regarding the impact of the Pakistani cultural context on the leaders/colleagues' behaviours. Simkins *et al*. (2003:288) established that "national culture is an important variable in influencing leadership behaviour, but that this influence is mediated by system and personal factors". However, organisational culture or the other factors highlighted above are not less critical in this regard. Since "people from diverse ideological and ethnic backgrounds conceive, perceive and practise educational leadership differently, drawing upon their beliefs, values and knowledge sources" (Shah, 2010a:27). Therefore, the findings revealed by this study are specifically limited to the present research context.

Chapter 7: Conclusions, Implications and Suggestions

The first part of this final chapter presents a brief outline of the thesis and a summary of the main findings. In the second part, conclusions drawn from the study and their implications for theory, practice and policy are discussed. Finally, in this chapter, the limitations of the study, followed by suggestions for future research are provided.

7.1 Main Findings

The investigation was carried out through the mixed methods approach. The quantitative part of the study, which addressed the first two research questions, investigated the leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) exercised by the principals/directors of the university under study, and explored the relationship between these leadership styles and the faculty members' job satisfaction. Whereas, in the qualitative part, which deals with the last three research questions, significant elements of faculty job satisfaction have been investigated along with identifying which of these factors are influenced/not influenced by the leader. Furthermore in this part, the principals/directors' leadership styles which are conducive/a barrier to faculty job satisfaction have been examined, before the final exploration of the leaders' role in enhancing faculty job satisfaction.

The study focused on one Pakistani public-sector university, and all the 287 faculty members of this university were included in the quantitative data sample, whereas fifteen faculty members from five different campuses were interviewed to generate qualitative data. The quantitative data has been collated through MLQ Form 5X-Short and MCMJSS; whereas, the qualitative data has been generated through the semi-structured interview protocol. Multiple regression analysis along with descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) have been used to analyse the quantitative data;

whereas, thematic analysis has been used to analyse the qualitative data. The main findings of the study are presented below.

- The transformational leadership style is comparatively being more often exercised by the leaders of a public university in Pakistan than the transactional leadership style; whereas, the laissez-faire leadership style is the least practised.

- There are significant relationships between leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and the faculty's intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction. However, the leadership styles have slightly stronger relationship with extrinsic job satisfaction as compared to overall job satisfaction, and the relationship of leadership styles with intrinsic job satisfaction is relatively least strong. The transformational leadership style, in relation to the other two leadership styles (transactional and laissez-faire), has a strong positive and statistically significant effect on faculty's job satisfaction. Whereas, the laissez-faire leadership style, relatively, has weak positive and statistically insignificant effect on the job satisfaction of faculty members. The transactional leadership style, on the other hand, has comparatively weak negative and statistically insignificant effect on faculty's job satisfaction.

- A number of significant elements of the faculty members' job satisfaction have been found to be linked with the institution, leader, faculty members' themselves, their job, colleagues and students. Most of the elements related to the institution, job, and leader are influenced by the leader; whereas, some factors that are more linked with the faculty members themselves, their colleagues and students are not influenced by the leader.

- The participative leadership style and the behaviours associated with transformational style and the first dimension (contingent reward) of

transactional leadership are perceived as conducive to faculty job satisfaction. Whereas, the practice of authoritative and laissez-faire leadership styles and the lack of exercise of leadership behaviours related to transformational and transactional (first dimension only) leadership are considered to be barriers to faculty job satisfaction.

- The leader's role has been found to be critical for the faculty members' job satisfaction, and the exercise of behaviours related to all the transformational aspects and the first dimension, contingent reward, of the transactional leadership by leaders have been highlighted as necessary for enhancing the faculty members' job satisfaction.

7.2 Conclusions: Implications for Theory, Practice and Policy

The findings of this study and the conclusions drawn from the study have several important implications for theory, practice and policy. The overwhelming majority of the empirical studies which have investigated the effects of transformational and transactional leadership behaviours are from the Western world (Nguni *et al*., 2006). The results of the present study, which has been conducted in a developing country taking the case of one public university of Pakistan, partially support Bass's (1985 and 1997) claim, which has also been acknowledged and supported by other researchers (Currie and Lockett, 2007; Den Hartog *et al*., 1999; Pawar and Eastman, 1997), regarding the universality of the transformational and transactional leadership theoretical paradigm across different organisations and cultures throughout the world. Bass establishes that because of the distinctiveness of different cultures and organizations there might be exceptions in generalizations. The findings of this study demonstrate that in spite of the cultural differences between Pakistan and the Western

world (Hofstede, 2001), and regardless of the fact that transformational and transactional leadership theories have their origin and their later development in the Western world (Nguni *et al*., 2006), this theoretical leadership paradigm is not restricted to the Western world. This supports Bass's (1999:16, see also Bass and Avolio, 2004:39) more specific observation that "although the original theory, model, and measurements emerged in the individualistic United States, it appears equally or even more applicable in the collectivist societies of Asia". Bass's observation is underpinned by the argument that:

> Collectivist cultures provide the leaders with ready-made opportunities to become transformational leaders. Most subordinates in collectivist cultures already have respect for their leaders. Transformational leadership is more likely to be enhanced further by... the high level of group orientation among followers. The mutual obligation between the leaders and the followers facilitates the transformational leader's *individualized consideration*. Leaders in collectivist cultures already have a moral responsibility to take care of their subordinates, to help them prepare a career development plan, to attend their birthday parties, funeral ceremonies, and to counsel followers about personal problems. In turn, subordinates have a moral obligation to reciprocate with unquestioning loyalty and obedience.

> (Bass, 1999:16, see also Bass and Avolio, 2004:39 and Walumbwa and Lawler,
>
> 2003)

Bass's (1999) observation supports Jung *et al*.'s (1995, cited in Bass, 1999:16) claim that "indeed, transformational leadership may be far more pervasive in collectivist societies compared to the individualistic societies of the West". However, because of

the societal culture, religious values, organisational culture and structure, and institutional settings some characteristics of certain dimensions, such as the intellectual stimulation and contingent reward, are interpreted differently in the context of the current study, as detailed in the sixth chapter. Bass's (1985 and 1997) claim is further supported through empirical research evidence from different parts of the world, such as Bogler (2001) from Israel, Dastoor *et al*. (2003) from Thailand, Koh *et al*. (1995) from Singapore, Nguni *et al*. (2006) from Tanzania, and Yu *et al*. (2002) from Hong Kong. This demonstrates that the transformational and transactional leadership theoretical paradigm to some extent can be applicable in collectivist cultures along with individualistic cultures. However, the level of applicability of this leadership paradigm varies across societies based upon the different dimensions of a specific societal and organisational culture.

The findings of the present study highlight a number of transformational and transactional (contingent reward dimension only) leadership behaviours, detailed in the fifth chapter, and the participative approach as being conducive to faculty job satisfaction and a necessary component of the leader's role to enhance faculty members' job satisfaction. The findings suggest that the leaders (campus principals/divisional directors) should practise behaviours related to the all aspects of transformational leadership and first dimension (contingent reward) of transactional style along with the participative approach, discussed in detail in the literature review chapter, in order to enhance faculty members' job satisfaction. However, the leaders should avoid passive/avoidant and authoritative behaviours, debated in the second chapter, because these types of leadership behaviour have been highlighted as barriers to faculty members' job satisfaction.

The findings suggest that the leader's role is critical, and emphasise the impact of the leader's behaviour on faculty members' job satisfaction. It has been argued that with the rapid changes in the world outside of educational institutions, leaders within institutions are facing more challenges, which suggests that leaders need more advanced skills and competencies to cope with these challenges (Nguni *et al*., 2006). The growing need for the development of new leadership competencies has increased the demand for leadership training and development programmes (Yukl, 2002). Prior studies from non-educational settings, such as military and business, have highlighted that leadership training in the transformational and transactional leadership behaviours helped leaders to be more effective and to enhance institutional performance (Avolio and Bass, 1998; Barling *et al*., 1996; Bass, 1998; Dvir *et al*., 2002; Yukl, 2002).

Therefore, the vice-chancellor of the university under study might find it useful to take measures to develop existing leaders with the suggested behaviours to enhance faculty members' job satisfaction. This in turn might help to implement any reforms/change within the institution and support the enhancement of student learning, because "satisfied teachers will be more enthusiastic about investing more time and energy in teaching students" (Nguni *et al*., 2006:173, see also Hean and Garrett, 2001), and to improve quality in education because "educational quality is largely related to teacher job satisfaction" (Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2006:245). For this purpose, the university's higher authorities might establish a division/cell within its administrative system to conduct leadership development needs analysis, to provide them with continuous support and opportunities through short courses, workshops and seminars, and to evaluate leaders. This cell would benefit from leadership specialists who could perform the above stated activities along with advising on the hiring of any new leaders with desirable leadership behaviours and aptitude. This cell may use MLQ "to identify

[suitable] candidates for selection to training programmes, transfer to leadership positions, and [for] promotion to supervisory [leadership] positions" (Bass and Avolio, 2004:6). However, it is important to highlight that "the MLQ (5X-Long) is... [used] for training, development, and feedback purposes" (Bass and Avolio, 2004:5).

With regard to faculty job satisfaction enhancement, policy making institutions, for example the government and HEC, and the university ought to consider the issues highlighted as faculty members' job satisfaction factors in the present study, as detailed in the fifth chapter, to inform practice and future policies. Some of these are working conditions and facilities to perform the job, institutional policies and operating procedures, communication within the institution, compensation including retirement benefits and other fringe benefits such as medical facilities and residential facilities, institutional vision, personal and professional development and promotion, and social environment. Moreover, these policy making institutions should further carry out research projects aimed at exploring and defining the faculty job satisfaction elements in the native cultural context instead employing the existing job satisfaction theories and survey instruments mainly developed in western contexts. This is useful for the reason that the extant theories of job satisfaction and survey instruments developed in western contexts do not acknowledge the other countries' perspectives, such as Pakistan, because as highlighted in the present study and many previous studies (Toker, 2011; Giacometti, 2005; Karimi, 2008; Dusitsutirat, 2009) the faculty job satisfaction factors vary in different societal contexts. Similarly, leaders need to consider the leader-related and job-related factors linked with the leader, highlighted in the fifth chapter, to inform their practices to enhance faculty job satisfaction. Moreover, the study also highlights the need for the society to give due recognition and respect/status to teachers, equivalent

to that given to people in similar positions in other professions such as the military, medicine and judiciary.

A number of previous studies from the Pakistani higher educational context highlight the problems with leadership, governance and administration (Iqbal, 2004; Isani, 2001). This indicates the concerns regarding leadership issues, but unfortunately there is no institution/body at federal or provincial level for attending to these issues at any level (school, college or university) of leadership. Therefore, it is suggested that the Higher Education Commission (HEC), which is the main relevant governing body and oversees higher education in Pakistan, should conduct research projects in order to investigate leaders and the leadership practices in the Pakistani public sector universities. These research projects should focus on investigating and developing leadership accounts that are contextualised and informed by the local societal culture rather than adopting the extant models of leadership and survey instruments developed in western contexts because they fall short in recognizing and incorporating the international viewpoints, particularly those from the developing world and non-Western cultures (Shah, 2009) such as Pakistan. In the light of the findings of these research projects, the HEC and Pakistani government could bring reforms and establish institutions for the development of university leadership through providing continuous support, and managing workshops/seminars to develop desirable leadership behaviours in order to enhance faculty members' job satisfaction.

Similar initiatives have been taken by the UK government, and various other developed countries, to improve "failing schools through transformational leadership... [by establishing a] National College for School Leadership devoted to the development of transformational leaders" (Currie and Lockett, 2007:342), and to improve further and

higher education leadership through establishing a "Leadership College for Further Education [in] 2003, Leadership Foundation for Higher Education [in] 2004" (Currie and Lockett, 2007:344), and "the ...Centre for Excellence in Leadership for the learning and skills sector" (Simkins, 2005:9).

In conclusion, both sets of data affirm a significant relationship between leadership style and faculty job satisfaction. The leader's role in enhancing the faculty members' satisfaction within their jobs has been highlighted as critical. Currently, the campus principals and divisional directors of a public university in Pakistan are exercising leadership behaviours related to transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. Whereas, the findings suggest that the campus principals and divisional directors should exercise leadership behaviours associated with five transformational leadership aspects and first dimension (contingent reward) of transactional leadership along with democratic or participative leadership style to enhance the faculty job satisfaction. However, context-specific interpretation of some characteristics of certain dimensions, such as the intellectual stimulation and contingent reward - detailed in the chapter 6, should be taken into account. The campus principals and divisional directors should also avoid passive/avoidant and authoritative leadership behaviours as these have been found as barriers to faculty job satisfaction. The concept and practice of leadership, notion of job satisfaction, and the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction vary across societies and cultures. Therefore, in order to improve the leadership practices and to enhance faculty job satisfaction, these concepts should be investigated in a particular cultural and organisational context, and then culture and context informed practices should be adopted to improve the individual and institutional performance and quality.

7.3 Limitations of the Study

The present study focused upon the campus principals/divisional directors' (leaders) leadership styles and the relationship between these leadership styles and the faculty members' job satisfaction. Furthermore, the study is limited to the data collected from the faculty members of one public-sector university. Therefore, the findings of the current study in terms of their generalization are limited to the leaders and faculty members of that specific university. The quantitative data was collected through including all the faculty members of the university in the study sample; however, the qualitative data was generated from only 15 faculty members. Further, these fifteen interviewees were from five different campuses out of a total of thirteen different units (ten campuses and three divisions) of the case university. The study is also limited to the faculty members in terms of the participants who described their leader's leadership styles as well as their own job satisfaction. In the quantitative part of the study the transformational and transactional leadership theoretical paradigm has been taken, amongst the many different theoretical leadership frameworks, and the leadership styles have been measured through MLQ Form 5X-Short; whereas, job satisfaction has been measured through MCMJSS from various job satisfaction questionnaires.

This study, since, adopted a leadership theoretical paradigm developed in the Western context and also utilised survey instruments that are developed in the Western context to define the leaders' leadership behaviours and faculty job satisfaction; therefore, it is suggested to investigate and develop more local accounts through developing more contextualised and locally relevant understandings of leadership and job satisfaction that arise through more inductive, open-ended and exploratory modes of enquiry. Allowing the Western models of leadership to shape and guide research developed in

different cultural contexts such as the present case has both the strengths and the weaknesses. It offers the opportunity to check the degree of applicability of these models in different cultures. It might also provide the opportunity to compare and contrast the findings revealed with the same model/s in different cultural contexts and to examine the extent to which societal culture influences the choice of leadership styles. The Western context, since, is academically stronger and the research culture there is also more developed as compared to the non-western developing world; therefore, the use of leadership models developed in this context might be helpful to establish the base for research culture in general and base for educational leadership research specifically in developing countries such as Pakistan. Consequently, this might be useful in developing the local context based and native culture informed leadership models in non-western contexts. Some leadership models from the Western context that are well developed and recognised and which also acknowledge the non-western perspectives and have applicability in different cultural contexts might reveal credible findings in non-western context that could be used for consequential decisions.

However, there are many weaknesses of and challenges in using the Western models of leadership to shape and guide research developed in different cultural contexts. The concepts and models/theories of leadership, since, are shaped and informed by the specific societal culture and context (Shah, 2006b; Dimmock, 2002; House, 1995; Shah, 2010a; Simkins, 2005); therefore, the use of Western models of leadership to shape and guide research developed in different cultural contexts might end up in revealing misleading findings. As the majority of the Western models of leadership, as mentioned in the previous chapter, "often fail to acknowledge and incorporate international perspectives and practices, particularly those from the developing world and non-Western societies" (Shah, 2009:14) such as Pakistan; therefore, the findings obtained

198

from those studies using the Western models of leadership might not be used for consequential decisions.

7.4 Suggestions for Future Research

The findings of the present study, as mentioned above, partially confirm Bass's (1985 and 1997) claim about the universality of the transformational and transactional theoretical leadership paradigm across societies; however, as the present research is focused on one Pakistani university from Punjab province, therefore more similar studies from other universities of all the Pakistani provinces are suggested to further substantiate Bass's claim. This might also provide opportunities to compare findings to determine if any difference exists among different provinces because they have distinct societal culture, as previously no study in any Pakistani province has been carried out at university level with this theoretical leadership framework.

The present study is confined to one Pakistani public-sector university, therefore, further research from other Pakistani public and private universities might help to provide a clearer picture regarding the generalizability of the findings in the higher education context; preferably such research should be a large scale study, using more inductive, open-ended and exploratory modes of enquiry in order to develop more contextualised and locally relevant understandings of leadership, and involve several universities. Such a study/studies might also provide opportunities to compare and contrast the findings among and between the public, private, small, large, agricultural, information technology, education, engineering and general universities to find if any difference exists in the findings because of the variations in organizational culture, shaped by the semi-autonomous status of the universities, their rules and regulations, procedures and operating systems, organisational conventions, specific university

demographics and regional societal culture, and their effect on leadership practices. This research could be extended to the school and college context, which will provide opportunities to compare and contrast the findings to examine if any difference exists in leadership behaviours/practices and their relationship with teachers/faculty members' job satisfaction at three different educational levels and organisational settings (school, college and university).

In the present study both the quantitative and qualitative sets of data were collated by involving the faculty members as participants. In future studies, it is suggested to obtain data from different sources, such as leaders along with faculty members, and use more diverse data generation methods, such as a leader's diary and observation of a leader at work, along with the questionnaire and interviews. The present study attempted to understand the relationship between faculty members' job satisfaction and university leaders' leadership behaviour using the transformational and transactional leadership paradigm. Future research might examine the relationship between more faculty-related variables such as motivation and performance, and the transformational and transactional leadership behaviours to examine the wide-ranging effects of this leadership paradigm and to widen the research body at the higher educational level. The relationship between other leadership paradigms, for example distributed leadership and servant leadership, and faculty-related variables might also be investigated for the said purpose. The current study highlighted the factors affecting university faculty job satisfaction significantly; future studies might explore the concept, level of and factors affecting faculty job satisfaction using these elements rather than using surveys developed in Western cultural contexts, because in different contexts different factors affect faculty job satisfaction (as mentioned in the first and second chapters). It might also be explored whether the significant positive effect of leadership styles on faculty

job satisfaction would cause any increase in faculty motivation and performance. Moreover, it could be investigated whether satisfied faculty members truly add to institutional performance. Furthermore, future studies are suggested to investigate the relationship between leaders' demographic variables and their leadership choices, the faculty's demographic variables and their job satisfaction, and to examine the intervening effect of these relationships upon the relationship between leadership behaviours and faculty job satisfaction.

Finally, the current study findings, as stated earlier, partially endorse Bass's (1985 and 1997) claim regarding the universality of the transformational and transactional approach throughout the world, further studies adopting more inductive, open-ended and exploratory modes of enquiry to develop context based and societal culture informed accounts of leadership from other countries especially from collective societies are suggested to verify Bass's claim. This might be helpful to obtain truer picture regarding the Bass's claim, since using the survey instrument developed to measure the transformational and transactional leadership by the theorists of this leadership paradigm in American context might reveal misleading findings. This argument is based on the contention that, firstly, "the concepts of educational leadership and its practices vary across societies and cultures" (2010a:29) and therefore leaders in a particular context where the survey instrument developed in Western context is being used might adopt completely different leadership styles, and secondly the respondents of the survey instrument might provide incorrect data and paint the picture falsely (Cohen *et al.*, 2007). More specifically, further research from other South Asian countries, for example India, Iran and Bangladesh which feature more collectivist societies like Pakistan (Hofstede, 2001), is suggested to further confirm Bass's claim. This might also provide opportunities to compare findings to determine if any

difference exists among these societies, as previously no study in India, Iran or Bangladesh was found at university level with this theoretical leadership framework.

Appendix A

MLQ   Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Rater Form (5x-Short)

Name of Leader: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

This questionnaire is to describe the leadership style of the above-mentioned individual as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.** Please answer this questionnaire anonymously.

IMPORTANT (necessary for processing): Which best describes you?

___ I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.
___ The person I am rating is at my organizational level.
___ I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.
___ I do not wish my organizational level to be known.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

THE PERSON I AM RATING. . .

1.	Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	0	1	2	3	4
2.	Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3.	Fails to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4.	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
5.	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4

Note: The entire instrument is not included in the thesis because of the copyright issue.

Appendix B

Specification of Item Numbers for the Nine Leadership Dimensions in Original MLQ Rater Form (5X-Short)

Transformational Leadership Style

1. Idealized Influence (attributed) - 4 items # 10,18,21,25

2. Idealized Influence (behaviour) - 4 items # 6,14,23,34

3. Inspirational Motivation - 4 items # 9,13,26,36

4. Intellectual Stimulation - 4 items # 2,8,30,32

5. Individualized Consideration - 4 items # 15,19,29,31

Transactional Leadership Style

6. Contingent Reward - 4 Items # 1,11,16 35

7. Management-by-Exception (active) - 4 items # 4,22,24,27

8. Management-by-Exception (passive) - 4 items # 3,12,17,20

Laissez-Faire Leadership Style

9. Laissez-Faire - 4 items # 5,7,28,33

Leadership Outcome Variables (Which are not considered in this Study)

10. Extra Effort- 3 items #39,42,44

11. Effectiveness - 4 items #37,40,43,45

12. Satisfaction - 2 items #38,41

Appendix C

<u>MOHRMAN-COOKE-MOHRMAN JOB SATISFACTION SCALE</u>[2]

Indicate your level of satisfaction with various facets of your job by circling a number on the six-point scale after each of the statements.

_____

<u>Intrinsic Satisfaction</u>	<u>Low</u>					<u>High</u>
1- The feeling of self-esteem or self-respect you get from being in your job	1	2	3	4	5	6
2- The opportunity for personal growth and development in your job	1	2	3	4	5	6
3- The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in your job	1	2	3	4	5	6
4- Your present job when you consider the expectations you had when you took the job	1	2	3	4	5	6

_____

<u>Extrinsic Satisfaction</u>	<u>Low</u>					<u>High</u>
5- The amount of respect and fair treatment you receive from your supervisors	1	2	3	4	5	6
6- The feeling of being informed in your job	1	2	3	4	5	6
7- The amount of supervision you receive	1	2	3	4	5	6
8- The opportunity for participation in the determination of methods, procedures, and goals	1	2	3	4	5	6

---

[2] Developed by Allan M. Mohrman, Jr., Robert A. Cooke, and Susan Albers Mohrman

Campuses and Divisions' Faculty Profile of a Public University of Pakistan

Sr.No.	Campus/Division Name	total	Male	Female	Lecturer	Assistant prof.	Associate Prof.	Professor
1	Campus A	11	5	8	12	1	-	-
2	Campus B	48	1	49	31	14	5	-
3	Campus C	17	8	11	10	8	1	-
4	Campus D	29	15	16	21	8	2	-
5	Campus E	14	6	10	16	-	-	-
6	Campus F	23	17	8	13	7	4	1
7	Campus G	31	11	22	16	15	1	1
8	Campus H	32	21	13	32	2	-	-
9	Campus I	6	3	5	5	3	-	-
10	Campus J	11	3	10	13	-	-	-
11	Division A	4	5	1	3	2	-	1
12	Division B	28	17	15	16	9	4	3
13	Division c	5	4	3	5	-	-	2
Total		**287**	**116**	**171**	**193**	**69**	**17**	**8**

Source: Administration department of a public university of Pakistan (defined on 17 July 2010)

Appendix E

Permission for Mohrman-Cook-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS)

```
-----Original Message-----
From: Mohrman, Susan [mailto:smohrman@marshall.usc.edu]
Sent: 19 September 2009 19:18
To: Amin, M.
Subject: RE: request for information please (Amin, UK)


Hello Amin,

There is no charge for using the instrument, and you definitely are
welcomed to use it.  I do not have a soft copy.  I have not personally
used this instrument for 28 years, as I have been doing research in
different kinds of settings----although we yearly get approximately 20
requests to use the instrument.
I wish you luck with your research.

Sue Mohrman

-----Original Message-----
From: Amin, M. [mailto:ma366@leicester.ac.uk]
Sent: Saturday, September 19, 2009 6:26 AM
To: Mohrman, Susan
Subject: request for information please (Amin, UK)


Dear Dr. Susan Mohrman

I am Muhammad Amin, pursuing my Doctor of Education, at University of
Leicester, England, UK.

I took your e.mail ID from the online dissertation of Stumpf (2003).

I am writing to request to take information about permission and use of
the "Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales" in near future, as
one of my survey instrument for my doctoral degree. The title of my study
is, "The Relationship of Principals/Directors' Leadership Styles, as
Perceived by the Faculty, to the Job Satisfaction of the Faculty Members
in a Public University of Punjab, Pakistan".

I want to know please;

1- Is there any compensation to use your instrument?
2- Will you please e.mail me soft copy of this instrument, as it is not
available online?

If there is additional information you require, please contact me via e-
mail at ma366@le.ac.uk . Thank you for your assistance with this request.

BEST REGARDS
Amin
```

Appendix F

Semi-Structured Interview Schedule

1- What are the significant elements of job satisfaction for you as a faculty member in a public university of Pakistan?

Can you please name some more factors?... any other... What are the factors related to your leader which affect your job satisfaction?... Can you please name some more?... any other... Do you think relationship with leader, input in decision making, supervision, recognition by the leader, moral values of the leader and sharing authority and responsibility by the leader might affect your job satisfaction significantly?... How...? What are the factors related to your work that significantly affect your job satisfaction?... Can you reveal some more factors?... Do you think factors such as compensation, permanent or contractual job, long commute, overload, independence in work and working conditions affect your job satisfaction significantly?... How...? Can you please name some factors related to your institution which affect your job satisfaction?... any other... Does communication within the institution, the way institutional policies are implemented and operating procedures affect you job satisfaction?... How...? How your colleagues and students affect your job satisfaction?... Can you name some more factors?.... Do you think respect from the colleagues and students, relationship with the colleagues and students, appreciation by the colleagues and performance of the students affect your job satisfaction?... How...? What are the factors linked with your own personality and your family which affect your job satisfaction significantly?... please name some more factors... any other... How the factors such as living away from the family, sense of achievement, family's liking or disliking of the job and social status/respect being in the job, affect your job satisfaction?... Is there any other factor which you want to add please?

2- Which of these elements are significantly influenced by leader?

3- Which of these elements are not significantly influenced by leader?

4- Which leadership style is more conducive to your job satisfaction in the Pakistani context in your opinion? And why?

5- Which leadership style can be a barrier to your job satisfaction as a faculty member in the Pakistani context? And why?

6- How would you define the role of a leader in enhancing the faculty members' job satisfaction in the Pakistani context?

7- Is there anything else you would like to add?

Appendix G

Informed Consent Request Form

Dear Sir/Madam

I am Muhammad Amin, a lecturer in education at a public university of Pakistan, currently working towards the degree of 'Doctor of Education' at the University of Leicester, UK.

I'll greatly appreciate if you could co-operate in developing understanding of this topic by contributing to it as a research participant. I assure you that all responses will be kept confidential and anonymous, and will be used for academic purposes only. On your demand I can share the findings of this study with you.

Completion of both the questionnaires takes approximately 15 minutes.

I thank you for your contribution and valuable time.

The **topic** of my study is:

> *The Relationship of Principals/Directors' Leadership Styles, as Perceived by the Faculty, to the Job Satisfaction of the Faculty Members in a Public University of Punjab, Pakistan*

Important Terms

Leadership Style

The leadership style in this study is taken as the pattern of the principal/director's interaction or behaviour that he/she exerts while influencing the faculty members in order to guide, structure and facilitate activities and relationships in a campus/division.

Job Satisfaction

It refers to the positive and favourable attitudes and feelings which faculty members have about their jobs.

If you have any query please contact: ma366@le.ac.uk; *or* 0334 409 6496

Appendix H

Permission for MLQ Rater Form (5X-Short)

mind garden

www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

for his/her thesis research.

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

References

Adams, J.S. (1963) 'Toward and Understanding of Inequity'. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, **67** (5), pp.422-436.

Alam, S.S., Talha, M., Sivanand, C.N. and Ahsan, M.N. (2005) 'Job Satisfaction of University Woman Teachers in Bangladesh'. *Journal of Social sciences*, **1** (2), pp.88-91.

Ali, M.A., Qasim, S.A., Jaffer, R. and Greenland, G. (1993) 'Teacher-Centre and School-Based Models of Collegiality and Professional Development: Case Studies of the Teachers' Resource Centre and the Aga Khan School System in Karachi, Pakistan'. *International Journal of Educational Research*, **19** (8), pp.735-754.

Allen, K.E. (1996) 'Working toward Transformational Leadership in Higher Education'. *About Campus*, **1** (3), pp.11-15.

Al-Omari, A. (2007) 'Leadership Styles of Department Chairs at the Hashemite University'. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Sciences*, **8** (3), pp.7-24.

Al-Omari, A. (2008) 'The Relationship between Leadership Styles of Hashemite University Department Chairs and Job Satisfaction as Reported by Department Faculty Members'. *University of Sharjah Journal for Humanities & Social Sciences*, **5** (2), pp.101-124.

Altman, M. (2002) *Worker Satisfaction and Economic Performance*. Armonk: M.E. Sharpe Publishers.

Ambrose, S., Huston, T. and Norman, M. (2005) 'A Qualitative Method for assessing Faculty Satisfaction'. *Research in Higher Education,* **46** (7), pp.803-830.

Anfara, V.A., Brown, K.M. and Mangione, T.L. (2002) 'Qualitative Analysis on Stage: Making the Research Process more Public'. *Educational researcher*, **31** (7), pp.28-38.

Antonakis, J., Avolio, B.J. and Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003) 'Context and Leadership: An Examination of the Nine-Factor Full-Range Leadership Theory using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire'. *Leadership Quarterly*, **14** (3), pp.261-295.

Ardichvili, A. and Kuchinke, K.P. (2002) 'Leadership Styles and Cultural Values among Managers and Subordinates: A Comparative Study of Four Countries of the Former Soviet Union, Germany, and the US'. *Human Resource Development International*, **5** (1), pp.99-117.

Armstrong, M. (2006) *A Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice*. 10th ed. London: Kogan Page.

Atwater, D.C. and Bass, B.M. (1994) Transformational Leadership in Teams, in Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. (eds.) *Improving Organizational Effectiveness through Transformational Leadership*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Avolio, B.J. (1999) *Full Leadership Development: Building the Vital Forces in Organizations*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Avolio, B.J. and Bass, B.M. (1991) *The Full-Range of Leadership Development*. Binghamton: Centre for Leadership Studies.

Avolio, B.J. and Bass, B.M. (1995) *Instrument: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Menlo Park, California: Mind Garden, Inc.

Avolio, B.J. and Bass, B.M. (1998) 'You Can Drag a Horse to Water, But You can't Make it Drink Except When it's Thirsty'. *Journal of Leadership Studies,* **4** (1), pp.1-17.

Avolio, B.J. and Yammarino, F.J. (eds.) (2002) *Transformational and Charismatic Leadership: The Road Ahead*. Oxford: Elsevier Science.

Avolio, B.J., Bass, B.M. and Jung, D.I. (1995) *Multifactor leadership questionnaire: Technical report*. Redwood City: Mind Garden.

Avolio, B.J., Bass, B.M. and Jung, D.J. (1999) 'Re-examining the Components of Transformational and Transactional Leadership using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire'. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, **72** (4), pp.441-462.

Awan, R., Zaidi, N.R. and Bigger, S. (2008) 'Relationships between Higher Education Leaders and Subordinates in Pakistan: A Path-Goal Approach'. *Bulletin of Education and Research*, **30** (2), pp.29-44.

Ayman, R. (1992) *Establishing a Global View of Leadership: East meets West*, in Proceedings of the 22nd International Congress of Applied Psychology (pp.95-95). Hove: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Barling, J., Weber, T. and Kelloway, E.K. (1996) 'Effects of Transformational Leadership Training on Attitudinal and Financial Outcomes: A Field Experiment'. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* **81** (6), pp.827-832.

Barnett, K. and McCormick, J. (2004) 'Leadership and Individual Principal-Teacher Relationships in Schools'. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, **43** (3), pp.406-434.

Basham, L.M. (2010) 'Transformational and Transactional Leaders in Higher Education'. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, **6** (6), pp.141-152.

Bass, B.M. (1981) *Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research*. New York: Free Press.

Bass, B.M. (1985) *Leadership and Performance beyond Expectations*. New York: Free Press.

Bass, B.M. (1990) Bass & Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: Theory, Research, and Managerial Applications. 3rd ed. New York: The Free Press.

Bass, B.M. (1997) 'Does the Transactional-Transformational Leadership Paradigm Transcend Organizational and National Boundaries'? *American Psychologist*, **52** (2), pp.130-139.

Bass, B.M. (1998) *Transformational Leadership: Industrial, Military, and Educational Impact*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bass, B.M. (1999) 'Two Decades of Research and Development in Transformational Leadership'. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, **8** (1), pp.9-32.

Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. (1989) *Manual: The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. (1990) 'The Implications of Transactional and Transformational Leadership for Individual, Team, and Organizational Development'. *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, **4** (1), pp.231-272.

Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. (1993) Transformational Leadership: A Response to Critiques, in Chemmers, M.M. and Ayman, R. (eds.) *Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directions*. San Diego: Academic Press.

Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. (1994) Introduction, in Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. (eds.) *Improving Organizational Effectiveness through Transformational Leadership*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. (2000) *Platoon Readiness as a Function of Leadership, Platoon and Company Cultures: Final Report*. Washington: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioural and Social Sciences.

Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. (2004) *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire: Manual and Sampler Set*. 3rd ed. Menlo Park. Mind Garden, Inc.

Bass B.M. and Riggio, R.E. (2006) *Transformational Leadership*. 2nd ed. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bass, B.M. and Steidlmeier, P. (1999) 'Ethics, Character, and Authentic Transformational Leadership Behaviour'. *Leadership Quarterly*, **10** (2), pp.181-217.

Bass, B.M., Avolio, B.J. and Atwater, L. (1996) 'The Transformational and Transactional Leadership of Men and Women'. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, **45** (1), pp.5-34.

Bass, B.M., Avolio, B.J., Jung, D.I. and Berson, Y. (2003) 'Predicting Unit Performance by Assessing Transformational and Transactional Leadership'. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, **88** (2), pp.207-218.

Belcher, J. (1996) Transformational Leaders: Meeting the Challenges of the Changing Society. Proceedings of the *5th Annual International Conference of the National Community College Chair Academy*. Phoenix, February 1996.

Bell, J. (2008) *Doing your Research Project: A Guide for First-Time Researchers in Education, Health and Social Science*. 4th ed. Maindenhead: Open University Press.

Bellamy, S., Morley, C. and Watty, K. (2003) 'Why Business Academics remain in Australian Universities despite Deteriorating Working Conditions and Reduced Job Satisfaction: An Intellectual Puzzle'. *Journal of Higher Educational Policy and Management*, **25** (1), pp.13-28.

Bennett, J.B. and Figuli, D.J. (1990) *Enhancing Department Leadership: The Roles of the Chairperson*. New York: ACE and Macmillan.

Benoit, P. and Graham, S. (2005) 'Leadership Excellence: Constructing the Role of Department Chair'. *Academic Leadership: The Online Journal,* **3** (1) (http://www.academicleadership.org/article/LEADERSHIP_EXCELLENCE_CONSTR UCTING_THE_ROLE_OF_DEPARTMENT) online accessed on 27 April 2011.

Bensimon, E.M., Neumann, A. and Birnbaum, R. (1989) *Making Sense of Administrative Leadership: The "L" Word in Higher Education.* Washington: ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, George Washington University.

Bents, R. and Blank, R. (1997) 'Authority, Responsibility, and Power: Change and or Transformation'. *Journal for Vocational Special Needs Education*, **19** (2), pp.67-72.

Biesta, G. and Burbules, N.C. (2003) Pragmatism and Educational Research. Lanham: Rowman and Littlefield.

Blackburn, R.T., Horowitz, S.M., Edington, D.W. and Klos, D.M. (1986) 'University Faculty and Administrator Responses to Job Strains'. *Research in Higher Education*, **25** (1), pp.31-41.

Blake, R.R. and Mouton, J.S. (1964) *The Managerial Grid*. Houston: Gulf.

Blake, R.R. and Mouton, J.S. (1978) *The New Managerial Grid*. Houston: Gulf.

Blake, R.R. and Mouton, J.S. (1985) *The Managerial Grid III*. Houston: Gulf.

Bland, C.J., Center, B.A., Finstad, K.R.R., Risbey, K.R. and Staples, J.G. (2005) 'A Theoretical, Practical, Predictive Model of Faculty and Departmental Research Productivity'. *Academic Medicine,* **80** (3), pp.225-237.

Bodla, M.A. and Nawaz, M.M. (2010) 'Comparative Study of Full Range Leadership Model among Faculty Members in Public and Private Sector Higher Education Institutes and Universities'. *International Journal of Business and Management*, **5** (4), pp.208-214.

Bogdan, R.G. and Biklen, S.K. (1992) *Qualitative Research for Education*. 2nd ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Bogler, R. (1999) 'Reassessing the Behaviour of Principals as a Multiple−Factor in Teachers' Job Satisfaction'. Paper presented at the *American Educational Research Association Annual Conference*. Montreal, April 1999.

Bogler, R. (2001) 'The Influence of Leadership Style on Teacher Job Satisfaction'. *Educational Administration Quarterly,* **37** (5), pp.662-683.

Bohen, S.J. and Stiles, J. (1998) 'Experimenting with Models of Faculty Collaboration: Factors that Promote their Success'. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, **98** (100), pp.39-55.

Bolden, R. (2004) *What is Leadership*? Exeter: Centre for Leadership Studies, University of Exeter.

Bolden, R., Gosling, J., Marturano, A. and Dennison, P. (2003) *A Review of Leadership Theory and Competency Frameworks.* Exeter: Centre for Leadership Studies, University of Exeter.

Bono, J. and Judge, T. (2003) 'Self-Concordance at Work: Toward Understanding the Motivational Effects of Transformational Leadership'. *Academy of Management Journal*, **46** (5), pp.554-571.

Bowen, B.E. (1980) *Job Satisfaction of Teacher Educators in Agriculture,* unpublished thesis for the Doctor of Philosophy program, The Ohio State University.

Bragg, D.L. (2008) *The Application of Transformational Leadership among Christian School Leaders in the Southeast and the Mid-Atlantic North Regions*, unpublished thesis for the Doctor of Education program, Liberty University, School of Education.

Briggs, A.R.J. and Coleman, M. (2007) Introduction, in Briggs, A.R.J. and Coleman, M. (eds.) *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management*. 2nd ed. London: Paul Chapman.

British Educational Research Association (BERA) (2011) *Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research*. BERA (http://www.bera.ac.uk/files/2011/08/BERA-Ethical-Guidelines-2011.pdf) Online accessed on 03 December 2011.

Brook, A. and Davies, J. (1994) 'Proliferating Demands on Academic Heads of Department: A Management Issue'? *Higher Education Policy*, **7** (2), pp.56-57.

Brown, M., Hohenshil, T.H. and Brown, D. (1998) 'School Psychologists' Job Satisfaction in the USA: A National Study'. *School Psychology International Journal,* **19** (1), pp.79-89.

Bryant, S.E. (2003) 'The Role of Transformational and Transactional Leadership in Creating, Sharing and Exploiting Organizational Knowledge'. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies,* **9** (4), pp.32-44.

Bryman, A. (1992) *Charisma and Leadership in Organisations*. London: Sage.

Bryman, A. (2004a) 'Qualitative Research on Leadership: A Critical but Appreciative Review'. *Leadership Quarterly*, **15** (6), pp.729-769.

Bryman, A. (2004b) *Social Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. (2006) 'Paradigm Peace and the Implications for Quality'. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology Theory and Practice*, **9** (2), pp.111-126.

Bryman, A. (2008) *Social Research* Methods. 3rd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Burns, J.D. (2007) *Analyses of Transactional and Transformational Leadership on Job Satisfaction of College Faculty*, unpublished thesis for the Doctor of Philosophy program, Northcentral University.

Burns, J.M. (1978) *Leadership.* New York: Harper & Row.

Bush, T. (2003) *Theories of Educational Leadership and Management.* 3rd ed. London: Sage.

Bush, T. (2007) Authenticity in Research – Reliability, Validity and Triangulation, in Briggs, A.R.J. and Coleman, M. (eds.) *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management*. 2nd ed. London: Paul Chapman.

Bush, T. and Coleman, M. (2000) *Leadership and Strategic Management in Education.* London: Paul Chapman.

Bush, T. and Jackson, D. (2002) 'A Preparation for School Leadership: International Perspectives'. *Educational Management and Administration,* **30** (4), pp.417-429.

Bush, T. and Middlewood, D. (2005) *Leading and Managing People in Education.* London: Sage.

Busher, H. and James, N. (2007) Ethics of Research in Education, in Briggs, A.R.J. and Coleman, M. (eds.) *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management*. 2nd ed. London: Paul Chapman.

Bycio, P., Hackett, R.D., and Allen, J.S. (1995) 'Further Assessment of Bass's (1985) Conceptualization of Transactional and Transformational Leadership'. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, **80** (4), pp.68-478.

Campbell, D.T. (1956) *Leadership and its Effect upon the Group*. Columbus: Ohio State University.

Campbell, R.F. and Gregg, R.T. (1957) *Administrative Behaviour in Education*. New York: Harper & Row Publishers.

Capelleras, J.L. (2005) 'Attitudes of Academic Staff towards Their Job and Organisation: An Empirical Assessment'. *Tertiary Education and Management*, **11** (2), pp.147-66.

Cartwright, D. and Zander, A. (1960) *Group Dynamics Research and Theory*. Evanston: Row, Peterson.

Carver, R.H. and Nash, J.G. (2005) *Doing Data Analysis with SPSS Version 12.0*. London: Curt Hinrichs.

Cascio, W.F. (1995) 'Whither Industrial and Organizational Psychology in a Changing World of Work'. *American Psychologist*, **50** (11), pp.928-934.

Castillo, J.X. and Cano, J. (2004) Factors Explaining Job Satisfaction among Faculty. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, **45** (3), pp.74-75.

Catanyag, D.V. (1995) *Effects of Transformational Leadership Behaviours of Public Secondary School Principals in the National Capital Region on School Effectiveness*, unpublished thesis for the Doctor of Education program, University of the Philippines.

Cerit, Y. (2009) 'The Effects of Servant Leadership Behaviours of School Principals on Teachers' Job Satisfaction'. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership,* **37** (5), pp.600-623.

Cheah, L.H., Yoong, S. and Abdullah, A.G. (2011) *Principal's Transformational Democratic Leadership: The Impact of Principal's Transformational Democratic Leadership Style on Teachers' Job Satisfaction and Commitment*. Saarbrücken: LAMBERT Academic Publishing.

Chen, J.C. and Silverthorne, C. (2005) 'Leadership Effectiveness, Leadership Style and Employee Readiness'. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal,* **28** (4), pp.280-288.

Clark, D.L. and Astuto, T.A. (1994) 'Redirecting Reform: Challenges to Popular Assumptions about Teachers and Students'. *Phi Delta Kavvan*, **75** (7), pp.512-520.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2000) *Research Methods in Education*. 5th ed. London: Routledge Falmer.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2007) *Research Methods in Education*. 6th ed. London: Routledge.

Coleman, M. and Earley, P. (2005) Leading and Managing in Education: National and International Trends and Contexts, in Coleman, M. and Earley, P. (eds.) *Leadership and Management in Education: Cultures, Change and Context.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Conger, J.A. (1999) 'Charismatic and Transformational Leadership in Organizations: An Insider's Perspective on these Developing Streams of Research'. *Leadership Quarterly,* **10** (2), pp.145-180.

Conger, J. and Kanungo, R.N. (eds.) (1988) *Charismatic Leadership: The Elusive Factor in Organizational Effectiveness.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Conger, J.A. and Kanungo, R.N. (1998) *Charismatic Leadership in Organizations.* Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Creswell, J.W. (1994) *Research Design: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches.* London: Sage.

Creswell, J.W. (2009) *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. 3rd ed. London: Sage.

Creswell, J.W. and Plano Clark, V.L. (2007) *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*. London: Sage.

Currie, G. and Lockett, A. (2007) 'A Critique of Transformational Leadership: Moral, Professional and Contingent Dimensions of Leadership within Public Services Organizations'. *Human Relations,* **60** (2), pp.341-370.

Daft, R.L. (1999) *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. London: Harcourt Brace.

Darling-Hammond, L. and Sclan, E.M. (1996) Who Teaches and Why: Dilemmas of Building a Profession for Twenty-First Century Schools, in Sikula, J. Buttery, T.J. and Guyton, E. (eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education.* 2nd ed. New York: Simon & Schuster Macmillan.

Dastoor, B., Suwannachin, K. and Golding, A. (2003) *Transformational Leadership and Cultural Values in Thailand: Faculty Perceptions of University Administrators*. Clearwater: Academy of International Business Southeast.

Davies, J., Hides, M.T. and Casey, S. (2001) 'Leadership in Higher Education'. *Journal of Total Quality Management & Business Excellence,* **12** (7), pp.1025-1030.

Dawis, R.V. (2004) The Minnesota Theory of Work Adjustment, in Brown, S.D. and Lent, R.W. (eds.), *Career Development: Putting Theory and Research into Practice*. Hoboken: John Wiley.

Den Hartog, D.N., House, R.J., Hanges, P.J. and Ruiz-Quintanilla, A. (1999) 'Culture Specific and Cross Culturally Generalizable Implicit Leadership Theories: Are Attributes of Charismatic/Transformational Leadership Universally Endorsed'? *Leadership Quarterly,* **10** (2), pp.219-256.

Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (1998) Introduction: Entering the Field of Qualitative Research, in Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (eds), *The Landscape of Qualitative Research: Theories and Issues*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Dimmock, C. (1996) Dilemmas for School Leaders in Restructuring, in Leithwood, K., Chapman, J., Corson, D., Hallinger, P. and Hart, A. (eds.) *International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Administration*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic.

Dimmock, C. (2000a) *Designing the Learning-Centred School: A Cross-Cultural Perspective*. London: Falmer Press.

Dimmock, C. (2000b) Hong Kong's School Reform: Importing Western Policy into an Asian Culture, in Dimmock, C. and Walker, A. (eds.) *Future School Administration: Western and Asian Perspectives*. Sha Tin: The Chinese University Press.

Dimmock, C. (2002) Taking Account of Complex Global and Cultural Contexts, in Walker, A. and Dimmock, C. (eds) *School Leadership and Administration: Adopting a Cultural Perspective*. London: Routledge Falmer.

Dimmock, C. (2003) Leadership in Learning-Centred Schools: Cultural Context, Functions and Qualities, in Brundrett, M., Burton, N. and Smith, R. (eds.) *Leadership in Education.* London: Paul Chapman.

Dimmock, C. and Walker, A. (2000a) 'Globalization and Societal Culture: Redefining Schooling and School Leadership in the 21st Century'. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, **30** (3), pp.303-312.

Dimmock, C. and Walker, A. (eds.) (2000b) *Future School Administration: Western and Asian Perspectives*. Sha Tin: The Chinese University Press.

Dimmock, C. and Walker, A. (2002a) School Leadership in Context—Societal and Organizational Cultures, in Bush, T. and Bell, L. (eds.) *The Principles and Practice of Educational Management*. London: Paul Chapman.

Dimmock, C. and Walker, A. (2002b) Connecting School Leadership with Teaching, Learning and Parenting in Diverse Cultural Contexts: Western and Asian Perspectives, in Leithwood, K. and Hallinger, P. (eds.) *Second International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Administration*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Press.

Dimmock, C. and Walker, A. (2005) *Educational Leadership: Culture and Diversity.* London: Sage.

Dinham, S. (1995) 'Time to Focus on Teacher Satisfaction'. *Unicorn*, **21** (3), pp.64-75.

Dinham, S. and Scott, C. (1998) 'A Three Domain Model of Teacher and School Executive Career Satisfaction'. *Journal of Educational Administration*, **36** (4), pp.362-378.

Dinham, S. and Scott, C. (2000) 'Moving into the Third, Outer Domain of Teacher Satisfaction'. *Journal of Educational Administration*, **38** (4), pp.379-396.

Dörnyei, Z. and Taguchi, T. (2010) *Questionnaires in Second Language Research: Construction, Administration, and Processing*: Zoltán Dörnyei with Contributions from Tatsuya Taguchi. 2nd ed. London: Routledge.

Downton, J.V. Jr. (1973) *Rebel Leadership: Commitment and Charisma in the Revolutionary Process*. New York: The Free Press.

Druskat, V.U. and Wheeler, J.V. (2003) 'Managing from the Boundary: the Effective Leadership of Self-Managing Work Teams'. *Academy of Management Journal*, **46** (4), pp.435-457.

Dumdum, U.R., Lowe, K.B. and Avolio, B.J. (2002) A Meta-Analysis of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Correlates of Effectiveness and Satisfaction: An Update and Extension, in Avolio, B.J. and Yammarino, F.J. (eds.)

Transformational and Charismatic Leadership: The Road Ahead (vol. 2). Oxford: Elsevier Science.

Dunlap, D.C. and Goldman, P. (1991) 'Rethinking Power in Schools'. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, **27** (1), pp.5-29.

Dusitsutirat, A. (2009) 'Factors Affecting on Job Satisfaction of Teachers in Rajamangala University of Technology Krung – Thep'. Paper presented at the *International Conference on the Role of Universities in Hands-On Education*, Rajamangala University of Technology Lanna, Chiang-Mai, August 2009.

Dvir, T., Eden, D., Avolio, B.J. and Shamir, B. (2002) 'Impact of Transformational Leadership on Follower Development and Performance: A Field Experiment'. *The Academy of Management Journal*, **45** (4), pp.735-744.

Eagly, A.H., Johannesen-Schmidt, M.C. and Van Engen, M.L. (2003) 'Transformational, Transactional, and Laissez-Faire Leadership Styles: A Meta-Analysis Comparing Men and Women'. *Psychological Bulletin*, **129** (4), pp.569-591.

Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) (2005) *Research Ethics Framework*. Swindon: ESRC.

Elenkov, D. (1998) 'Can American Management Concepts Work in Russia? A Cross-Cultural Comparative Study'. *California Management Review,* **40** (4), pp.133-156.

Evans, L. (1999) *Managing to Motivate*: *A Guide for School Leaders.* London: Cassell.

Evans, L. (2000) 'The Effects of Educational Change on Morale, Job Satisfaction and Motivation'. *Journal of Educational Change*, **1** (2), pp.173-192.

Evans, L. (2001) 'Delving Deeper into Morale, Job Satisfaction and Motivation among Education Professionals: Re-examining the Leadership Dimension'. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership,* **29** (3), pp.291-306.

Evans, M.G. (1970) 'The Effects of Supervisory Behaviour on the Path-Goal Relationship'. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, **5** (3), pp.277- 298.

Falah, S.M. (1999) *The Influence of Head Teacher's Leadership Style on Teacher Satisfaction and Performance in the Israeli Arab Educational System,* unpublished dissertation for the MBA in Educational Management program, University of Leicester, School of Education.

Fan, Y. (2009) *Implementing Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) in an EFL Context in Taiwan*, unpublished thesis for the Doctor of Education program, University of Leicester, School of Education.

Fiedler, F.E. (1964) A Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness, in Berkowitz, L. (ed.) *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*. New York: Academic Press.

Fiedler, F.E. (1967) *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Fiedler, F.E. (1989) 'The Effective Utilization of Intellectual Abilities and Job-Relevant Knowledge in Group Performance: Cognitive Resource Theory and an Agenda for the Future'. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, **38** (3), pp.289-304.

Fiedler, F.E. and Chemers, M.M. (1974) *Leadership and Effective Management*. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company.

Fields, F.E. and Herold, D.M. (1997) 'Using the Leadership Practices Inventory to Measure Transformational and Transactional Leadership'. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, **57** (4), pp.569-579.

Foels, R., Driskell, J.E., Mullen, B. and Salas, E. (2000) 'The Effect of Democratic Leadership on Group Member Satisfaction: An Interaction'. *Small Group Research*, **31** (6), pp.676-701.

Fogelman, K. and Comber, C. (2007) Surveys and Sampling, in Briggs, A.R.J. and Coleman, M. (eds.) *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management*. 2nd ed. London: Paul Chapman.

Foskett, N. and Lumby, J. (2003) *Leading and Managing Education: International Dimensions.* London: Paul Chapman.

Fowler, W.J. (1991) *What are the Characteristics of Principals Identified as Effective by Teachers*? (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED 347695).

Fraenkel, J.R. and Wallen, N.E. (2003) *How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education*. 5th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Fraenkel, J.R. and Wallen, N.E. (2006) *How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education*. 6th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Garrett, R.M. (1999) Teacher Job Satisfaction in Developing Countries. *Educational Research Supplemental Series (G)*, ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED 459 150.

Gaspar, S. (1992) *Transformational Leadership: An Integrative Review of the Literature*, unpublished doctoral dissertation, Western Michigan University. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 53 (08A) 2619.

Gay, L.R., Mills, G.E. and Airasian, P.W. (2006) *Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Applications.* 8th ed. New Jersey: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.

Gaziel, H. (1998) 'School-Based Management as a Factor in School Effectiveness'. *International Review of Education*, **44** (4), pp.319-333.

Geijsel, F., Sleegers, P., Leithwood, K. and Jantzi, D. (2003) 'Transformational leadership effects on teachers' commitment and effort toward school reform'. *Journal of Educational Administration*, **41** (3), pp.228-256.

Giacometti, K.S.M. (2005) *Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction and Retention of Beginning Teachers*, unpublished thesis for the Doctor of Education program, the Faculty of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

Gill, R. (2006) *Theory and Practice of Leadership.* London: SAGE Publications.

Gray, E. and Smeltzer, L. (1989) *Management: The Competitive Edge*. New York: Macmillan.

Green, W.J. (1994) *Transformational Leadership as a Predictor of Effectiveness, Extra Effort, and Satisfaction in Higher Education*, unpublished doctoral dissertation, Nova Southeastern University.

Green, M. and McDade, S. (1991) *Investing in Higher Education: A Handbook of Leadership Development*. New York: ACE.

Greene, J.C. and Caracelli, V.J. (eds.) (1997) *Advances in Mixed-Method Evaluation: The Challenges and Benefits of Integrating diverse Paradigms: New Directions for Evaluation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Grosso, F.A. (2008) *Motivating Faculty through Transformational Leadership: A Study of the Relationship between Presidential Leadership Behaviours and Faculty Behaviours*, unpublished thesis for the Doctor of Philosophy program, The Catholic University of America, Department of Education.

Gruneberg, E. (1979) *Understanding Job Satisfaction*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Gunter, H.M. (2001) *Leaders and Leadership in Education.* London: Paul Chapman.

Hack, W.G., Ramseyer, J.A., Gephart, W.J. and Heck, J.B. (1971) *Educational administration: selected readings*. 2nd ed. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Hall, B.W., Pearson, L.C. and Carroll, D. (1992) 'Teachers' Long-Range Teaching Plans: A Discriminant Analysis'. *Journal of Educational Research*, **85** (4), pp.221-225.

Hall, J., Johnson, S., Wysocki, A. and Kepner, K. (2002) 'Transformational Leadership: The Transformation of Managers and Associates'. (http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/hr020) Online accessed on 16 March 2011.

Hammersley, M. (1995) *The Politics of Social Research*. London: Sage.

Hammersley, M. and Atkinson, P. (1983) *Ethnography: Principals in Practice.* London: Routledge.

Hammersley, M. and Atkinson, P. (1995) *Ethnography. Principles in Practice*, London: Routledge.

Hanna, D. and Latchem, C. (2001) *Leadership for 21st Century Learning: Global Perspectives from Educational Innovators.* London: Kogan Page.

Hardman, T.R. (1996) *A Study of Job Satisfaction of Female Public School Administrators in West Virginia*, unpublished dissertation for doctoral programme, West Virginia University.

Harris, J., Martin, B.N. and Agnew, W. (2004) The Characteristics, Behaviours, and Training of Effective Educational/Leadership Chairs, in Thompson, D.C. and Crampton, F.E. (eds) The Changing Face(s) of Educational Leadership: UCEA at the crossroads*, paper presented at the *conference of the University Council for Educational Administration*, Kansas City, Missouri, pp.11-14 November.

Hater, J.J. and Bass, B.M. (1988) 'Superiors' Evaluation and Subordinates' Perception of Transformational and Transactional Leadership'. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, **73** (4), pp.695-702.

Hean, S. and Garrett, R. (2001) 'Sources of Job Satisfaction in Science Secondary School Teachers in Chile'. *Compare*, **31** (3), pp.363-379.

Hebert, S.C. (2004) 'The Relationship of Perceived Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction from the Follower's Perspective'. *Proceedings of the American Society of Business and Behavioral Sciences,* **11** (1), pp.685-697.

Heller, H.W., Clay, R. and Perkins, C. (1992) 'Factors Related to Teacher Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction'. *Journal of School Research and Information*, **10** (l), pp.20-24.

Heller, H.W., Clay, R. and Perkins, C. (1993) 'The Relationship between Teacher Job Satisfaction and Principal Leadership Style'. *Journal of School Leadership*, **3** (1), pp.74-86.

Hemphill, J.K. (1955) 'Leadership Behaviour Associated with the Administrative Reputation of College Departments'. *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, **48** (7), pp.385-401.

Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K.H. (1969) 'Life-Cycle Theory of Leadership'. *Training and Development Journal*, **23** (5), pp.26-34.

Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K.H. (1977) *Management of Organizational Behaviour*. 3rd ed. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K.H. (1982) *Management of Organizational Behaviour*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K.H. (1988) *Management of Organizational Behaviour: Utilising Human Resources*. 5th ed. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Hersey, P., Blanchard, K.H. and Johnson, D.E. (1996) *Management of Organizational Behaviour: Utilizing Human Resources*. 7th ed. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

Herzberg, F. (1959) *The Motivation to Work*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Herzberg, F. (1966) *Work and the Nature of Man*. Cleveland: World Publishing.

Herzberg, F. (1974) 'Motivation-Hygiene Profiles'. *Organizational Dynamics*, **3** (2), pp.18-29.

Higher Education Commission (HEC) Pakistan (2011a) *HEC Universities or Degree-Awarding Institutes*. Islamabad: Higher Education Commission Pakistan. (http://www.hec.gov.pk/OurInstitutes/Pages/Default.aspx) Online accessed on 22 August 2011.

Higher Education Commission (HEC) Pakistan (2011b) *Divisions*. Islamabad: Higher Education Commission Pakistan. (http://www.hec.gov.pk/InsideHEC/Divisions/Pages/Default.aspx) Online accessed on 22 August 2011.

Hilosky, A. and Watwood, B. (1997) Transformational Leadership in a changing World: A Survival Guide for New Chairs and Deans. Proceedings of the 6th *Annual International Conference of the National Community College Chair Academy*. Reno, February 1997.

Hinkin, T.R. and Schriesheim, C.A. (2008) 'A Theoretical and Empirical Examination of the Transactional and Non-Leadership Dimensions of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)'. *Leadership Quarterly*, **19** (5), pp.501-513.

Hitchcock, G. and Hughes, D. (1995) *Research and the Teacher*. 2nd ed. London: Routledge.

Hofstede, G. (1991) *Culture and Organizations: Software of the Mind*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Hofstede, G. (2001) *Culture Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviours, Institutions and Organizations Across Nations*. London: Sage.

Hollander, E.P. (1992) 'Leadership, Followership, Self, and Others'. *Leadership Quarterly*, **3** (1), pp.43-54.

Homans, G.C. (1950) *The Human Group*. New York: Harcourt Brace.

House, R.J. (1971) 'A Path-Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness'. *Adminstrative Science Quarterly*, **16** (3), pp.321-338.

House, R.J. (1976) A 1976 Theory of Charismatic Leadership, in Hunt, J.G. and Larson L.L. (eds.) *Leadership: The Cutting Edge*. A Symposium Held at Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, October 27-28, 1976 (pp.189-207). Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.

House, R.J. (1995) Leadership in the 21st Century: A Speculative Enquiry, in Howard, A. (Ed.), *The Changing Nature of Work*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

House, R.J. and Javidan, M. (2004) Overview of GLOBE, in House R.J., Hanges, P.J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P.W., Gupta, V. and Associates (eds.) *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

House, R.J. and Wigdor, L.A. (1967) 'Herzberg's Dual-factor Theory of Job Satisfaction and Motivation: A Review of the Evidence and a Criticism'. *Personnel Psychology*, **20** (4), pp.369-389.

House, R., Woychke, J. and Fodo, E. (1988) Charismatic and Noncharismatic Leaders: Differences in Behaviour and Effectiveness, in Conger, J. and Kanungo, R. (eds.) *Emerging Leadership Vistas*. San Francisco: Josey-Bass.

House R.J., Hanges, P.J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P.W., Gupta, V. and Associates (eds.) (2004) *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Houser, R. and Chace, A. (1993) 'Job Satisfaction of People with Disabilities Placed through a Project with Industry'. *Journal of Rehabilitation*, **59** (1), pp.45-48.

Howell, J.M. and Avolio, B.J. (1993) 'Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, Locus of Control and Support for Innovation: Key Predictors of Consolidated-Business-Unit Performance'. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, **78** (6), pp.891-902.

Hoy and Miskel. (1991) *Educational Administration: Theory, Research and Practice*. 4th ed. New York: Random House.

Hoyt, C.L. and Blascovich, J. (2003) 'Transformational and Transactional Leadership in Virtual and Physical Environments'. *Small Group Research*, **34** (6), pp.678-715.

Huczynski A. and Buchanan, D. (2007) *Organizational Behaviour: An Introductory Text*. 6th ed. Harlow: Prentice Hall.

Hugick, L. and Leonard, J. (1991) 'Job Dissatisfaction grows: "Moonlighting" on the rise'. *Gallup Poll News Service*, **56**, pp.1-11.

Hwa, C.L. (2008) *The Impact of Principal's Transformational Democratic Leadership Style on Teachers' Job Satisfaction and Commitment,* unpublished thesis for the Doctor of Philosophy program, Universiti Sains Malaysia.

Ifinedo, P. (2003) *Employee Motivation and Job Satisfaction in Finnish Organizations: A Study of Employees in the Oulu Region, Finland,* unpublished thesis for the Master of Business Administration program, University of London.

Imper, M., Neidt, W.A. and Reyes, P. (1990) 'Factors Contributing to Teacher Satisfaction with Participative Decision Making'. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, **23** (4), pp.216-225.

Ingersoll, R.M. (2001) *Teacher Turnover, Teacher Shortages, and the Organization of Schools*. Seattle: Centre for the Study of Teaching and Policy.

Ingersoll, R. and Kralik, J. (2004) *The Impact of Mentoring on Teacher Retention: What the Research Says.* Denver: Education Commission of the States.

Inman, M. (2011) 'The Journey to Leadership for Academics in Higher Education'. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership,* **39** (2), pp.228-241.

Iqbal, A. (2004) *Problems and Prospects of Higher Education in Pakistan*, unpublished thesis for the Doctor of Philosophy program, University of Arid Agriculture, University Institute of Education and Research.

Isani, U.A. (2001) *Higher Education in Pakistan,* unpublished thesis for the Doctor of Philosophy program, The National University of Modern Languages, The Pakistan Futuristics Institute.

Jago, A.G. (1982) 'Leadership: Perspectives in Theory and Research'. *Management Science*, **28** (3), pp.315-336.

Jennings, E.E. (1960) *An Anatomy of Leadership: Princes, Heroes, and Supermen*. New York: Harper.

Johnson, R.B. and Onwuegbuzie, A.J. (2004) 'Mixed Methods Research: A Research Paradigm Whose Time Has Come'. *Educational Researcher*, **33** (7), pp.14-26.

Johnsrud, L.K. and Rosser, V.J. (2002) 'Faculty Members' Morale and their Intention to Leave'. *Journal of Higher Education,* **73** (4), pp.518-542.

Judge, T.A., Hanisch, K.A. and Drankoski, R.D. (1995) Human Resource Management and Employee Attitudes, in Ferris, G.R., Rosen, Sh.D. and Barnum, D.T. (eds.) *Handbook of Human Resource Management*. Cambridge: Blackwell Publishers.

Jung, D.I., Bass, B.M. and Sosik, J.J. (1995) 'Bridging Leadership and Cultures: A Theoretical Consideration of Transformational Leadership and Collectivistic Cultures'. *Journal of Leadership and Organisational Studies*, **2** (4), pp.3-18.

Kahn, R.L. (1956) 'The Prediction of Productivity'. *Journal of Social Issues*, **12** (2), pp.41-49.

Kahn, R.L. and Katz, D. (1953) Leadership Practices in Relation to Productivity and Morale, in Cooper, C.L. (ed.) *Classics in Management Thought* (vol. 1). Northampton: Edward Elgar.

Karen, M.B.O. (1999) *An Examination of the Perceived Leadership Styles of Kentucky Public School Principals as Determinants of Teacher Job satisfaction,* unpublished dissertation for the Doctor of Education Program, West Virginia University, Educational Leadership Department.

Karimi, S. (2008) 'Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction of Faculty Members of Bu-Ali Sina University'. *Scientific & Research Quarterly Journal of Mazandaran University*, **23** (6), pp.89-104.

Keeley, M. (1995) 'The Trouble with Transformational Leadership: Toward a Federalist Ethic for Organizations'. *Business Ethics Quarterly,* **5** (1), pp.67-96.

Khatri, N. (2005) 'An Alternative Model of Transformational Leadership'. *Vision: The Journal of Business Perspective*, **9** (2), pp.19-26.

King, N. (1970) 'Clarification and Evaluation of the Two-factor Theory of Job Satisfaction'. *Psychological Bulletin*, **74** (1), pp.18-31.

Kirby, P.C., Paradise, L.V. and King, M.I. (1992) 'Extraordinary Leaders in Education: Understanding Transformational Leadership'. *Journal of Educational Research*, **85** (5), pp.303-311.

Kirkbride, P. 2006. 'Developing Transformational Leaders: The Full Range Leadership Model in Action'. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, **38** (1), pp.23-32.

Klein, j. and Takeda-Tinker, B. (2009) 'The Impact of Leadership on Community College Faculty Job Satisfaction'. *Academic Leadership: The Online Journal*, **7** (2) (http://www.academicleadership.org/article/the-impact-of-leadership-on-community-college-faculty-job-satisfaction) Online accessed on 26 April 2011.

Klimoski, R.J. and Hayes, N.J. (1980) 'Leader Behavior and Subordinate Motivation'. *Personnel Psychology*. **33** (3), pp.543-555.

Kluger, A.N. and DeNisi, A. (1996) 'The Effects of Feedback Intervention on Performance: A Historical Review, A Meta Analysis, and A Preliminary Feedback Intervention Theory'. *Psychological Bulletin*, **119** (2), pp.254-284.

Koh, W.L., Steers, R.M. and Terborg, J.R. (1995) 'The Effects of Transformational Leadership on Teacher Attitudes and Student Performance in Singapore'. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, **16** (4), pp.319-333.

Koopman, P.L. and Wierdsma, A.F.M. (1998) Participative Management, in Doentu, P.J.D., Thierry, H. and De-Wolf, C.J. (eds.) *Personnel Psychology: Handbook of Work and Organizational P*sychology (vol. 3). Hove: Psychology Press.

Kotter, J.P (1990) *A Force for Change: How Leadership differs from Management*. New York: Free Press.

Kottkamp, R.B., Mulhern, J.A. and Hoy, K. (1987) 'Secondary School Climate: A Revision of the OCDQ'. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, **23** (3), pp.31-48.

Kreitner, R. (1983) *Management*. 2nd ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Kuhnert, K.W. (1994) Transforming Leadership: Developing through Delegation, in Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. (eds) *Improving Organizational Effectiveness Through Transformational Leadership* (pp.10-25). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Kuhnert, K.W. and Lewis, P.L. (1987) 'Transactional and Transformational Leadership: A Constructive/Developmental Analysis'. *Academy of Management Review,* **12** (4), pp.648-657.

Küskü, F. (2003) 'Employee Satisfaction in Higher Education: The Case of Academic and Administrative Staff in Turkey'. *Career Development International*, **8** (7), pp.347-356.

Lawler, E.E. (1994) *Motivations in Work Organizations*. San Francisco: Josey-Bass.

Lawler, E. and Suttle, J. (1972) 'A Casual Correlation Test of the Need Hierarchy Concept'. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, **7** (2), pp. 265-287.

Layder, D. (1994) *Understanding Social Theory*. London: Sage.

Leary, P.A., Sullivan, M.E. and Ray, D.A. (1999) 'The Relationship of Leadership Styles of Selected West Virginia Deans and Department Chairs to Job Satisfaction of Departmental Faculty Members'. *National Forum of Educational Administration and Supervision*, *16* (4), pp.33-41.

Leithwood, K., Jantzi, D. and Steinbech, R. (1999) *Changing Leadership for Changing Times*. Buckingham, Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Leithwood, K., Tomlinson, D. and Genge, M. (1996) Transformational School Leadership, in Leithwood, K., Chapman, J., Corson, D., Hallinger, P. and Hart, A. (eds.) *International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Administration*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic.

Levine, M.F. (2000) *The Importance of Leadership: An Investigation of Presidential Style at Fifty National Universities*, unpublished dissertation for the doctor of philosophy program, University of North Texas, College of Education.

Lewin, K., Lippitt, R. and white, R.K. (1939) 'Patterns of Aggressive Behaviour in Experimentally Created Social Climates'. *Journal of social psychology,* **10** (2), pp.271-301.

Likert, R. (1961) *New Patterns of Management*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Likert, R. (1967) *The Human Organization: Its Management and Value*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lincoln, Y.S. and Guba, E. (1985) *Naturalistic Inquiry.* Beverly Hills: Sage.

Lindholm, J.A. (2003) 'Perceived Organizational Fit: Nurturing the Minds, Hearts, and Personal Ambitions of University Faculty'. *Review of Higher Education,* **27** (1), pp.125-149.

Little, A. (1996) 'Globalization and International Research: *Whose Contexts Counts'? International Journal of Educational Development*, **16** (4), pp.427-438.

Locke, E.A. (1976) The Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction, in Dunnette, M.D. (ed.) *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing.

Locke, E.A., Fitzpatrick, W. and White, F.M. (1983) 'Job Satisfaction and Role Clarity among University and College Faculty'. *The Review of Higher Education,* **6** (4), pp.343-365.

Lofquist, L. and Dawis, R. (1991) *Essentials of Person Environment Correspondence Counselling*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Lowe, K.B. and Gardner, W.L. (2001) 'Ten Years of the Leadership Quarterly: Contributions and Challenges for the Future'. *Leadership Quarterly,* **11**(4), pp.459-514.

Lowe, K.B., Kroeck, K.G., and Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996) 'Effectiveness Correlates of Transformational and Transactional Leadership: A Meta-Analytic Review of the MLQ Literature'. *The Leadership Quarterly*, **7** (3), pp.385-425.

Luekens, M.T., Lyter, D.M. and Fox, E.E. (2004) *Teacher Attrition and Mobility, Results from the Teacher Follow-Up Survey, 2000-01* (NCES 2004-301). Washington: National Centre for Education Statistics.

Madlock, P.E. (2008) 'The Link between Leadership Style, Communicator Competence, and Employee Satisfaction'. *Journal of Business Communication,* **45** (1), pp.61-78.

Maeroff, G. (1988) *The Empowerment of Teachers*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Manger, T. and Eikeland, O. (1990) 'Factors Predicting Staff's Intentions to Leave the University'. *Higher Education*, **19** (3), pp.281-291.

Mann F.C. (1965) Towards an Understanding of the Leadership Role in the Formal Organization, in Dublin, R. *Leadership and Productivity*. San Francisco: Chandler.

Maslow, A.H. (1954) *Motivation and Personality*. New York: Harper & Row Publishers.

Mathias, H. (1991) 'The Role of the University Head of Department'. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, **15** (3), pp.65-75.

Mathieu, J.E., Hofmann, D.A. and Farr, J.L. (1993) 'Job Perception-Job Satisfaction Relations: An Empirical Comparison of Three Competing Theories'. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, **56** (3), pp.370-387.

Maxcy, S. (2003) Pragmatic Threads in Mixed Methods Research in the Social Sciences: The Search for Multiple Modes of Inquiry and the end of the Philosophy of Formalism, in Tashakkori, A. and Teddlie, C. (eds) *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioural Research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Maykut, P. and Morehouse, R. (1994) *Beginning Qualitative Research: A Philosophic and Practical Guide*. London: Falmer.

McKee, J.G. (1990) Relationship between Community College Presidents' Leadership Styles and Faculty Job Satisfaction. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the *Eastern Educational Research Association*, Clearwater Beach, February, 1990.

McKendall, M. (1993) 'The Tyranny of Change: Organizational Development Revisited'. *Journal of Business Ethics,* **12** (2), pp.93-104.

McKenzie, G. (1997) The Age of Reason or the Age of Innocence?, in McKenzie, G., Powell, J. and Usher, R. (eds.) *Understanding Social Research: Methodology and Practice.* London: Falmer Press.

Mehrotra, A. (2002) *A Comparative Study of Leadership Styles of Principals in Relation to Job Satisfaction of Teachers and Organizational Climate in Government and Private Senior Secondary School of Delhi*, unpublished thesis for the Doctor of Philosophy program, Jamia Millia Islamia, Department of Educational Studies.

Mertens, D.M. (2003) Mixed Methods and the Politics of Human Research: The Transformative-Emancipatory Perspective, in Tashakkori, A. and Teddlie, C. (eds.) *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioural Research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Meyer, J.P. and Allen, N.J. (1997) *Commitment in the Workplace: Theory, Research, and Application.* Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Middlehurst, R. (1993) *Leading Academics*. Buckingham: Society for Research in Higher Education and Open University Press.

Milkovich, G.T. and Newman, J.M. (1990) *Compensation.* Homewood: BPI Irwin.

Mind Garden Inc. (2011) *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Mind Garden Inc. (http://www.mindgarden.com/products/mlq.htm) Online accessed on 18 February 2011.

Mitchell, J.C. (1983) 'Case and Situation Analysis'. *Sociological Review*, **31** (3) pp.186-211.

Mohrman, A.M., Cooke, R.S., Mohrman, S.A., Duncan, R.B. and Zaltman, G. (1977) *An Assessment of a Structural Task Approach to Organizational Development in a School System*. Washington: National Institute of Education.

Mohrman, A.M., Cooke, R.S. and Mohrman, S.A. (1978) 'Participants in Decision Making a Multidimensional Approach'. *Education Administration Quarterly*, **14** (1), pp.13-29.

Molero, R. and Morales, J.F. (1994) A Study on Leadership in a Healthcare Organization using Bass' Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). Paper presented at the *International Congress of Applied Psychology*. Madrid, July 1994.

Moore, L.L. and Rudd, R.D. (2006) 'Leadership Styles of Current Extension Leaders'. *Journal of Agricultural Education,* **47** (1), pp. 6-16.

Morgan, D. (2007) 'Paradigms Lost and Pragmatism Regained: Methodological Implications of Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Methods'. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, **1** (1), pp.48-76.

Morrison, K. (1998) *Management Theories for Educational Change*. London: Paul Chapman.

Morrison, M. (2007) What Do We Mean by Educational Research?, in Briggs, A.R.J. and Coleman, M. (eds.) *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management*. 2nd ed. London: Paul Chapman.

Moses, I. (1986) 'Promotion of Academic Staff: Reward and Incentive'. *Higher Education* **15** (1/2), pp.135-149.

Mosley, D.C., Megginson, L.C. and Pietri, P.H. (1989) *Supervisory Management: The Art of Working with and through People*. 2nd ed. Cincinnati: South-Western.

Muenjohn, N. and Armstrong, A. (2008) 'Evaluating the Structural Validity of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), Capturing the Leadership Factors of Transformational-Transactional Leadership'. *Contemporary Management Research*, **4** (1), pp.3-14.

Muijs, D. (2004) *Doing Quantitative Research in Education with SPSS*. London: Sage.

Mumford, D.M. (1986) 'Leadership in the Organizational Context: A Conceptual Approach and its Applications'. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, **16** (6), PP.508-531.

Murphy, J. (2002) *The Educational Leadership Challenge: Redefining Leadership for the 21st Century.* Chicago: NSSE.

Murry, J.W.J. and Stauffacher, K.B. (2001) 'Department Chair Effectiveness: What Skills and Behaviours do Deans, Chairs, and Faculty in Research Universities Perceive as Important'? *Arkansas Educational Research & Policy Studies Journal,* **1** (1), pp.62-75.

National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) (2001) *The Quality of Teachers' Working Lives.* Slough: National Foundation for Educational Research.

Naylor, J. (1999) *Management.* Harlow: Prentice hall.

Nesfield-Cookson, B. (1987) *William Blake: Prophet of Universal Brotherhood*: London: Crucible.

Nestor, P.I. and Leary, P. (2000) 'The Relationship between Tenure and Non-Tenure Track Status of Extension Faculty and Job Satisfaction'. *Journal of Extension,* **38** (4). (http://www.joe.org/joe/2000august/rb1.php) Online accessed on 22 September 2009.

Newby, J.E. (1999) *Job Satisfaction of Middle School Principals in Virginia*, unpublished thesis for the Doctor of Education program, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

Newman, I. and Benz. C.R. (1998) *Qualitative-Quantitative Research Methodology: Exploring the Interactive Continuum*. Carbondale and Edwardsville: Southern Illinois University Press.

Nguni, S., Sleegers, P. and Denessen, E. (2006) 'Transformational and Transactional Leadership Effects on Teachers' Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Primary Schools: The Tanzanian Case'. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement,* **17** (2), pp.145-177.

Northouse, P.G. (1997) *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Northouse, P.G. (2007) *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. 4th ed. London: Sage.

Northouse, P.G. (2010) *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. 5th ed. London: Sage.

Nunnally, J. (1967) *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Ololube, N.P. (2006) 'Teachers Job Satisfaction and Motivation for School Effectiveness: An Assessment', *Essays In Education (EIE)*, (vol. 18), Article 9, Fall 2006 [ISSN: 1527-9359].

Oshagbemi, T. (1997) 'Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction in Higher Education'. *Education + Training*, **39** (9), pp.354-359.

Ozaralli, N. (2003) 'Effects of Transformational Leadership on Empowerment and Team Effectiveness'. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, **24** (6), pp.335-344.

Pallant, J. (2007) *SPSS Survival Manual: A Step by Step Guide to Data Analysis Using SPSS for Windows*. 3rd ed. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Patton, M.Q. (2002) *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods*. 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Patton, M. and Kritsonis, W. (2006) 'The Law of Increasing Returns: A Process for Retaining Teachers-National Recommendations'. *Doctoral forum: National Journal for Publishing and Mentoring Doctoral Student Research,* **3** (1), pp.1-9.

Pavkov, T.W. and Piece, K.A. (1997) *Ready, Set, Go! A Guide to SPSS for Windows*. Mountain View: Mayfield Publishing Company.

Pawar, B. and Eastman, K.K. (1997) 'The Nature and Implications of Contextual Influences on Transformational Leadership: A Conceptual Examination'. *Academy of Management Review*, **22** (1), pp.80-109.

Peters, T.J. and Waterman, R.H. (1982) *In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Educational System*. New York: Avon Books.

Plihal, J. (1982) 'Types of Intrinsic Rewards of Teaching and Their Relation to Teacher Characteristics and Variables in the Work Setting'. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association*, New York, April 1982.

Poulin, J.E., and Walter, C.A. (1992) 'Retention Plans and Job Satisfaction of Gerontological Social Workers'. *Journal of Gerontological Social Work*, **19** (1), pp.99-114.

Proffit, A.C. (1990) 'The Relationship between Locus of Control and Job Satisfaction of Appalachian Principals'. [CD ROM]. *Abstract from ProQuest File*: Dissertation Abstracts International Item: 9029346.

Provincial Assembly Punjab (2004) *Notification: The University of Education, Lahore*. Lahore: Provincial Assembly of the Punjab, Pakistan.

Quacquarelli Symonds (2011) *QS World University Rankings 2011/12*. Quacquarelli Symonds Limited, (http://www.topuniversities.com/university-rankings/world-university-rankings/2011) Online accessed on 14 October 2011.

Quarstein, V.A., McAfee, R.B. and Glassman, M. (1992) 'The Situational Occurrences Theory of Job Satisfaction'. *Human Relations,* **45** (8), pp.859-873.

Rad, A.M.M. and Yarmohammadian, M.H. (2006) 'A Study of Relationship between Managers' Leadership Style and Employees' Job Satisfaction'. *Leadership in Health Services,* **19** (2), pp.11-28.

Rahim, M.A. and Afza, M. (1993) 'Leader Power, Commitment, Satisfaction, Compliance, and Propensity to Leave a Job among U.S. Accountants'. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, **133** (5), pp.611-625.

Ramakrishnaiah, D. (1998) *Job Satisfaction of College Teachers*. New Delhi: Discovery Publishing House.

Ramatulasamma, K. and Rao, D.B. (2003) *Job Satisfaction of Teacher Educators*. Delhi: Oscar Publications.

Rehman, A. (2006) Higher Education Commission releases university rankings: QAU grabs pole position, PU claims second place. *Daily Times,* September 29th, p.7. (http://www.dailytimes.com.pk/default.asp?page=2006%5C09%5C29%5Cstory_29-9-2006_pg7_39) Online accessed on 29 July 2011.

Ribbins, P. (1997) *Leaders and Leadership in the School, College and University.* London: Cassell for British Educational Management and Administration Society.

Ribbins, P. and Gunter, H.M. (2002) 'Mapping Leadership Studies in Education: Towards a Topology of Knowledge Domains'. *Educational Management and Administration*, **30** (4), pp.359-386.

Rice, E.M. and Schneider, G.T. (1994) 'A Decade of Teacher Empowerment: An Empirical Analysis of Teacher involvement in Decision Making, 1980-1991'. *Journal of Educational Administration*, **32** (1), pp.43-58.

Riessman C. K. (2008) *Narrative Methods for the Human Sciences.* Thousand Oaks. Sage.

Roberts, W. (2001) *It takes More than a Carrot and a Stick*. New York: Andres McMeel.

Rodwell, S. (1998) 'Internationalisation or Indigenisation of Educational Management Development? Some Issues of Cross-Cultural Transfer'. *Comparative Education*, **34** (1), pp.41-54.

Rossmiller, R.A. (1992) 'The Secondary School Principal and Teachers' Quality of Work life'. *Educational Management and Administration*, **20** (3), pp.132-146.

Rost, J.C. (1991) *Leadership for the Twenty-First Century*. New York: Praeger.

Roueche, J.E., Baker III, G.A. and Rose, R.R. (1989) *Shared Vision: Transformational Leadership in American Community Colleges*. Washington: Community College Press.

Sagie, A. (1997) 'Leader Direction and Employee Participation in Decision Making: Contradictory or Compatible Practices'? *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, **46** (4), pp.387-452.

Santhapparaj, A.S. and Alam, S.S. (2005) 'Job Satisfaction among Academic Staff in Private Universities in Malaysia'. *Journal of Social Sciences*, **1** (2), pp.72-76.

Sargent, T. and Hannum, E. (2005) 'Keeping Teachers Happy: Job Satisfaction among Primary School Teachers in Rural Northwest China'. *Comparative Education Review*, **49** (2), pp.173-204.

Schneider, G.T. (1984) 'Teacher Involvement in Decision Making Zones of Acceptance, Decision Conditions, and Job Satisfaction'. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, **18** (1), pp.25-32.

Schneider, M. (2003) '*Linking School Facility Conditions to Teacher Satisfaction and Success*'. Washington: National Clearinghouse for Educational Facilities.

Schofield, J.W. (1990) Generalizability in Qualitative Research, in Eisner, E. and Peshkin, A. (eds.) *Qualitative Inquiry in education*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Schultz, D.P. (1982) *Psychology and Industry Today*. New York: Macmillan.

Scott, C. and Dinham, S. (2003) 'The Development of Scales to Measure Teacher and School Executive Occupational Satisfaction'. *Journal of Educational Administration*, **41** (1), pp.74-86.

Scott, D. and Morrison, M. (2006) *Key Ideas in Educational Research*. London: Continuum.

Scott, E.L. (1956) *Leadership and Perceptions of Organization*. Columbus: Ohio State University.

Seltzer, J. and Bass, B.M. (1987) *Leadership is More than Initiation and Consideration*. New York : American Psychological Association.

Seltzer, J. and Bass, B.M. (1990) 'Transformational Leadership: Beyond Initiation and Consideration'. *Journal of Management*, **16** (4), pp.693-703.

Sergiovanni, T.J. (1991) *The Principalship: A Reflective Practice Perspective*. 2nd ed. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Sergiovanni, T.J. and Starratt, R.J. (1971) *Emerging Patterns of Supervision: Human Perspectives*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Sergiovanni, T.J. and Carver, F.D. (1980) *The New School Executive, a Theory of Administration*. 2nd edition. New York: Harper and Row.

Seseer, B. (2007) *Perceived Presidential Leadership Styles and Faculty Job Satisfaction at Mongolian Public Universities*, unpublished dissertation for the Doctor of Philosophy program, Purdue University, Educational Studies.

Shah, S. (2004) 'The Researcher/Interviewer in Intercultural Context: A Social Intruder'. *British Journal of Educational Research*, **30** (4), pp.549-575.

Shah, S. (2006a) 'Leading Multiethnic Schools: a new understanding of Muslim Youth Identity'. *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership*, **34** (2), pp.215-237.

Shah, S. (2006b) 'Educational Leadership: An Islamic Perspective'. *British Educational Research Journal*, **32** (3), pp.363-385.

Shah, S. (2008) 'Leading Multi-Ethnic Schools: Adjustments in Concepts and Practices for Engaging with Diversity'. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, **29** (5), pp.523-536.

Shah, S. (2009) 'The Impact of Societal Culture on Practice: People Management in Colleges in Pakistan'. *Journal of Educational Leadership, Policy and Practice*, **24** (2) pp.3-17.

Shah, S. (2010a) 'Re-thinking Educational Leadership: Exploring the Impact of Cultural and Belief Systems'. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, **13**(1) pp.27-44.

Shah, S. (2010b) 'Higher Education Expansion in Pakistan and Issues of Quality'. Paper presented at the *3rd International Conference on Assessing Quality in Higher Education*, Lahore, December 2010.

Shahin, A.I. and Wright, P.L. (2004) 'Leadership in the Context of Culture'. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal,* **25** (6), pp.499-511.

Shamir, B., House, R.J. and Arthur, M.B. (1993) 'The Motivational Effects of Charismatic Leadership: A Self-concept based Theory'. *Organisation Science*, **4** (4), pp.577-594.

Shann, M.H. (1998) 'Professional Commitment and Satisfaction among Teachers in Urban Middle Schools'. *The Journal of Educational Research,* **92** (2), pp.67-73.

Sharma, R.D. and Jyoti, J. (2009) 'Job Satisfaction of University Teachers: An Empirical Study'. *Journal of Services Research*, **9** (2), pp.51-80.

Shaw, M. (2005) The Cultural Context of Educational Leadership, in Coleman, M. and Earley, P. (eds.) *Leadership and Management in Education: Cultures, Change and Context.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sheppard, B. (1996) 'Exploring the Transformational Nature of Instructional Leadership'. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, **42** (4), pp.325-344.

Siegel, L and Lane, I. (1987) *Personnel and Organizational Psychology*. Homewood :Richard D. Irwin, Inc.

Silins, H.C. (1994) 'The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and School Improvement Outcomes'. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, **5** (3), pp.272-298.

Simkins, T. (2005) 'Leadership in Education: 'What Works' or 'What Makes Sense'? *Educational Management Administration & Leadership,* **33** (1), pp.9-26.

Simkins, T., Garrett, V., Memon, M. and Nazir Ali, R. (1998) 'The Role Perceptions of Government and Non-Government Headteachers in Pakistan'. *Educational Management and Administration*, **26** (2), pp.131-146.

Simkins, T. Sisum, C. and Memon, M. (2003) 'School leadership in Pakistan: exploring the headteacher's role'. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, **14** (3), pp.275-292.

Siripak, S. (2006) *Job Satisfaction of Academic Staff in Mahidol University*, unpublished Thesis for the Degree of Master of Education in Educational Management, Mahidol University, Faculty of Graduates Studies.

Smallwood, I.M. (2008) *A Case Study Investigation into the Effects of Increased Levels of Teacher Empowerment on Motivation and Job Satisfaction among University Language Centre Instructors,* unpublished dissertation for the M.Sc in Educational Leadership program, University of Leicester, School of Education.

Smart, J.C. (1990) 'A Causal Model of Faculty Turnover Intentions'. *Research in Higher Education,* **31** (5), **pp.**405-424.

Smerek, R.E. and Peterson, M. (2007) 'Examining Herzberg's Theory: Improving Job Satisfaction among Non-academic Employees at a University'. *Research in Higher Education*, **48** (2), pp.229-250.

Smith, P.C., Kendall, L.M. and Hulin, C.L. (1969) *The Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement.* Chicago: Rand McNally.

Smith, R.E. (1997) *The Role of the Head of Department in 'New' British Universities,* unpublished thesis for the doctor in education program, University of Leicester, School of Education.

Smylie, M.A., Lazarus, V. and Brownlee-Conyers, J. (1996) 'Instrumental Outcomes of School-Based Participative Decision Making'. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, **18** (3), pp.181-198.

Snyder, M. (1987) *Public Appearances, Private Realities: The Psychology of Self-Monitoring*. New York: W. H. Freeman & Co.

Somech, A. (2005) 'Directive Versus Participative Leadership: Two Complementary Approaches to Managing School Effectiveness'. *Educational Administration Quarterly,* **41** (5), pp.777-800.

Spector, P.E. (1994) *Job Satisfaction Survey*. Department of Psychology, University of South Florida (http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~pspector/scales/jsspag.html) Online accessed on 6 March 2011.

Spector, P.E. (1997) *Job Satisfaction: Application, Assessment, Causes, and Consequences*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Stevens, C.U., D'Intino, R.S. and Victor, B. (1995) 'The Moral Quandary of Transformational Leadership: Change for Whom'? *Research in Organizational Change and Development,* **8**, pp.123-143.

Stogdill, R.M. (1948). 'Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature'. *The Journal of Psychology*, **25** (1), pp.35-71.

Stogdill, R.M. (1974) *Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of the Literature*. New York: Free Press.

Stogdill, R.M. and Coons, A.E. (1957) *Leader Behaviour: its Description and Measurement*. Columbus: Ohio State University.

Stone, A.G., Russell, R.F. and Patterson, K. (2004) 'Transformational Versus Servant Leadership: A Difference in Leader Focus'. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, **25** (4), pp.349-361.

Stumpf, M.N. (2003) *The Relationship of Perceived Leadership Styles of North Carolina County Extension Directors' to Job Satisfaction of County Extension Professionals*, unpublished dissertation for the Doctor of Education Program, North Carolina State University, Adult and Community College.

Sung, C. (2007) *Relationship among Supervisors' Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles, And Teachers' Job Satisfaction in Taiwan Higher Education (China)*, unpublished thesis for the Doctor of Philosophy program, Lynn University.

Tang, T.L. and Gilbert, P.R. (1995) 'Attitudes toward Money as Related to Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction, Stress and Work-Related Attitudes'. *Personality and Individual Differences*, **19** (3), pp.327-332.

Tann, J. (1995) 'Managing Transformations in University Departments', in Slowey, M. (ed.) *Implementing Change from within: Universities and Colleges*, pp.44-55. London: Kogan Page.

Tashakkori, A. and Teddlie, C. (2003) *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioural Research*. London: Sage.

Tashakkori, A. and Creswell, J.W. (2007) 'Exploring the Nature of Research Questions in Mixed Methods Research. Editorial'. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, **1** (3), pp.207-211.

Tasnim, S. (2006) Job *Satisfaction among Female Teachers: A Study on Primary Schools in Bangladesh*, unpublished thesis for the Master of Philosophy program, University of Bergen, Department of Administration and Organization Theory.

Taylor, D.L. and Tashakkori, A. (1995) 'Decision Participation and School Climate As Predictors of Job Satisfaction and Teacher's Sense of Efficacy'. *Journal of Experimental Education,* **63**(3), pp.217-227.

Teddlie, C. and Tashakkori, A. (2009) *Foundations of Mixed Methods Research: Integrating Quantitative and Qualitative Approached in the Social and Behavioural Sciences*. London: Sage.

Tejeda, M.J., Scandura, T.A. and Pillai, R. (2001) 'The MLQ Revisited: Psychometric Properties and Recommendations'. *Leadership Quarterly*, **12** (1), pp.31-52.

Thomson, G.S. (2007) A Review of Transformational Leadership Models and its Linkage to the Scholarship/Practice/ Leadership Model. *The Selected Works of Dr. Grace S. Thomson* (http://works.bepress.com/grace_thomson/4/) Online accessed on 3 May 2011.

Tobias, C.U. (1999) *The Way We Work: What You Know about Working Styles Can Increase Your Efficiency, Productivity and Job Satisfaction*. Nashville: Broadman & Holman.

Toker, B. (2011) 'Job Satisfaction of Academic Staff: An Empirical Study on Turkey'. *Quality Assurance in Education*, **19** (2), pp.156-169.

Tracey, J. and Hinkin, T. (1998) 'Transformational Leadership or Effective Managerial Practices'? Group & Organization Management, **23** (3), pp.220-236.

Trocchia, P.J. and Andrus, D.M. (2003) 'Perceived Characteristics and Abilities of An Effective Marketing Department Head'. *Journal of Marketing Education,* **25** (1), pp.5-15.

Tsui, A. (1982) 'A Role Set Analysis of Managerial Reputation'. Paper presented at the *National Meeting of the Academy of Management*, New York, August 1982.

Tucker, M.L., Bass, B.M. and Daniel, L.G., Jr. (1992) Transformational Leadership's Impact on Higher Education Satisfaction, Effectiveness, and Extra Effort, in Clark, K.E., Clark, M.B. and Campbell, D.P. (eds.), *Impact of Leadership* (pp.169-176). Greensboro: Centre for Creative Leadership.

Tung, R.L. (2003) Managing in Asia: Cross-Cultural Dimensions, in Warner, M. and Joynt, P. (eds.) *Managing across Cultures: Issues and Perspectives*. London: Thomson Learning.

University of Leicester (2008) *Research Code of Conduct: Last updated 2008*. University of Leicester (http://www2.le.ac.uk/staff/policy/codes-of-practice-and-policy/research/ResearchCodeofConduct2008.pdf/view?searchterm=Ethical%20Code%20of%20Conduct) Online accessed on 29 September 2010.

Van Wart, M. (2003) 'Public-sector Leadership Theory: An Assessment'. *Public Administration Review*, **63** (2), pp.214-28.

Vroom, V.H. (1964) *Work and Motivation*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Vroom, V.H. (1982). *Work and motivation* (Rev. ed.). Malabar: Robert E. Krieger

Publishing Company.

Vroom, V.H. and Jago, A.G. (1998) Situation Effects and Levels of Analysis in the Study of Leader Participation, in Dansereau, F. and Yammarino, F.J. (eds.) *Leadership: The Multiple-level Approaches*. London: JAI.

Waldman, D.A. and Bass, B.M. (1986) *Adding to Leader and Follower Transactions: The Augmenting Effect of Transformational Leadership (Working Paper No. 86-109)*. Binghamton: State University of New York, School of Management.

Waldman, D.A., Bass, B.M. and Yammarino, F.J. (1990) 'Adding to Contingent-Reward Behaviour: The Augmenting Effect of Charismatic Leadership'. *Group and Organizational Studies*, **15** (4), pp.381-394.

Walker, A. and Dimmock, C. (2002) Introduction: The Societal Cultural Context of Educational Administration and Leadership, in Walker, A. and Dimmock, C. *School Leadership and Administration: Adopting a Cultural Perspective*. London: Routledge Falmer.

Walumbwa, F.O. and Lawler, J.J. (2003) 'Building Effective Organizations: Transformational Leadership, Collectivist Orientation, Work Related Attitudes and Withdrawal Behaviours in Three Emerging Economies'. *The International Journal of Human Resource Manage*ment, **14** (7), pp.1083-1101.

Watling, R. and James, V. (2007) Analysing Qualitative Data, in Briggs, A.R.J. and Coleman, M. (eds.) *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management*. 2nd ed. London: Paul Chapman.

Webb, K.S. (2003) *Presidents' Leadership Behaviours Associated with Followers' Job Satisfaction, Motivation toward Extra Effort, And Presidential Effectiveness at Evangelical Colleges and Universities*, unpublished dissertation for the Doctor of Philosophy Program, University of North Texas, College of Education.

Weinberg, S. (1984) 'The Perceived Responsibilities of the Departmental Chairperson: A Note of a Preliminary Study'. *Higher Education*, **13** (3), pp.301-303.

Weiss, D.J., Dawis, R.V., England, G.W. and Lofquist, L.H. (1967*) Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire*. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press.

Wetherell K.M. (2002) *Principal Leadership Style and Teacher Job Satisfaction*, unpublished dissertation for the Doctor of Education Program, Seton Hall University.

White, L.P. and Wooten, K.C. (1986) *Professional Ethics and Practice in Organizational Development: A Systematic Analysis of Issues, Alternatives, and Approaches*. New York: Praeger.

Woods, T.J. (2007) 'Motivating Faculty through Transactional and Transformational Leadership Strategies'. *Journal of Leadership Strategies*, **1** (2), pp.64-73.

Worrell, T.G (2004) *School Psychologists' Job Satisfaction: Ten Years Later*, unpublished thesis for the Doctor of Philosophy program, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

Wright, T.A. and Cropanzano, R. (1997) 'Shared Influence and Organizational Behaviour: A Meta Analysis of Situational Variable Expected to Moderate Participation Outcome Relationship'. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, pp.364-371.

Yammarino, F.J. (1993) 'Transformational Leadership Studies: Bernard Bass' Leadership and Performance beyond Expectations'. *Leadership Quarterly*, **4** (3), pp.379-382.

Yu, H., Leithwood, K. and Jantzi, D. (2002) 'The Effects of Transformational Leadership on Teachers' Commitment to Change in Hong Kong'. *Journal of Educational Administration*, **40** (4), pp.368-389.

Yukl, G.A. (1989) *Leadership in Organizations*. 2nd ed. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Yukl, G.A. (1994) *Leadership in Organizations*. 3rd ed. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Yukl, G.A. (1999) 'An Evaluation of Conceptual Weakness in Transformational and Chrismatic Leadership Theories'. *Leadership Quarterly*, **10** (2), pp.285-305.

Yukl, G.A. (2002) *Leadership in Organizations*. 5th ed. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

Yukl, G.A. and Van Fleet, D.D. (1992) 'Cross-Situational, Multimethod Research on Military Leader Effectiveness'. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, **6** (4), pp.87-108.

Yukl, G.A. and Van Fleet, D.D. (1998) Theory and Research on Leadership in Organizations, in Dunnette, M.D. and Hough, L.M. (eds.) *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. Mumbai: Jaico Publishing House.

Zaleznik, A. (1977) 'Managers and Leaders: Are They Different'? *Harvard Business Review*, **55** (3), pp.67-78.

Zembylas, M. and Papanastasiou, E. (2004) 'Job Satisfaction among School Teachers in Cyprus'. *Journal of Educational Administration*, **42** (3), pp.357-374.

Zembylas, M. and Papanastasiou, E. (2006) 'Teacher Job Satisfaction in Cyprus: The Results of A Mixed-Methods Approach'. Paper presented at the *Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and Management conference*, Nicosia, Cyprus.