Leadership style and job satisfaction in higher education institutions

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Abstract

Purpose – Although leadership is found to have impact on the followers’ attitudes and performance, there is a gap in leadership studies in HEIs, especially having Lithuania in mind. The purpose of this paper is to study the impact of leadership style on job satisfaction of faculty in higher education institutions (HEI).

Design/methodology/approach – In order to investigate before mentioned problem, the representative quantitative empirical research was conducted in 2013. It includes 72 faculty members and ten supervisors from Lithuanian public and private universities. The survey was conducted to check how leadership styles of supervisors influence faculty job satisfaction and compare the opinion of supervisors and subordinates.

Findings – The empirical research revealed significant positive impact of leadership style on job satisfaction of faculty where servant leadership style has been found to have the highest positive significant impact on job satisfaction of faculty while controlling autocrat leadership style has the lowest impact.

Research limitations/implications – There are several implications for further research. It can be expanded whether geographically (e.g. comparative analysis in different countries) or institutionally (e.g. in other educational institutions, such as schools or pre-schools).

Practical implications – Practical implications reveal that supervisors have the power to increase the levels of job satisfaction of their faculty members, by defining their role as a leader, demonstrating certain leadership behaviors.

Originality/value – This survey covers the area which lacks academic research, namely, the impact of leadership on HEI faculty. Previous leadership studies in HEI focus on particular leadership style demonstrated (van Ameijde, 2009), the impact of leadership on culture (Asmawi et al., 2013), organizational effectiveness (Siddique et al., 2011) and other factors. However, very few of them (one of the examples is the study of Webb, 2009 in USA) investigate the direct managers’ leadership style and faculty job satisfaction. Besides, the previous surveys have not covered as many leadership styles as this one does.

Keywords Lithuania, Higher education, Job satisfaction, Leadership style

1. Introduction

The interest in the subject of leadership in higher education has been increasing over last decades. Leadership as a concept on its own has evolved, due to the changes in demographics, globalization, technology and work practices. The studies examined how leadership effects organizational performance, how various leadership styles impact organizational culture, employee effectiveness, performance, retention, motivation, satisfaction in organizations (Chang and Lee, 2007; Fernandez, 2008; Griffith, 2004; Mosadegh Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006; Shaw and Newton, 2014; Siddique et al., 2011; Yang and Islam, 2012; Yang, 2014). However, there is a gap in the academic research about leadership in the higher education institutions (HEI) (Bryman, 2007). The survey in Iran (Webb, 2009) could be mentioned as one of very few in this field. Therefore further research is needed. Leadership topic in HEI has been lately raising issues like:
whether the same form of leadership exists and is necessary in HEIs, also if the same framework of theory and implementation applies to the higher education sector, as in business organizations (Amzat and Idris, 2012; Eacott, 2011; Siddique et al., 2011; Spendlove, 2007).

Universities compete in order to attract students. This is especially visible in Lithuania since there are 23 public and private universities for three million people population (www.aikos.smm.lt). As the research of Alonderiene and Klimaviciene (2013) shows the main factors among others in university selection are university reputation, interactive learning methods applied and competence of faculty. Therefore faculty job satisfaction is vital to establish high-employee and university performance. As previous studies suggest (Fernandez, 2008; Lin and Tseng, 2013; Shaw and Newton, 2014; Yang, 2014) the right leadership style might improve employee job satisfaction. However, it is insufficiently tested in HEIs around the world and not tested in HEIs in Lithuania.

This paper focuses on the impact of leadership style on job satisfaction in HEI. Therefore the problem of this study is – how does leadership style impact job satisfaction of faculty in HEI? The aim of this research is to study the impact of leadership style on job satisfaction of faculty in HEI in Lithuania.

The value of this research lies in the lack of research in the area. There is not much research done on the topic of this thesis. Moreover, the currently available research focuses on the definition and traits of leadership in HEI, also on challenges faced by the leaders in HEIs (Eacott, 2011; Spendlove, 2007). The previous research on leadership in educational institutions focus on one or several leadership styles: transactional (Aydin et al., 2013; Webb, 2009), transformational (Abbas et al., 2012; Asmawi et al., 2013; Lin and Tseng, 2013; Webb, 2009), laissez-faire (Webb, 2009), servant (Shaw and Newton, 2014), distributed (van Ameijde et al., 2009); or leadership behaviors: task-oriented, relations-oriented and development-oriented leadership behavior (Fernandez, 2008). However, none were found to analyze six different leadership styles in one survey. The traditional leadership styles such as transactional and transformational are analyzed in various contexts. Higher education sector is claimed to be unique possibly requiring different leadership styles (van Ameijde et al., 2009). Therefore broader choice is provided in this research.

Even though the importance and focus on subject of leadership in HEIs has been growing significantly over last decade, there is no research in Lithuania and other countries, which would be focusing on the roles of leadership and leadership style influence on job satisfaction of faculty in the HEIs. This study is supposed to contribute in the research area of leadership and job satisfaction.

2. Literature review
2.1 Analysis of leadership concept
Due to multidimensional nature of leadership, it is difficult to provide a universal definition, which would include all the aspects of leadership. Leadership is recognized in someone’s behavior, when experienced or seen (Pardey, 2007). Some definitions define leadership as a process to influence people to achieve certain goals or results (Howell and Costley, 2006; Pardey, 2007). On the other hand, Arnold et al. (2005) and Grint (2005) focus on the leader and his/her abilities and qualities more.

The development of leadership theories took a long way. It started with the Great Man theory in the beginning of twentieth century focusing on unique leadership traits demonstrated. The leadership trait theory was later criticized and the following theories emerged: leadership styles, situational, contingency, path-goal, team leadership and other
theories (Beyer, 2012). Later on, mostly in the beginning of twentieth century more leadership approaches have emerged, namely, servant, authentic, visionary, distributed, shared, ethical, moral, etc. (Beyer, 2012). Cibulskas and Žydžiūnaitė (2012) discuss many other types of leadership: participative, cooperative, collaborating, sustainable, partial and autocratic. They also define liberal, bureaucratic, primitive, paternalistic, toxic, educating, narcissistic and many more leadership styles. Beyer (2012) lists 50 different leadership approaches that can be found in the recent academic literature. However, she notices, that “the recent concepts appear to be more of a blending of ideas and concepts interrelated between and building upon each other rather than singular theoretical frameworks” (p. 2).

This paper focusses on the leadership style theory. Leaders demonstrate particular leadership styles, the most common investigated are transactional, transformational and laissez-faire styles (e.g. Webb, 2009). However, the new styles of leadership are constantly emerging. On the other hand, there is a lack of empirical research on more than few leadership styles studied in the same context.

Transformational leadership style is usually opposed to transactional or laissez-faire one. Transformational leadership exhibits the support for the subordinate and therefore is positively related to employee creativity (Cheung and Wong, 2011). Research in schools results in a conclusion that principals’ transformational leadership style shows strong positive and significant relation with the school achievement progress (Griffith’s, 2004), organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Aydin et al., 2013). The studies also show positive relationship between transformational leadership style and the fast forward learning in the organizations where feedback learning shows positive relationship with the transactional leadership style (Bucic et al., 2010). Aydin et al. (2013) also found that transactional leadership style positively affects job satisfaction as well, although to a lesser extent than transformational one.

Leadership styles are defined by combination of leadership behaviors (Howell and Costley, 2006). The way a leader behaves in order to reach a goal or perform a function, determines which kind of leadership behavior leader adapts. Some examples would be showing concern for the personal feelings of a follower, providing information that helps a follower to perform effectively (Howell and Costley, 2006). There are behavior patterns, which can be grouped according to the specifics of a certain behavior. Therefore the following leadership styles are identified by Howell and Costley (2006): coach, human relations specialist, controlling autocrat, transformational visionary, transactional exchange and servant. Each leadership style is characterized by the set of leadership behaviors. For example, coach leadership style is highly directive and supportive, concern and consideration is shown, it also shows need for power and need for affiliation. Human relations specialist leadership style exhibits the following behaviors: emphasis on keeping followers happy and comfortable, usually being not directive with followers, modifying situation to make followers work more comfortable, etc. While controlling autocrat is obsessed with controlling actions around him/her, is highly directive with followers, is dogmatic in his/her believes, etc. According to Howell and Costley (2006) some (but not all) behaviors in different leadership styles may overlap, e.g. both coach and controlling autocrat are highly directive with their followers.

On the other hand authors like Fernandez (2008) define leadership behaviors in the following way: task-oriented, relations-oriented and development-oriented behaviors. He claims that all three types of leadership have positive relation with federal employees’ perceptions of performance while second two have positive relation with their job satisfaction.
Leadership affects various areas in organizational performance, namely, the climate in educational institutions, military operations success and even the attendance of churches (Howell and Costley, 2006). For example, “sources of job stress come from the leadership style adopted by the leader” (Parker and Decotiis, 1963, as quoted by Chen and Silverthorne, 2005, p. 282). Leadership styles are positively related with the organizational learning (Bhat et al., 2012). Eventually, to influence various areas in organizational performance different leadership styles are evolving and the classification becomes more complex.

2.2 Analysis of leadership in HEI
Since leadership plays a critical role in educational organization success (Osseo-Asare et al., 2005) this research paper is focussed on leadership styles in HEI. Higher education sector has changed together with the changing factors of the world – globalization, technological improvements, societal changes and many more. Changes in higher education, according to Oshagbemi (1997) have arisen from “the pressures of demand, the cultural shift in the perception of higher education, financial pressures, structural and managerial diversity, and diversity of university missions or emphases” (p. 354). There are on-going discussions whether HEI should be viewed as business organization, if the same practices should be applied when leading the educational institution. The freedom of choice and movement gives a student a choice in preferred aspects of HEI – choice according to ranking, reputation, public image, private or public, local or foreign, degree in native language or in foreign language (Alonderiene and Klimaviciene, 2013). What is more, the same factors are also important to the staff and faculty of universities. “HEI’s are labour intensive and their budgets are predominantly devoted to personnel, also the effectiveness of higher education institutions is largely dependent on their staff” (Toker, 2011, p. 156). The competitiveness among universities grows exponentially, performance and quality of teaching, and academic work has to be outstanding. Leadership plays significant role in educational organization success (Osseo-Asare et al., 2005). Even though corporations are more often studied in the leadership area, HEI are business organizations too, they worth millions, therefore should be led as well (Lumby, 2012).

One part of the scientific literature defines leadership in higher education the same as in business organizations, the other part on the contrary argue that both are distinctive concepts (Lumby, 2012). Some sources argue that leadership practices in corporate and other organizations are completely inappropriate in HEI and if we move toward a standardized look at the definition and measurement of leadership it would threaten the leadership in the HEI (Eacott, 2011). Based on the survey conducted in the UK universities Spendlove (2007) found that there are some anomalies in the perception of leadership in HEI. Those respondents who had experience in business organizations found that leadership itself is the same in HEI, as in other organizations; they also perceived management and leadership as separate subjects. On the other hand, academics in the same survey viewed leadership in education inseparable from management. The diversity of HEI, their structure and environment makes it hard to apply the same pattern of leading the faculty (Lumby, 2012). Lumby (2012) defines characteristics of HEI which are indistinctive from other organizations and which separate HEIs from other organizations: HEIs have to meet public goals and still remain viable in business; they are vulnerable to changing government policy and have lead expert, creative and independent employees. On the other hand, HEIs are
distinctive in terms of their longevity and ability to moderate nature and pace of change (Lumby, 2012).

According to Eacott (2011), there is a lot of evidence showing that there is a lack of educational leaders who would be experienced and qualified. Marshall (2012) studies educational middle leadership and looks into educational middle change leadership. “Educational leaders see themselves as representing core academic values rather than representing core organizational values” (French, 2001, as quoted by Marshall, 2012, p. 508). The main features and qualities of educational middle leaders arise from “observation, prior experience, modelling, acquired knowledge” (Marsh, 2012, p. 514). Academic leaders have more challenges than the leaders of business organization because of the stakeholders – students and faculty (Siddique et al., 2011).

Academic leadership still may be fundamentally different compared to business leadership and requires particular competencies and experience (Spendlove, 2007). Bucic et al. (2010) and Webb (2009) found that the most widely adapted leadership styles in universities are both transformational and transactional. Laissez-faire leadership is rarely exhibited according to Webb (2009). Transformational leadership was investigated in Malaysian universities (Asmawi et al., 2013), Christian colleges in North America (Webb, 2009), educational institutions is Pakistan (Abbas et al., 2012) as well. Van Ameijde et al. (2009) notes that the nature and uniqueness of HEIs require particular leadership. Their study focusses on distributed leadership project teams in HEI.

According to Bryman (2007), effective leader’s behaviors in HEI are setting direction, communicating it to the staff, having strategic vision, creating positive organizational climate, being considerate and treating staff fairly, being trustworthy and treating staff with integrity, involving academic staff in key decision making, providing feedback on performance. Academic staff should be able to have the ability to influence the way organization functions, to have enough freedom and autonomy in their position to be able to achieve the goals (Amzat and Idris, 2012).

2.3 Analysis of job satisfaction in HEI

Working environment has become more intense, and stressful, moreover there is a high pressure to perform, to overcome cultural differences, survive in the globalizing and competitive world. Job satisfaction is commonly understood as a set of emotions, feelings or attitudes toward one’s working environment. It is described as a pleasurable feeling which stems from personal perceptions about fulfills of one’s job and values (Noe et al., 2006). Employee job satisfaction is a sense which is desirable in most of the organizations and valued by the staff. It is one of the key indicators of organizational success (Toker, 2011). Lok and Crawford (2004) emphasize that both organizational performance and effectiveness are influenced by the organizational satisfaction and job satisfaction.

There are various factors which influence job satisfaction, namely, organizational climate (Mosadegh Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006; Schyns et al., 2009); the empowerment (Lok and Crawford, 2004); autonomy, recognition, communication, working conditions degree of professionalism, interpersonal relationships, working for a reputable agency, supervisory support, positive affectivity, job security, workplace flexibility, working within a team environment (Mosadegh Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006).

A lot of researchers agree that satisfied university staff can contribute to organizational effectiveness, and motivation of staff can trigger better results in student performance, the development of strong organizational culture, better image of the
institution and even higher numbers of talented students and faculty members (Siddique et al., 2011; Webb, 2009). Although many studies have been focussing on employee satisfaction in business organizations, there has been a growing interest in the research of job satisfaction in HEIs (Toker, 2011).

Amzat and Idris (2012) reveal that management’s behavior acts as a mediator in the job satisfaction – decision making style relationship, and that any behavior of university management has a strong impact on job satisfaction of university staff. The researchers notice that in Europe intrinsic factors such as job rank level, career are the predictors of higher job satisfaction among employees. On the other hand, in USA high-job satisfaction is influenced by the issues related to teaching. In private universities salary, promotion opportunities and working conditions have the highest impact on job satisfaction (Amzat and Idris, 2012).

Toker (2011) finds the satisfaction with compensation, supervision, salary, fringe benefits are evaluated lowest by the academics. Satisfaction with social status, social service and ability utilization is evaluated highest. Toker’s (2011) also noticed that there is a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and academic titles, age and the years spent in the HEI. Higher rank, elderly staff and longer working staff are more satisfied with their job. There is no significant difference in respondent’s marital status and gender. On the contrary, in Sukirno and Siengthai (2011) study demographic variables like age, gender and experience have no significant effect on performance, while academic rank has positive effect on performance and job satisfaction of faculty in HEI.

2.4 Linkages between leadership style and job satisfaction in HEI

The research shows the impact of leadership on job satisfaction whether directly or through mediating factors (Aydin et al., 2013; Chang and Lee, 2007; Fernandez, 2008; Schyns et al., 2009; Shaw and Newton, 2014; Webb, 2009; Yang, 2014). In Schyns et al. (2009) research leadership effects organizational climate and organizational climate has a significant positive effect on job satisfaction. Chang and Lee (2007) reveal how leadership together with the organizational culture bring significantly positive effect on job satisfaction. According to Griffith (2004), leadership has direct impact on job satisfaction, job satisfaction then directly effects staff turnover and school achievement progress. Yang (2014) argues that the influence of transformation leadership on job satisfaction is mediated by leadership trust. Wood and Fields (2007) explore the impact of shared leadership on role creativity, job overload, stress and job satisfaction. Although the survey was conducted in the USA, according to Wood and Fields (2007), it is also relevant to Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia due to emerging numbers of employment by foreign organizations there.

Findings of previous research show that leadership in general has positive impact on intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction of the followers (Chang and Lee, 2007; Griffith, 2004; Yang and Islam, 2012). Wood and Fields (2007) argue that leadership and job satisfaction surveys are as relevant and valuable in Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia as they are elsewhere. With the start of country-wide national project “Lyderiu laikas” (Time for Leaders), there is a number of surveys on school leadership in Lithuania: Jackson et al. (2011) examine how Ministry of Education in Lithuania initiated Time for Leaders Project to develop leadership in Lithuanian schools; Katiliute and Dapkus (2012) surveys how leadership is perceived by Lithuanian schools stakeholders; Katiliūtė et al. (2013) have initiated longitudinal research on leadership manifestations in Lithuanian schools; Mieželis (2014) examines how servant leadership influences organizational citizenship behavior in Lithuanian schools.
Majority of the described research is conducted in the context of business organizations or high schools. However, the higher education sector is still underrepresented in terms of leadership and job satisfaction relationship studies. Some of the existing ones involve MBA students as a sample (Yiing and Bin Ahmad, 2009) or focus on the impact of academic leadership on faculty’s motivation (Siddique et al., 2011). However, this research is dedicated to examine the impact of direct supervisor’s leadership on faculty job satisfaction in HEIs. The closest available research of this kind is the study of Webb (2009) where “the prevailing leadership behaviors of the president and the effects of the leaders’ behaviors on the job satisfaction for the vice-presidents and chief officers” (pp. 21-22) in Christian Colleges and Universities in USA. All of the mentioned surveys confirmed the impact of particular leadership style/behavior on employee job satisfaction. Therefore, the first hypothesis tests if leadership in general has impact on job satisfaction in Lithuanian HEIs as it was proven in previous mentioned research in other countries or contexts:

**H1.** Perceived leadership has positive impact on faculty job satisfaction.

**H1a.** Perceived leadership has positive impact on faculty extrinsic job satisfaction.

**H1b.** Perceived leadership has positive impact on faculty intrinsic job satisfaction.

It is also noted that “improving employees’ job satisfaction requires the adoption of the appropriate leadership behaviour” (Yousef, 2000, p. 18) and “different leadership styles have different influence job satisfaction” (Packard and Kauppi, 1999, as quoted by Chen and Silverthorne, 2005, p. 282). Employees have higher job satisfaction levels when leader demonstrates transformational leadership style behavior comparing to transactional (Chang and Lee, 2007). Froman et al. (2012) find that transformational leadership is positively correlated with job satisfaction. Lok and Crawford (2004) research supports the previously mentioned ones since consideration leadership style correlates positively while initiating structure leadership style correlates negatively with job satisfaction in Hong Kong and Australian samples.

Oner (2012) compares servant and paternalistic leadership styles, and finds that both leadership styles are highly correlated and had positive effect on job satisfaction. Siddique et al. (2011) present three different areas of leadership, namely, research, educational and administration leadership. They have found that leadership styles which provide higher autonomy and involvement in the decision making are the preferred leadership styles of the faculty. “Human oriented leadership style increases job satisfaction and several studies have demonstrated that participative decision making can be beneficial to worker’s mental health and job satisfaction” (Spector, 1986, Miller and Monge, 1986, Fisher, 1989, as quoted by Chen and Silverthorne, 2005, p. 282). Fernandez (2008) finds that job satisfaction is positively related with relations-oriented and development-oriented but not task-oriented leadership behavior. Shaw and Newton (2014) claim that job satisfaction and retention is affected by servant leadership in schools.

Since the first hypothesis tests leadership impact on job satisfaction in general, the following ones are based on leadership styles defined by Howell and Costley (2006) and tested in Lithuanian HEIs context:

**H2.** Perceived leadership styles which demonstrate care for the follower’s interests have positive impact on faculty job satisfaction.

**H2a.** Perceived human relations specialist leadership style has positive impact on faculty job satisfaction.
Perceived transformational visionary leadership style has positive impact on faculty job satisfaction.

Perceived servant leadership style has positive impact on employee job satisfaction.

According to research the higher the autonomy the better job satisfaction is (Chang and Lee, 2007). Since controlling autocrat, transactional exchange and coach leadership styles according to Howell and Costley (2006) involve controlling and directive leadership behaviors, the following hypotheses are tested in Lithuanian HEIs context:

Perceived leadership styles which demonstrate directive and controlling behavior have negative impact on faculty job satisfaction.

Perceived coach leadership style has negative impact on faculty job satisfaction.

Perceived controlling autocrat leadership style has negative impact on faculty job satisfaction.

Perceived transactional exchange leadership style has negative impact on faculty job satisfaction.

As Toker (2011) notices there are some demographic factors which significantly influence job satisfaction of academic employees as well. According to previous research, age, years spent in HEI and academic title are significant for faculty job satisfaction (Amzat and Idris, 2012; Sukirno and Siengthai, 2011; Toker, 2011). Therefore the following hypotheses are tested in the research in Lithuania HEIs:

The age of faculty has a statistically significant positive impact on faculty job satisfaction.

The years spent in current organization of faculty have a statistically significant positive impact on faculty job satisfaction.

The academic title of faculty has a statistically significant positive impact on faculty job satisfaction.

3. Methodology of the empirical research

The research aim is to study the impact of leadership styles on faculty job satisfaction in HEI in Lithuania. There are 23 universities (14 state and nine non-state) and 24 colleges in Lithuania (www.aikos.smm.lt) with population of almost three million inhabitants. In such a small country the big number of HEIs means severe competition for students as well as competent professors. The competition and differences between the Universities are high. Magazine Veidas (Kučinskaitė and Kairienė, 2013) publishes annual rankings of all Lithuanian Universities for 16 years already. Country employers and students evaluate universities according to nine groups of criteria, such as internationalization, scientific activities, faculty, variety of programs, study conditions in the university, students’ opinions etc. Also statistical data of universities is used. According to Kučinskaitė and Kairienė (2013), public and private universities are ranked separately. In 2013 the highest evaluated university received 75.2 points of aggregated evaluations while the lowest evaluated one – 7.1 points.

There are various opinions about the validity of Veidas survey, however, it demonstrates some tendencies and might be the indicator for the future students in...
university choice. University leadership is considered to affect faculty satisfaction and retention (Lin and Tseng, 2013; Webb, 2009) which in turn affects university results such as students’ satisfaction and their better opinion about university. Therefore is it beneficial to know which leadership behaviors direct supervisors must demonstrate in order to improve faculty satisfaction.

The competition between universities became even more severe when the first private universities entered the arena in 1990s. Private universities typically were much smaller, with less bureaucratic leadership, with supposedly better working and studying conditions. Majority of them contain and some of them contain only management and economics studies. In order to compare public and private universities appropriately in this study only management and economics-related faculties were chosen as a sample.

Figure 1 provides a framework of leadership impact on job satisfaction. Faculty is asked to indicate their job satisfaction and the leadership style of their supervisors, therefore “perceived leadership” dimension is used in the model. Theoretical model consists of two main constructs: perceived leadership, defined by leadership styles according to Howell and Costley (2006) and job satisfaction comprised of extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Hypotheses are raised to test how leadership in general and each leadership style affects faculty job satisfaction in general as well as each job satisfaction type.

During the time of the survey there were 9,800 faculty members in 17 universities in Lithuania. The survey is conducted in ten universities, three- private and seven-public, containing departments of economics, management, finance, business administration,

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<tr>
<th>Perceived leadership</th>
<th>Faculty job satisfaction</th>
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<tr>
<td>COACH LEADERSHIP STYLE</td>
<td>Extrinsic factors</td>
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<td>HUMAN RELATIONS SPECIALIST LEADERSHIP STYLE</td>
<td>Intrinsic factors</td>
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<td>CONTROLLING AUTOCRAT LEADERSHIP STYLE</td>
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<td>TRANSFORMATIONAL VISIONARY LEADERSHIP STYLE</td>
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<td>TRANSACTIONAL EXCHANGE LEADERSHIP STYLE</td>
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<td>SERVANT LEADERSHIP STYLE</td>
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**Figure 1.** Framework of the study

**Source:** Developed by the authors, according to Howell and Costley (2006) and Siddique et al. (2011)
international business administration studies. The total number of faculty members in these departments in all ten universities is 841. The total number of heads of the departments is 37. Typically (especially public) universities consist of faculties, such as, e.g. Economics and Management Faculty at Vytautas Magnus University (http://evf.vdu.lt/en). Faculties in turn consist of research departments, e.g. Departments of Economics, Finance, Management and Marketing in Economics and Management Faculty. The direct supervisor of faculty is the head of the research department. The heads of research departments are usually responsible for the development of particular research area, e.g. economics, and faculty workload management. A lot of areas, such as compensation, selection procedures, and minimal qualification requirements are regulated nationally or institutionally for public universities and recommended for private ones. However, the following roles of the heads of departments demonstrate the presence of leadership. They are responsible for clear vision of the department and research area, involvement of faculty and teambuilding, foreseeing the need and development of successors and future faculty, foreseeing faculty career possibilities and guidance how to reach them, etc.

The non-probability sample is selected for this research. Based on the formula provided by Bartlett et al. (2001), two minimum sample sizes of faculty in HEI and faculty supervisors are calculated. The minimum sample size of 5 percent of selection error for faculty members is 79. The minimum sample size for faculty members’ supervisors is calculated with 5 percent selection error is 26. Internet survey was developed and conducted in the spring of 2013. In total, 72 filled in faculty questionnaires and ten filled in supervisor questionnaires were received.

The quantitative analysis method has been chosen – internet questionnaire survey is conducted to collect the data. The goals of the study fit the method of quantitative research, which aims to test the hypothesis, and analyze the relationships among variables (Creswell, 2009). Survey method was chosen, because this study attempts to find trends. It is a non-experimental design, which aims to test the opinions, trends and attitudes of the sample of the population (Creswell, 2009).

The first questionnaire provided for faculty members of HEIs is dedicated to find the level of their job satisfaction and the perceived leadership styles demonstrated by their direct supervisors. The second questionnaire provided for direct supervisors of the faculty members is dedicated to find the perceived job satisfaction of faculty, and find the demonstrated leadership behaviors by the direct supervisors themselves. It is worth to mention that majority of research on university leadership investigate how the followers perceive leadership behaviors (e.g. Asmawi et al., 2013; Webb, 2009). This survey is exceptional in the way that it compares how leaders understand their own leadership behavior with how their followers perceive it.

Job satisfaction scale is prepared according to Cooper et al. (1998, as cited in Arnold et al., 2005) and consists of 22 questions. Ten of them reflect faculty’s extrinsic job satisfaction with salary, working conditions, relationships, e.g. “Evaluate, please, the relationships you have with other people at work”; “Evaluate, please, the level of job security in your present job.” In total, 12 questions reflect intrinsic job satisfaction with job tasks, career advancement and promotions, increased responsibility, and recognition by peers, subordinates and management, e.g. “Evaluate, please, the way you and your efforts are valued”; “Evaluate, please, the degree to which you feel ‘motivated’ by your job.” The same questions were reformulated to fit the faculty direct supervisor’s aspect. Extrinsic job satisfaction of faculty: “How do you think, how would your faculty evaluate the relationships they have with other people at work?”; “How do...
you think, how would your faculty evaluate the level of job security in their present job?"; Intrinsic job satisfaction of faculty: “How do you think, how would your faculty evaluate the way they and their efforts are valued?”; “How do you think, how would your faculty evaluate the degree to which you feel ‘motivated’ by their job?”

Leadership scale is prepared according to Howell and Costley (2006). In total, 21 question reflects six different leadership styles (as in Figure 1) defined by particular behaviors (see the constructs defined in Table AI). For example, human relations leadership style is defined by the following questions: “Does your supervisor show concern for your welfare and comfort?”; “Does your supervisor listen carefully to your problems and frustrations?”; “Does your supervisor include you in decision making and problem solving?”; “Does your supervisor keep you informed about important issues?”; Faculty’s direct supervisors are asked to evaluate themselves on the before mentioned behaviors.

The statements in the questionnaire are evaluated by ten point Likert-type scale. The following demographic variables are involved in both questionnaires (faculty and supervisor): gender, age, years of lecturing or supervising experience, current workplace – university, years of employment in the current organization, academic degree and which department does the respondent belong to in current organization.

The data are analyzed using SPSS software. The following data analysis methods are used: Cronbach’s $\alpha$ calculated to check scale reliability; descriptive statistics to analyze how respondents evaluate leadership styles and job satisfaction; correlation and regression analysis are performed in this thesis in order to find linkages between the dependent and independent variables. The chosen level of confidence in this study is that the relationship is considered statistically significant with the 0.95 level of confidence, when $p$-value < 0.05 (Kardelis, 2002).

4. Findings of the research
4.1 Descriptive analysis of the research
Table I presents the demographic statistics of 72 faculty respondents. The majority of respondents are between the ages of 30 and 39 – 41.7 percent. The average age of the faculty respondents is 41.6 years. It reflects the overall situation in Lithuania where

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<tr>
<th>Demographic variables</th>
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<th>Demographic variables</th>
<th>Value</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
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<td>26.8</td>
<td>Years spent</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>30.6</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>73.2</td>
<td>working in</td>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>31.9</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Missing values</td>
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<td>current</td>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>organization</td>
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<td></td>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>&gt;40</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>Missing values</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;59</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Master’s degree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing values</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>degree</td>
<td>Doctoral degree</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>59.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturing experience in years</td>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>Dr Habil degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>11-20</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>Private or</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>80.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>university</td>
<td>Missing values</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing values</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table I. Demographic statistics of the respondents of faculty survey
the average age of faculty is 46.12; according to data of Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Lithuania (Pukėnė, 2015) as of year 2014-2015. Lecturing experience between the years of one through ten is the most common among the respondents (48.6 percent). The average lecturing experience in years is 12.97 years. However, there were three respondents who admitted to be lecturing for more than 40 years. On average faculty members have been working in current organization for 9.85 years. The majority of respondents have a doctoral degree (59.6 percent), majority of the respondents work in public universities (80.6 percent).

Ten faculty supervisors participated in the survey (Table II). The majority of the respondents are between the ages of 40-49 (40 percent), the average age of the respondents is 46.2 years, which is higher than the average of faculty age. In total, 80 percent of the supervisors have experience in leading the faculty from one to five years, and on average the supervisors have 4.7 leading experience. In total, 40 percent of the respondents have been in their current organization for six to ten years, on average 12.8 years. In total, 80 percent has a doctoral degree, and 60 percent work in public universities.

The questionnaire scale reliability is checked (Tables III and IV). After removal of some questions the Cronbach’s $\alpha$ s of all the scales are higher than 0.5 (the minimal requirement as stated by Vaitkevičius and Saudargienė, 2006), therefore the scales are reliable.

Table III shows the descriptive statistics of faculty job satisfaction and faculty job satisfaction perceived by their supervisors. Faculty in HEI is quite satisfied with their job (7.18 out of 10). They are more satisfied with the intrinsic factors of job satisfaction (7.28) than the extrinsic (7.06); however, their supervisors think the opposite. When looking at the perceived job satisfaction, the results show that according to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic variables</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Demographic variables</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Years spent in current</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>organization</td>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;59</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Academic degree</td>
<td>Doctoral degree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervising experience (years)</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>Master's degree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Private or Public</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>university</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table II. Demographics of supervisors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job satisfaction</th>
<th>Extrinsic</th>
<th>Intrinsic</th>
<th>Perceived job satisfaction</th>
<th>Perceived extrinsic</th>
<th>Perceived intrinsic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>7.18</td>
<td>7.06</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td>7.02</td>
<td>7.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of items</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach's $\alpha$</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table III. Descriptive statistics of job satisfaction variables

Leadership style and job satisfaction
faculty supervisors’ opinion, faculty has lower job satisfaction (7.02) than the actual job satisfaction of faculty (7.18). This means that the opinion of supervisors is different from the actual feelings of the faculty. Faculty gave highest evaluation for “the actual job itself” (8.28) and the lowest for “level of salary” (5.56).

When comparing the means of job satisfaction in terms of gender, the results show that men rank their job satisfaction (7.36) higher than women (7.19). Comparing public and private universities, faculty is more satisfied in the private ones (8.08 compared to 7.02). Also, in both – private and public universities faculty’s intrinsic job satisfaction (8.22 in private; 7.11 in public) is higher than the extrinsic job satisfaction (7.82 in private; 6.91 in public).

Leadership variables are created combining the questions, which describe leadership behaviors inherent to certain leadership styles. Table IV presents faculty supervisors’ leadership styles assessed by themselves. Table V presents faculty supervisors’ leadership styles perceived by the faculty. The leadership in general is evaluated higher by supervisors themselves (8.17) comparing to their subordinates’ (7.03) evaluation.

The results of both faculty and of their supervisors show that HR specialist leadership style is mostly demonstrated (8.56 in supervisors and 7.38 in faculty survey) while controlling autocrat leadership style is least demonstrated (7.53 in supervisors and 6.59 in faculty survey). The tables clearly show that supervisors feel they demonstrate particular leadership behaviors more often compared with the faculty opinion.

Faculty noticed that some of the perceived behavior examples are demonstrated more often: supervisors keep faculty informed about important issues (8.01 out of 10); emphasize ethical behavior at all times (7.63) and show concern for faculty’s welfare

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Coach</th>
<th>HR specialist</th>
<th>Controlling autocrat</th>
<th>Transformational visionary</th>
<th>Transactional exchange</th>
<th>Servant Leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>8.35</td>
<td>8.56</td>
<td>7.53</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>7.87</td>
<td>7.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of items</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s α</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Perceived coach</th>
<th>Perceived HR specialist</th>
<th>Perceived controlling autocrat</th>
<th>Perceived transformational visionary</th>
<th>Perceived transactional visionary</th>
<th>Perceived servant</th>
<th>Perceived leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>6.91</td>
<td>7.38</td>
<td>6.59</td>
<td>6.96</td>
<td>6.74</td>
<td>7.09</td>
<td>7.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of items</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s α</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and comfort (7.53). However, there are some leadership behaviors demonstrated less often: supervisors provide inspirational speeches that describe current situation as intolerable (5.60), explain to faculty the consequences of non-performance (6.20) and outline useful methods to complete tasks (6.35) less often.

4.2 Analysis of relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction

Table VI provides the results of correlation between perceived leadership and job satisfaction. As seen in the Table VI, the relationships are positive, with statistical significance of 99 percent. This means that all of the perceived leadership styles have significant positive relationship with job satisfaction (overall, extrinsic and intrinsic). It is observed that servant \( (r = 0.731**) \), coach \( (r = 0.728**) \), transformational leadership \( (r = 0.700**) \) styles have the strongest relationships with job satisfaction variables. The lowest correlation appears with the transactional \( (r = 0.670**) \) and controlling autocrat \( (r = 0.626**) \) leadership styles.

The correlation analysis also shows that there is no significant correlation between age, lecturing experience in years, years in current organization and job satisfaction (overall, extrinsic or intrinsic) of faculty in Lithuanian universities. Three regression analyses are performed to test the impact of perceived leadership as an independent variable on each of the dependent variables – intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction. As Table VII shows, all of the three regressions are significant with the \( p \)-value < 0.01.

The results show, that perceived leadership has a strong positive significant impact on job satisfaction, on extrinsic factors of job satisfaction and on intrinsic job satisfaction with the significance of \( p \)-value < 0.01. This shows that \( H1 \) (perceived leadership has positive impact on faculty job satisfaction), \( H1a \) and \( H1b \) are supported.

As the impact of the different perceived leadership styles on job satisfaction (overall, extrinsic and intrinsic) is tested, the results show that none of the variables are statistically significant due to highly multicollinearity of variables. Several combinations of independent variables are tested to remove the multicollinearity. Finally the combination of servant and controlling autocrat leadership styles shows the highest predictive power of the variance in the dependent variables. The results are shown in Table VIII.

As seen in the Table VIII, perceived servant leadership style has a statistically significant strong positive impact on job satisfaction (general, extrinsic and intrinsic). While perceived controlling autocrat leadership style has no statistically significant impact on job satisfaction.

To test the \( H2 \) (perceived leadership styles, which demonstrate care for the follower’s interests have positive impact on faculty job satisfaction) and \( H3 \) (perceived leadership styles which demonstrate directive and controlling behavior have negative impact on faculty job satisfaction) two separate regressions were run. However, they also show multicollinearity. It does not harm the model’s predictive power itself – it only creates difficulties defining the coefficients and the strength of impact of each independent variable. Due to these reasons, there is a need to check the difference in the impact of each perceived leadership style on job satisfaction separately. For further analysis, the only dependent variable taken is job satisfaction.

The coefficients for each regression of perceived separate leadership styles are: coach \( \beta = 0.728** \); HR specialist \( \beta = 0.699** \); controlling autocrat \( \beta = 0.626** \); transformational \( \beta = 0.700** \); transactional \( \beta = 0.670** \); servant \( \beta = 0.731** \). All of the perceived leadership styles, when regression analysis is performed
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Overall job satisfaction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Intrinsic factors of job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.987**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Extrinsic factors of job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.982**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Perceived leadership</td>
<td>0.699**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Coach LS</td>
<td>0.728**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. HR specialist LS</td>
<td>0.699**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Controlling autocrat LS</td>
<td>0.626**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Transformational LS</td>
<td>0.700**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Transactional LS</td>
<td>0.670**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Servant LS</td>
<td>0.731**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Age</td>
<td>0.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Experience in current job</td>
<td>0.104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Academic title</td>
<td>-0.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Correlation coefficients between dependent and independent variables.

Note: **p-value < 0.01
separately, are significant with \( p \)-value < 0.01, and have positive impact on job satisfaction. This only proves, that perceived leadership as a whole, and its presence improves the results of job satisfaction. Servant leadership style has the highest coefficient, and the highest \( R^2 \) of all of the perceived leadership styles, when the analysis is approached in this specific way. Controlling autocrat leadership style has the lowest coefficient, and the model explains 39.2 percent of the job satisfaction variance.

According to the results – all of the perceived leadership styles have positive impact on job satisfaction. This means that \( H2 \) (perceived leadership styles, which demonstrate care for follower’s interests have positive impact on faculty job satisfaction) is fully supported. \( H2a, H2b \) and \( H2c \) are fully supported.

The results do not support neither of the \( H3 \) (perceived leadership styles, which demonstrate directive and controlling behavior have negative impact on faculty job satisfaction). The testing results show that all of the leadership styles have positive impact on job satisfaction, even the ones that demonstrate controlling and directive behavior (Tables VI and VIII).

The analysis of demographic variables shows that none of them (age, years spent in current organization and academic title) has a significant impact on job satisfaction. Hypotheses concerning the significance of the demographic variables \( H4, H5 \) and \( H6 \) are not supported, since the variables showed no significance correlation with either any leadership style or job satisfaction (Table VI).

5. Discussions

The results of this survey correspond to the previous ones. Prior studies of Bhat et al. (2012), Fernandez (2008) and Yang (2014) have shown that leadership has a significant positive impact on job satisfaction while Aydin et al. (2013), Griffith (2004), Lin and Tseng (2013), Shaw and Newton (2014) and Webb (2009) confirm the impact in educational institutions. Chen and Silverthorne (2005) prove that employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>Extrinsic factors</th>
<th>Intrinsic factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived leadership</td>
<td>0.699**</td>
<td>0.704**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( R^2 )</td>
<td>0.489</td>
<td>0.496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj ( R^2 )</td>
<td>0.478</td>
<td>0.486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( F )</td>
<td>48.71**</td>
<td>52.06**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **\( p \)-value < 0.01

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>Job satisfaction</th>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>Extrinsic factors</th>
<th>Intrinsic factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Servant LS</td>
<td>0.590**</td>
<td>0.538**</td>
<td>0.590**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlling autocrat LS</td>
<td>0.148</td>
<td>0.193</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( R^2 )</td>
<td>0.521</td>
<td>0.507</td>
<td>0.510</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj ( R^2 )</td>
<td>0.503</td>
<td>0.489</td>
<td>0.493</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( F )</td>
<td>28.78**</td>
<td>28.29**</td>
<td>29.69**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **\( p \)-value < 0.01

Table VII. Regression analysis results with one independent variable “perceived leadership”

Table VIII. Regression analysis with perceived leadership styles as independent variables
working with leaders of a particular leadership style have higher level of job satisfaction. This paper confirms the results of Aydin et al. (2013), Bhat et al. (2012), Griffith (2004), Chen and Silverthorne (2005) and others. The results show that leadership has a significant positive impact on job satisfaction of faculty in HEI in Lithuania.

Prior studies have shown that different leadership styles have different impact on the levels of employee job satisfaction (Lok and Crawford, 2004; Chang and Lee, 2007; Frooman et al., 2012; Oner, 2012; Siddique et al., 2011 and others). For example, consideration leadership style appears to have positive while initiating structure leadership style – negative relationship with employee job satisfaction (Lok and Crawford, 2004). Transformational leadership style is accompanied by the higher level of job satisfaction when compared to transactional leadership style (Chang and Lee, 2007; Frooman et al., 2012). Leadership styles, which demonstrate high interaction with followers, have high-significantly positive effect on intrinsic job satisfaction (Yang and Islam, 2012). This empirical research shows that leadership styles have positive relationship with job satisfaction (overall, extrinsic and intrinsic). The difference has been found only in the strength of the impact, where leadership styles with a higher concern for followers, their welfare, comfort, autonomy, demonstrate empowerment and encouragement, reward and recognize faculty achievements showed higher positive influence on job satisfaction. The research results complement findings of Webb (2009) in Christian HE of North America, where “followers indicated that they are more satisfied and motivated by leaders who possess great energy, high levels of self-confidence, strong beliefs and ideals, are assertive, have the ability to make followers feel more confident, create greater personal confidence within their followers, and use positive reward systems to affirm desired behavior” (p. 28).

The empirical research showed that servant leadership style has highest significant positive impact on job satisfaction. Servant leadership style is recognized, when the leader demonstrates no interest to acquire power, and is primarily concerned with followers (Howell and Costley, 2006). Pardey (2007) describes servant leader as a leader, whose preference is not to be seen as the leader, but to understand followers, cooperate with them to achieve goals and be engaged with them in their work. Lewis and Noble (2008) describe servant leaders as being authentic, vulnerable, accepting, present and useful, also accessible, and engaging.

It is worth to note that research on servant leadership and job satisfaction relationship in any context is scarce and is almost absent in HEIs. The research of this paper reflects the results of the previous studies listed further. Chan and Mak (2014) found servant leadership to have positive relationship with employees’ job satisfaction directly and through the trust in leader in service firm in People’s Republic of China. Schneider and George (2011) conducted the research in clubs of a national voluntary service organization in USA and found that servant leadership has impact on club members’ satisfaction as well as commitment and intentions to stay. It seems like servant leadership is more than other styles preferred in such an autocratic organization as US police (Vito et al., 2011). Therefore it does not surprise servant leadership to be appropriate in educational sector. Shaw and Newton (2014) found servant leadership to affect school teachers’ satisfaction and retention. On the other hand our research results contradict the findings of Stoten (2013) where servant leadership was found to be least recognized leadership style after transactional, distributed and transformational ones in
English sixth form college. As the findings of this research show servant leadership style to be recognized as a second most common after HR specialist leadership style.

It has been assumed that the directive leadership styles, which demonstrate low level of autonomy or no autonomy at all (Chang and Lee, 2007) and present themselves with highly directive behavior, have negative impact on job satisfaction. This research proved the assumption wrong. The empirical research showed that all leadership styles have positive impact on job satisfaction. It also partly reflects the findings of Webb (2009) where employees’ job satisfaction together with their motivation is increased by separate behaviors of transformational and transactional leadership styles. On the other hand the impact of laissez-fair leadership behavior on job satisfaction was not found (Webb, 2009) or was negative (Aydin et al., 2013). To combine the literature review and survey of this paper, as long as the leadership style is adapted according to the situation, the impact of leadership styles on job satisfaction is positive.

Lok and Crawford (2004) noticed that age has statistically significant positive correlation with job satisfaction while tenure has statistically significant negative correlation in Hong Kong and Australia. Sukirno and Siengthai (2011) found that levels of job satisfaction in HEI are positively impacted by the demographic factors, like age, experience and time spent in the current organization has significantly positive effect on job satisfaction. This study does not support any of these findings since no statistically significant relationships were found. However, the legal form of the institution seems to be related to job satisfaction of its faculty. Faculty in private HEI has higher level of job satisfaction than faculty in public universities.

6. Conclusions, limitations, further research topics and practical implications

The analysis of previous research has shown that leadership has significant impact employee job satisfaction. Job satisfaction influences the performance of staff directly and organizational performance subsequently. For the academic staff to perform better and increase their input in the organizational success faculty has to have high-job satisfaction level.

This study has tested the impact of leadership styles on job satisfaction. The empirical research revealed that faculty members are rather satisfied with their job, especially with intrinsic factors and even more satisfied than their supervisors think. The empirical research also has shown that leadership in general has a significant positive impact on job satisfaction of faculty in HEI in Lithuania: servant leadership style having highest positive significant impact and controlling autocrat leadership style having lowest positive significant impact.

The limitations of the study lay in the sample selected for the research and its representativeness. First, not all of the universities and their departments in Lithuania have been chosen for this research. The number of respondents could have been higher for better representativeness. Additional limitation is the classification of leadership styles. Even though the classification of leadership styles is used according to Howell and Costley (2006) the overlapping leadership behaviors in different leadership styles might have caused some confusion in analyzing survey results.
This study is exploring the area which lacks academic research. There are very few studies exploring the impact of leadership on employee job satisfaction in HEIs worldwide. This kind of study has not yet been performed neither in Lithuanian nor Baltic HEIs. Besides, this research is exceptional as it tests six various leadership styles (usually previous research focusses on one or few of them) and investigates how leadership style and job satisfaction is evaluated from both – employee and supervisor – perspectives.

Leadership and job satisfaction can be explored in how they impact organizational climate, organizational success, organizational learning and also employee performance, absenteeism, motivation and job stress in HEIs. The research can be expanded whether geographically (e.g. comparative analysis in different countries) or institutionally (e.g. in other educational institutions, such as schools or pre-schools). On the other hand, as claimed by several studies, the impact of leadership style on employee satisfaction might be indirect, i.e. through the mediators such as operation of learning organization (Chang and Lee, 2007), organizational commitment (Yiing and Bin Ahmad, 2009), leadership trust (Yang, 2014). Therefore further studies in HEIs might test the relationships, including the mentioned mediators. Also country and organizational culture might be important as proven by Lok and Crawford (2004), Chang and Lee (2007) and Yiing and Bin Ahmad (2009). Consequently further research including the mentioned variables is recommended. For example, how leadership styles and their impact on employee job satisfaction would differ in different countries (e.g. in Baltic countries and USA, since Wood and Fields, 2007 who conducted similar research claim it would be relevant). Or to test how leadership styles and their impact on employee job satisfaction would differ in public and private universities because of different organizational culture.

Practical implications of this study are dedicated to the supervisors of faculty in universities. According to the results of this study, supervisors have the power to increase the levels of job satisfaction of their faculty members, by defining their role as a leader, demonstrating leadership behaviors and acquiring certain leadership styles. Leadership styles’ effectiveness increases, when the style is applied appropriately for certain situations. This means that the supervisors should develop their leadership skills and adjust their leadership style according to the situation and the goals they are trying to achieve.

References


Further reading


## Leadership style and job satisfaction

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Leadership style</th>
<th>Characteristics of leadership styles</th>
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| Coach                | Minimum importance on development of followers’ performance  
|                      | Highly directive  
|                      | Explained expectations about quality, quantity, rules, procedures  
|                      | Supportive – concern and consideration is shown  
|                      | High-socialized need for power  
|                      | Need for affiliation  
| Human relations      | Emphasis on keeping followers happy and comfortable  
| specialist           | Highly supportive  
|                      | Participative  
|                      | Use boundary spanning  
|                      | Usually not directive with followers  
|                      | Modify situation to make followers work more comfortable  
|                      | Good interpersonal skills  
|                      | Style useful after traumatic events  
| Controlling autocrat  | Obsessed with controlling the actions around them  
|                      | Highly directive with followers  
|                      | Use contingent and non-contingent punishment extensively  
|                      | High-personal need for power  
|                      | Often – poor interpersonal skills  
|                      | Dominate followers with authoritarian demands  
|                      | Dogmatic in their beliefs  
| Transformational      | This style is taught to create extreme devotion among followers  
| visionary            | Use charismatic behaviors extensively  
|                      | Highly supportive of followers  
|                      | Try to develop followers’ leadership skills through mentoring relationships in which they dialogue, demonstrate and encourage  
|                      | Use boundary spanning behaviors  
|                      | Excellent communication skills  
|                      | Socialized need of power  
|                      | Use impression management skills  
|                      | Highly intelligent and creative in defining a vision and mission to followers  
| Transactional        | Provide benefits, and encourage exchange relationships between leaders and followers  
| exchange             | Leader provides guidance  
|                      | Directive leadership behavior is a major element  
|                      | Extensive use of contingent reward behavior  
|                      | Use contingent punishment behavior  
|                      | Build close social exchanges  
|                      | Setting of high goals for themselves and others  
| Servant              | Variation of coach and transformational visionary style  
|                      | Primary concerned with followers, first servant, then leader  
|                      | Not concerned with acquiring power  
|                      | Emphasis on the followers’ interest for them to grow as persons and become autonomous  
|                      | Display supportive, participative, charismatic behaviors with followers  

**Source:** Adapted from Howell and Costley (2006)
About the authors

Dr Raimonda Alonderiene has defended Doctoral Theses on Managers’ Informal Learning at the ISM University of Management and Economics, Lithuania in 2009. She holds the position of Associate Professor there. Raimonda participates in the international scientific projects, conducts research, writes cases and participates in the international conferences. Raimonda has been invited to give lectures in UK, Switzerland, Slovenia, Austria, Estonia and Germany. The research interests are in the area of learning, human resource management and human resource development. Dr Raimonda Alonderiene is the corresponding author and can be contacted at: raialo@ism.lt

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