

THE EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON EMPLOYEE
WELLBEING AND ORGANISATIONAL OUTCOMES WITHIN
AN AUSTRALIAN REGIONAL UNIVERSITY

Prepared by:
Ataus Samad

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School of Business and Law

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ABSTRACT

In today's uncertain, complex and volatile global work environment, organisations are increasingly recognising the effect of leadership on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. Globally and within Australia both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes are of strategic importance for higher education institutions. Indeed, there is a need for a greater understanding of what leadership is, and how leadership may affect employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes, especially within the context of a regional Australian university.

A review of the literature on organisational leadership has highlighted that researchers have either focused on the relationships between specific leadership styles and wellbeing, leadership styles and a particular organisational outcome, or the relationship between employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. Therefore, there is a need for an extensive study exploring the inter-relationships between leadership styles, employee wellbeing, and organisational outcomes. Furthermore, there is also limited research on leadership in the Higher Educational Sector (HES) both internationally and within Australia. Considering the diversity of leadership practices within any organisation, an effective method of investigating HES leadership may be to apply leadership theory/theories that enable a concurrent examination of a diverse range of leadership styles and explore how these interrelate with both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. The review of literature showed that despite recent interest among scholars about the application of different leadership theories such as distributed leadership, servant leadership and authentic leadership, the culture of HES is still hierarchical and the concept of a command and control system of management is persistent in the HES. Hence, the Full Range of Leadership Theory (FRLT) that facilitates

the concurrent investigation of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles was chosen for this research to examine the relationships between leadership styles, employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes in an Australian higher education setting.

The research was conducted among all (n=2050) employees of an Australian regional university and 270 employees who lead or supervise three or more employees within this university. A mixed method approach was applied to explore the research questions. This thesis outlines the rationale and purpose of the PhD project based on a detailed review of the relevant literature, the methodology used for the project, and findings of the research.

The research showed that under the current leadership culture of the HES, employees of an Australian regional university prefer transformational leadership compared to transactional, laissez-faire, distributed, authentic, servant and spiritual leadership styles. Furthermore, the employees of the university also reported that among the three leadership styles within the FRLT (that is, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles), leaders of this university are mostly transformational. Furthermore, majority of employees in a leadership role within this university also reported that their leadership style is transformational.

The present research also found that transformational leadership style is conducive to employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and minimises employee turnover intention. No conclusive result about the effect of transactional leadership on employee wellbeing and organisational outcome could be established. However, laissez-faire leadership was found to be detrimental to employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment and it promoted employee turnover intention.

A significant contribution to knowledge of the present research are the findings related to the mediating effect of employee wellbeing on the effect of leadership styles on organisational outcomes. Specifically, employee wellbeing was found to be a major contributing factor to each of the key organisational outcomes of employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention.

Key Words: leadership, wellbeing, organisational outcome, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, higher education sector (HES).

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CERTIFICATE OF AUTHORSHIP AND ORIGINALITY OF THESIS

I, the undersigned author, declare that all of the research and discussion presented in this thesis is original work performed by the author. No content of this thesis has been submitted or considered either in whole or in part, at any tertiary institute or university for a degree or any other category of award. I also declare that any material presented in this thesis performed by another person or institute has been referenced and listed in the reference section.

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DECLARATION OF CO-AUTHORSHIP AND CONTRIBUTION

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TABLE OF PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS ARISING FROM THE THESIS WORK

- Samad, A., Reaburn, P., Davis, H., & Ahmed, E. (2015). Towards an understanding of the effect of leadership on employee wellbeing and organizational outcomes in Australian universities. *The Journal of Developing Areas*, 49(6), 441-448.
- Samad, A., Reaburn, P., Davis, H., & Ahmed, E. (2015). An empirical study on the effect of leadership styles on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes within an Australian regional University. In *Proceedings of the Australasian Conference on Business and Social Sciences* (pp. 984-999). Sydney, Australia.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

In today's dynamic global working environment there is growing evidence to suggest that organisations are recognising the impact leadership has on both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Donaldson-Feilder, Munir, & Lewis, 2013; McCarthy, Almeida, & Ahrens, 2011; Muchiri, Cooksey, Di Milia, & Walumbwa, 2011; Perko, Kinnunen, Tolvanen, & Feldt, 2016; Saleem, 2015). However, leadership research to date has primarily focused on specific and individual relationships between leadership style and employee wellbeing (van Dierendock, Haynes, Borrill, & Stride, 2004; Munir, Nielsen, Garde, Albertsen, & Carneiro 2012; Zineldin & Hytter, 2012); leadership style and organisational outcomes (Ertureten, Cemalcilar, & Aycan, 2013; Michel, Lyons, & Cho, 2011; Parks & Steelman, 2008; Saleem, 2015), or the separate relationship between employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes (Morin, Meyer, McInerney, Marsh, & Ganotice, 2015; Nielsen & Munir, 2009; Van De Voorde, Paauwe, & Van Veldhoven, 2012). There remains a paucity of research examining the inter-relationships between leadership style, employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes in the workplace generally and within the Higher Education Sector (HES) in Australia, specifically.

Historically, leadership has been examined from different perspectives with numerous definitions of leadership having been proposed from diverse disciplines of knowledge. Generally speaking, leadership is understood as an influencing process where an individual influences a group in order to achieve a common goal (Jackson & Parry, 2011; Northouse, 2012). Since the early twentieth century, leadership has constantly been redefined with a number of leadership theories posited. These include charismatic leadership (Weber, 1947), servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1970), transformational

leadership (Burns, 1978), transformational-transactional leadership (Bass, 1985), the Full Range of Leadership Theory (FRLT; Avolio & Bass, 1991), distributed leadership (Gronn, 2000), spiritual leadership (Fry, 2003), authentic leadership (Luthans & Avolio, 2003) and complexity leadership (Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007). Many of these leadership theories are derived from earlier theories and often similar leadership qualities are attributed to more than one leadership approach. A full discussion of leadership theories and their commonalities will be presented in Chapter 2.

Researchers examine leadership through different theoretical lenses with leadership approaches having been developed based on these different theoretical perspectives (for example top-down, bottom-up, trait, and behaviour). These approaches are often grouped in terms of these different theoretical perspectives (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004; Avolio et al., 2009; Huber, 2006; Lowe & Gardner, 2001; Richmon & Allison, 2003; Yukl, 2005). However, at present there is still no clear preferred leadership approach for the HES. Indeed, there is disagreement as to whether the transformational leadership, servant leadership as well as more ‘contemporary’ dispersed or shared and distributed leadership, authentic leadership or spiritual leadership best describe the leadership landscapes within the HES (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bolden, Petrov, & Gosling, 2008; Bolden, Jones, Davis, & Gentle, 2015; Brown, 2006; Bryman, 2009; Lumby, 2012).

Despite the evolution of contemporary and emerging leadership approaches such as servant leadership, distributed, authentic, spiritual leadership theories, a number of researchers have found transformational leadership theory to be most applicable to the HES (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Aydin, Sarier, & Uysal, 2013; Bryman, 2009; Northouse, 2012). Therefore, the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) which concurrently deals with

transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership approaches has been considered as an appropriate leadership theory for the present study. Furthermore, the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) is still being examined within the contemporary leadership literature (Deichmann & Stam, 2015; Jin, Seo, & Shapiro, 2016; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015). Building upon Max Weber's (1947) idea of charismatic leadership, Burns (1978) developed the concept of transforming leadership and defined it as a process in which "leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation" (p. 20). Burn's (1978) leadership theory was further extended over time by Bass (1985). In later years, Avolio and Bass (1991) developed the FRLT (details will be discussed in Chapter 2) which encompasses three leadership styles (that is, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles).

The first leadership style within the FRLT, transformational leadership, investigates leader-follower interaction (Bass & Avolio, 1993) that builds followers capacity to achieve the organisational goals. Transformational leadership is widely known to be a leadership approach that is conducive to both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes (Nielsen & Munir, 2009; Tafvelin, Armelius, & Westerberg, 2011; Zineldin & Hytter, 2012). Before the introduction of transformational leadership theory, the second leadership style within the FRLT, transactional leadership, was perceived by scholars as the most effective style within organisations (AbuAlrub & Alghamdi, 2012; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Bryson, 2003; Burns, 1978; Chipunza & Gwarinda, 2010). Transactional leadership is a goal-focused leadership approach that depends on prospective reward or punishment for achieving organisational goals and, depending on the level of the enforcement, transactional leadership may have a positive or negative impact on the followers (Bryman, 2009; Lyons & Schneider, 2009; Michel et al., 2011). However, it has been suggested that working under transactional leaders may

give subordinates greater power and ability to influence the performance of the group by affecting their leader's style of behaviour and strength of influence (Lo, Ramayah, & de Run, 2010). Indeed, research has shown that effective leaders may either be transformational or transactional, depending on the workplace situation (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass, 1997; Brinbaum, 1992; Ertureten et al., 2013; Michel et al., 2011).

In contrast, an absence of leadership is termed a laissez-faire leadership style which is the third style of leadership included in the FRLT. Although some commentators labelled laissez-faire leadership style as 'absence of leadership' (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Zineldin & Hytter, 2012) or 'non-leadership' (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2007). Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, and Hetland (2007) argue that laissez-faire leadership is a form of 'destructive leadership' that has a negative effect on employees and their wellbeing.

Leadership is a context dependent phenomenon. Despite having some common issues such as the need for achieving strategic commercial gain, HES is different from leadership context such as within commercial or political organisational settings (Peter & Ryan, 2015a). The HES is set within distinctive knowledge-intensive and mixed economy contexts which add to the more general complexities that leaders navigate. Previous researchers have tried to capture the complexity of leadership in HES through different theoretical lenses (Bolden et al., 2012; Bolden et al., 2015; Johnston & Westwood, 2007; Lumby, 2012; Ramsden, 1988). Adding to this, the HES has undergone significant global transformations over recent decades. These changes have been caused by increasing globalisation, dramatic changes in information and communication technology (ICT), a shift in the student demographic, changes in how education services are delivered, and major changes to government policy on HES funding (Bradley, Noonan, Nugent, &

Scales, 2008; De Boer, Goedegebuure, & Meek, 2010; Fullan & Scott, 2009; Greatbatch, 2015; Hugo, 2005; May, Strachan, & Peetz, 2013; Marginson, 2013; Norton, 2013; Sharrock, 2012).

Effective leadership is widely accepted as important in setting strategic goals, policy development, and practices within the HES (Bennett, Crawford, & Cartwright, 2003a; Brown, 2006; Gahan et al., 2016; Healy, 2016). Indeed, a study conducted among 970 HES professionals associated with the *Leadership Foundation for Higher Education* in the UK, Greatbatch (2015) reported that despite having a distinct characteristic and different sets of challenges, leaders in the HES require skills and capabilities that are required in other organisational settings as well. It has also been argued that achieving commercial strategic gain is as important as achieving academic objectives to HES service providers (Greatbatch, 2015; Sharrock, 2012). Consequently, in this ever-changing mixed economy environment, the role of leadership in the HES has become increasingly complex and more challenging (Cranston, Ehrich, Kimber, & Starr, 2012; Odhiambo, 2014).

Although there is an increasing dialogue among academia about shared or distributed leadership in the HES context (Bolden et al., 2008; Bolden et al., 2015; Davis & Jones, 2014), the management structure and leadership culture of the HES still remains hierarchical and similar to other corporate bodies. In the Greatbatch (2015) study on leadership in HES in the UK, approximately 55 per cent of the HES staff members reported that the culture of their institution was hierarchical with 58 per cent reporting that the culture of the institution was bureaucratic. Moreover, earlier studies indicated that “transactional leadership is more central to US university presidents than transformational leadership” (Bryman, 2009, p.51). Unlike most corporate bodies, universities have two

distinct staffing cohorts: academic and professional staff who may blur leadership boundaries between their cohorts. As there may be a variation of leadership styles among leaders at different levels of hierarchy within the HES, one way to increase the understanding of the culture of leadership landscape in the HES is to apply a FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) lens which allows simultaneous examination of the effects of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles to determine what leadership style may best support both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes within the HES.

There is strong evidence in the literature that leadership styles affect employee wellbeing in corporate settings (Kara, Uysal, Sirgy, & Lee, 2013; Kelloway, Turner, Barling, & Loughlin, 2012; Nyberg, et al., 2011; Tafvelin et al., 2011; Zineldin & Hytter, 2012). There is also evidence that leadership affects organisational outcomes such as employee job satisfaction (Appelbaum, Degbe, MacDonald, & Nguyen-Quang, 2015; Ertureten et al., 2013; Saleem, 2015), organisational commitment (Appelbaum et al., 2015; Muchiri, Cooksey, & Walumbwa, 2012) and turnover intention (AbuAlrub & Alghamdi, 2012; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015) within the same corporate settings. Indeed, in a recent study on the effect of corporate supervisor behaviour on employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention, Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursière, and Raymond (2016) argued that “we believe that there is now ample justification for those concerned with psychological working conditions to consider supervisor behavior as a potentially influential variable” (p. 115).

There is also a growing body of literature suggesting that wellbeing is also important for employees in the HES (Ryan & Peters, 2015; Sang, Teo, & Cooper, 2013; Thøgersen-Ntoumani & Fox, 2007; Winefield, Boyd, & Winefield, 2014). It is also

reported that employee wellbeing has significant effect on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention in corporate settings (Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock, & Farr-Wharton, 2012; Rodwell & Munroe, 2013; Stiglbauer, Selenko, Batinic, & Jodlbauer, 2012; Van De Voorde et al., 2012). However, to date no known study has examined the link between different leadership styles and these organisational outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention) in a higher education setting.

A variable is considered to be a mediator if it can explain the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. A key criterion for being considered a mediator variable is that the mediating variable has to be related to both the independent and dependent variables. As mentioned earlier, there is evidence to support that leadership styles affect employee wellbeing (Kara et al., 2013; Kelloway et al., 2012; Nyberg et al., 2011; Tafvelin et al., 2011; Zineldin & Hytter, 2012). For example, the Goal Setting theory (Locke 1968) suggests that difficult goals, with appropriate feedback can lead to higher performance. Setting goals and feedback relate to leadership while wellbeing is related to employee's views about intrinsic factors such as the job itself, recognition at work and career advancement. Furthermore, Herzberg's Two Factor theory (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957) suggests that these above intrinsic factors are motivators that impact on job satisfaction. In addition, there is also evidence that there is significant relation between wellbeing and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention (McCarthy et al., 2011; Stiglbauer et al. 2012). From the discussions above it appears that there is possibility that employee wellbeing may explain the relationship between leadership and organisational outcomes. However, to date there is no known research that has examined the mediating effect of employee wellbeing on the effect of different leadership styles on organisational

outcomes in a regional Australian university setting. Therefore, from the research perspective, it is important to understand how employee wellbeing might affect the relationship between leadership styles and the key organisational outcomes of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention within the same HES setting.

1.2 Purpose of the Research

The aim of the present study is to examine how different leadership styles within the FRLT affect both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes in an Australian regional university and whether employee wellbeing mediates the effect of leadership on organisational outcomes. The proposed research aims to answer the following research questions:

- **Research question 1:** *How do different leadership styles within the FRLT affect employee wellbeing in an Australian regional university setting?*
- **Research question 2:** *How do different leadership styles within an Australian HES setting affect the organisational outcomes of job satisfaction, employee organisational commitment and turnover intention?*
- **Research question 3:** *Within an Australian regional university setting, does employee wellbeing mediate the effect of different leadership styles on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, employee organisational commitment and turnover intention?*

The conceptual framework for this study is shown in Figure 1.1 below. For the purposes of statistical analysis, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles are independent variables, employee wellbeing is a mediating variable and each of the organisational outcomes: job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention are treated as dependent variables. Relationship between each independent

variable with the mediating and the dependent variables will be individually examined to answer each of the above research questions. The research will establish the correlational relationship between the variables of interest. Hypotheses related to each research question will be discussed in relation to extant literature in Chapter 3 of this thesis.

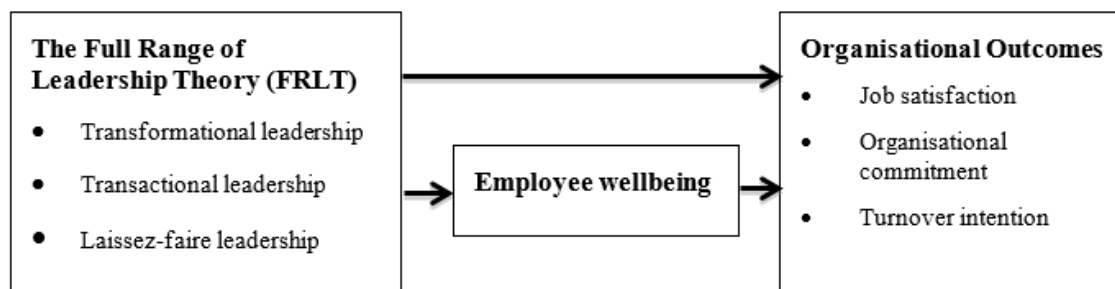


Figure 1.1: Proposed model for the research

1.3 Significance of the Research

There is a gap in the current research literature examining the inter-relationships between leadership style, employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes in HES in general, and within the Australian HES specifically. Findings from the current research project will add an original contribution to the knowledge regarding FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) by exploring how different leadership styles affect employee wellbeing, organisational outcomes (that is, job satisfaction, organisational outcomes and turnover intention) and whether employee wellbeing mediates the effect of leadership on organisational outcomes in a regional university within the Australian HES. Despite the previous evidence of the effect of leadership style on employee wellbeing (Tafvelin et al., 2011; Kelloway et al., 2012; Zineldin & Hytter, 2012) there is no known empirical study that has concurrently examined the effect of these three leadership styles on both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes within the Australian regional university context.

The present study makes another unique contribution to the knowledge of leadership in the HES context by examining the mediating effect of employee wellbeing on the relationship between leadership style and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. To date, no previous study has examined the mediating effect of employee wellbeing on relationship between leadership and these organisational outcomes.

As highlighted above, most of previous research in the HES focused on leadership that has positive effect on employees. For example, researchers have examined the effect of transformational leadership, spiritual leadership, servant leadership, authentic leadership in terms of positive organisational outcomes within the HES (Bolden et al., 2008; 2015; Bryman, 2009; Jones, Lefoe, Harvey, & Ryland, 2012; Jones, 2012; Lumby, 2012; Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008). However, there is little if no empirical research that has examined the effect of leadership styles in terms of potential negative impact on employees within the HES. The current research will also explore the effect of laissez-faire leadership style in the HES as is known to have a negative effect on employees within corporate settings.

Findings from the current research will be disseminated in both peer-reviewed journals and at national and international conferences. Given that the contribution of leadership style and employee wellbeing is well recognised in dynamic work environments, the proposed research has the potential of attracting interest from organisations within different workplace sectors and therefore may pave the way for future research. The findings of the present research will also have implications for policy and human resource development in the HES, especially for Australian regional universities. The current research may identify areas for improving both employee

wellbeing and organisational outcomes. Finally, based on the current findings, a number of recommendations will be made for improving the effectiveness of leadership within the HES.

1.4 Roadmap for the Thesis

This thesis will be presented in six chapters. In Chapter 2, relevant aspects of the leadership studies in the HES context will be discussed. In Chapter 3, current leadership literature including leadership theories will be discussed which will lead to the rationale for the study and the associated hypotheses. The chapter will also discuss the relationship between variables of interest that will also set the context for the current research. Chapter 4 will then describe the research methods for the study. The research is a quantitative dominant mixed method research where effort will be made to understand the meaning of the quantitative result through qualitative analysis of open ended questions. Chapter 5 will present the results of the analyses of both quantitative and qualitative data. Finally, Chapter 6 will discuss the major findings in relation to the relevant previous research literature, examine the limitations of the study, and make recommendations in view of the major findings and limitations of the present study.

1.5 Summary

The effects of leadership styles on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes remains to be investigated in the present post-industrial, volatile, and increasingly complex, mixed economy environment. Research has to date focused on either the relationship between leadership style and employee wellbeing, the relationship between leadership style and organisational outcomes, or the relationship between employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. However, no known research to date has examined the interrelationship between these three variables in a regional university setting.

Because it is impossible to capture the entire leadership spectrum of the HES through a single leadership theory, this study applies multiple lenses by concurrently examining different leadership styles using the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) measurement instrument. This robust tool encompasses transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership approaches to concurrently examine how leadership affects both academic and professional staff wellbeing and organisational outcomes in an Australian regional university. Application of the FRLT allowed an investigation of leadership approaches to explore possible positive and negative outcomes on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. The outcomes of the present research are expected to contribute positively to the field of knowledge on leadership and management within the Australian HES.

CHAPTER 2: LEADERSHIP IN THE HIGHER EDUCATION SECTOR

2.1 Introduction

In today's volatile and complex global environment, the implications of effective leadership in the HES have become an important issue with leadership becoming increasingly discussed and examined among leadership scholars in the HES (Bolden et al., 2012; Bolden et al., 2015; Brown, 2006; Fullan & Scott, 2009; Hemsall, 2014; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Raz, Hojati, Najafian & Namdari, 2012; Winefield et al., 2003). Within the Higher Education Sector (HES), the dynamic economic, social and policy context in which universities operate helps explain why the study of leadership in the HES is important (Goldring & Greenfield, 2002). Primarily due to globalisation within today's volatile, complex, and competitive mixed economic era (Sharrock, 2012), the HES has passed through numerous changes over recent decades. As a result, these changes suggest that leadership in the HES has also become a challenging and complex concern (Ball, 2007; Odhiambo, 2014).

In view of the complexity of the current HES environment, the following sections will provide an overview of leadership in the HES in general, the context of the HES globally, the context of the HES in Australia, and finally will endeavour to define what 'effective leadership' in the HES means for this study. The discussion will then inform an examination of leadership theory that may capture the complexity of leadership within the current Australian HES.

2.2 Overview of Leadership Studies in the Higher Education Sector

The HES is one of the oldest forms of organisation and has endured significant transformation over many centuries. Historically, the HES has passed through its initial inception within monastic environments, to a public place for pursuing knowledge, to

developing social and human capital for harnessing demands of the industrial revolution, to now currently operating in a competitive global environment within today's mixed economic era. In the nineteenth century, the HES was primarily engaged in research, teaching and other scholarly services. By the end of the twentieth century, universities were entrusted to not only produce a skilled workforce for meeting the demands of a knowledge economy, but to also carry out high quality research that contributes towards both organisational and social development (Bolden et al., 2012). However, in today's knowledge-based global economy, beside its primary role of achieving academic excellence, the attainment of a strategic economic goal has become an important feature of the global HES. Adding to the above changes and complexities, universities have their distinct and unique organisational characteristics where employees can be divided into two broad cohorts of academic and support or professional staff. Taken together, the above factors make leadership within the HES a complex matter. In view of the competitive and complex work environment within the HES, the need for appropriate leadership in achieving universities' strategic goals has become a key concern within the HES (Brown, 2006).

It is critical to have a capable and effective leader for productivity and workplace morale within a university (Scott, Coates, & Anderson, 2008). In support of this suggestion, a recent study (Peters & Ryan, 2015a) among HES employees found that 71 per cent of the respondents felt that HES leaders should have unique attributes. In another recent study on the HES in the UK, Greatbatch (2015) found that 65 per cent of the respondents emphasised the importance of a leader's personal leadership qualities. In the same study it was also shown that, irrespective of the workplace, a leader can demonstrate their leadership qualities. However, it was argued that leaders should also adapt to the culture of the organisation (Greatbatch, 2015).

The relatedness of leadership, management and administration are highly visible in the HES research literature (Bolden et al., 2008; Bolden et al., 2012; Bolden et al. 2015; Bryman, 2009). For example, while discussing leadership in the HES context, leadership researchers have consistently mentioned the three related terminologies of governance, management and leadership (Bolden et al. 2008). According to Bolden et al. (2008), governance generally refers to organisational response to accountability, regulation and legislation and usually is associated with the governing body of the university. Management in the university refers to “implementation of institutional strategies and goals through systemic planning and effective use of resources” (Bolden et al., 2008, p. 7). Bolden et al. (2008) also suggested that “leadership, a relatively new concept within the sector, is harder to define” (p. 7). They cited the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) who defined leadership as “agreeing strategic direction with others and communicating this within the organisation; ensuring that there is the capability, capacity and resource to deliver planned strategic outcomes; and supporting and monitoring delivery. As such this embraces elements of governance and elements of management” (HEFCE, 2004, p. 35).

More recently, Bolden et al. (2012) surveyed 328 academics from sixteen universities in the United Kingdom and concluded that “leadership is different from management but there are overlaps” (p. 9). They further suggested that within the HES leadership could be both formal and informal and that informal or academic leadership provides inspiration for academic work while formal or academic management is concerned with formal roles such as allocation of tasks and resources. In another study of effective leadership in the United Kingdom HES, Bryman (2009) suggested that the terms leadership, management and administration were not used consistently as “it can be very difficult to distinguish activities that are specially associated with leadership from

managerial or administrative activities” (p. 3). He further argued that although leadership and management are different in terms of time and context, they frequently overlap each other.

While describing the climate of the HES, Gosling, Bolden, and Petrov (2009) argued that managerialism has become more and more prevalent within the HES. Indeed, Bolden et al. (2015) recently highlighted that “much of what is described in both scholarship and practice as ‘academic leadership’ is in fact regarded as ‘academic management’, i.e. associated with the practicalities of running a large, complex organisation such as a university” (p. 6). The same investigators further claimed that “strong competition for market position, brand, reputation and associated funding are driving a top down, managerial approach that limits opportunities for more engagement, opportunistic and entrepreneurial forms of leadership” (Bolden et al, 2015, p. 7). Similarly, it was earlier suggested by Jones et al., (2014) that over the past two decades the HES has incorporated a management approach, commonly known as managerialism, that focuses on a hierarchical top-down control system in the organisation. Taken together, these arguments suggest that, despite an academic debate on a conceptual shared approach to leadership, the present day HES environment is hierarchical and therefore has a hierarchical leadership approach in place.

2.2.1 The climate of HES globally. In today’s twenty-first century post-industrial knowledge era, the HES across the globe is facing many challenges that make leadership in the HES increasingly challenging. Issues such as globalisation, the information and communication technology (ICT) revolution, growth of higher education export markets, demographic changes, competition, managing growth/change, government policy, financial sustainability, and funding policy uncertainty are all challenges to be faced and

addressed by leadership in the current HES (Brown, 2006; Fullan & Scott, 2009; Greatbatch, 2015; Hemsall, 2014; Hugo, 2005; May et al., 2013; Sharrock, 2012).

This new global education environment has not only made the HES and its constituent institutions more competitive, but also the leadership and management of the HES more challenging (Ball, 2007; Cranston et al., 2012; Odhiambo, 2014). As a result, these challenges invite serious consideration about the most effective type(s) of leadership that may be applicable for all universities in today's complex, volatile, and uncertain global environment.

Another outcome of a globalised economy has been that the HES has become a more demanding and competitive place to work with shifting power relations adding to the volatility of the sector. For example, for most of the twentieth century, the USA was a key player in the world economy. At present China, Brazil, Russia and India are also considered to be dominant players in the world economy. Moreover, both China and India consider investment in education as a major component of their strategic development while European countries have also increased their effort to make their education standards more globally competitive (Fullan & Scott, 2009).

Globalisation has also contributed to a growth of the higher education export market across the developed countries with Australia one of the major contributors. In recent years, the HES has also witnessed a growth of education exports through increased participation of and competition for international students. For example, between 1989 and 2007, the education export earnings of the USA increased from US\$4.6 billion to US\$14.5 billion. During the same period, Australia's education export earnings grew from US\$0.6 billion to US\$10.4 billion and in 2014 the amount increased to about US\$12.5 billion or AUS\$17.6 billion (Fullan & Scott, 2009, Australian Government,

Office of the Minister for Education and Training, 2015). These education export earnings have created an environment of global competition in the HES to attract and retain students through innovation, value adding, and the pursuit of excellence in educational standards.

Changes in both the global and local financial environments have also led to risks of changing government funding policies across the globe. Among the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries there has been an increase of private funding and decrease of public funding for the HES since 1995 (Sharrock, 2012; OECD, 2011). The average share for public funding in tertiary education institutions among OECD countries decreased from 69 per cent in 2010 to 64 per cent in 2012 (OECD, 2015). A report of OECD countries in 2015 showed that in 2012 about 1.6 per cent of the per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of Australia has been spent on tertiary education, which is about equal to the average expenditure of OECD countries but much less than the USA, Canada, Chile, Korea, Cambodia, New Zealand, UK, Finland, Netherlands, Sweden and Austria.

Development in the ICT sector across the globe has raised the ability to exchange ideas, increased mobility of both capital and skilled manpower, as well as affecting the research and innovation practices in the HES. The ICT revolution has also opened up new opportunities for students to access education without having to leave their local area. Furthermore, it has affected the mode of teaching with distance education becoming an important means of teaching rather than on-campus teaching. This ICT revolution also impacts on the leadership and management of the HES, a knowledge intensive industry, as it requires new skills and knowledge for both academic and professional staff, their leaders and managers. As Beaudoin (2004) claimed “the future of distance education is

ultimately not so much about enhancing technology or improving pedagogy, but rather about managing change” (p. 92).

Moreover, the ICT revolution has made education more accessible to more diverse cohorts where technology is making it possible for mature-aged students to pursue higher education but also is contributing to the massification of the HES worldwide (Fullan & Scott, 2009). Both these trends have impacted the global HES in terms of having to address the diverse needs of a new demographic of student as well as new modes of delivery of education.

These many changes and challenges in the global HES sector and its leadership also have implications for the HES in Australia. To retain a competitive advantage, the Australian HES has had to adjust to these global trends.

2.2.2 The climate of HES in Australia. The forces that are driving the current global higher education environment are also evident within the Australian HES. Similar to other developed nations, Australia is fast transforming to a knowledge economy. As a result, there have been many significant changes in the HES in Australia over recent decades. These include a growth in demand of high skilled persons, an increase in student numbers, a dramatic increase and fluctuation in international student intake, increased casualisation of university staff, changes of funding policy and sources, technological advancement, and a growing need for competitiveness for excellence in both research and education (Brown, 2006; May et al., 2013; Marginson, 2013; Norton, 2013; Peters & Ryan, 2015b; Sharrock, 2012).

In this current mixed economic era, developing social and human capital remains a key role of Australian universities (Department of Education and Training, 2015).

Indeed, “more than ever before, Australia’s economic potential is dependent on the production, distribution and application of intellectual capital” (Deloitte Access Economics, 2015, p. 43). It was estimated that in 2014 Australian university education added about 8.5 per cent to the total GDP of Australian economy. It is also estimated that to meet the demands of economic growth there will be a demand of 34 per cent more university graduates by 2025 (Deloitte Access Economics, 2015).

The student intakes into Australian universities have increased significantly over recent decades. As a result of the national goal of having 40 per cent school leavers in tertiary education by 2025, there has been a significant increase in student participation within the Australian HES (Bradley et al., 2008). In fact, overall the number of both international and domestic students has more than doubled in the past 20 years (Norton, 2013). Of the 1.4 million students enrolled in higher education in 2014 in Australia, 1,025,670 (73 per cent) were domestic and 347,560, or 27 per cent were international students (Department of Education and Training, 2015).

Alongside this increase in student numbers, there has been increased casualisation of academic staff within the Australian HES in recent years (May et al., 2013). Furthermore, as the ‘baby boomer’ academics retire in coming years, there is likely to be a shortage of academics in the Australian universities. For example, Hugo (2005) has suggested that “universities will lose between one-fifth and one-third of academic staff by 2015” (p. 20). Recent decades have also seen a ‘massification’ of education (De Boer et al., 2010) and an associated significant increased participation of students in the HES (OECD, 2015). Education is no longer limited to the privileged class, but open to people from diverse backgrounds. However, this dramatic increase without a relative increase in staff numbers has seen an increase in student-staff ratio over the past decades (Winefield

et al., 2003). A report of the Australian National Tertiary Education Union showed that the student-staff ratio of Australian universities has increased significantly from 13:1 in 1990 to around 23:1 in 2012 (NTEU, 2012).

Another major aspect of the changing Australian HES is the fluctuation in government funding policy. Since 1988 there have been a number of reviews on Australian higher education funding policy. These include the 'Dawkin's white paper in 1988', the 'West review in 1998', the 'Nelson review in 2002', the 'Bradley review in 2008', the 'Lomax-Smith review in 2011', and most recently the 'Kemp-Norton review in 2014'. Based on the Kemp-Norton review (2014), the federal government has adopted a demand-driven funding policy that has had significant impact on the ability of universities to generate revenue. According to the Australian Government Department of Education and Training (2015), the Australian Government's direct funding for higher education teaching, learning and research in 2014 was AUS\$15.4 billion of which student loan (HELP) payments were approximately AUS\$5.5 billion and grant payments were approximately AUS\$10 billion. This amount is much higher compared to 1989 when the Government's contribution was AUS\$3.2 billion. However, over the past decade, public contribution in the HES in Australia has fallen more severely compared to other OECD countries. For example, between 1995 and 2008, the overall share of public funding in the HES of OECD countries fell from 77 to 69 per cent. Between 1995 and 2008, the share of public funding in the Australian HES decreased from 64.6 to 44.8 per cent. However, between the years 2000 and 2008 the share of private funding increased from 50.4 to 55.2 per cent (OECD, 2011; Sharrock, 2012).

Both internal and external revenue generation are the major sources of income for the Australian HES. The revenue earning of Australian HES in 2011 exceeded AUS\$23

billion per year which is about 1.7 per cent of Australia's economy (Norton, 2013). Moreover, education export has become an important income-generating sector for the Australian economy with Australian public universities' export income from educational services in 2011 being AUS\$4.1 billion (Norton, 2013). The total revenue of the 37 Australian public universities in 2014 was AUS\$27.8 billion and a net operating balance of AUS\$1.9 billion which was 5.4 per cent less compared to the revenue income in 2013. About 41 per cent of the revenue was Government grant, 22 per cent from student contribution (HELP loan from the Government) and about 16 per cent from overseas students (Department of Education and Training, 2015). According to the Department of Education and Training (2015), the private universities (4 universities) and 129 National Register of Higher Education Providers (NUHEPs) were more reliant on other sources of income and half of their income was from non-government sources.

Finally, another challenge for the Australian HES and its leadership is that Australian universities are also facing new competitors such as online, vocational, private, and overseas-based online educational service providers. Presently, 37 public, four private, two overseas universities and more than 129 other higher education providers are operating within Australia (Department of Education and Training, 2015). Despite the growing contribution of the private sector in the Australian HES, it is acknowledged that the regional universities of Australia play an important role in regional economic development (Deloitte Access Economics, 2015).

The above factors have led to significant changes in the current Australian HES. Thus, there is increasing pressure on university leadership to gaining a competitive edge to acquire increased research funding and higher income through increased student participation, and to improve quality of teaching and research performance for better

international rankings, all of which have increased to a significant level within Australian universities.

Universities are no longer solely a value-driven institution for academic excellence. They are now also a place for attaining strategic commercial gain. Indeed, when describing the present climate of the Australian HES, Sharrock (2012) suggested “it is often claimed that scholarly communities are subject to ‘command and control’ leadership styles and institutional processes, geared increasingly to ‘corporate and commercial’ profit-seeking purpose” (p. 324). Similar to large corporate organisations, universities and their leadership must now develop their strategic goals, visions and missions and ensure all individual and organisational efforts are aligned with both strategic educational and economic goals. Finding a sustainable and stable strategy at the institutional level that balances the availability of institutional resources and aspiration for academic excellence has become a major issue for leadership within Australian universities (Sharrock, 2012).

2.3 Effective Leadership in the HES

Leadership plays a pivotal role in ensuring an effective environment for both the provision of scholarly services and the attainment of strategic goals within any educational institution (Bennett et al., 2003b; Brown, 2006; Hemsall, 2014; Raz et al., 2012; Rowley, 1997). Critically, leadership plays a more long-term strategic role than management within an educational institution (Brown, 2006; Raz et al., 2012). As mentioned earlier in this chapter, leadership roles in the HES have become even more challenging in the past decade due to a range of changes such as technological, political, social and economic changes. Indeed, in the current, ever changing and globalised mixed

economic era, a modern university that fails to be strategic and creative will fail to compete and fail to achieve its strategic goals (Raz et al., 2012).

As a result of the increasingly crucial role of leadership within modern universities, there has been growing research interest in leadership within the HES globally (Bolden et al., 2012, Bolden et al., 2015; Brown, 2006; Fullan & Scott, 2009; Raz et al., 2012). With regards to the concept of effective leadership in the HES, Peters and Ryan (2015b) argued that effective leadership evolves from a group of individual attributes, a style to be able to relate to the followers in a right way and a leader's ability to represent their followers. However, they also mentioned that years of debate on leadership in the HES "have not yet delivered the recipe for effective leadership" (Peters & Ryan, 2015b, p. 11).

Understanding leadership within a university setting is an important but complex issue because of the many factors that may affect the organisation. These factors include the demographic characteristics of the employees, the organisational structure of the institution, the leadership culture of the university, and the distinction between leadership, management and administration within the organisation (Bolden et al., 2012; Brown, 2006; Bryman, 2009; Odhiambo, 2014; Peters & Ryan, 2015b; Raz et al., 2012). Each of these factors will now be discussed in following paragraphs.

The common demographic characteristics of the HES are the two major cohorts of employees - academic staff and support or professional staff. To ensure the efficient operation and facilitation of the traditional academic roles of teaching, research and other scholarly services, universities need to have a large support/professional staff that, alongside academic staff, also play a significant role in achieving the university's strategic goals. Although in most cases professional staff do have a separate chain of

command, they usually work under academic leaders (for example Vice Chancellor, Deans, Heads of School) who often simultaneously discharge leadership, management or administrative roles within a university. For example, the Dean of a school or faculty may have the opportunity to implement their leadership charisma and vision in progressing the school but still have to carry out routine managerial roles within the structured strategic requirements and available resources. In fact, Bolden et al. (2008) in a study examined collective leadership in higher education in the UK and showed that from an organisational cultural perspective, managerial/hierarchical leadership is applicable for bureaucracy, while transformational leadership is suitable for corporations and servant leadership is more applicable for collegiality.

The organisational structure of the HES institution has also made it difficult to determine the most effective type of leadership that may promote employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes in the HES. This diversity of structure within different universities in the HES has led to a wide range of opinions as to what type of leadership is more suitable for the HES (Bolden et al., 2012; Bolden et al., 2015; Brown, 2006; Bryman, 2009; Lumby, 2012). Although many of the work units in modern universities function in a dispersed fashion, a chain of command still appears to prevail among both academic and professional staff (Harris, Leithwood, Sammons, & Hopkins, 2007; Holt et al., 2013).

Furthermore, the leadership culture in any university is not limited to the university's Vice Chancellor. Rather, it is reflective of the leadership culture that encompasses leadership styles practiced by leaders at all levels within that HES organisation. In their research on the application of distributed leadership for online learning environments (OLEs) in five Australian universities, Holt et al. (2013) found that

the “notion of how distributed leadership of OLEs was played out varied with some seeing a clear hierarchy of senior staff across all levels and others claiming that leadership was a role for everyone” (p. 399). This research strongly suggests that leaders at different levels within a university may not necessarily adopt the same leadership styles as the formal university leadership itself. This diversity of leadership styles may therefore impact on the leadership culture of the organisation.

The final factor that makes the understanding of leadership within the HES complex is that academics may define themselves in multiple ways in the HES because of the multi-faceted nature of their work. Every academic does not perform a leadership role. Instead, some may perform managerial or administrative roles and do not have the flexibility to lead or implement their own vision. Moreover, many academics also have to perform multiple roles such as research, teaching, supervising postgraduate students and projects, managing staff, or completing routine administrative activities as well as performing leadership roles (Bolden et al., 2012). These multiple roles lead to multiple identities such as academic leaders and academic managers. Indeed, these roles “are not mutually exclusive, can occur simultaneously, and may be experienced as complementary or conflicting” (Bolden et al., 2012, p. 5). These academic leadership and academic management roles are sometimes complementary, sometimes contradictory and sometimes overlap each other where “academic leadership came from individuals (or groups) that provided inspiration for their academic work” (Bolden et al., 2012, p. 12). Academic leadership relates also to informal roles with colleagues often acting as mentors and/or PhD supervisors which in turn have significant impact on staff development within the academic profession. On the other hand, academic management roles are more institutionally formal and focus on academic processes and tasks such as allocation of workloads and resources (Bolden et al., 2012).

Many of the academics in a university, such as the Vice Chancellor (VC), Pro-VC, Dean, Director of Research, Director of Studies and so on are often also engaged in academic management roles (Bolden et al., 2012). Bolden et al. (2012) also suggested that “academic management and leadership are not the same, nor, in most cases, provided by the same person” (p. 29). Often this type of academic management is paralleled with managerial leadership (Brown, 2006; Kennie, 2009). Academic leadership and managerial leadership are again different although there is common space between the two (Kennie, 2009). Acknowledging the interrelatedness of administration, management and leadership in the HES, the present research project will primarily focus on leadership.

Under the current volatile, uncertain, complex and competitive mixed economic era environment in which the Australian HES now operates, it is difficult to conclude what type of leadership can lead to the best organisational outcomes and leadership culture in a university. From the current evidence, it is suggested that universities need charismatic and visionary leaders who can not only align the organisation to meet the strategic goals, but lead them with a pragmatic vision within a volatile and complex future. In examining leadership within a HES setting, leadership theories offer lenses to consider different aspects of this complex work. Some leaders focus on strategic goals, others consider group cohesion within the organisation. Moreover, there is also a need to apply a leadership theory that has the ability to explore both positive and negative implications of the many different leadership styles.

Currently, there are mixed opinions as to what type of leadership theory is more applicable in the context of the current HES (Bolden et al., 2015; Brown, 2006; Bryman, 2009; Gronn, 2000; Hemsall, 2014; Lumby, 2012). Some research in the HES has promoted parallel or distributed leadership beside top-down leadership styles such as

transformational leadership (Bolden et al., 2008; Brown, 2006; Gronn, 2000). While distributed leadership has been examined at the primary, secondary and tertiary education level (Bryman, 2009; Holt et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2012; Lamby, 2012), Bryman (2009) has suggested, based on his research among academics in the UK, there is a lack of evidence supporting distributed leadership theory effectiveness in the HES. Furthermore, Peters and Ryan (2015b) argued that although most academic work has shifted from the previous concept Great-Man approach of leadership, it still influences understanding of leadership in the HES. They argue that assertiveness, competence, relatedness and morality are still key attributes that employees within the HES wish to see in their leaders.

The Australian HES has both vertical and horizontal alignment of leadership (Holt et al., 2013) suggesting a new approach to leadership in the Australian HES. While researchers such as Sendjaya et al. (2008) and Jones et al. (2012) promoted contemporary leadership theories such as servant and distributed leadership in the Australian higher education context, other research in other parts of the world also suggests that the transformational leadership style, a leadership style within the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991), may be the most applicable leadership framework for HES institutions given that it is congruent with other value-based leadership theories such as authentic, servant and distributed leadership (Asmawi, Zakaria, & Wei 2013; Brown, 2006; Bryman, 2009; Gilmore, 2011; Odhiambo, 2014). Indeed, Avolio and Bass (2004) also argue that transformational leadership is applicable in a broad spectrum of organisations including the HES.

Transformational leadership was found to be effective in the case of leadership within a virtual HES environment (Beaudoin, 2004; Kayworth & Leidner, 2001; Tipple, 2009; Zayani, 2008). While examining leadership of adjunct online faculty members

Tipple (2009) recommended “transformational leadership is particularly effective in a distance education environment from the perspective of both leading virtual teams and leading knowledge workers” (p. 3). In an earlier study on leadership effectiveness in global virtual teams, Kayworth and Leidner (2001) found that effective virtual teams need a high degree of empowerment, trust, mentorship and empathy. These needs are consistent with transformational leadership where the leaders empower their followers to achieve a vision, express confidence in the ability of followers, clearly articulate the vision and, above all, lead by example (Yukl, 2002). Furthermore, ‘idealised influence’, a component of transformational leadership, is particularly important in a university setting as idealised influence was associated with three out of five measurements of effective leadership in a study of 440 faculty members conducted in the USA HES by Brown and Moshavi (2002).

Despite these positive findings in favour of the suitability of transformational leadership in the HES, some scholars such as Bryman (2009) argued that “it is striking that by no means all writers on higher education leadership support the notion that transformational leadership necessarily provides the best model for understanding and developing general principles for leaders in the higher education sector” (p. 51). The Bryman (2009) study also identified that if transformation is too deep it might damage the prevailing cultural pattern of the institution and that, for setting strategic vision, transformational leaders should work closely with other senior managers in the HES.

In contrast to supporting the transformational theory of leadership within the HES, Bryman (2009) concluded that most of the leadership in the HES is transactional, at least in the UK (Bryman, 2009). However, the Bryman (2009) study in the UK was limited to a particular level of academic leadership (Head of Department or Department chairs) within

the UK HES and did not include professional staff who are major stakeholders in university administration. It might be argued that the Bryman (2009) findings may not be an accurate reflection of the overall leadership culture within the HES, particularly within Australia. Bryman (2009) also highlighted that “little research directly investigates leadership in universities” (p. 4).

Similar to the suggested lack of research on leadership within the HES overseas, there has been limited research on leadership in HES in Australia (Brown, 2006; Holt et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2012; Sharrock, 2012). Moreover, the focus and methodology for these research in Australia were different from studies on HES conducted overseas. For example, Brown (2006) examined various aspects of leadership to ascertain a shared understanding of the leadership and behaviour among both academics and professional staff in an Australian university. Furthermore, the aim of that research was to develop a framework that uses a distributed leadership for the quality management of online learning environments. In contrast, Jones et al. (2012) explored the possibility of supporting distributed leadership process within the Australian HES for building leadership capacity. However, none of these Australian studies examined the relationship between leadership styles, employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes as proposed in the current PhD project.

Leadership is also a key concern for Australian regional universities, the focus of the current project. The *Voice Survey* conducted at an Australian regional university in 2012 found that while commenting on leadership, approximately 45 per cent of the respondents felt that senior management listen to other staff and another 44 per cent said senior management stick to their promises. Moreover, 57 per cent of an Australian regional university felt that they feel emotionally well at work, 77 per cent are committed

to their job, 69 per cent of the staff intend to stay at their job, and 81 per cent of the staff reported that they are satisfied with their job (CQUniversity Australia, 2012). While encouraging, these statistics do not show how these variables of interest in the proposed project are associated with each other. Nor is there any evidence of how different leadership styles within the university, or indeed any university, may affect these variables.

Hence, understanding the complexity of leadership and its impact on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes is of prime importance for any university, including an Australian regional university. More research is thus needed to explore leadership culture in the Australian HES that identifies effective leadership styles that maximise both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes for both academic and professional staff.

2.4 Summary of Leadership in the HES

Leadership is of strategic importance for the modern HES given the implications of leadership styles for both the wellbeing of employees and the achievement of strategic organisational goals. However, leadership in the HES is a complex issue in that it incorporates management and administration which are distinct constructs that often overlap in the HES context. Adding to the complexity of researching leadership within the HES, both globally and within Australia the HES has undergone significant changes including globalisation, the information and communication technology (ICT) revolution, growth of higher education export markets, demographic changes in staffing and student cohorts, and funding policy uncertainty. Leadership has been a focus of study from diverse disciplines of knowledge. Researchers have promoted a number of leadership theories such as transformational leadership, distributed leadership, servant leadership,

and authentic leadership to be suitable for HES. However, leadership is a complex construct. Thus, by examining separate leadership styles that are perceived to have only positive impact may not capture the leadership styles observed within the HES. There is a need for a research model that might concurrently capture different styles of leadership within the HES and the effects of those leadership styles upon staff wellbeing and organisational outcomes within the HES context.

CHAPTER 3: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

3.1 Overview of Leadership Studies Literature

The study of leadership has been the focus of philosophers, researchers, social scientists and the general population for many years (Alkin, 1992; Appelbaum et al., 2015; Burns, 1978; Dinh et al., 2014; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008). Indeed, Burns (1978) understood that “leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth” (p. 2) while, Yammarino, Dansereau, and Kennedy (2001) argued that “understanding the complex nature of leadership can be challenging” (p. 149). Indeed, “leadership is a key ingredient in the ultimate success or failure of any organization whether the goal is to generate profit or educate students, leadership continues one of the most critical determinants of ultimate success or failure” (Smith & Hughey, 2006, p. 157).

The concept of leadership has been considered as a global field of study borrowed from the teachings of many commentators and philosophers including Confucius, Buddha, Aristotle, Plato, Machiavelli and Hobbes (Alves, Manz, & Butterfield, 2005; Burns, 2005). The earliest writing on the philosophies of leadership may be traced back to 1531 in the seminal work of Niccolo Machiavelli’s *The Prince* (Northouse, 2012). Since then, leadership has been studied in a wide range of disciplines such as history, theology, anthropology, philosophy, sociology, business administration, military science, organisational behaviour, psychology, nursing administration, political science, public administration and educational administration.

Historically, numerous definitions, concepts and theories of leadership from diverse disciplines of knowledge have been espoused leading to “almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept”

(Stogdill, 1974, p. 7). The multi-disciplinary investigation of leadership has led to a diverse range of terminologies, typologies and theoretical approaches which makes the defining and thus the study of leadership a complicated process (Northouse, 2012; Raz, Hojati, Najafian, & Namdari, 2012; Richmon & Allison, 2003).

Over time, scholars and practitioners have developed assumptions, models, and theories with a view to explain the phenomenon of leadership within organisations (Jabeen, Behery, & Elanain, 2015). Amidst leadership theories that are of interest today, such as servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1970), distributed leadership (Gronn, 2000), spiritual leadership (Fry, 2003), and authentic leadership (Luthans & Avolio, 2003), the Full Range of Leadership Theory (FRLT) (Avolio & Bass, 1991) and its associated leadership styles of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership are still considered relevant in different organisational contexts (Jin et al., 2016; Nielsen & Munir, 2009; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015; Tafvelin et al., 2011) including the HES (Bogler, Caspi, & Roccas, 2013; Zaineldin & Hytter, 2012).

The following sections will discuss in detail the general leadership research literature in relation to their similarities and differences as well as the relationships between leadership, management, administration and culture. Thereafter, a position will be taken to determine the leadership theory that may best encompass leadership studies in the HES in a regional Australian university setting.

3.1.1 Defining leadership. Leadership studies have been examined and defined from different perspectives with no fewer than 350 definitions of leadership available in the organisational behavioural approach literature (Hoff, 1999). This complexity of definition is highlighted by Richmon and Allison (2003), who argued “leadership is understood, by different scholars, as encompassing widely different features and characteristics” (p. 32).

There is a “general confusion about what leadership is and what is not, and who is a leader and who is not” (Gahan et al., 2016, p. 9). In light of leadership literature of five decades, Yammarino et al. (2001) also questioned: are leaders “born or made” (p. 149); is leadership a trait or characteristics of a person or a group based interpersonal process between leader and followers or a collectivised process of management and supervision? The same commentators further posit that the reason for such a multi-perspective view of leadership is the fact that leadership is a multi-level phenomenon (Yammarino et al., 2001). Hence, when defining leadership, some researchers have focused solely on the leaders or followers, others have focused on the leader-follower relationship, while some have explored leadership from an outcome perspective rather than a leader-follower relationship (Bolden et al., 2015; Cope, Kempster, & Parry, 2011; Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio, & Johnson, 2011).

Researchers also define leadership through different lenses such as traits, abilities, skills, behaviours, situations, and relationships (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Hernandez et al., 2011; Northouse, 2012; Uhl-Bien, 2006). For example, the trait approach is a leader-centric leadership approach that focuses on innate qualities of leaders such as intelligence, dependability and sociability which differentiate them from the followers. While defining leadership, this leadership approach argues that leaders and followers/non-leaders are differentiated by certain characteristics, abilities and skills that are inherited by leaders (Antonakis et al., 2003; Hernandez et al., 2011; Yammarino et al., 2001).

Similarly, the behavioural approach to leadership is also a leader-centric approach but focuses on the actions of leaders when they are in a leadership role. This approach to leadership differentiates between different types of leaders such as democratic,

authoritarian and laissez-faire leaders based on their behaviour (AbuAlrub & Alghamdi, 2012). For example, leaders who avoid responsibility and do not give decisions are considered as laissez-faire leaders (Avolio & Bass, 1991).

Leadership styles can also vary depending on both the situation and the nature of the followers (Fiedler, 1967; Hernandez et al., 2011). This follower-centric approach of leadership considers ‘followers’ as the locus of leadership and argues that followers influence leadership (Hernandez et al., 2011). In support of this approach, Shamir (2007) argued that leadership effectiveness is as much a product of good followers as it is of good leadership.

Leadership is also seen as relational (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). For example, when a group of people are gathered together to perform a common task, group members will settle down to perform the task during the ‘norming’ stage after initial interaction during the ‘forming’ and ‘storming’ stages of group formation (Robbins, Judge, Millett, & Warers-Marsh, 2008). Some individuals within the group will take up the leadership role and others will follow. Thus, when talking of leadership as a leader-follower relationship, the leader is commonly considered to be an individual leading a group of people (Cope et al., 2011). Indeed, Barker, Johnson, and Lavalette (2001) identified leadership as “simultaneously a purposive activity and a dialogical relationship” (p. 5). This definition emphasised two aspects of leadership - both the leader-follower relationship and a common purpose. In fact, these two concepts are the fundamental ingredients when forming a group. This same definition does not exclusively identify the influencing process that a leader exerts on their followers in achieving a common goal.

It is argued that leadership is the relationship where an individual influences the behaviour of others (Chih & Lin, 2009; House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002;

Mullins, 2005). For example, House et al. (2002) addressed the issue of influence in the leadership process by defining leadership as the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisations of which they are members. In accordance with this definition, Antonakis et al. (2004) later defined leadership as “the nature of influencing process and its resultant outcomes that occurs between a leader and followers and how this influencing process is explained by the leader’s dispositional characteristics and behaviours, followers perceptions and attributions of the leader, and the context in which the influencing process occurs” (p. 5). Jackson and Parry (2011) also argued that leadership is an influencing process which is non-coercive and multi directional. They also argued that there are more leaders and more followers in this relationship who work together for attaining a common goal. More recently, Northouse (2012) defined leadership as “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 6). These definitions highlight another facet of leadership; that leadership is not only a relationship between individuals or traits for leading a group of people for a common purpose, it is also an influencing process that affects the achievement of a common goal. The process model of leadership focuses on individual interaction within the organisational system (Gahan et al., 2016; Yukl, 2013).

From a heroic perspective, authority is a key aspect of leadership. During the twentieth century leadership has been viewed in terms of an individual leader who has the authority and responsibility over his followers, and who has the resources to achieve desired outcomes (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014). Furthermore, Yammarino et al. (2001) believes that people in organisations can be viewed as hierarchically structured groups of individuals. Whether leadership is leader-centric, follower-centric, or based on leader-follower relationships, leaders enjoy certain authority

in their leadership roles. Historically, Weber (1946) identified authority (for example charismatic authority, traditional authority and legal authority) as the source of leadership. Authority was seen from a positive viewpoint where legitimacy is considered as a basis for authority in leadership and people follow leaders they consider legitimate. In contrast, Fay (1987) believed that people follow leaders they consider possess the requisite character qualities to lead or the leader is in a position to command a certain course of action or the followers pursue a justifiable action. Leadership styles may also vary based on how the authority given to the leader is applied. For example, although transactional leadership is an award-based leadership style, application of excessive authority may become a coercive form of leadership (Bryman, 2009).

Common to each of these above definitions and types of leadership is the fact that leadership is a leader-follower relationship process that involves a certain amount of leadership quality, authority, vision, teamwork/group and purposeful activity for achievement of a common goal. That is, as the early HES leadership researcher Bryman (1992) believed, most of the leadership definitions include three elements - a group, influence and a common goal.

Over recent decades, there has been a shift in the understanding of leadership away from behaviour, traits and skills of leaders to leadership now being considered a function of multiple parties or groups and their ability to achieve a common goal (Barry, 1991; Harris, 2007). This development has led to the emergence of the concept of a self-managed team (Barry, 1991; Harris et al., 2007). This new way of looking at leadership is consistent with Follett's (1941) early view on leadership when she identified leaders as those individuals "who can organise the experience of the group, make it all available and most effectively available, and thus get the full power of the group. It is by organising

experience that we transform experience into power” (p. 258). The leader may not have knowledge about the functioning of individual groups but able to manage the knowledge of different groups to transform that combined knowledge into power. This is a major shift from the concept where leadership is vested upon individual leaders. Rather, this definition is focused on a shared contribution of the different groups within the organisation and the leader’s ability to effectively utilise experiences of different groups for achieving a common goal.

A number of contemporary theories of leadership such as servant leadership, distributed leadership, and spiritual leadership have moved away from the leader-centric ‘heroic’ approaches to leadership to focus more on followers and the processes of leadership. These approaches suggest that leadership may be perceived as a group quality and set of functions that is carried out by a group; thus shifting the focus of leadership from a heroic approach to a process approach. However, Bolden et al. (2015) recently argued that “a leader-centric perspective that focuses on the quality, characteristics and behaviors of people in positions of power and authority continue to dominate leadership theory and practice around the world” (p. 9).

In their seminal work *The Leadership Challenge* Kouzes and Posner (2003) identified five kinds of leadership approaches that work best among most people. The first is modelling the way where leaders lead by example which is consistent with the leaders’ values. Second is inspiring a shared vision and developing a compelling vision for the future which incorporates the commitment of others. Third, is challenging the current process by looking beyond the present and being prepared to experiment. Fourth is enabling others to act by promoting collaboration, empowerment and the building of trust. Finally, is encouraging the heart by recognizing individual contributions and

acknowledging their achievement. These five types of leadership approaches identified by Kouzes and Posner (2003) are identical to the styles (Transformational and transactional leadership styles) highlighted in the Full Range of Leadership Theory (FRLT). For example, leading by example is a key element of ‘idealised influence’ of transformational leadership. Inspiring a shared vision is parallel to ‘inspirational motivation’, while challenging the current process and looking beyond the present can be referred to ‘intellectual stimulation’ which is also a dimension of transformational leadership. Finally, recognising individual contribution and encouraging followers can be compared to ‘individualised consideration’ of transformational leadership style.

3.1.2 Leadership, management and administration. The diverse approach in defining leadership that has been highlighted above has led to a plethora of constructs that in many cases are synonymous or used interchangeably. For example, the term ‘leadership’ is often used interchangeably with the term ‘management’ (Sharrock, 2012). In addition, the close association between leadership and management is also linked to administration (Hodgkinson, 1983; Richmon & Allison, 2003). In the HES leadership literature these three constructs of leadership, management and administration are also presented in relation to one another (Bolden et al., 2008; Bryman, 2009; Kennie, 2009).

Leadership has been a focus of study within the management literature for many years (Alves et al., 2005). Mintzberg (1973) argued that leadership is one of many roles that managers perform. Indeed, leadership researchers have rationalised the relationship between management and leadership depending on the nature of the organisation. For example, researchers have conceptualised the management and leadership culture of organisations as top-down, bottom-up and dispersed (Barnard, 1938; Follett, 1941; Hodgkinson, 1983).

Historically, management has been regarded as an executive function (Barnard, 1938). Thus, management as an executive function supports the notion of top-down communication. Barnard (1938) argued that top-down communication promotes effective cooperation among members of organisations and that leadership is the determinant of the degree of communication between members of an organisation. Barnard (1938) also noted that as cooperation within the work group or organisation increases, the probability of conflict might increase because the process of facilitating cooperation arouses multiple moral codes. Kotter (1990) argued that while leaders establish future vision, align, motivate and inspire people towards the vision; managers establish short term goals and implement the plans. More recently, Antonakis et al. (2004) argued that management focuses on objective, bureaucratic means and contractual obligations, while leadership is focused on values, visions, ideals and emotional exchanges of information that focus on achieving purposeful results. As discussed in chapter 2, the relatedness of leadership, management and administration is also highly visible in the HES research literature (Bolden et al., 2008; Bolden et al., 2012; Bolden et al., 2015; Bryman, 2009) with a number of models having been developed that incorporate elements of both leadership and management models (Bolden et al., 2008; Brown, 2006; Kennie, 2009; Quinn, Faerman, Thompson, McGrath, & St. Clair, 2007; Sharrock, 2012).

In contrast to the top-down approach to both management and leadership, Follett (1941) conceptualised a bottom-up approach to leadership within an organisation. Follett believed that relatedness was the fundamental concept in management, leadership and the organisation. She also identified management as a function or a toolbox to fix problems and questioned the validity of the old theories of management and leadership that supported the view that employers as leaders manipulate employees and promoted the approach that employees may also manipulate employers the same way employers

manipulate them. Follett (1941) viewed leaders as coordinators and mentors, but also entrusted the leader to play a transformational role in transforming group experience into power to meet the organisational goal. However, she cautioned that leaders should not make decisions for followers but should educate them to solve problems themselves. She labelled this type of leadership as 'multiple' or 'defused' leadership which is the basis of the current emerging trends of dispersed/shared leadership. Follett's (1941) definition of leaders also supports the notion of a new genre of transformational leadership that promotes unity and transformation of the group to achieve beyond an expected goal.

Despite varying conceptualisation, it appears that leadership and management are two different constructs although the boundaries between the two often overlap. Highlighting the importance of both leadership and management in the business world Kotter (1990) argued that "leadership and management are two distinctive and complimentary systems of action. Each has its own function and characteristics. Both are necessary for success in an increasingly complex and volatile business environment" (p. 103). Similar to Follett's (1941) concept of management as a toolbox for fixing problems, Bennis and Nanus (1985) argued that "managers do things right, and leaders do the right things" (p. 21). More recently, AbuAlrub and Alghamdi (2012) stated "while leadership refers to the ability to influence others through guiding, motivating and directing to achieve organisational effectiveness, management refers to coordinating through a series of functions and procedures to achieve specific organizational goals" (p. 669). Following Bennis and Nanus (1985), Gardner (1986) later differentiated leadership and management in terms of their scope of vision and action. He argued that a leader looks both within and outside their role, thinks long term, and influences beyond their immediate jurisdiction. In contrast, a management role is limited. A leader may have to perform both leadership and management roles but a manager may not have the required

flexibility, resources and authority to perform a leadership role. Recently Gahan et al. (2016) argued that leadership and management are “distinct, but interconnected, tasks and processes, which may or may not involve the same individuals” (p. 11).

Apart from examining the relationship between leadership and management, earlier researchers have also examined the relationship between management and administration. In the 1980s, Hodgkinson (1983) promoted a value-laden integrative approach to explain leadership and management within an organisation. He highlighted the importance of administration as integral to the relationship between leadership and management. He argued that management and administration sit at two ends of the same continuum representing facts at one end (management) and values at the other end (administration). He concluded that management focuses on facts, mentoring and managing, whereas administration focuses on value, philosophy, ideas and planning (Hodgkinson, 1983).

The relationship between administration, management and leadership continues to be discussed in more recent management and leadership literature. While clarifying the position of leadership and administration in the context of the educational sector, Richmon and Allison (2003) stated that “leadership is often imbued with a sense of honour, charisma, loyalty, respect and greatness. Administration, alternatively, is often seen in a less favourable light, imbued with the perfunctory happenings and utilitarian banalities of organizations and institutions” (p. 31).

In view of the above discussion, it might be concluded that despite having different characteristics, leadership, management and administration are strongly associated with each other and sometimes overlap. In addition to having a close relationship with management and administration, it is argued in the research literature

that leadership is also influenced by culture (Liden & Antonakis, 2009; Muchiri et al., 2011; Nyberg et al., 2011).

3.1.3 Leadership and culture. Culture also has significant impact on the effectiveness of leadership styles in different geographical contexts (Hwang et al., 2015; Liden & Antonakis, 2009; Nyberg et al., 2011). Researchers have argued that cultural characteristics such as beliefs, values, people's behaviour, and attitude must be taken into consideration in the leadership literature (Dorfman et al., 1997; Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Smith & Peterson, 1988). The relationships between leadership, management, and culture will be discussed in the following sections.

Culture was defined by Hofstede (1980) as “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one human group from another” (p. 25). Social scientists have also referred to culture as “a set of parameters or collectives that differentiate the collectives from each other in meaningful ways” (House et al., 2002, p. 5). Effectiveness of leadership depends on the social culture of a particular society (Alves et al., 2005; Den Hartog & Dickson, 2004; Elenkov & Manev, 2005) because cultural issues such as religion, beliefs, values and language affect people's attitude and attitudinal preference in leadership (Dorfman et al., 1997; Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede et al., 2010; House et al. 2004; Hwang et al., 2015). While discussing leadership and management in cultural context, Den Hartog et al. (2004) argue that “we should not take for granted that models and theories developed in one place will work similarly in another” (p. 277). For example, management and leadership concepts in the USA and China vary due to differences in culture (Alves et al., 2005; Pun, Chin, & Lau, 2000).

Leadership literature has been mostly based in western culture with most of the leadership theories having been developed in USA (Hwang et al., 2015; Yukl, 2012). From the cultural perspective, Australia is an Anglo-Saxon society where individualism is the dominant feature of the society (Hofstede, 2001; House et al., 2002). The Global Leadership and Organisational Effectiveness (GLOBE) (House et al., 2002) research project conducted an in-depth study of 62 countries across the world. They classified Australia under the ‘Anglo’ cluster. Anglo societies value leaders who employ leadership styles which are humane, have perspective, and are charismatic and / or value based (Ashkanasy, Trevor-Roberts & Earnshaw, 2002; House et al., 2002; Scandura & Dorfman, 2004; Trevor-Roberts, Ashkanasy, & Kennedy, 2003). These leadership traits discussed above are embedded within the transformational leadership style (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Lam & O’Higgins, 2012; Lyons & Schneider, 2009; Sendjaya et al., 2008). In contrast, countries such as China, Japan, South Korea, Singapore and Taiwan fall under the ‘Confucian Asian’ cluster which are high in performance orientation, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, with collectivism centred on family, loyalty, modesty, humility, as core ethics of the society (House et al., 2004; Hwang et al., 2015).

Although there is an emphasis on a leader’s personal qualities in leading in the HES, 73 per cent of the respondents of a study among university employees (including the governors) in the UK indicated that it is necessary for HES leaders to adapt leadership styles to the culture of the higher education institution (Greatbatch, 2015). As leadership may have both positive and negative effects on employee wellbeing and organisational outcome, an examination of different leadership styles may facilitate determining a leadership theory that can capture both positive and negative effects of leadership styles within the HES in Australia.

3.2 Theories of Leadership

Despite various theories on leadership, the quest to truly understand the concept of leadership still remains unresolved in this mixed economic era. Since the early twentieth century a number of leadership theories have been proposed by academics with new leadership theories still being proposed. Both the wide variety of diverse perspectives of examining leadership and changing trends within society have fostered new leadership models and theories. Although there has been a shift of leadership rhetoric over the past century, there is an overlap among leadership theories with a number of the earlier leadership theories still considered to be effective in explaining leadership within an organisational setting. For example, the concept of centralised power by leaders of 1950s (for example, McGregor's X & Y theory of management) transformed into inspirational heroic leadership theory in 1980s (that is, transactional, transformational, Leader Member Exchange leadership theory) and a post-heroic concept (that is, authentic, servant, distributed and complexity leadership theory) of leadership in the 1990s (Hayward, 2016). Despite this change of leadership theories and grouping, there are commonalities among these leadership styles and some key issues such as visionary, ethical, motivating, empowering, leading by example, treating followers individually, being compassionate, facilitating followers' development, concern for the followers' welfare and being honest are repeated while describing the above leadership styles and theories.

Leadership theories can be grouped differently based on a number of categories. These include their inception, affect, locus of leadership, cognition, behaviour and traits (Alkin, 1992; Antonakis et al., 2003; Appelbaum et al., 2015; Burns, 1978; Dinh et al., 2014; Hernandez et al., 2011; Lowe & Gardner, 2001; Richmon & Allison, 2003). For example, Antonakis et al. (2003) classified leadership theories as emerging, new, relational, behavioural and trait theories according to their approach and inception.

Leadership theories described by Antonakis et al. (2003) are authentic, spiritual, servant, transformational, Leader Member Exchange (LMX), path-goal, contingency and Great-Man leadership theories. However, there are also other emerging leadership theories such as distributed leadership and complexity leadership theory that are not mentioned by Antonakis et al. (2003). Taking a different approach, Hernandez et al. (2011) more recently categorised leadership based on affect, cognition, behaviour and traits. They divided loci of leadership into five categories - leader, context, follower, collectives and dyads. In contrast, Richmon and Allison (2003) listed 35 different leadership theories arguing that “the diverse spectrum of scholarly perspectives is further complicated in that even leadership theories of the same name do not necessarily exhibit theoretical uniformity across sources. In other cases, seemingly identical theories were referred by different names” (p. 35). For example, Antonakis et al. (2003) grouped transformational leadership under ‘new leadership’ (p. 19) but Avolio et al. (2009) grouped transformational leadership under ‘new genre leadership’ (p. 428).

Different leadership theories such as transformational leadership, authentic leadership, servant leadership, distributed leadership and complexity leadership theories have been widely applied to examine leadership in different organisational settings (Bennett, Wise, Philip, & Harvey, 2003b; Bolden et al., 2015; Brown, 2006; Cope et al., 2011; Deichmann & Stam, 2015; Jin et al., 2016). These emerging leadership theories, along with the Full Range of Leadership Theory (FRLT) which includes transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles, will be discussed in the following sections.

3.2.1 The Full Range of Leadership Theory (FRLT). FRLT is a comprehensive leadership theory that encompasses transformational, transactional and laissez-faire

leadership styles (Avolio & Bass, 1991). These leadership styles of the FRLT are still currently being examined in different organisational contexts (Chen, Yuan, Cheng, & Seifert, 2016; Deichmann & Stam, 2015; Jin et al., 2016; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015).

Building upon the concept of charismatic leadership (Weber, 1947), the theory of transformational leadership was conceived by Burns (1978) which was further extended by Bass (1985). Charisma is considered to be a major component of transformational leadership. Weber (1947) also conceptualized the bureaucratic or exchange-based transactional leadership style (Nikezic, Puric, & Puric, 2012) which was then further developed by Burns (1978) as transactional leadership. Bass (1985) argued that these earlier leadership theories were based on exchange with followers, (that is, the way leaders award or punish followers) and there was a need for a paradigm shift to understand how leaders may influence followers to rise above self-interest and exceed limit of performance to achieve organisational goals. The multifactor leadership theory developed by Bass (1985) was known as transformational-transactional leadership theory or transformational leadership theory that included four factors of transformational leadership (intellectual stimulation, idealised influence, individualised consideration and inspirational motivation) and two factors of transactional leadership (contingent reward and management by expectation). Between 1985 and 1991 this theory was further expanded based on findings of a number of studies (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991; Avolio & Bass, 1991; Hater & Bass, 1988) and a nine factor FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) was proposed. This FRLT included five factors of transformational leadership style, three factors of transactional leadership style and a single factor of non-transactional laissez-faire leadership styles. These leadership styles and their associated factors will now be discussed in detail.

3.2.1.1 Transformational leadership style. Transformational leadership style is a leadership approach defined as “leader behaviors that transform and inspire followers to perform beyond expectations while transcending self-interest for the good of the organization” (Avolio et al., 2009, p. 423). Transformational leadership style focuses on the behaviour and relationship process of the leader with the followers. Perhaps the most important aspect of transformational leadership is that it refers to leadership as an influencing process that has positive impacts on both individuals and organisations (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013; Burke et al., 2006; Hur, van den Berg, & Wilderom, 2011; Jin et al., 2016; Northouse, 2011; Saleem, 2015). When defining leadership earlier (section 3.1.1) it was highlighted that, through the influencing process, leaders can inspire followers to achieve a common goal. Hence we can suggest that transformational leaders are charismatic, ethical, visionary, confident, ethical and have the inner strength to persevere with the decisions appropriate at that time (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Deichmann & Stam, 2015; Jin et al., 2016; Kim, Magnusen, Andrew, & Stoll, 2012; Lowe & Gardner, 2001; Simola, Barling, & Turner, 2010).

It is argued that charisma generates reflective emotional connection between the follower and leader which creates enthusiasm about the mission (Bass, 1985; Fernandes & Awamleh, 2004). Bass (1990) earlier claimed that transformational leaders “broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and when they stir their employees to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group” (p. 21).

Transformational leaders are suggested to also promote intellectual development, confidence, team-spirit and enthusiasm among their followers, thereby encouraging followers to be more focused on collective wellbeing and achieving organisational goals (Aydin et al., 2013; Cho & Dansereau, 2010). By going beyond the normal exchange of

relationships and fostering shared values, ideas and visions, transformational leaders help to build moral relationships within organisations (Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

It is also argued that transformational leaders may convince followers to manage diversity as an important moral obligation within the organisation instead of considering it simply an issue of legal compliance (Gilbert, Stead, & Ivancevich, 1999; Leonard & Grebler, 2006; Ng & Sears, 2012). A key outcome of this sense of togetherness and achievement of a common goal is that followers are inspired to exceed expectations (Northouse, 2011). Indeed, Yukl (2001) identified the strong relationship between the follower and leader as a key element in leadership effectiveness while Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, and Chen (2005) argued that transformational leadership is the catalyst to building a strong relationship between leaders and followers.

The influencing process that transformational leaders apply to their followers has been classified into four dimensions. These dimensions are idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Bass, 1997; Bass, 1998). van der Kam, van der Vegt, Janssen, and Stoker (2015) argued that by acting as a role model and articulating a convincing vision through the application of these four dimensions of leadership, transformational leaders establish a bond with their followers which encourages the followers to reciprocate in social exchange process and apply greater effort to achieve their desired goals. Each of these four dimensions will be briefly discussed below.

Idealised influence refers to how transformational leaders influence their followers. It is commonly accepted that transformational leaders influence their followers with charisma, conviction, a sense of responsibility and values that generate pride and loyalty among the followers, and encourage them to follow their leaders for attainment of

a shared purpose (Avolio & Bass, 2002). As a consequence of these characteristics, transformational leaders are role models to their subordinates (Jin et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2012; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Michel et al., 2011; van der Kam et al., 2015).

Transformational leaders employing idealised influence remove feelings of isolation by fostering a sense of belonging and a shared goal among their followers (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Bass, 1997; Bass, 1998).

Through the second dimension of inspirational motivation, transformational leaders motivate followers by improving their followers' self-esteem and articulating a compelling vision that creates a sense of common purpose for focusing on that vision to achieve more than what the followers originally thought they could achieve (Kim et al., 2012; Liu, Siu, & Shi, 2009; Michel et al., 2011). Transformational leaders inspire their followers by connecting the followers' own ambitions with the organisational goals (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). In this context, charismatic and transformational leader behaviours focus on inspiring and engaging followers as the means to attain organisational goals largely by connecting such goals to the followers' own ambitions (Walumbwa et al., 2008). By doing so, transformational leaders not only develop their followers for the task at hand to be a good follower, they develop them as future leaders. This process of motivating the followers is a key component of the transformational leadership style.

The third dimension of the transformational leadership style is intellectual stimulation. Transformational leaders stimulate the intellectual domain of the followers by questioning old traditions, assumptions and beliefs, and by encouraging followers to look at problems with a new perspective. Moreover, the transformational leader stretches a followers' limits depending on followers' ability under certain circumstances, and

encourages them to take risks if necessary (Kim et al., 2012; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Michel et al., 2011).

The final dimension of the transformational leadership style is individualised consideration. Transformational leaders demonstrate individualised consideration by treating followers as individuals according to their talent, growth and unique development needs. They listen attentively to their followers and provide the encouragement, support and coaching needed to attain goals (Kim et al., 2012; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Michel et al., 2011). Previous research has shown that people trust their leaders who provide personalised support and as a result they are more satisfied and productive at work (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996).

There is a large body of research evidence in the contemporary leadership literature highlighting that transformational leadership style increases employee wellbeing, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment while decreasing employee turnover intention (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Aydin et al., 2013; Ertureten et al., 2013; Kara et al., 2015; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015; Munir et al., 2012; Saleem, 2015). However, there is no known research that examined the mediation effect of employee wellbeing on the relation between transformational leadership and organisational outcomes in an Australian regional university.

Although, the concept of transformational leadership is widely recognised to have positive impact on followers and organisations in diverse organisational settings, researchers have also highlighted a number of negative aspects of transformational leadership. Historically, Weber (1946) identified charismatic, traditional and legal authority as sources of leadership. The concept of transformational leadership is associated with charismatic leadership (Yammarino et al., 2001). As transformational

leaders share formalised and personal power for goal achievement, there is a possibility of excessive use of power. Leaders may use their charisma for self-interest. From this perspective, transformational leadership can be authentic transformational leadership or pseudo-transformational leadership (Barling, Christir, & Turner, 2008; Conger, 1990; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Lo et al., 2010). Authentic transformational leaders portray a more realistic self-concept and consider the welfare of others above their own welfare. Transformational leaders are considered as ethical leaders and in this regard with Northouse, (2012) suggesting that “stressing common goals gives leadership an ethical dimension because it lessens the possibility that leaders might act towards followers in ways that use coercion or are unethical” (p. 6). In contrast, pseudo-transformational leaders may seek power and self-interest by controlling and dominating their followers (Barling et al., 2008; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Lo et al., 2010). Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) indicated that persuasive, transformational leaders are not manipulative or unethical in their practice. In a study in the HES context in the UK, Bryman (2009) suggested that too regular and too deep a transformation may disrupt an organisational cultural pattern.

With regards to the effect of transformational leadership in the HES context, Bryman (2009) further reported that “it is striking that by no means all writers on higher education leadership support the notion that transformational leadership necessarily provides the best model for understanding and developing general principles for leaders in the higher education sector” (p. 51). In contrast, a more recent study on work-life conflict in employees of HES in the UK (Ryan & Peters, 2015) found that characteristics of transformational leaders (Avolio & Bass, 1991) such as listening to subordinates, empowering subordinates and providing individual support are important for employee wellbeing. Moreover, in another study in the UK on HES leadership (Peters & Ryan,

2015b) the majority of the respondents of the survey indicated that vision, strategic view, communication, inclusiveness, confidence, transparency and inspiration are expected characteristics of leaders in the HES. Indeed, these are key characteristics of a transformational leader (Avolio & Bass, 1991; Kim et al., 2012; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Michel et al., 2011).

In summary, transformational leadership is seen as a visionary and charismatic value-based leadership style that fosters shared vision, group cohesion, communication between leader and followers, intellectual development, problem solving by examining alternative approaches, and employee development within the organisation. There are four major components of transformational leadership. These are idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration. Transformational leadership style encourages followers to perform at a level beyond their expectations.

3.2.1.2 Transactional leadership style. The second leadership style that FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) incorporates is transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is an exchange-based leadership style that focuses on rewards that are contingent on performance and the importance of communication between the leader and their followers (Avolio et al., 2009; Kelloway et al., 2012). Besides Weber's (1947) bureaucratic or exchange-based leadership style, it is also argued that the roots of transactional leadership may be traced back to McGregor's (1950) theory X and theory Y of management (Hayward, 2016). Burns (1978) described transactional leaders as a "leader approaching followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another" (p. 4). Using a 'carrot or a stick', transactional leadership is usually characterized as instrumental in followers' goal attainment (Bass, 1997). Transactional leadership involves a social exchange process

where leaders identify the tasks for the followers, establish a structure for accomplishing the tasks, and allocate the schedule for completing the tasks. The transactional leader then either rewards the subordinate for accomplishing the task correctly or monitors and corrects the follower while the task is being carried out. In contrast, the transactional leader punishes the subordinate based on the mistakes made while completing the task. There is evidence in the literature that transactional leadership has positive impacts on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and negative impact on employee turnover intention (AbuAlrub & Alghamdi, 2012; Jabeen et al., 2015; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015; Michel et al., 2011).

Transactional leadership incorporates three key characteristics: cognitive reward, active management by expectation (MBE) and passive MBE. In the case of the cognitive reward, transactional leaders come to an agreement with followers on the action to be completed in exchange for a reward. Indeed, Burns (1978) suggested that transactional leadership refers to exchanges that advance the purposes of each party in economic, political, or psychological ways. During active MBE, transactional leaders follow what is being done and correct mistakes if necessary. In passive MBE, transactional leaders fail to take preventive measures before the issue becomes serious and only point out or punish followers once mistakes have occurred (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Lam & O'Higgins, 2011; Skakon, Nielsen, Borg, & Guzman, 2010).

Transactional leadership is occasionally considered as task-oriented behaviour and, as in the case of active or passive MBE, there is a controlling and punishment aspect (Michel et al., 2011). Thus, there is an element of power and influence within the transactional leadership style suggesting that this leadership style is more applicable in management, rather than leadership. Hence, transactional leadership in its extreme form

may also be considered as an autocratic leadership style when a leader has a lot of power over their followers (Lyons & Schneider, 2009).

It has previously been suggested that both transformational leadership and extreme forms of transactional leadership are at opposite ends of the leadership spectrum (Bass, 1998; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). In contrast to transformational leadership where motivating and inspiring followers to perform beyond expectation is emphasised, transactional leadership relies upon reward and punishment for goal achievement. It is argued that while transformational leaders have greater concern for social justice, transactional leaders are more concerned with procedural or structural justice (Ng & Sears, 2012). However, Lo et al. (2010) argued that transactional leaders motivate their followers by focusing on their followers' self-interest. The same researchers claim that subordinates who work under transactional leaders would have a greater power and ability to affect the strength of a leader's influence, style of behaviour, and the performance of the group. In contrast to the intrinsic motivational process of transformational leadership, transactional leadership enhances morale and confidence of followers by clarifying expectation and fulfilling the extrinsic needs of the followers and therefore may be considered to be more productive (Daft, 2001). Prior to Bass's (1985) transformational leadership theory, transactional leadership style was considered to be the best form of leadership style in any organisational context (AbuAlrub & Alghamdi, 2012; Bass et al., 2003). Indeed, Burns (1978) indicated that transformational leadership style (described in section 2.2.1.1 above) is an extension of transactional leadership (Chipunza & Gwarinda, 2010).

While a number of previous researchers (Bass, 1999; Smith & Hughey, 2006) argue that leaders can be either transformational or transactional, a study on academic

leadership observed that HES leaders need to be both transformational and transactional (Brinbaum, 1992; Ertureten et al., 2013; Michel et al., 2012). However, Chih and Lin (2009) suggest that transformational and transactional leadership focus on two different approaches for achieving their objectives. While transformational leadership hinges on a leader's behaviour and attributes, transactional leadership is based on reward and punishment. Hence, the leadership approaches should not be judged against one another and should complement each other (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Waldman, Bass, & Yammarino, 1990). Indeed, it has been previously found that transformational and transactional leadership styles are highly correlated (Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996) and that transformational and transactional leadership styles act as pairs instead of opposing each other (Fernandes & Awamleh, 2004). In support of this suggestion, Vinger (2009) examined leadership styles within the HES in South Africa and found that the level of transformational leadership was similar to the level of transactional leadership. He concluded that their finding is in line with the historical view of Bass (1999) that transformational leadership augments transactional leadership. Besides, researchers have also argued that both transformational and transactional leadership styles are the most effective within organisations (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1998; Ertureten et al., 2012; Michel et al., 2012) given that, depending on the situation, a leader may have to position themselves in either the transformational or transactional role. In support of this suggestion, Holt et al. (2013) recently stated that "leadership practice is generated in the interaction of leaders, followers, and their situation; each element is essential for leadership practice; the situation both defines leadership practice and is defined through leadership practice" (p. 389).

3.2.1.3 *Laissez-faire leadership style.* The third and final leadership style incorporated within the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991); laissez-faire leadership is sometimes considered

as ‘no leadership’ (Aydin et al., 2013; Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Lam & O’Higgins, 2011), ‘absence of leadership’ (Avolio & Bass, 2004; van Eeden, Cilliers, & van Deventer, 2008), ‘non-leadership’ (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008), or ‘non-transactional leadership’ (Antonakis et al., 2003).

Mathieu and Babiak (2015) go so far as to claim that “laissez-faire leadership is a form of destructive leadership” (p. 11). Their claim is supported previously by research from both Sidle (2007) and Skogstad et al. (2007). For example, Sidle (2007) argued that laissez-faire leadership is not ‘zero’ leadership as argued by Skogstad and his colleagues (2007), rather it is a form of destructive leadership that may cause serious psychological distress in the workplace. Simply stated, with laissez-faire leadership there is no interface between the leaders and followers. Laissez-faire leaders avoid responsibilities, do not take care of the needs of the followers, do not provide feedback, and delay decision-making (Bass & Riggio, 2006). As a result, it is not surprising that laissez-faire leadership negatively affects employee wellbeing, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment and positively influences employee turnover intention (Aydin et al., 2013; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2007; Zineldin & Hytter, 2012).

In summary, the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) consists of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. FRLT is thus seen as a leadership theory which is applicable to diverse organisational settings including the HES (Avolio et al., 1999, Bass, 1998; Bryman, 2009). Although there is debate on whether transformational leadership is better than transactional leadership, there appears consensus that both types of leadership are beneficial for organisations. Although laissez-faire leadership is sometimes considered to be an absence of leadership, many researchers suggest laissez-faire leadership has adverse effects on employees.

Despite the advent of new leadership theories such as complexity, distributed, servant, spiritual and authentic leadership theories, the leadership styles of the FRLT (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) are still valid in different organisational contexts. However, for the current research project examining leadership within a HES university, the rationale for choosing the FRLT will become evident by now comparing and contrasting the FRLT with contemporary leadership theories such as the complexity, distributed, servant, spiritual and authentic leadership theories.

3.2.2 Comparing FRLT to other leadership theories. Historically, researchers have examined leadership through different theoretical lenses and proposed different leadership theories. These theories include complexity leadership (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007), authentic leadership (Luthans & Avolio, 2003), spiritual leadership (Fry, 2003), distributed leadership (Gronn, 2000), transformational leadership theory (Burns, 1978), transformational-transactional leadership theory (Bass, 1985), the Full Range of Leadership Theory (FRLT) (Avolio & Bass, 1991) and servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1970). Despite being evolved from diverse theoretical perspectives, there are commonalities of these leadership theories with the attributes of leadership styles mentioned in the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991). Details about the evolution of the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) have been discussed at 3.2.1 above. The following sections aim to highlight how elements of different emerging leadership theories relate to the leadership styles within the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) that will be used in the current research project.

3.2.2.1 Complexity leadership theory. In today's complex and volatile global environment, a leadership theory commonly discussed in contemporary leadership literature is the complexity leadership theory. Contemporary leaders are continually being

challenged to create an environment in which knowledge accumulates and is shared at a low cost (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007; Hemsall, 2014). The complexity leadership theory focuses on the leader's accumulation of social assets to overcome the challenges of the knowledge era. Considering the complex reality of the present day organisational climate, the complexity leadership theory recognises three types of leadership styles—the traditional bureaucratic leadership style that promotes hierarchy and control, the 'complex adaptive system' (CAS) (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007) of leadership that addresses creative problem solving, and 'generative dynamic' (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007) leadership which triggers engagement in change activities.

The key proponent of the complex leadership theory is that leadership is a process where each of the above three elements has a role (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). The complexity leadership theory (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007) defines leadership as "an engagement, interactive dynamic that is productive of adaptive outcome" and identifies leaders "as individuals who act in a way that influence this dynamic and outcome" (p. 299).

Some of the existing leadership theories such as the transformational leadership theory also promote similar ideas. Current trends in leadership studies emphasise moral values, individual attention, inspirational messages, emotional feelings and intellectual stimulation (Avolio et al., 2009). In the case of the transformational leadership theory, leaders attend to followers' individual needs and growth (individualised consideration), encourage followers to challenge old ideas, examine problems with new perspectives (intellectual stimulation), and thereby work together towards attainment of organisational strategic goals. Hayward (2016) argued that both transformational leadership theory and the complexity leadership theory focus on execution of strategy where leaders motivate everyone to be focused on the purpose and being committed to what they are doing.

Consistent with Follett's (1941) view of organisations, Uhl-Bien et al. (2007) promoted a distributed network rather than the top-down approach within an organisation. However, despite the changes in an organisational environment, it may be argued that the traditional top-down culture that emphasises the role of control and authority in achieving organisational strategic goals has not diminished (Greatbatch, 2015). Besides, despite the difference of approach (that is, top-down or dispersed/shared) to leadership, both transformational and complexity leadership theory emphasise working together for attaining strategic organisational goals and a focus on execution of strategy.

3.2.2.2 *Distributed leadership theory.* Another contemporary leadership approach that has gained momentum in the current HES leadership literature is distributed leadership theory (Bolden et al., 2009; Bolden et al., 2015; Gronn, 2000, 2011; Kayworth & Leidner, 2000; Yukl, 2002; Yukl, Mahsud, Hassan, & Prussia, 2011). Gronn (2000) originally described distributed leadership as leadership best conceived as a group quality, as a set of functions which must be carried out by the group. Within the leadership literature, the words distributed, dispersed, hybrid, shared, and collective leadership are often used interchangeably (Avolio et al., 2009; Bolden et al., 2009; Bolden et al., 2015; Gronn, 2008; Gronn, 2011; Kayworth & Leidner, 2000; Yukl, 2002; Yukl et al., 2011). This leadership theory is consistent with Follett's (1941) concept of shared leadership that focuses on the outcome through a group effort rather than an individualised heroic leadership style. However, this emerging leadership theory is currently in the development and testing stage and yet to be empirically established.

Similar to leadership theory in general, there are few clear definitions of the distributed leadership theory (Bennett et al., 2003b). Yukl (2002) defined distributed leadership as “a shared process of enhancing the individual and collective capacity of

people to accomplish their work effectively” (p. 432). As opposed to a fixed leader-follower relationship, distributed leadership can also be explained in terms of task distribution and a distributed influence process (Robinson, 2008). In distributed leadership “decisions about who leads and who follows are dictated by the task or problem situation, not necessarily by where one sits in the hierarchy” (Copland, 2003, p. 378). With regards to the influence process, Robinson (2008) suggested that “leadership must be distinguishable from other influence processes such as force, coercion and manipulation. The distinction between these three influence process and those involved in leadership rests on the source of influence” (p. 246). In distributed leadership theory, the essential leadership function is distributed among the followers and enhances their ability to attain their goals more effectively.

There appear to be some conceptual contradictions in describing distributed leadership. For example, Harris et al. (2007) initially suggested that distributed leadership has been placed in opposition to focused or hierarchical leadership styles. Although distributed leadership promotes horizontal leadership alignment among leaders at different levels, the top-down hierarchical leadership is a reality in the present day HES due to the influencing process of leadership (Bolden et al, 2015; Greatbatch, 2015; Jones, Harvey, & Lefoe, 2014; Sharrock, 2012). Indeed, based on the work of Harris (2009), Holt et al. (2013) suggested that distributed leadership essentially involves both the vertical and lateral dimensions of leadership practice. Holt and colleagues identified both vertical and horizontal alignment among formal faculty and senior executive leaders, academic, and professional support staff leadership within a HES setting.

Distributed leadership has been widely researched and found to be effective at both the primary and secondary school level (Bolden et al., 2009, Odhiambo, 2014;

Timperley, 2005). However, the application of distributed leadership within the HES has only recently been proposed (Bolden et al., 2008; Bolden et al., 2015; Bryman, 2009; Jones et al., 2012; Lumby, 2012). Indeed, there is still a debate about the leadership culture within the HES. For example, in a study in the UK on institutions, leadership and governance, one third of the governors of HES who participated in the study reported that there is a need for an inclusive approach to ensure that the university board members have the opportunity to contribute effectively in the decision making; while the other 34 per cent of the governors indicated that the chair of the board should try to influence the development and execution of the organisational policy (Greatbatch, 2015).

There is further evidence of a relationship between the distributed and transformational leadership styles in that both leadership styles involve mobilizing followers towards achieving organisational goals. Indeed, as discussed above, distributed leadership is a shared process where followers have increased participation in achieving a collective goal. Transformational leadership theory also considers leadership as a process with a strong emphasis on togetherness, ethical behaviour and achievement of a collective goal in transformational leadership (Northouse, 2012). Recently, Bolden et al. (2015) described spontaneous collaboration, intuitive working relations and institutional practice as three important elements of distributed leadership in the higher education context. Working for a common purpose and having a set task are also key issues of transformational and transactional leadership styles, respectively. In fact, in their analyses of transformational leadership, Leithwood and Jantzi (1999) identified distributed leadership as one of the key components of transformational leadership. Consistent with Follett's (1941) concept of shared leadership, Avolio and Bass (1995) examined the rating of the team itself and the rating of individual leaders. They found that the

individual level of transformational and transactional leadership performance was positively predicted by the group rating measures of leadership.

It is evident from the above discussion that, although the basis of distributed leadership theory is different from the transformational leadership theory in that one promotes the dispersed forms of leadership and the other is based on conventional top-down structure within the organisation, there are similarities in core elements of both theories. Key differences appear to be how power functions in achieving the common goal.

3.2.2.3 *Servant leadership theory.* Another leadership theory that is enjoying a renaissance is servant leadership theory which was originally promoted by Greenleaf (1970) who argued that to be a leader one has to serve first. Inspired by the seminal work of Hesse's (1956) book *Journey to the East*, Greenleaf promoted the idea of servant leadership. This theory is a follower-centric leadership theory with the major focus of servant leadership as follower first and the organisation second, and thus the need for a leader to focus on the needs of followers' needs rather than the organisational needs (Jones, 2012).

Servant leadership is primarily based on concepts taken from major religions but especially the Christian faith (Sendjaya et al., 2008). It has wider reach and has also been influenced by other non-religious ideologies such as Daoism (Korac-Kakabadse, Kouzmin, & Kakabadse, 2002; Winston, & Ryan, 2008), Confucianism (Snell & Tseng, 2003) and Communism (Fu & Tsui, 2003; Snell & Tseng, 2003). It is argued that servant leadership has a number of positive outcomes such as increasing employee job satisfaction, organisational trust, work-family enrichment, and reducing employee turnover intention (Jones, 2012; Zhang, Kwan, Everett, & Jian, 2012).

Servant leadership theory has attracted the interest of HES leadership researchers (Brown, 2006; Jones, 2012; Sendjaya et al., 2008). Despite having its own characteristics and differences with the leadership styles of the FRLT, there are a number of similarities between these two leadership theories. In the following paragraphs, these differences and similarities between the servant and FRLT will be discussed.

Researchers have pointed out a number of limitations with the servant leadership theory (Hernandez et al., 2011; Winston & Fields, 2015). First, there is little consensus about the definition of servant leadership (Hernandez et al., 2011; Winston & Fields, 2015). Second, servant leadership has been operationalised in various dimensions such as integrity, humility, empowering others, developing others/helping subordinates grow, putting subordinates first, vision for followers, leading, shared decision making, transforming influence, authentic self, emotional healing, behaving ethically, conceptual skill, trusting, organisational stewardship, voluntary subordination, goal setting, caring for others, servant-hood, responsible morality, persuasion and wisdom (Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005; Hale & Fields, 2007; Liden et al., 2008; Page & Wong, 2000; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011; Winston & Fields, 2015). Third, different researchers have measured servant leadership with varied numbers of items (Winston & Fields, 2015). Finally, Jones (2012) indicated that despite an increase of popularity of the idea of servant leadership, there is a paucity of empirical research to support the claims in favour of servant leadership over other leadership styles in the HES.

Perhaps the key difference between the leadership styles of the FRLT and servant leadership is based on different outcomes. According to Bass (2000), while servant leaders focus on employee wellbeing, transformational leaders focus on organisational wellbeing. Furthermore, transformational leaders focus on the organisation's needs and

goals, whereas the servant leaders focus on followers' needs and goals (Greenleaf, 1977; Graham, 1991; Jones, 2012; Parolini, Patterson, & Winston, 2009). Greenleaf (2002) further argued that in the case of servant leadership, instead of placing the leaders in the centre of focus, resources and support is provided to the followers. In a study examining differences between transformational and servant leadership, Parolini et al. (2009) identified two major differences between transformational leaders and servant leaders. Firstly, transformational leaders are differentiated by their focus on the needs of the organisation, inclination to lead first, allegiance towards the organisation, and influence through conventional charismatic approaches as well as control. Secondly, in contrast, servant leaders are differentiated by their focus on the needs of the individual, their inclination to serve first, their allegiance toward the individual, and their influence through unconventional service as well as through the offering of both freedom and autonomy.

While there are a number of differences between servant leadership and the leadership styles of the FRLT, there are also similarities between the two theories of leadership. For example, dimensions of servant leadership such as vision, persuasion, wisdom, goal setting, transforming influence, caring for others, behaving ethically, emotional healing, authentic self, empowering others, developing others/helping subordinates grow, are also key elements of transformational leadership style which is one of the leadership styles within the FRLT.

Similarities with the servant leadership focus on followers' needs can be drawn within FRLT since transformational leaders are considered as visionary leaders who challenge old ideas and take their followers beyond the expected goal by fostering vision and new ideas (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Kim et al., 2012; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012).

Indeed, through ‘individualised consideration’, a key component of transformational leadership, leaders pay attention to individual needs and mentoring which helps them to attain collective organisation goals while at the same time promotes individual growth. Moreover, Bass (2000) argued that transformational leaders “strive to align their own and others’ interests with the good of the group, organization or society” (p. 30). However, he also argued that servant leadership goes beyond transformational leadership in selecting the needs of others as its highest priority. Furthermore, in many aspects, servant leadership is similar to transformational leadership in that both are value-laden leadership styles (Sendjaya et al., 2008). Similar to transformational leaders, servant leaders do not engage in any self-interested action or manipulative action to achieve desired goals (van Dierendonck, 2011; Winston & Fields, 2015). Transformational leadership style is also congruent with servant leadership with regards to encouraging both leaders and followers as well as fostering higher levels of motivation among the followers (Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1999; Graham, 1991).

From a cultural perspective also there is an overlap between transformational and servant leadership styles. van Dierendonck (2011) maintained that servant leadership is more likely in humane-oriented countries and countries with low power distance defined as “the degree to which members of an organization or society expect and agree that power should be unequally shared” (House et al., 2002, pp. 5-6). Countries with high scores in humane orientation are Malaysia, Thailand, Philippines, Egypt, Zambia and Ireland that are also high in power distance while countries with high humane orientation and low power distance are Denmark and Netherlands (House et al., 2002). According to House et al. (2002), Australia is among countries in the Anglo-Cluster where charismatic, participative, team-oriented and humane leadership score high but self-protective and autonomous leadership styles are comparatively low. Charisma and team orientation are

key characteristics of transformational leadership. Hence, it may be argued that, with regards to human orientation there is a commonality between the transformational and servant leadership. Furthermore, Brown (2006) has suggested that value-based servant leadership and transformational leadership styles are appropriate for academic institutions within the HES.

3.2.2.4 *Spiritual leadership theory*. Spiritual leadership theory (Fry, 2003) is another emerging and follower-focused leadership theory which is inclusive of other major existing motivation-based theories of leadership. Fry (2003) highlights that to motivate followers, leaders must get in touch with their own core values and communicate them to followers through both a vision and personal actions. However, Fry (2003) promoted an idea of fusion of spirit, mind, body and heart which may make people more motivated for high performance. Fry, Vitucci, and Cedillo (2005) later termed spiritual leadership theory as a ‘causal leadership theory’ and reasoned that spiritual leadership comprises the values, attitudes, and behaviours that one must adopt in intrinsically motivating both oneself and others so that both have a sense of spiritual survival through calling and membership. Furthermore, Fry et al. (2005) in a study on ‘spiritual leadership and army transformation’ argued that spiritual leadership theory facilitates a pathway for a new paradigm of leadership by extending transformational, authentic and servant leadership theories.

Similar to the FRLT, spiritual leadership focuses less on leader-centric approaches and focuses on engaging all group members to meet spiritual needs and enhance both organisational commitment and performance (Fry, Hannah, Noel, & Walumbwa, 2011). Again, similar to FRLT, Fry (2003) earlier indicated that defining the goal and establishing a standard of excellence are qualities of spiritual leaders. These qualities can

also be considered parallel to transactional leadership of the FRLT. Besides the spiritual aspect, engaging all group members through vision and intrinsic motivation to achieve desired goals and raising hope are key features of spiritual leadership which are features in common with the transformational leadership style of the FRLT.

3.2.2.5 Authentic leadership theory. Authentic leadership is another emerging and ethical leader behaviour that promotes openness in decision-making and encourages followers' participation in decision-making. Luthans and Avolio (2003) have promoted authentic leadership for the academic community within the HES and defined authentic leadership as “a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organisational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviours on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development” (p. 243). Authentic leaders act with personal conviction and values and are keen to empower followers with the quality of passion and heart, which the followers consider to be authentic.

While there is a growing interest in the applied leadership literature about authentic leadership (Avolio et al., 2004; Diddams & Chang, 2012; May, Chan, Hodges, & Avolio, 2003; Laschinger, Borgogni, Consiglio, & Read, 2015), there is some overlap between authentic leadership and transformational leadership theory given that “authentic leadership is a root construct that can incorporate transformational and ethical leadership” (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004, pp. 805-806). In fact, the concept of authentic leadership evolved from the interaction of ethics, scholarship, positive organisational behaviour and leadership (Avolio et al., 2004; Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2007). Indeed, Luthans and Avolio (2003) indicated that the concept of authentic leadership theory arose from the writings on transformational leadership.

Luthans and Avolio, (2003) promoted the idea of authentic leadership with the vision of a leader who can earn/restore confidence of associates/followers and transform the followers into leaders themselves. From the transformational leader's perspective, authenticity works as a moral compass for the leader who is true to themselves and others, which fulfils the ethical standards to others. Thus transformational leaders achieve followers' confidence as well as helping the followers as leaders (Sparrowe, 2005).

Authentic leaders can be participative, directive or authoritative as in the case of transformational leadership theory that allows for different leadership approaches depending on the situation the leader finds themselves in. Avolio et al. (2004) have examined the process through which authentic leaders influence follower behaviour and attitude. They concluded that further research is needed to clearly differentiate authentic leadership with existing leadership theories such as charismatic, inspirational, transformational and servant leadership. Besides, Diddams and Chang (2012) in their study on the weaknesses of the authentic leadership, concluded that there is a need for further research on authentic leadership to supplement measures of authentic leadership style.

3.2.3 Summary of general leadership theories. The above review has highlighted both the difficulties in defining leadership *per se* and how different leadership theories sometimes overlap. The review has also suggested that leadership is often associated with management, administration and culture and that the overlapping of leadership, management and administration is currently blurred despite these constructs being different from each other. The present review has also identified that a society's culture has implications for leadership and that leadership trends and styles may vary in different cultural contexts. Importantly, the current review of leadership theories highlighted that

both the multidisciplinary approach to leadership research and the diverse approach to viewing leadership have led to a widely diverse range of leadership theories.

Over the past hundred years, these different and diverse leadership theories have been developed and tested in many different contexts. Despite this, new leadership theories continue to be developed in view of changing organisational and global environments. However, the above review has highlighted that many leadership theories share common elements. Moreover, similar theories are often given different names by different researchers and theorists (Richmon & Allison, 2003). For example, the present review has highlighted how various leadership theories such as complexity leadership, servant leadership, spiritual leadership, authentic leadership and transformational leadership theory have common elements. Furthermore, Sendjaya et al. (2008) have drawn parallels between transformational leadership, authentic leadership, and spiritual leadership while Avolio et al. (2004) related authentic leadership to both transformational and servant leadership and Bass (2000) related servant leadership with transformational leadership.

Emerging leadership theories such as complexity, distributed, servant, spirituality and authentic leadership theories are currently in their development stage and yet to be considered established leadership theories. Importantly, to date there is a lack of established and valid measurement tools for measuring these emerging leadership theories. In contrast, FRLT encompasses the three different and well established and validly measurable leadership styles of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. Moreover, FRLT is well-established and widely acknowledged as a valid leadership theory in the current leadership literature (Northouse, 2012). The following section will further highlight the rationale for the current research.

3.3 Rationale for the Current Research

Based on the review of literature above and discussion in chapter two on leadership in the HES, there are a number of rationales for the current research project which explores the most appropriate leadership theories that may capture the complex leadership culture within an Australian regional university. These include:

- More research is needed to explore leadership culture within the HES of Australia as it has been indicated that considerable debate on effective leadership in the HES in the past could not deliver any clear guidelines for effective leadership in the HES (Peters & Ryan, 2015b). While there has been limited research on leadership within the HES either overseas (Bryman, 2009; Bolden et al., 2012; Bolden et al., 2015; Fullan & Scott, 2009; Gosling & Peters, 2012; Odhiambo, 2014; Peters & Ryan, 2015a, 2015b) or within Australia (Davis & Jones, 2014; Hemsall, 2014; Holt et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2012; Sharrock, 2012), there is no known research that concurrently examined a number of leadership styles to suggest the most effective leadership style and its effects on both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes in a regional university setting within Australia.
- A number of studies in the available leadership literature have examined the relationship between leadership and wellbeing or leadership and organisational outcomes. A number of papers on the effect of leadership in different organisational settings have been published but their context, purpose and methodology are all different. Some papers have been published as empirical research (for example, Basham, 2012; Bolden et al., 2012; Bolden et al., 2015; Herbst & Conradie, 2011; Peters & Ryan, 2015b; Sani &

Maharani, 2012; Vinger, 2009), dissertations (Abuorabl, 2012; Li, 2010) and some published as reviews or opinion pieces by scholars (for example, Brown, 2006; Bryman, 2009; Fullan & Scott, 2009; Holt et al., 2013; Kezar, 2012; Raz et al., 2012). However, there is no known research published to date that has examined the interrelationship between leadership, wellbeing and organisational outcomes. Moreover, no research to date has examined the mediating effect of wellbeing on relationship between leadership style and organisational outcomes in a higher educational setting.

- The impact of globalisation is highly visible in the HES. The global environment has shifted from the post-industrial era to a volatile, ever-changing, complex and competitive knowledge era leading to significant change within the HES. While there are diverse opinions as to whether value-based distributed or transformational leadership is more appropriate in the current HES (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bryman, 2009; Brown, 2006; Lumby, 2012), no research to date has examined the effectiveness of differing leadership styles on employee wellbeing or organisational outcomes within an Australian regional HES context.
- The limited available empirical research suggests there is currently equivocal evidence as to which leadership style is most applicable in the context of HES. Although distributed leadership has recently been examined in HES settings (for example Bolden et al., 2015; Bryman, 2009; Jones et al., 2012), most of the research on distributed leadership undertaken in education was at primary and secondary school level (Bolden et al., 2009, Boudreaux, 2011, Obadara, 2013) where the organisational structure is less complex than that within the

HES. As mentioned earlier in this review, the transformational leadership style has previously been found to be suitable at both the secondary school level as well within the HES (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Aydin et al., 2013; Bryman, 2009; Northouse, 2012).

- Emerging leadership theories to address the current global challenges have a number of weaknesses. These weaknesses include the fact that these emerging leadership theories such as complexity leadership and distributed leadership theories are in their development stage and yet to be considered established leadership theories. Importantly for the current research project, there is also a lack of established and valid measurement tools for measuring these emerging leadership theories. In contrast the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) is an established new leadership theory that is still valid and found suitable in a variety of organisational contexts with the transformational leadership style having been found to be effective in the HES (Asmawi et al., 2013; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Aydin et al., 2013; Bryman, 2009; Deichmann & Stam, 2015; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015; Northouse, 2012; Saleem, 2015; Vinger, 2009). There is also a dedicated and established measurement tool (MLQ 5x short) (Avolio & Bass, 2004) that enables appropriate measurement of each of the leadership styles under the FRLT.
- The measurement tool being used in the present project to measure leadership styles, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, 5x short (MLQ 5x short), has been found to be a reliable, valid and useful tool for identifying ineffective and highly effective leaders in educational institutions, the health sector, retail services, manufacturing industries, high technology industry,

government, military, church and volunteer organisations (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bodla & Nawaz, 2010; Jin et al., 2016; Saleem, 2015). Indeed, the MLQ 5x short has been found to be most valid when followers at different levels rate their leaders as to whether the leaders adopt a transformational, transactional or laissez-faire leadership style. The MLQ 5x short has also been shown to be highly effective in examining leadership within groups such as those found within different work units in a typical university (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

- Leadership is currently not only seen as a leader-follower exchange relationship, reinforcement of behaviour, providing direction and setting goals, but new leadership models emphasise moral values, individual attention, inspirational messages, emotional feelings and intellectual stimulation (Avolio et al., 2009) as ingredients of leadership. Most of these attributes are strongly embedded in the transformational leadership style of the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991). Indeed, idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration are four domains of transformational leadership style which is one of the three leadership styles discussed under the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991).
- Furthermore, the five kinds of leadership approaches that work best among most people as identified by Kouzes and Posner (2003) are identical to the elements of transformational leadership. Kouzes and Posner (2003) identified modelling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart are approaches that work best among people. These factors are similar to the elements of

transformational leadership such as idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration (Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh, & Omary, 2009). For example, transformational leaders are charismatic, inspire shared vision, challenges and new ideas, promote individual development and inspire people to achieve beyond expectation (Abbasi & Zamani-Miandashti, 2013; Avolio & Bass, 1991; Bass, 1990).

- In contrast, there is limited evidence that transactional leadership is related to either employee wellbeing or organisational outcomes (Aydin et al., 2013; Braun et al. 2013; Michel et al., 2011). There is also limited evidence that laissez-faire leadership influences employee wellbeing or organisational outcomes (Aydin et al., 2013). Hence, the application of the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) in the current research may facilitate the concurrent investigation of a diverse range of leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) in an Australian regional university setting.
- Indeed, depending on the situation, the same leader may have to position themselves in either a transformational or transactional leadership role. Often it is considered that transactional and transformational leadership are at opposite ends of the same leadership continuum (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Judge & Piccolo, 2004) with laissez-faire leadership seen as a leadership style that has negative effect on employees. Therefore, the application of the FRLT in the proposed project may also facilitate understanding the continuum of effect of leadership styles within the HES.

- Previous researchers have argued that both transformational and transactional leadership are the most effective leadership styles in any organisation (Avolio et al., 1999, Bass, 1998). Importantly for the current project, transformational leadership has previously been shown to be positively related to both employee wellbeing (Liu et al., 2010; Mckee, Driscoll, Kelloway, & Kelley, 2011; Nielsen & Minir, 2009; Tafvelin et al., 2011) and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction (Aydin et al., 2013; Felfe & Schyns, 2004; Michel et al., 2011; Munir et al., 2012; Podsakoff et al., 1996), organisational commitment (Ertureten et al., 2013; Felfe & Schyns, 2004; Michel et al., 2011; Muchiri et al., 2012) and turnover intention (Ertureten et al., 2013; Tse, Huang, & Lam 2013). This research will be reviewed in detail in the next section of the present review.
- A further argument as to why FRLT should be used within the current project is that all employees within a university are not in a leadership role. Moreover, at times the same person may be required to perform both leadership and management roles. Again, due to the scope of leadership, the task being undertaken, and availability of resources, some staff within a university may have the opportunity to act in leadership roles and others have to perform only managerial or administrative roles. FRLT covers both leadership and management roles while transactional leadership style is more related to management only.
- To date, the majority of research in the HES has been focused on academics that hold formal academic leadership roles such as Governors, Vice Chancellor Pro-VC, Deans and Heads of Schools (Bolden et al., 2012;

Greatbatch, 2015). Professional staff and employees working as both professional staff and/or academics have not been examined. As discussed earlier, within the HES both support/professional staff have their command structure but in many cases many of the professional staff work under academic staff. Thus, only examining the leadership styles of top-level managers or academics may not be a true reflection of leadership culture within a university. The current project aims to examine the effect of different leadership styles on wellbeing and organisational outcomes of the staff of a university as a whole cohort.

- Finally, Australia is an Anglo-Saxon culture (Hofstede, 1984; Hofstede, 2001; House, Hanges, Javidan, & Dorfman, 2002) where transformational leadership is acknowledged to be most effective leadership style from a cultural perspective (Bass et al., 2003; Bartram & Casimir, 2007; Casimir, Waldman, Bartram, & Yang, 2006; Parry & Sarros, 1996; Sarros et al., 2008).

In summary, despite considerable interest on the role of leadership in the HES across the globe, there is no known research that has concurrently examined how different leadership styles within the HES affect both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay, especially within an Australian regional university setting. Although a number of leadership theories have been applied to examine leadership in the HES, the current review of the leadership literature, the organisational complexity of a university, and the strengths and weakness of the leadership theories examined above have led to the conclusion that FRLT will enable the concurrent assessment of leadership styles to assess the interrelationship of leadership style, staff wellbeing and organisational outcomes.

Moreover, there is also strong evidence in favour of the validity of the measurement tool of the FRLT, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x short) to discriminate between the leadership styles of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. Thus, based on the evidence presented in the present review, it is argued that the Full Range of Leadership Theory (FRLT) (Avolio & Bass, 1991) should be applied to examine leadership culture of a regional university in Australia.

3.4 Leadership, Wellbeing and Organisational Outcomes

This section of the literature review will review in detail the previous research that has examined the interrelationships between leadership styles, employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes.

Leadership has consistently been shown to have significant impacts on both employee wellbeing (Aydin et al., 2013; Braun et al., 2013; Michel et al., 2011; Nyberg et al., 2011; Tafvelin et al., 2011; Zineldin & Hytter, 2012) and a number of organisational outcomes including job satisfaction (Aydin et al., 2013; Ertureten et al., 2012; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015; Podsakoff et al., 1996), organisational commitment (Appelbaum et al., 2015; Felfe & Schyns, 2004; Muchiri et al., 2012) and turnover intention (Ertureten et al., 2012; Mathieu & Babiak 2015; Tse et al., 2013). In addition, there is evidence that employee wellbeing also affects the above organisational outcomes (Brunetto et al., 2012; Stiglbauer et al., 2012; Rodwell & Munroe, 2013; Wright & Huang, 2012).

To date, most previous research has either focused on how leadership style(s) affect employee wellbeing or organisational outcomes. To date there is no known research exploring how leadership, employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes interact simultaneously within an organisational setting. Furthermore, there is no known research on the interaction between leadership style, employee wellbeing and

organisational outcomes in the context of the HES, particularly within a regional Australian university.

In addition, in the context of organisational practice and employee performance, the terms leadership and wellbeing are closely linked. Similar to the diverse conceptualisation, definition and measurement of leadership, employee wellbeing has also been widely studied and produced multiple conceptualisations, definitions and measures of wellbeing (Brunetto et al., 2012). Hence, the sections below will first define wellbeing in light of the literature (see section 3.4.1), then review the literature that has examined how leadership affects employee wellbeing (section 3.4.2). Thereafter, organisational outcomes will be defined (section 3.4.3). The relationship between leadership styles and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention will be discussed in the light of research literature (section 3.4.4) and relationship between wellbeing and organisational outcome will be discussed in section 3.4.5. Finally, based on the findings from the current literature review and in light of the present research questions, a number of research hypotheses will be presented for the current research.

3.4.1 Defining wellbeing. Employee wellbeing is an important aspect of individual universities as well as the HES as a whole (Stiglbauer et al., 2012; Winefield et al., 2003; Winefield et al., 2014). However, “the question of how wellbeing should be defined (or spelt) still remains unsolved” (Dodge, Daly, Huyton, & Sanders, 2012, p. 222).

Wellbeing has been conceptualised in diverse ways within different disciplines. The earliest perception of wellbeing was linked to happiness which originates from Aristotle’s idea of eudemonia (happiness) (Dodge et al., 2012). More recently, Gallagher, Lopez, and Peacher (2009) conceptualised wellbeing in terms of eudemonic, hedonic, and

social wellbeing. Researchers have also examined wellbeing as context-free wellbeing (for example, generalised psychosomatic complaints) (Van Dierendonck et al., 2004) and context-specific wellbeing (for example, job satisfaction) (Grebner, Semmer, & Elfering, 2005). Wellbeing has also been previously defined in terms of subjective wellbeing including pleasant effect/positive wellbeing and unpleasant effect/negative wellbeing and life satisfaction (Dodge et al., 2012; Salanova, Llorens, Cifre, Martinez, & Schaufeli, 2003).

Although the common perception of wellbeing in Australia has been associated with physical wellbeing, the broader concept of wellbeing also encompasses emotional, intellectual, social and spiritual wellbeing (Brunetto et al., 2012; McCarthy et al., 2011). Indeed, a number of previous studies have examined wellbeing at work in terms of affective wellbeing (Skakon et al., 2010; Van Horn, Taris, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2004) which encompasses the enthusiasm-displeasure dimension (for example, burnout), pleasure-displeasure dimension (for example, job satisfaction), and tiredness-vigour dimension (for example, general wellbeing).

Van De Voorde et al., (2012) described employee wellbeing in the workplace as “the overall quality of employee’s experience and function at work” (pp. 393-394). Diener, Lucas, and Oishi (2002) argued that the workplace may be related to wellbeing as a source of “positive social relationship”, “a sense of identity and meaning” and an “optimal level of pleasurable stimulation” (p. 293). Diener et al. (2002) also suggested that leadership is closely associated with employee wellbeing in that leadership is a social process between leader and follower and that leadership style often causes pleasurable stimulation among the followers.

There are a number of studies that have described how leadership can affect employee wellbeing (Aydin et al., 2013; Braun et al. 2013; Kara et al., 2013; McKee et al., 2011; Nielsen & Minir, 2009; Nyberg et al., 2011). Furthermore, a number of previous studies have shown how wellbeing may affect organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisational outcomes (McCarthy et al., 2011; Rodwell & Munroe, 2013; Stiglbauer et al., 2012). These studies will now be reviewed.

3.4.2 Effect of leadership on employee wellbeing. A large number of studies have examined how leadership style affects employee wellbeing in a variety of settings and countries (Kara et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2012; Nielsen & Munir, 2009; Nyberg et al., 2011; Tafvelin et al., 2011; Zineldin & Hytter, 2012). For example, in a 12-month longitudinal study of 2700 social service employees of a Swedish municipality, Tafvelin et al. (2011) found that transformational leadership was positively and significantly related to employee wellbeing. In another longitudinal study of employees within a large Danish local government locality, Nielsen and Munir (2009) found evidence of a positive relationship between employee wellbeing and transformational leadership but did not find a similar result over time. They argued that the reason for such an outcome might be that the effect of transformational leadership on employee wellbeing is simultaneous and current at the time the surveys were undertaken. In another study among academics (n = 48) in a Western European University, Zineldin and Hytter (2012) found that laissez-faire leadership has a negative effect employee wellbeing.

Few studies have examined employee wellbeing in an Australian higher education context (Winefield et al., 2003, Winefield et al., 2014). However, the limited number of studies found that wellbeing was conceptualised in terms of job satisfaction (Winefield et

al., 2003) and psychological strain (Winefield et al., 2014) whereas in many studies including the previous research, job satisfaction was considered an outcome variable (De Cuyper, Van der Heijden, & Witte 2011; McCarthy et al., 2011; Rodwell & Munroe, 2013).

Maslow (1958) identified five categories of human needs. People tend to be satisfied with their jobs that facilitates achievement of those needs. Two of those five needs are environment that facilitates their social need, need for self-esteem. Furthermore, the Goal Setting Theory (Locke, 1968) argued that difficult goals, with feedback can lead to enhanced performance. While wellbeing is employees' experience about the overall quality of work, leadership in fact set the overall goal for employees and influences the work environment. As a result leadership may influence employee's overall experience of work by affecting intrinsic factors such as recognition at work, work environment, carrier progression.

The first research question of the current research project is “*How do different leadership styles within the FRLT affect employee wellbeing in an Australian regional university setting*”? Based on the above research findings on the effect of leadership on employee wellbeing and in line with the first research question, the following hypotheses will be examined during the current research:

- ***Hypothesis 1a:*** Transformational leadership style will positively affect employee wellbeing (at work) within an Australian regional university setting.
- ***Hypothesis 1b:*** Transactional leadership style will positively affect employee wellbeing of an Australian regional university setting.
- ***Hypothesis 1c:*** Laissez-faire leadership style will negatively affect employee wellbeing in an Australian regional university setting.

3.4.3 Defining organisational outcomes. Apart from leadership style positively or negatively affecting employee wellbeing, leadership style has also been shown to influence organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intention (Aydin et al., 2013; Ertureten et al., 2013; Podsakoff et al., 1996; Tse et al., 2013). The effect of leadership on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention in different organisational settings including the HES context has been well documented (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lo et al., 2010; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015; Zineldin & Hytter, 2012). However, there is a lack of clarity on how these variables of interest should be defined and measured.

Despite the large number of studies examining job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention, these variables have been labelled either as organisational outcomes (Appelbaum et al., 2015; Felfe & Schyns, 2004; Muchiri et al., 2012; Odle-Dusseau, Britt, & Bobko, 2011), organisational attitudes (Ertureten et al., 2013), workplace emotions (Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007), work outcomes (Lo et al., 2010), outcome for individuals (Braun et al., 2013), subordinate attitudinal measures (Michel et al., 2011), employee outcomes (Lam & O'Higgins 2012; Podsakoff et al., 1996), employee attitudes (Matthieu & Babial, 2015) or leadership outcomes (Yammarino et al., 2001). For convenience and for consistency with earlier research, the term 'organisational outcomes' has been used in the present research to describe job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. In the following paragraph, these organisational outcomes will be defined.

According to Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs theory, individuals will be satisfied at work if their job, environment and needs are in harmony. Within the workplace, employee job satisfaction means how satisfied a worker is with their work.

From a theoretical point of view, job satisfaction is defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience” (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). Building upon the earlier work of Locke (1976), Hulin and Judge (2003) suggested that there are three different reactions to job satisfaction - affective or emotional, cognitive or evaluative, and behavioural responses. Furthermore, Schnake (1983) identified three dimensions of job satisfaction, that is, extrinsic, intrinsic and social dimension. These dimensions of job satisfaction also cover an individual’s affective and cognitive response to their overall work environment.

Employee job satisfaction is indicative of organisational health. Although few of the definitions of wellbeing include life satisfaction as a dimension of wellbeing, Dodge et al. (2012) argued that considering employee wellbeing as work satisfaction is misleading. In support, Brunetto et al. (2012) claimed that psychological wellbeing differs from job satisfaction because it encapsulates more than an employee’s satisfaction with their job and includes satisfaction with both tangible and intangible work context aspects. Hence, for the present research, job satisfaction will be examined as a separate construct to employee wellbeing.

Employee organisational commitment is the staff member’s commitment towards their organisation. Buchanan (1974) reasoned that an employee’s organisational commitment is the obligation felt by the employee to relate to the purpose and norms of the organisation. Similarly, Allen and Meyer (1996) defined organisational commitment as “a psychological link between employees and their employers that influences whether they will remain or leave the organisation” (p. 252). While, Sagie (1998) suggested that organisational commitment is the employee’s effort to stay in the organisation and accept

the goals and value of the organisation, Luthans (2005) argued that organisational commitment is an employee's loyalty to their organisation.

Allen and Meyer (1990) described a three-part model (TCM) of organisational commitment – affective, normative and continuance commitment. First, affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to the organisation and the employee's willingness to stay within that organisation. Employees with a high level of affective commitment enjoy their relationship with the organisation and are more likely to stay in the organisation. Second, normative commitment refers to employee's degree of obligation to the organisation which justifies their staying in the organisation. Finally, continuance commitment relates to an employee's cost rationalisation for staying in the job. In other words, an employee may feel leaving the job might be costly and lead to long term unemployment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Chih & Lin, 2009). There exists strong research evidence that leadership affects employee organisational commitment (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008; Muchiri et al., 2012) that will be discussed in section 2.5.4.2 (pp. 87-88) of this review.

The final organisational outcome being examined in the present thesis is turnover intention which has been defined as a conscious and deliberate impulse to leave the organisation (Tett & Meyer, 1993). In some literature turnover intention is discussed as 'intention to leave' while in some studies it is described as 'intention to stay' (AbuAlrub & Alghamdi, 2012). Employee turnover intention is often reflected as the actual staff turnover rate which is clearly an organisational outcome. Indeed, Yammarino et al. (2001, p. 159) argued that "when turnover is related to dissatisfaction with the company, strong leadership can reduce the amount".

In summary, a review of literature suggests that employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention are associated with both the leadership climate of the organisation and employee wellbeing.

3.4.4 Effect of leadership on organisational outcomes. Leadership influences organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intention; these variables have also been shown to be related to each other (Aydin et al., 2013; Ertureten et al., 2013; Jabeen et al., 2015; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015; Podsakoff et al., 1996; Saleem, 2015; Tse et al., 2013). The second research question of the present research is “*How do different leadership styles within an Australian HES setting affect the organisational outcomes of job satisfaction, employee organisational commitment and turnover intention*”? Based on the following review of the literature, a number of hypotheses related to this research question will be proposed in the following sections. The effects of leadership style on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention will also be addressed below.

3.4.4.1 Effect of leadership on job satisfaction. There have been a number of studies in diverse organisational settings that demonstrate how different leadership styles within the FRLT affect organisational outcomes. For example, in an earlier study, among 1539 employees and 1200 managers of a diverse range of industries including automotive vehicles and parts, banks, computer services, financial services, electronics, food industries and pharmaceutical industries in the USA, Podsakoff et al. (1996) found that transformational leadership was positively related to employee satisfaction. Limsila and Ogunlana (2007) also found a significant positive relation between transformational

leadership and job satisfaction in a study conducted among 100 male and female employees of the Thai construction industry.

Within an educational setting, Aydin et al. (2013) carried out an investigation of the effect of the leadership styles of Turkish school principals on both employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. They found that transformational leadership behaviour of the school principals positively affected teachers' job satisfaction. In a research among 360 employees of a large German research university Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey (2013) found that followers' perceptions of their supervisors' transformational leadership style are positively related to followers' job satisfaction by increasing trust among the followers.

An aspect of transformational leadership is the emotional attachment of leaders with their followers with a view to achieve organisational goals. It is argued that employees under a transformational leader experience an enhanced level of positive emotion throughout the day compared to those employees whose supervisors are not transformational leaders (Bono et al., 2007; Mathieu et al., 2016).

There is no conclusive finding about the effect of transactional leadership on employee satisfaction. For example, Limsila and Ogunlana (2007) in their study on the effect of leadership on employee satisfaction did not find conclusive evidence in support, although they proposed a positive relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction. Indeed, AbuArub and Alghamdi (2012) in a study among nurses in Saudi Arabia found a non-significant but negative relationship between transactional leadership style and job satisfaction. However, Aydin et al. (2013) in their study of Turkish school principals found a significant positive relation between transactional leadership behaviour of the school principals and teachers' job satisfaction. Aydin et al. (2013) also found a

negative relation between laissez-faire leadership and job satisfaction. Limsila and Ogunlana (2007) in their study also found a significantly negative impact of laissez-faire leadership on employee job satisfaction. Furthermore, in a study among 1971 employees of (Profit organisation 1258 and 713 from Non-Profit organisation) Rowold, Borgmann, and Bormann (2014) also found that laissez-faire leadership is significantly negatively associated with employee job satisfaction.

Although there have been some empirical peer-reviewed studies (Braun et al., 2013; Sani & Maharani, 2012; Tafvelin et al., 2011) and dissertations (Abuorabl, 2012) that have examined the relationship between leadership and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, there is no known research in the Australian regional higher education context that examined the effect of different leadership styles of immediate supervisors and the implications for employee job satisfaction. Thus, based on the above research findings, the following hypotheses have been developed for the current research:

- ***Hypothesis 2a:*** Transformational leadership style will positively affect employee job satisfaction within an Australian regional university setting.
- ***Hypothesis 2b:*** Transactional leadership style will positively affect employee job satisfaction of an Australian regional university setting.
- ***Hypothesis 2c:*** Laissez-faire leadership style will negatively affect employee job satisfaction at an Australian regional university setting.

3.4.4.2 Effect of leadership on organisational commitment. A number of previous studies have shown that leadership style affects employee organisational commitment (Appelbaum et al., 2015; Aydin et al., 2013; Ertureten et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2012; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008). For example, Aydin et al. (2013) in their study of leadership style of Turkish school principals and its effect on employee satisfaction and organisational commitment found that leadership affects organisational commitment.

They found that transformational leadership behaviour of the school principals was positively and significantly related to the teachers' organisational commitment. In another 24-week longitudinal study conducted among 456 employees of various industries (that is, banking, tourism, communication, transportation, legal service and real estate) in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), Jabeen et al. (2015) found that transactional leadership positively affects employee organisational commitment. Limsila and Ogunlana (2007) who investigated the effect of leadership styles on subordinate commitment among 104 employees of the construction industry in Thailand concluded that transformational leadership has a positive and stronger association with organisational commitment than transactional leadership. Through correlational analysis, the same investigators found that while transformational leadership had both a significant and positive relationship with organisational commitment, transactional and laissez-faire leadership had an insignificant relationship with organisational commitment. However, Rowold et al. (2014) in a study among 1971 employees of Profit organisation (N=1258) and Non-Profit (N=713) organisation found that laissez-faire leadership is negatively associated with employee affective organisational commitment.

In view of the above review of the research literature, the following hypotheses are proposed for the current thesis:

- ***Hypothesis 3a:*** Transformational leadership style will positively affect employee organisational commitment within an Australian regional university setting.
- ***Hypothesis 3b:*** Transactional leadership style will positively affect employee organisational commitment within an Australian regional university setting.
- ***Hypothesis 3c:*** Laissez-fare leadership style will negatively affect employee organisational commitment at an Australian regional university setting.

3.4.4.3 Effect of leadership on turnover intention. There is also research evidence to suggest that leadership styles affect employee job turnover intention (Ertureten et al., 2013; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015; Tse et al., 2013). For example, Mathieu and Babiak (2015) recently examined the effect of leadership style on employee job satisfaction, turnover intention, amotivation (low job motivation), and job neglect among 74 supervisors and 423 employees of private and public sector organisations in Canada. The researchers found that laissez-faire leadership is positively and significantly related to employee turnover intention while transformational leadership was negatively and significantly related to turnover intention. Transactional leadership exhibited a non-significant and negative relationship with employee turnover intention. In another study among employees of a call centre within a large telecommunication company in China, Tse et al. (2013) observed that transformational leadership negatively influenced turnover intention by triggering organisation-based and supervisor-based social exchange. Furthermore, Wells & Peachey (2011) in a study among 208 participants from the American National Collegiate Athletic Association found that both transformational and transactional leadership had significant negative effect on employee turnover intention.

To date there is no known research in the Australian regional higher education context that has examined the effect of different leadership styles on employee turnover intention. Based on the above review of the research, the following hypotheses have been proposed for the current thesis:

- **Hypothesis 4a:** *Transformational leadership style will negatively affect employee turnover intention within an Australian regional university setting.*
- **Hypothesis 4b:** *Transactional leadership style will negatively affect employee turnover intention within an Australian regional university setting.*

- **Hypothesis 4c:** *Laissez-faire leadership style will positively affect employee turnover intention at an Australian regional university setting.*

3.4.5 Relationship between wellbeing and organisational outcomes. Despite a lack of consensus on how employee wellbeing affects organisational performance (Van De Voorde et al., 2012), there is strong research evidence to suggest that employee wellbeing affects organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention (Brunetto et al., 2012; McCarthy et al., 2011; Rodwell & Munroe, 2013; Van De Voorde et al., 2012). For example, Brunetto et al. (2012) conducted a study among 193 Australian police officers over a four-month period and found a statistically significant and positive relationship between employee wellbeing and job satisfaction, employee wellbeing and affective commitment, as well as a significant negative relationship between employee wellbeing and turnover intention. Another study on 273 nurses in Australia found that wellbeing was significantly correlated with job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Rodwell & Munroe, 2013).

No research to date has examined the relationship between employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes within the HES, in particular within an Australian regional university setting. Moreover, there is no known research in the HES or other setting that has examined the mediating effect of wellbeing on the relationship between different leadership styles and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. The third research question of the current thesis is “*Within an Australian regional university setting, does employee wellbeing mediate the effect of different leadership styles on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, employee organisational commitment and turnover intention*”. Based on the above review of the literature, the following hypotheses are proposed for the current research project:

- **Hypothesis 5a:** *Employee wellbeing will mediate the effect of transformational leadership on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention in an Australian regional university setting.*
- **Hypothesis 5b:** *Employee wellbeing will mediate the effect of transactional leadership on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention in an Australian regional university setting.*
- **Hypothesis 5c:** *Employee wellbeing will mediate the effect of laissez-faire leadership on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention in an Australian regional university setting.*

3.5 Summary

Historically, leadership has been examined through diverse lenses with numerous definitions and theories of leadership having been proposed from diverse disciplines of knowledge. These leadership theories include complexity leadership (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007), authentic leadership (Luthans & Avolio, 2003), spiritual leadership (Fry, 2003), distributed leadership (Gronn, 2000), transforming leadership theory (Burns, 1978), transformational-transactional leadership theory (Bass, 1985), servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1970), and the Full Range of Leadership Theory (FRLT) (Avolio & Bass, 1991). Despite contextual and theoretical differences among these theories, there are commonalities among these theories.

In today's complicated and volatile global environment, the importance of effective leadership is well recognised. In particular, the need for effective leadership has become an issue of strategic importance for the HES due to a number of changes such as the ICT revolution, globalisation, growth of higher education export markets, funding policy uncertainty, and demographic changes in both staffing and student cohorts that have occurred in the HES globally and locally over recent decades. Lately there has been

theoretical dialogue and empirical research on leadership in the HES context including the application of a horizontal dispersed type of leadership in the HES. However, the culture of HES remains vertical and strongly influenced by many factors including achievement of corporate economic and strategic goals. As a result, the leadership culture within the HES is still hierarchical/vertical and influenced by organisational culture.

Despite considerable interest on the role of leadership in the HES across the globe, there is no known research that has examined how different leadership styles within the HES affect both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay, especially within an Australian regional university setting. Although a number of leadership theories have been applied to examine leadership in the HES, the current review of suggests that the leadership literature the organisational complexity of a university, combined with the strengths and weakness of the leadership theories examined, have led to the conclusion that FRLT will enable the concurrent assessment of positive and negative leadership styles to examine the interrelationship of the variables leadership style, staff wellbeing and organisational outcomes in the present thesis. Moreover, there is also strong evidence in favour of the validity of the measurement tool (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5x short) of the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) to discriminate between the leadership styles of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. The next chapter will present the methodology applied to answer the research questions and hypotheses made in this chapter.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODS

4.1 Overview

The previous chapter compared and contrasted different leadership theories and the effect of leadership on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention within corporate, school and HES settings. The aim of the present chapter is to outline the research methods used to examine the effect of different leadership styles on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes and how employee wellbeing might affect the relationship between leadership and organisational outcomes.

4.2 Research Design

This chapter describes the theoretical approach, methodology, methods and analysis choices for the following specific research questions:

- **Research question 1:** *How do different leadership styles within the FRLT affect employee wellbeing in an Australian regional university setting?*
- **Research question 2:** *How do different leadership styles within an Australian HES setting affect the organisational outcomes of job satisfaction, employee organisational commitment and turnover intention?*
- **Research question 3:** *Within an Australian regional university setting, does employee wellbeing mediate the effect of different leadership styles on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, employee organisational commitment and turnover intention?*

4.3 Theoretical Approach

The current project examines the effect of different leadership styles on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes and how employee wellbeing might affect the relationship between leadership and organisational outcomes. The complexities of these

questions require a robust research design in order to elicit both significance and meaning from the findings. Hence, a pragmatic theoretical approach using a mixed methods research methodology (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011) was used to answer the research questions.

A pragmatist approach is commonly linked with mixed methods research where both qualitative and quantitative research methods are used (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011) due to the congruence between epistemological and theoretical understandings and knowledge claims. Indeed, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) consider a pragmatist approach a strong fit for mixed methods research for five reasons. Firstly, both qualitative and quantitative research methods may be applied in a single study. Secondly, more importance should be given to the research question(s) rather than the world view that underpins the quantitative or qualitative research method. Thirdly, the forced-choice dichotomy among the constructivist and post-positivist methods should be avoided. Fourthly, the use of meta-physical concept of reality and truth should be avoided. And finally, an applied and practical research philosophy should lead the methodological choice. Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011, p. 43) argue that this approach has resonance with mixed method methodology as the pragmatist theory “draws on many ideas, including employing ‘what works’, using diverse approaches, and valuing both objective and subjective knowledge”.

4.4 Rationale for the Mixed Methods Approach

Mixed method methodology may be considered a useful approach in understanding the complexities of social phenomenon. While describing the landscape of management from the ontological and epistemological viewpoint, Snowden and Stanbridge (2004) positioned the realm of social complexity as sitting within the bounds

of high tolerances for ambiguity and a high preference for process over rules. Based on this, Davis (2015) argues that “social complexity theories as viable frames with which to view contemporary leadership” (p. 6). Greene and Caracelli (1997) also emphasised that different kinds of methodological approaches are needed to understand the complexities of social phenomenon. They emphasised that combining different types of research methods strengthens a research project.

Researchers use different kinds of methodological approach because of variations in philosophical viewpoints, research disciplines, research contexts and the wide variability in the objectives of the different research projects. While some researchers rely upon quantitative research methods, others apply qualitative research methods and others apply mixed methods. With regards to different standpoints of the quantitative and qualitative approach, Lund (2012) stated “the differences between the two approaches with respect to philosophical basis, scientific fruitfulness, and empirical methods have been extensively debated” (p. 155). Based on the arguments made by researchers mentioned above (that is, Davis, 2015; Greene & Caracelli, 1997; Snowden & Stanbridge, 2004), the current researcher believes that a mixed methodology fits best with the aims of the present research project.

Indeed, Greene (2007) argued that the mixed method research approach chosen for the present thesis “invites us to participate in dialogue about multiple ways of seeing and hearing, multiple ways of making sense of the social world, and multiple standpoints on what is important and to be valued and cherished” (p. 20). More precisely, “mixed method research is the type of research in which a researcher or team or researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques)

for the purpose of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration” (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007, p. 123).

Quantitative data collection and the associated results allow for both the testing of statistical significance and examination of relationships between multiple variables. On the other hand, qualitative analysis allows for the making of meaning which helps researchers to gain additional insight and understanding of relationships between these identified variables (Weine et al., 2005). In further support of the mixed methods approach, Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) earlier argued that combining qualitative and quantitative methods enables one to both utilise the strengths and remove the weaknesses of each method.

Of the best known mixed method theoretical approaches (that is, post-positivist, constructivist, participatory and pragmatist) discussed by Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011), the pragmatist mixed method has been chosen for the present research. This is because, while the post-positivist worldview is often associated with quantitative approaches, constructivist worldview is usually associated with qualitative approaches. Moreover, participatory worldviews are usually influenced by political concern and generally related with qualitative approaches while the pragmatic approach chosen for the current investigation is associated with mixed method research.

The approach applied for the present research is best described as a ‘quantitative dominant’ mixed method design for the purposes of triangulation that seeks “convergence, corroboration, and correspondence of results from the different methods” (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011, p. 62). The ‘quantitative dominant’ mixed methods research relies upon “a post-positivist view of the research process, while concurrently recognizing that

the addition of qualitative data and approaches are likely to benefit most research projects” (Johnson et al., 2007, p. 124).

4.5 Current Project Research Methods

For the present project a scientific literature review process was applied that included the identification of sources, screening, examining eligibility and inclusion of resources for literature review. Resources were searched through database search and other sources and duplicate records were removed. Remaining articles were screened and those not relevant to the project were excluded. Relevant studies were consulted for the earlier literature review.

In order to investigate the effect of different leadership styles on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes and how employee wellbeing might affect the relationship between leadership and organisational outcomes in a regional university within the Australian HES, two separate census-collecting surveys were undertaken in the present project. The extensive surveys were undertaken to elicit multiple perspectives from two stakeholder groups (leaders and followers) in order to add robustness to the mixed methods approach to the research.

The first survey, hereafter named the ‘followers’ survey’, collected quantitative and qualitative data from staff at a regional university within the HES of Australia. The second survey, hereafter named the ‘leaders’ survey’, collected both quantitative and qualitative data from leaders at the same institution. Both surveys collected census data from both academic and professional staff of all campuses of a large regional university. As discussed above, a ‘quantitative dominant’ mixed method research design was adopted as the lens to prepare, collect and analyse the data from both surveys. The

purpose of adoption of such methodological approach was to triangulate the data that seeks validation of results from different methods (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011).

4.6 Data Collection

The research was undertaken following approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee (reference number H14/06-154; Appendix A, pp. 244-246). Two different sets of survey questionnaires were administered with the personal support of both the university Vice-Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor's Advisory Committee that is made up of all senior leadership of the surveyed university. The first survey was administered to the followers defined for the current project as all academics and professional staff (full-time and part-time) of the university who are supervised by another person (Appendix B, pp. 247-256). The second survey was administered to leaders defined for the present project as academics and professional staff who supervise ≥ 3 team members (Appendix C, pp. 257-262). Respondents were informed about the survey and their rights through the information sheet. These information sheets preceded each survey.

Pilot projects for both the surveys were conducted among people from diverse background (for example, academic, professional staff and postgraduate students) prior to the actual surveys being released. Respondents of the pilot surveys were asked to provide their feedback including clarity of the questions, time taken to complete the survey, and any difficulties faced while answering the survey questions.

To ensure the privacy and confidentiality of respondents, surveys were conducted online through the university's Information and Technology Division (ITD) using *Survey Monkey* software. No IP address or information was stored that could reveal the identity of any respondent. Invitations to complete the surveys included plain language statements explaining the purpose of the project, the respondent's freedom to withdraw at any point

or not to participate in the survey, and where and who to contact if they had any concerns about the survey (see pages 247-248 and 257-258).

Each question in the surveys were chosen for their relevance to the research questions being examined in the study and where possible based on prior validated research. Based on the review of literature (for example, leadership styles, employee wellbeing, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention) and availability of valid and established measurement tools to quantify the variables of interest in the present project, two sets of survey questions were developed. In order to undertake a qualitative analysis of responses, each of the two surveys also included a number of open-ended questions with a view to obtain further insight to the quantitative data obtained. See sections 4.6.1 and 4.6.2 below for details.

The Vice Chancellor of the university, the Director of the People and Culture Division, and the local branch of the National Tertiary Education Industry Union (NTEU) encouraged all employees of the university to participate in each survey through employee emails, directorate and school meetings, and employee newsletters. In addition, provision for lucky prize draw was also used to increase the response rate. The follower survey was undertaken first, followed by the leader survey which was conducted eight weeks after the follower survey. Some delay in release of the surveys occurred due to the closure of the university as a result of a severe weather event. Following the initial release of each survey, two follow-up reminders were sent to all those invited to participate in the research in order to increase the response rate.

4.6.1 Followers' survey. The followers' survey (Appendix B, pp. 247-256) was designed to obtain the opinion of staff about the leadership style of their leaders, the followers' opinion on their personal wellbeing and organisational outcomes such as their

job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. For ethical reasons, only group feedback was considered when analysing the leadership style from the followers' perspective.

Invitations to participate in the follower survey were sent by the Vice-Chancellor to all employees ($n = 2050$) of the university (R. Tennent, personal communication, January 30, 2015). This included all fulltime and part-time academic and professional staff. As the research design involves census data collection from both academics and professional staff of all campuses of the university, few of the respondents who are potential leaders (that is, who supervise ≥ 3 members of a work-unit) may also be among the followers as another person might also supervise them.

4.6.1.1 Demographics. The first section of the follower survey contained demographic questions regarding age, gender, employment status, job status, length of tenure at the university, tenure within the work unit, and tenure under the current leader. As shown in Table 4.1 (over the page), the subsequent set of questions related to the independent variables, mediator variable, confirmatory questions and open-ended questions used.

4.6.1.2 Leadership questionnaire. The independent variables used in the follower survey were sourced from 36 items from the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* (MLQ 5x short) (Avolio & Bass, 2004). This valid and reliable nine-factor instrument has been widely used to concurrently assess different leadership styles (that is, transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership). Transformational leadership consists of idealised influence (attributed), idealised influence (behaviour), intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and individual consideration.

Table 4.1

Survey items of the followers' survey

Type of questionnaire	Main factor	First order	Theorised dimensions	Number of items	Item reverse coded
Demographics	Gender, age, work status (FT/PT/casual), job status (academic/professional employee), tenure at the organisation, tenure under current leader			6	NA
Independent variables- Leadership styles	Full Range of Leadership Theory (Multifactor leadership questionnaire 5x short)	Transformational leadership	Idealised influence (attributed)	4	NA
			Idealised influence (behaviour)	4	
			Intellectual stimulation	4	NA
			Inspirational motivation	4	NA
			Individual consideration	4	NA
		Transactional leadership	Contingent reward	4	NA
			Management by expectation (active)	4	NA
			Management by expectation (passive)	4	NA
Laissez-faire leadership	Laissez-faire leadership	4	NA		
Mediator variable- Wellbeing	Employee Wellbeing – General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12)			12	6
Dependent variables- Organisational outcomes	Job satisfaction			5	2
	Organisational commitment			6	3
	Turnover intention			4	2
Confirmatory question- Effect of leadership	In your opinion how does your immediate supervisor’s leadership affect the following: Your wellbeing at work Your overall job satisfaction Your commitment to the organisation Your intention to leave the organisation			4	NA
Open-ended questions					
Leadership characteristics	In your opinion what are the characteristics of an effective leader in a regional university?			1	NA
Meaning of wellbeing	What does wellbeing at the workplace mean to you?			1	NA
Circumstances other than leadership	In your opinion what other work circumstances, other than leadership, affect your wellbeing at work, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and/or turnover intentions?			1	NA
Other comment	Do you wish to add anything else that has emerged for you as you have completed this survey, but not found an opportunity to express?			1	NA

Transactional leadership consists of contingent reward, management by expectation (active), and management by expectation (passive). The last leadership style examined was laissez-faire leadership.

The present project used the MLQ 5x short (Avolio & Bass, 2004) which was developed to enhance the construct validity of the MLQ 5R which had previously been criticised for greater correlations among the transformational scales and contingent reward. A factor analysis based on data (n=7,324) collected from many countries yielded the nine sub-components of MLQ 5x short (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Details of the factors and their sub dimensions are shown in Table 3.1. Based on data collected from a large sample in the United States (n= 27,285), Avolio and Bass (2004) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis and found that, for the nine factor model, the overall fit measures were as follows: Comparative Fit Index was .91; Root-Mean Squared Error of Approximation was .05; Goodness of Fit Index was .92; and Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index was .91. Avolio and Bass (2004) also reported good reliability score for the nine factors of the MLQ 5x short (Avolio & Bass, 2004). According to Avolio and Bass (2004), the reliability coefficient for idealised influence (attributed) were .75; for idealised influence (behaviour) .70; for intellectual stimulation .75, for inspirational motivation .83, for individual consideration .77, for contingent reward .69, for management by expectation (active) .75, for management by expectation (passive) .70, and for laissez-faire leadership .71.

As the current research was conducted within a different context, cross validation of all the sub-factors was carried out which is consistent with the research literature (for example, Mathieu & Babiak, 2015). These results will be discussed in

the next chapter of the thesis. Questions within the MLQ 5x short (Avolio & Bass, 2004) were rated on a five point Likert scale ranging from 0 (zero) to 4 (four) (0= Not at all, 1 = Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Fairly often, and 4 = Frequently, if not always).

The five factors of the transformational leadership were measured with 20 items. As shown in the Table 4.1 (p. 103), transformational leadership consists of four theorised dimensions (that is, idealised influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individual consideration). Each of these dimensions consists of a number of items. For example, “Installs pride in me for being associated with him/her” is one of the eight items for measuring idealised influence (four items for idealised influence [attributed] and four items for idealised influence [behaviour]). An example for intellectual stimulation dimension which consists of four items is “seeks different perspectives when solving problems”. Similarly, inspirational motivation consists of four items and one of those items is “talks optimistically about the future”. Finally, an example of the dimension individualised consideration is “spends time teaching and coaching”.

Avolio and Bass (2004) computed transactional leadership with three factors with four items each for each factor - contingent reward, management by expectation (active) and management by expectation (passive). Thus, transactional leadership was measured with twelve items. An example of a contingent reward item is “makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved”. Similarly, “keeps track of all mistakes” is an example of management by expectation (active) questions. Finally, an example of management by expectation (passive) item is “waits for things to go wrong before taking action”. Laissez-faire leadership was

measured with four items. An example of a laissez-faire item is “avoids making decisions”.

4.6.1.3 Employee wellbeing. Employee wellbeing, the mediator variable for the follower survey, was measured with 12 items from the General Health Questionnaire 12 (GHQ-12) (Goldberg & Williams, 1988). This tool has been cited as being the most effective version widely used in research for measuring affective wellbeing in different organisational and cultural contexts (Kelloway et al., 2012; Lesage, Martens-Resende, Deschamps, & Berjot, 2011; McKee et al., 2011; Sanchez-Lopez & Dresch, 2008; Stiglbauer et al., 2012). For example Sanchez-Lopez and Dresch (2008) conducted a study among a large Spanish population (n=2001) and found that the reliability score, Cronbach alpha, was .76. The individual items of the GHQ-12 (Goldberg & William, 1988) were measured with a four-point Likert scale (0, 1, 2, and 3). However, the scales were described differently for different questions. For one question the scale was, 1 = better than usual, 2= same as usual, 3 = less than usual, and 4 = much less than usual. But for the next seven questions the scale was described as 1 = not at all, 2 = no more than usual, 3 = rather more than usual, and 4 = much more than usual. For the remaining four questions the scale represented 1 = more than usual, 2 = same as usual, 3 = less so than usual, and 4 = much less than usual. In the current research, negatively worded items in the questionnaire were reverse scored to indicate higher score as better employee wellbeing. For example, one such negative item was “have you recently lost much sleep over worry”. The response was reversed prior to data analysis. The dependent variable section of the follower survey contained sets of questionnaires to assess the three organisational outcomes job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. Again, each of these measurement tools are acknowledged as valid and reliable

measurement tools which have been widely used by previous researchers in a range of diverse organisational settings as discussed below.

4.6.1.4 Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured with five items (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998) in five-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 2 = moderately disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = moderately agree, and 5 = strongly agree). Higher scores meant better job satisfaction. Again, negatively written items such as “each day at work seems like it will never end” were reverse coded for ease of subsequent data analysis. In previous research among a diverse sample of respondents, Judge et al. (1998) found the reliability of this scale score was .88.

4.6.1.5 Organisational commitment. Organisational commitment was measured with a research measurement tool developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) who found, amongst 587 nursing students, that the reliability coefficient for affective organisational commitment was .87. Organisational commitment was measured with a six-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = moderately disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = slightly agree, 5 = moderately agree, and 6 = strongly agree) where a higher score meant stronger organisational commitment. An example of the organisational commitment questions is “I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own”. Again, negatively worded questions were reversely scored for subsequent data analysis.

4.6.1.6 Turnover intention. Turnover intention was measured with four items as recommended at Stiglbauer et al. (2012) and measured with a five-point Likert scale (1 = do not agree, 2 = slightly disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, 4 = slightly agree, and 5 = do agree). A higher score meant a stronger level of turnover intention. In a comprehensive online study among German employees, Stiglbauer et al. (2012)

found that the Cronbach alpha of their measurement tool was .89. An example of a turnover intention question is “if at the present moment I was offered an equivalent position at another company, I would take it”. Again, negatively worded questions were reversely scored for data analysis.

4.6.1.7 Confirmatory question. In the confirmatory question section in the follower survey, respondents were asked to rate how much leadership affected their wellbeing, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. Each item was measured on a four-point Likert scale (1 = not at all, 2 = slightly, 3 = moderately, and 4 = strongly) where a higher score meant that leadership strongly affected employee wellbeing and each of the organisational outcomes used in the study.

4.6.1.8 Open ended questions for followers. In order to undertake a qualitative analysis to triangulate the quantitative data obtained from the follower survey, there were four open-ended questions at the end of both the follower and leader surveys (see Appendix B and C). For example, one of the open-ended questions was “in your opinion what are the characteristics of an effective leader in a regional University”. Answers of these open-ended questions were designed to converge, corroborate, and correspond with the findings of the structured questions and give meaning to the findings of the quantitative analysis.

4.6.2 Leaders’ survey. The above followers’ survey was designed to establish the dominant leadership style of the followers’ immediate supervisor/manager, the employee wellbeing, and the employees’ perceptions of organisational outcomes including job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. The leaders’ survey was designed to obtain the self-perception of those in leadership roles and their perception of the same variables.

The leaders' survey (Appendix C, p. 257) was administered to leaders to gather their insights about their own leadership approaches. Leaders were selected on the basis that they supervised three or more work unit members. It was therefore possible that some staff may have been invited as both followers and leaders to complete each of the two surveys. Leaders ranged from the Vice Chancellor to professional staff employees up to Higher Education Worker (HEW) level 6 and academics who have more than three work-unit members/followers reporting to them.

4.6.2.1 Leadership questionnaire. The leader survey was conducted among both academic and professional staff (n= 270) (R. Tennent, personal communication, January 30, 2015). The items for the leaders' survey are presented in Table 4.2 over the page. The first section of the leader survey contained the same demographic questions used in the follower survey. The second section also contained 36 items from the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* (MLQ 5x short) (Avolio & Bass, 2004) to assess the self-perceptions of the leaders about their own leadership style (transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership). For example, while the followers responded to a comment "re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate", for leaders the comment was "I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate".

4.6.2.2 Open ended questions for leaders. Leaders' were also asked to provide their opinion as to how much they felt leadership affects employee wellbeing, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. However, leaders were not asked about their opinion on employee wellbeing and organisational outcome as the present research aimed to examine the effect of leadership style on their employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. The leaders' survey also

Table 4.2
Survey items of the leaders' survey

Type of questionnaire	Main factor	First order	Theorised dimensions	Item numbers	Reverse coded items
Demographics	Gender, age, job status (academic/professional employee), tenure at the university, tenure at the work unit			6	NA
Leadership approaches	Full Range of Leadership Theory (Multifactor leadership questionnaire 5x short)	Transformational leadership	Idealised influence (attributed)	4	NA
			Idealised influence (behaviour)	4	NA
			Intellectual stimulation	4	NA
			Inspirational motivation	4	NA
			Individual consideration	4	NA
		Transactional leadership	Cognitive reward	4	NA
			Management by expectation (active)	4	NA
			Management by expectation (passive)	4	NA
Laissez-faire leadership	Laissez-faire leadership	6	NA		
Confirmatory question- Effects of leadership	In your opinion how does immediate supervisor’s leadership affect their followers: Wellbeing at work Overall job satisfaction Commitment to the organisation Intention to leave the organisation			4	NA
Open-ended question					
Other comment	Do you wish to add anything else that has emerged for you as you have completed this survey, but not found an opportunity to express?			1	NA

had one open-ended question “do you wish to add anything else that has emerged for you as you have completed this survey, but not found an opportunity to express”.

4.7 Data Analysis

The present research applied a mixed methods approach where collection, analysis and interpretation of both quantitative and qualitative data was undertaken. The following section will present the methods of quantitative data analysis undertaken after which the methods used for the qualitative data analysis will be addressed.

4.7.1 Quantitative data analysis. The purpose of the research was to investigate how different leadership styles affect employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention in an Australian regional university setting. As there were a large number of variables measured in order to answer the research questions, and following the precedent set by earlier similar research (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003; Cooksey, 1997), hierarchical multiple regression analysis was chosen as the strategy for the quantitative analysis of the present research. Hierarchical multiple regression allows for the determination of effects of different variables or sets of variables successively. Hierarchical regression was carried out separately for each of the dependent variables job satisfaction, organisational outcomes, and turnover intention. For example, for the first regression analysis, job satisfaction was the dependent variable while leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) and employee wellbeing were the independent variables.

All data were entered into International Business Machines, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM, SPSS; version 22) software and cleaned for analysis. Thereafter, data were transformed into standardised scores for subsequent analysis.

Although all measurement tools used in the surveys were valid and reliable, all data were tested for both validity and reliability. Descriptive statistics for all variables of interest were determined. Correlation analysis using Pearson product-moment correlation was carried out to assess whether the variables of interest were significantly correlated and the strength of the relationships between those same variables. In order to examine whether there were any differences between demographic groups (for example, male versus female), Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) statistical analysis was performed on the demographic variables of interest. For all statistical analyses, an alpha of less than .05 was accepted as statistically significant.

Hierarchical regression analyses were carried out in different steps to determine the effect of the independent (that is, leadership styles) and mediating variable (wellbeing) on the dependent variables (that is, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention). Previous studies have highlighted the importance of controlling contextual demographic factors while analysing the relationship between leadership and work-related outcomes (Berson, Shamir, Avolio, & Popper, 2001; Pawar & Estman, 1997). However, there are mixed findings about the influence of demographic variables on different organisational outcomes (Nandan & Krishna, 2013; Yoleri & Bostanci, 2012; Zacher, Rosing, & Frese, 2011; Zacher, Jimmieson, & Bordia, 2014). For example, there is mixed opinion about the influence of gender on leadership effect (Carless, 1998; Howell & Costley, 2001). Therefore, it was assumed that these demographic characteristics may also influence the relationship between different leadership styles and their effect on both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. Thus in the first step of the regression analysis, demographic data (that is, gender, age, tenure under the current leader, tenure of leadership) was controlled during regression analysis.

In the next step of the regression analysis, leadership styles (that is, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) under the Full Range of Leadership Theory (FRLT) were entered. In the third step, employee wellbeing was entered into the regression to determine whether the variance for employee wellbeing significantly contributed to the understanding of any of the examined organisational outcomes. Hierarchical regression analyses for each of the dependent variables were then carried out separately.

Finally, mediation analysis was carried out to examine how employee wellbeing mediates the relationship between leadership and organisational outcomes. As recommended by Field (2013) the mediation analysis was undertaken using the PROCESS macro developed by Andrew F. Hayes (2013, available from www.processmacro.org). Mediation effects of employee wellbeing on the relationship between each of the leadership styles (that is, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) and each organisational outcome (that is, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention) were carried out separately.

4.7.2 Data analysis of qualitative data. For the qualitative analysis, open-ended questions were analysed through thematic framework analysis using NVivo qualitative data analysis Software (QSR International Pty Ltd. Version 10, 2012, available from <http://www.qsrinternational.com>). Thematic analysis facilitates organising the responses into different themes in terms of parent and child nodes which facilitate sense making about the relationship between the variables of interest. The findings from the thematic framework analysis also facilitate triangulation of results as suggested by Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson (2003). The following steps were followed for the framework analysis:

- The first step for the analysis involved data collection. As previously shown in Table 4.1 and Table 4.2, a number of open-ended questions were included in the surveys for both followers and leaders. The purpose of the open-ended questions was to better understand the relationship among the variables of interest through the lived experience of the respondents. The open-ended responses were entered into the NVivo qualitative data analysis software to assist in coding and further analysis.
- The next step involved data reduction where participants' comments in response to the open-ended questions were reduced into meaningful categories termed 'nodes'. Line by line coding of every response was coded to generate nodes to encapsulate the data. These 'parent nodes' were further sub-categorised into different 'child nodes'. These parent and child nodes enable the key issues to be explored thematically through the open-ended question responses.
- Finally, qualitative data were interpreted to compare and contrast with the findings of quantitative analysis and to further understand the meaning of those quantitative findings.

4.8 Summary

This chapter described the philosophical approach and research design used in the current research project. The chapter described the sample used for the research, the measurement tools used, the data collection procedures, and the data analysis methods for both the quantitative and qualitative analyses. The findings from the data analyses will now be presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will present the results obtained through both the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the survey data. The mixed method approach was applied to answer the following research questions:

- **Research question 1:** *How do different leadership styles within the FRLT affect employee wellbeing in an Australian regional university setting?*
- **Research question 2:** *How do different leadership styles within an Australian HES setting affect the organisational outcomes of job satisfaction, employee organisational commitment and turnover intention?*
- **Research question 3:** *Within an Australian regional university setting, does employee wellbeing mediate the effect of different leadership styles on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, employee organisational commitment and turnover intention?*

The present chapter is divided into five sections. The first presents the descriptive characteristics and results of the correlation analysis between the demographic variables (that is, gender, age, job status, tenure at the organisation, tenure under the current leader, tenure of leadership at the current work-unit), leadership styles (that is, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire), employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes (that is, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention) of both the followers and leaders. The second section presents the outcomes of an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to examine if there are any differences in findings in terms of demographics such as gender, age, job status (academic/ professional staff) and tenure between cohorts. Next, the findings of a hierarchical regression analysis will be presented in order to determine how much variance in the dependent variables (job satisfaction, organisational

commitment and turnover intention) is explained by each of the independent variables (leadership styles) and the mediating variable (wellbeing). The next section presents the findings from the mediation analysis in order to see whether, as proposed in the hypothesis, the mediating variable of employee wellbeing has any significant mediation effect on the effect of leadership styles on the organisational outcomes of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. Finally, the results of the qualitative analysis of the open-ended survey responses will be presented to better understand the effect of leadership on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes.

5.2 Descriptive Characteristics of the Samples

Two separate surveys were conducted among the followers defined as all university academic and professional staff and leaders defined as academics and professional staff who supervise ≥ 3 work-unit members in an Australian regional university. Table 5.1 shows a comparison between overall university population and composition of different cohorts (for example, academic /professional staff, male/female).

Table 5.1

A comparison of the university population and samples of both followers and leaders in the present project

	Age (years)	Gender		Job status	
		Male (%)	Female (%)	Academic (%)	Professional (%)
University overall population (n=2050)*	46	37	63	56	44
Followers' survey sample (n = 280)	46	32	68	52	48
Leaders' survey sample (n =82)	48	38	62	44	56

*Note: University overall population (n=2050); source: R. Tennent, personal communication, January 30, 2015

Responses from 358 followers were obtained. After removing incomplete and unreliable data, 280 responses were analysed for the purposes of the current research. This number represents approximately 14 per cent of the total population of staff within

the university. From the pool of 274 leaders who lead 3 or more staff, 130 leaders participated in the survey. After removing incomplete responses, 82 responses were retained for data analysis. This number represents 30 per cent of the leaders who supervise/lead ≥ 3 team members. The descriptive characteristics for both followers and leaders' survey are described in the following sections.

5.2.1 Descriptive characteristics of the followers. Table 5.2 presents the descriptive statistics of the key demographic variables (that is, gender, age, job status, length of tenure at the institution, and length of tenure under the current leaders), leadership styles (that is, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership), wellbeing and organisational outcomes (that is, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention).

Table 5.2
Descriptive statistics of key demographic variables, leadership styles, wellbeing and organisational outcomes (n=280)

Variables	Mean	SD
Gender (1-2)	1.69	0.47
Age (years)	45.75	10.50
Job status (1-2)	1.47	0.50
Tenure at the organisation (years)	7.27	6.91
Tenure under current supervisor (years)	2.33	2.74
Transformational leadership (0-4)	2.53	0.95
Transactional leadership (0-4)	2.01	0.66
Laissez-faire leadership (0-4)	0.92	0.95
Wellbeing (0-3)	1.85	0.61
Job satisfaction (1-5)	3.92	0.94
Organisational commitment (1-6)	4.06	1.19
Turnover intention (1-5)	2.41	1.21

Note: Gender (1 = Male. 2 = Female); Job status (1 = Academic, 2 = Professional staff)

Followers' ages ranged between 20 years and 72 years; 17.5 per cent of employees worked less than one year under their current supervisor. Maximum tenure at the university was 30 years while maximum tenure under the current supervisor was reported 16 years. Among the followers mean age for academics was 47.35 years

($SD = 10.16$) and mean age for professional staff was 43.97 years ($SD = 10.61$). While mean age for female employees was 45.72 years ($SD = 10.44$) and mean age for male employees was 45.80 years ($SD = 10.70$).

Principle Axis Factor Analysis for all the variables and their sub factors was carried out prior to regression analysis. Each of the items were considered as a single factor. The alpha coefficient for transformational leadership was .96 and for laissez-faire leadership was .80. However, it was found that the alpha coefficient for transactional leadership was not satisfactory and the reliability score was improved by removing items of Management by Expectation (Passive). Hence, transactional leadership was calculated with 8 items instead of 12 items. The overall reliability of transactional leadership remained below satisfactory level ($\alpha = .62$). Skewness and Kurtosis of the score were within the acceptable limit (that is, ± 3).

5.2.2 Descriptive characteristics of the leaders. Table 5.3 shows the descriptive statistics of demographic variables of the leaders including gender, age, job status, and length of tenure of leadership in the current leadership role.

Table 5.3

Descriptive statistics of key demographic variables, leadership styles, wellbeing and organisational outcomes (n=82)

Variables	Mean	SD
Gender (1-2)	1.62	0.49
Age (years)	48.42	8.99
Job status (1-2)	1.56	0.49
Tenure of leadership in the work unit (years)	4.80	5.01
Transformational leadership (0-4)	3.13	0.67
Transactional leadership (0-4)	1.89	0.54
Laissez-faire leadership (0-4)	0.51	0.59

Note: Gender (1 = Male, 2 = Female); Job status (1 = Academic, 2 = Professional staff)

Maximum age of leaders was 64 years while the minimum was 21 years. About 58 per cent of the leaders worked ≤ 3 years and about 16 per cent worked < 1 year in their

current work unit. Mean age for academics (leaders) was 47.44 years ($SD = 10.44$), while mean age for professional staff (leaders) 49.19 years ($SD = 7.44$). Mean age for female leaders was 48.64 years ($SD = 9.52$) and for male leaders mean age was 48.06 years ($SD = 7.82$).

Leadership styles were examined using a five point Likert scale (0-4) with higher score means more of a specific leadership style. Reliability of the scale score for the laissez-faire leadership was not satisfactory and the reliability test showed that the score could not be increased by removing any items. Skewness and Kurtosis were within the acceptable limit (that is, ± 3). An analysis of the response of the leaders showed that mean score for transformational leadership is highest among leaders ($M=3.13$, $SD=.67$), followed by transactional leaders ($M=1.89$, $SD=.54$), and laissez-faire leadership ($M=0.51$, $SD=.59$).

5.3 Correlation Analysis

To examine the relationship between the variables of interest, Pearson product-moment correlations were determined between the demographic variables, independent variables (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership), mediating (wellbeing) and dependent (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention) with the data from the followers' survey. As leaders' survey only examined leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) of the respondents, correlations between the demographic variables and above leadership styles were conducted with the leaders' survey data. As stated in the methods section, the present project examined the followers' wellbeing at work under their leaders and the organisational outcomes from the followers' viewpoint. Thus, the leaders did not have to

respond to questions about employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. Below are the outcomes of the correlational analysis for both cohorts.

5.3.1 Correlation matrix for the followers. Correlations between the demographic variables gender, age, job status, tenure at the institution, length of tenure under the current supervisor/leader, and other variables of interest are shown in Table 5.4 (over the page). Significant correlations were observed between the independent variables (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership), mediating (employee wellbeing) and dependent variables (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention).

Transformational leadership was significantly correlated with job status $r(278) = .13, p < .05$; transactional leadership $r(278) = .62, p < .01$; laissez-faire leadership $r(278) = -.60, p < .01$; wellbeing, $r(278) = .42, p < .01$; job satisfaction $r(278) = .49, p < .05$; organisational commitment $r(278) = .42, p < .01$; and turnover intention $r(278) = -.41, p < .01$. Transactional leadership was correlated significantly with transformational leadership $r(278) = .62, p < .01$; laissez-faire leadership $r(278) = -.43, p < .01$; wellbeing $r(278) = .23, p < .01$; job satisfaction $r(278) = .26, p < .01$; organisational commitment $r(278) = .24, p < .01$; and turnover intention $r(278) = -.20, p < .01$. Laissez-faire leadership was significantly correlated with transformational leadership $r(278) = -.60, p < .01$; transactional leadership $r(278) = -.43, p < .01$; wellbeing $r(278) = -.37, p < .01$; job satisfaction $r(278) = -.38, p < .01$; organisational commitment $r(278) = -.35, p < .01$; and turnover intention $r(278) = .39, p < .01$.

Significant correlations were also observed between demographic variables. For example, significant correlations were observed between gender and job status

Table 5.4

Correlation matrix showing the relationship between demographic variables, independent, mediating and dependent variables for followers (n=280)

Variables	Mean	SD	Gender	Age	Job status	Tenure	Tenure sup	TFR	TS	LF	WB	JS	OC	TI
Gender (1-2)	1.69	0.47	1											
Age (years)	45.75	10.58	-.01	1										
Job status (1-2)	1.47	0.50	.23**	-.16**	1									
Tenure at the organisation	7.27	6.91	-.07	.32**	.04	1								
Tenure under current supervisor (years)	2.33	2.74	.04	.06	-.05	.30**	1							
Transformational leadership (0-4)	2.53	0.95	.10	-.08	.01*	-.06	-.01	1						
Transactional leadership (0-4)	2.01	0.66	-.01	-.09	.04	-.06	.04	.62**	1					
Laissez-faire leadership (0-4)	0.92	0.95	.03	.07	-.08	.06	-.01	-.60**	-.44**	1				
Wellbeing (0-3)	1.85	0.61	.04	.04	.06	-.05	-.08	.42**	.23**	-.37**	1			
Job satisfaction (1-5)	3.92	0.94	.11	.11	.10	.00	.04	.50**	.27**	-.38**	.72**	1		
Organisational Commitment (1-6)	4.06	1.19	-.03	-.02	.07	.07	.06	.42**	.24**	-.35**	.40**	.51**	1	
Turnover intention (1-5)	2.41	1.21	-.03	.01	-.07	-.04	-.06	-.41**	-.20**	.39**	-.59**	-.69**	-.65**	1
Cronbach's alpha	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.96	.62	.80	.91	.89	.84	.87

Note:

**Significance at 0.01 levels (2-tailed); *significance at 0.05 levels (2-tailed).

Gender (1 = male, 2 = female), Job status (1 = academic, 2 = professional staff), SD = Standard deviation, Tenure = Tenure at the institution, Tenure sup = Tenure under current supervisor, TFR = Transformational, TS = Transactional, LF = Laissez-faire, WB = Wellbeing, JS = Job satisfaction, OC = Organisational commitment, TI = Turnover intention.

$r(278) = .23, p < .01$; between age and job status $r(278) = -.16, p < .01$; tenure at the university $r(278) = .32, p < .01$; and tenure at the university and tenure under current supervisor $r(278) = .29, p < .01$.

5.3.2 Correlation matrix for the leaders. Table 5.5 (see over the page) presents the correlation matrix of the relationships between the variables of interest in the leaders' survey. Significant relationships were observed between transformational and transactional leadership $r(80) = .54, p < .01$; and between age and laissez-faire leadership $r(278) = .24, p < .05$.

5.4 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was carried out in order to examine the effect of age, gender, job status, age, tenure at the university, or tenure under the current supervisor on transformational, transactional, laissez-faire leadership, employee wellbeing, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intention. Appendix D (pp. 263-267) and Appendix E (pp. 268-269) show the output tables for all ANOVA analyses undertaken.

5.4.1 ANOVA on followers' survey data. For the followers, a small number of main effects were observed. A significant main effect of age was observed on job satisfaction $F(5, 274) = 2.36, p < .05$ (see Appendix D, Table D1, p. 263). Respondents were divided into six age groups, ≤ 25 , 26-35, 36-45, 46-55, 56-65, ≥ 66 years. It was found that the older respondents reported greater sense of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction level increased up to a maximum level between 36–55 years and thereafter decreases getting to the minimum level at the age ≥ 66 years.

Table 5.5

Correlation matrix showing the relationship between demographic variables, independent variables for leaders (n=82)

Variables	Mean	SD	Gender	Age	Job status	Tenure leader	TFR	TS	LF
Gender (1-2)	1.62	0.49	1						
Age (years)	48.42	8.87	.03	1					
Job status (1-2)	1.56	0.50	.12	.10	1				
Tenure of leadership in the work unit (years)	4.80	5.01	-.10	.03	-.04	1			
Transformational leadership (0-4)	4.10	0.67	.14	.12	.16	-.05	1		
Transactional leadership (0-4)	2.88	0.54	-.18	.02	-.05	-.09	.54**	1	
Laissez-faire leadership (0-4)	1.51	0.59	-.03	.23*	-.20	-.08	.08	.18	1
Cronbach's alpha	-	-	-	-	-	-	.93	.73	.61

Note:

**Significance at 0.01 levels (2-tailed); *significance at 0.05 levels (2-tailed).

Gender (1 =male, 2 = Female), Job status (1 = Academic, 2 = Professional staff), Tenure leader = Leadership tenure in the work unit, TFR = Transformational, TS = Transactional, LF = Laissez-faire

No differences were observed when examining the effect of gender on leadership styles, employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes (see Appendix D, Table D2, p. 264). A significant main effect of job status (academic/ professional staff) was observed on transformational leadership $F(1, 278) = 4.76, p < .05$ (see Appendix D, Table D3, p. 265). According to the feedback of the followers, professional staff leaders are more transformational than academic leaders.

Based on the length of service at the university, respondents were divided into four groups, that is, ≤ 1 year, 2-10 years, 11-20 years and 21-30 years. ANOVA revealed a significant difference in wellbeing in relation to tenure at the university $F(3, 276) = 4.39, p < .01$ (see Appendix D, Table D4, p. 266). Employee wellbeing remains highest in the initial year at the university (≤ 1 year) thereafter it declines to be the lowest between 2-10 years of tenure after which employee wellbeing increases to be level with the initial year at the 21-30 years of tenure. ANOVA revealed no significant difference in leadership style, wellbeing and organisational outcomes in relation to tenure under the current supervisor at the university $F(3, 276) = 4.39, p < .01$ (see Appendix D, Table D5, p. 267).

5.4.2 ANOVA on leaders' survey data. A significant effect of age on leadership style was observed $F(4, 77) = 7.68, p < .01$ (see Appendix E, Table E1, p. 268). No significant effect of gender on leadership style among the leaders was observed (see Appendix E, Table E2, p. 268). No significant differences were observed between academic and professional staff leaders' responses with regards to different leadership styles (see Appendix E, Table E3, p. 268). Similar to the followers' survey, tenure of leadership in the work unit was divided into four groups, ≤ 1 year, 2-10 years, 11-20 years

and ≥ 21 years. ANOVA revealed no effect of length of tenure in leadership on leadership style (see Appendix E, Table E4, p. 269).

5.5 Regression Analysis

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was undertaken to determine the strength of the relationship between the dependent variables of interest (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention) and a series of independent variables including leadership styles and employee wellbeing. The regression was conducted on data obtained from the followers' survey only ($n=280$).

5.5.1 Regression analysis for job satisfaction. Hierarchical multiple regression was carried out to investigate how different types of leadership (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) and employee wellbeing affect employee job satisfaction. The demographic variables of gender, age, job status (academic or professional staff), tenure at the organisation and tenure under the current supervisor were controlled in the regression analysis.

An examination of the normal P-P plot of regression standardised residuals confirmed that the data conformed to the assumptions of linearity, normality and homoscedasticity. The tolerance values were greater than 0.10 and variance inflation factor (VIF) values less than 10. In addition, the condition index value was less than 15. Therefore, collinearity was not an issue in the analysis. The correlations between job satisfaction, demographic variable, independent variables (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) and wellbeing were examined and the results shown in Table 5.4 (see page 121). Significant correlations were observed between the independent variables and ranged between .22 and .62.

In the first step of the hierarchical regression, all demographic variables (gender, age, job status (academic/professional staff), tenure at the university, and tenure under the current supervisor) were entered into the multiple regression. The model was not statistically significant (R^2 Change = .035; $F(5, 274) = 1.96, p = .085$). This model explained only three per cent of the variance of job satisfaction (see Table 5.6).

Table 5.6
Hierarchical regression model of job satisfaction

	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>R</i> ² Change	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Step1	.18	.03	.03			
Gender				.06	.07	1.21
Age				.06	.13*	2.15
Job status (academic/professional staff)				.06	.10	1.73
Tenure at the organisation				.06	-.05	-.79
Tenure under current supervisor				.06	.04	.69
Step2	.53	.29	.25***			
Gender				.05	.04	.87
Age				.05	.16	2.95**
Job status (academic/professional staff)				.05	.05	.91
Tenure at CQUniversity				.05	-.02	-.47
Tenure under current supervisor				.05	.03	.68
Transformational leadership				.07	.45	5.99***
Transactional leadership				.06	-.07	-1.06
Laissez-faire leadership				.06	-.14	-2.27*
Step 3	.76	.59	.29***			
Gender				.04	.04	1.10
Age				.04	.10	2.45*
Job status (academic/professional staff)				.04	.04	.98
Tenure at CQUniversity				.04	-.01	-.24
Tenure under current supervisor				.04	.08	1.95
Transformational leadership				.06	.23	3.34***
Transactional leadership				.05	-.02	-.57
Laissez-faire leadership				.05	-.02	-.55
Wellbeing				.04	.61	14.03***

Note: Statistical significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

In the next step of the regression analysis, all independent variables (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) were entered into the regression. After controlling for the demographic variables, the subsequent model significantly explaining an additional 25 per cent of the variance in job satisfaction (R^2 Change = .25; $F(8, 271) = 13.89, p < .001$). The model shows that these three variables (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) together

statistically predict job satisfaction. However, transformational leadership alone significantly predicts job satisfaction score, $\beta = .45$, $t = 5.99$, $p < .001$, while the Beta value for laissez-faire leadership is $\beta = -.14$, $t = -2.27$, $p < .05$ and Beta value for age is $\beta = .16$, $t = 2.95$, $p < .05$. No significant effect of transactional leadership on job satisfaction was observed.

In the third step of the regression analysis, wellbeing was entered into the regression. This model was significant and the introduction of wellbeing explained an additional four per cent of the variance (total 29 per cent) in job satisfaction (R^2 Change = .299; $F(9, 270) = 43.13$, $p < .001$). Wellbeing, transformational leadership and age significantly predicted job satisfaction (Table 5.6, p. 126). Wellbeing was found to be the greatest predictor of job satisfaction ($\beta = .61$, $p < .001$) while transformational leadership ($\beta = .23$, $p < .001$) and age ($\beta = .10$, $p < .05$) were also predictors of job satisfaction.

5.5.2 Regression analysis for organisational commitment. The next hierarchical regression was conducted to examine the effect of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership style and wellbeing on employee organisational commitment. Again, the demographic variables (that is, gender, age, job status, tenure at the organisation and tenure under the current supervisor) were controlled for in the regression analysis. The necessary analyses were carried out to ensure the normality, linearity and homoscedasticity necessary of the data. The normal P-P plot of regression standardised residual confirmed that the data conformed to the assumptions of linearity, normality and homoscedasticity. The tolerance values were greater than 0.10 and VIF values were less than 10 and the condition index value was less than 15.

The correlations among the predictor variables were examined and it was found that they are correlated with the results presented in Table 5.4 (p. 121). The Pearson correlations between the predictor variables ranged between $r = -.60$ to $.62$, $p < .01$. The predictor variables and the dependent variable were also correlated $r = -.35$ to $.42$, $p < .01$. During the regression analysis (shown at Table 5.7, over the page), all demographic variables such as gender, age, job status, tenure at the organisation and tenure under the current supervisor were entered into the regression. The model was not statistically significant $R^2 \text{ Change} = .01$, $F(5, 274) = .758$, $p = .581$. This model explained only one per cent of the variance of organisational commitment.

During the regression analysis (shown at Table 5.7, over the page), all demographic variables such as gender, age, job status, tenure at the organisation and tenure under the current supervisor were entered into the regression. The model was not statistically significant $R^2 \text{ Change} = .01$, $F(5, 274) = .758$, $p = .581$. This model explained only one per cent of the variance of organisational commitment.

In the second step of the regression analysis, independent variables (that is, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) were entered and this model was significant ($p < .001$). This model explained an additional 19 per cent of variance in employee organisational commitment after controlling for the demographic variables ($R^2 \text{ Change} = .195$; $F(8, 271) = 8.937$, $p < .001$). As shown at Table 5.7 (p. 129), transformational leadership significantly predicts organisational commitment score, $\beta = .37$, $t = 4.70$, $p < .001$, while the Beta value for laissez-faire leadership is $\beta = -.14$, $t = -2.17$, $p < .05$. No significant effect of transactional leadership was observed.

In the final step of the analysis, wellbeing was entered into the regression. This model was significant. The introduction of wellbeing explained an additional five per cent

variance (that is, total 26 per cent) in organisational commitment (R^2 Change = .053; $F(9, 270) = 10.66, p < .001$). In this regression analysis transformational leadership was the strongest predictor (Table 5.7) of organisational commitment, $\beta = .28$ ($t=3.55, p < .001$) while Beta for wellbeing was $\beta = .26$ ($t=4.42, p < .001$).

Table 5.7
Hierarchical regression model of organisational commitment

	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>R</i> ² Change	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Step1	.117	.014	.014			
Gender (Male / Female)				.06	-.04	-.71
Age				.06	-.03	-.52
Job status				.06	.06	1.09
Tenure at CQUniversity				.06	.06	.92
Tenure under current supervisor				.06	.04	.72
Step2	.457	.209	.195***			
Gender				.05	-.06	-1.15
Age				.05	-.01	-.21
Job status				.05	.01	.30
Tenure at CQUniversity				.06	.08	1.41
Tenure under supervisor				.05	.03	.68
Transformational leadership				.08	.37	4.70***
Transactional leadership				.07	-.05	-.80
Laissez-faire leadership				.06	-.14	-2.17*
Step 3	.512	.262	.053***			
Gender				.05	-.06	-1.21
Age				.05	-.03	-.65
Job status				.05	.01	.24
Tenure at CQUniversity				.05	.09	1.57
Tenure under supervisor				.05	.05	2.03
Transformational leadership				.08	.28	3.55***
Transactional leadership				.06	-.03	-.57
Laissez-faire leadership				.06	-.09	-1.45
Wellbeing				.05	.26	4.42***

Note: Statistical significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

5.5.3 Regression analysis for turnover intention. The next hierarchical regression was conducted to examine the effect of different types of leadership (that is, transformational transactional and laissez-faire leadership) and wellbeing on employee

turnover intention. Again, the demographic variables (gender, age, job status, tenure at the organisation and tenure under the current supervisor) were controlled for in the regression analysis. Analyses were carried out to ensure the normality, linearity and homoscedasticity of the data. The normal P-P plot of regression standardised residual confirmed that the data conformed to the assumptions of homoscedasticity, normality and linearity. The VIF values were less than 10 and tolerance values were greater than 0.10. As the condition index value is less than 15, collinearity is not a problem. The Pearson correlation among the variables of interest indicated that the predictor variables were correlated (see Table 5.4, p.121). The correlations ranged between $r = -.60$ and $.62$, $p < .01$. The predictor variables and the dependent variable were also correlated, $r = -.59$, $p < .01$ to $r = .39$, $p < .01$.

In the first step of the regression analysis, all demographic variables (gender, age, job status, tenure at the organisation and tenure under the current supervisor) were entered in the multiple regression. The model was statistically insignificant (R^2 Change = .012; $F(5, 274) = .673$, $p = .644$). This model explained only one per cent of the variance of turnover intention (see Table 5.8, over the page).

In the next step of the regression analysis, all independent variables (that is, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) were entered in the regression and the resulting model was significant (R^2 Change = .219 $F(8, 271) = 10.21$, $p < .001$). This model explained an additional 22 per cent of variance in turnover intention after controlling for the demographic variables. The model shows transformational leadership is the strongest predictor of turnover intention, $\beta = -.37$, $t = -4.80$, $p < .001$, while Beta value for laissez-faire leadership is $\beta = 0.22$, $t = 3.30$, $p < .05$ (see Table 5.8, over the page).

Table 5.8
Hierarchical regression model of turnover intention

	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>R</i> ² Change	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Step1	.110	.012	.012			
Gender (Male / Female)				.06	-.02	-.35
Age				.06	.01	.28
Job status (academic/professional staff)				.06	-.07	-1.11
Tenure at the organisation				.06	-.03	-.45
Tenure under current supervisor				.06	-.06	-.97
Step2	.481	.232	.219***			
Gender				.05	-.00	-.04
Age				.05	-.00	-.04
Job status (academic/professional staff)				.05	-.01	-.26
Tenure at CQUniversity				.06	-.05	-.90
Tenure under current supervisor				.05	-.05	-1.02
Transformational leadership				.07	-.37	-4.79***
Transactional leadership				.06	.12	1.86
Laissez-faire leadership				.06	.22	3.29**
Step 3	.647	.419	.189***			
Gender				.04	-.00	-.01
Age				.05	.04	.87
Job status (academic/professional staff)				.04	-.00	-.16
Tenure at the organisation				.05	-.06	-1.28
Tenure under current supervisor				.04	-.09	-1.87
Transformational leadership				.07	-.20	-2.89**
Transactional leadership				.06	.09	1.60
Laissez-faire leadership				.06	.12	2.13*
Wellbeing				.05	-.48	-9.32***

Note: Statistical significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

In the third step of the regression analysis, wellbeing was entered into the regression. This model was significant and explained reduced the variance to additional 19 per cent variance (total 42 per cent) in turnover intention (R^2 Change = .19; $F(9, 270) = 21.60$, $p < .001$).

Table 5.8 shows that in this regression analysis, wellbeing is the strongest predictor of turnover intention. Beta for transformational leadership is $\beta = -.20$ ($t = -2.89$, $p < .01$, Beta for wellbeing was $\beta = -.48$ ($t = -9.32$, $p < .001$), while Beta for laissez-faire leadership was $\beta = .12$ ($t = 2.13$, $p < .05$).

5.5.4 Regression analysis for wellbeing. Another regression analysis was carried out to assess the relationship between the predictor variables (transformational,

transactional and laissez-faire leadership) and the mediating variable (employee wellbeing). The Pearson correlation among the variables of interest indicated that the predictor variables were correlated (see Table 5.4, p.121). The correlations between predictor variables ranged between $r = -.43$ and $.62$, $p < .01$. The predictor variables and the mediating variable were also correlated $r = -.37 - .42$, $p < .01$.

In the first step of the regression analysis, all demographic variables (gender, age, job status, tenure at the organisation and tenure under the current supervisor) were entered in the multiple regression. The model was statistically insignificant and explained only one per cent of the variance of employee wellbeing (see Table 5.9).

Table 5.9
Hierarchical regression model of wellbeing

	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>R</i> ² Change	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Step1	.123	.015	.015			
Gender (Male / Female)				.06	.02	.33
Age				.06	.07	1.13
Job status (academic/professional staff)				.06	.06	1.06
Tenure at the organisation				.06	-.05	-.75
Tenure under current supervisor				.06	-.06	-1.00
Step2	.467	.218	.203***			
Gender				.05	.00	.05
Age				.05	.09	1.64
Job status (academic/professional staff)				.05	.01	.25
Tenure at the organisation				.06	-.02	-.44
Tenure under current supervisor				.05	-.07	-1.24
Transformational leadership				.07	.35	4.44***
Transactional leadership				.06	-.06	-.94
Laissez-faire leadership				.06	-.19	-2.85**

Note: Statistical significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

In the next step of the regression analysis, all independent variables (that is, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) were entered into the regression. The resulting model was significant ($p < .001$) and the model explained an additional 19 per cent of variance in turnover intention after controlling for the demographic variables (R^2 Change = .203; $F(8, 271) = 9.468$, $p < .001$). The model

shows transformational leadership is the strongest predictor of turnover intention, $\beta = .35$, $t = 4.44$, $p < .001$, while Beta value for laissez-faire leadership is $\beta = -.19$, $t = -2.85$, $p < .05$ (see Table 5.9, p. 132).

In summary, the regression analysis strongly suggests that transformational leadership is a predictor of employee wellbeing ($p < .001$), job satisfaction ($p < .001$), organisational commitment ($p < .001$) and turnover intention ($p < .01$). However, there is a negative correlation between transformational leadership and turnover intention. Laissez-faire leadership was found to be a predictor of both employee wellbeing ($p < .01$) and turnover intention ($p < .05$) only. However, laissez-faire leadership had a negative correlation with employee wellbeing and a positive correlation with turnover intention.

5.6 Mediation Analysis

The statistical tool used to test the mediation effect was PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2013) and the analysis was carried in the following four steps as recommended in Field (2013) and Hayes (2013):

- Step 1: The relationship between the predictor variable (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) and mediating variable (wellbeing) is explained. As in every model, the result for relationships between the different leadership styles and wellbeing would be the same, therefore this relationship will only be explained once. For example, while describing the mediating effect of wellbeing on relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention, the relationship between transformational leadership and wellbeing will be described once. The same procedure will be followed while describing the relationship between transactional and laissez-faire leadership. In the

resulting model shown in the following figures, path 'a' denotes the relationship between the leadership style and wellbeing and path 'b' denotes the relationship between wellbeing and the dependent variables.

- Step 2: The direct effect between the predictor (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) and outcome variables (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention) was assessed when the mediating variable of wellbeing was present in the model. The path is shown in the following path models as path 'c'.
- Step 3: The total effect when the mediating variable was not present in the model was examined. The path is shown as path 'c' in the resulting model.
- Step 4: The indirect effect between the predictor and outcome variable was also evaluated.

These steps are followed below when assessing the mediating effect of wellbeing on the relationship between each leadership style and each of the organisational outcomes. As recommended by previous researchers, all data were converted to z scores to increase the reliability of the data set (Field, 2013). The 95 per cent confidence interval contains the true value of a parameter in 95 per cent of the sample. Therefore, we may assume that our samples are true value and they can be used to deduce the population value of an effect.

5.6.1 Effect of wellbeing on relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. This mediation test examined the mediation effect of wellbeing between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The first analysis examined the relationship between transformational leadership and wellbeing (Path 'a',

Figure 5.1). The output of the regression analysis carried out by the PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2013) indicated that transformational leadership significantly predicted wellbeing ($b = 0.42, t = 7.81, p < .001$). The R^2 value showed that transformational leadership explained 18 per cent of variance in wellbeing. A positive b value indicated that as transformational leadership increases, wellbeing would also increase.

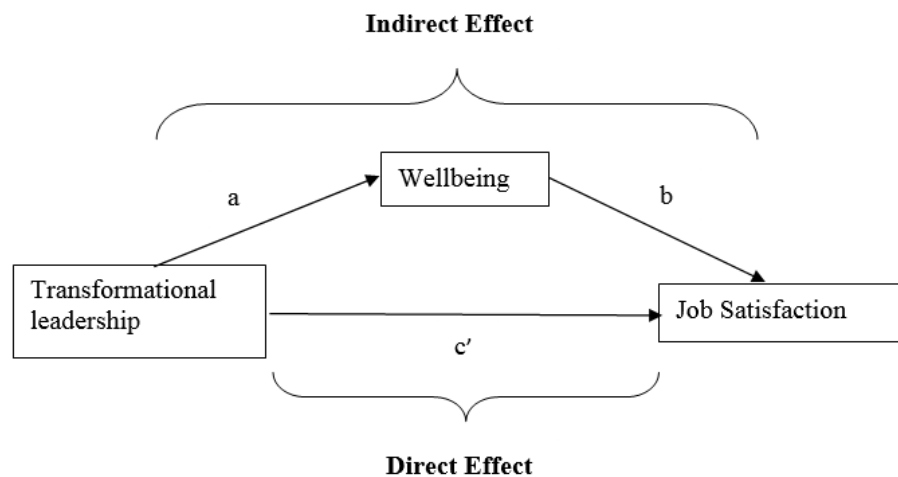


Figure 5.1: Mediated relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction.

The next mediation analysis showed how job satisfaction was predicted by transformational leadership when wellbeing was present in the model (that is, the direct effect model, path c'). The direct effect model showed that transformational leadership significantly predicted job satisfaction ($b = 0.23, t = 5.31, p < .001$). Wellbeing also significantly predicted job satisfaction ($b = 0.63, t = 14.37, p < .001$) (path 'b'). R^2 value indicated that the model explained about 57 per cent of the variance in job satisfaction. A positive b value shows that as wellbeing increases, job satisfaction also increases.

The next analysis described the effect of transformational leadership on job satisfaction when wellbeing was not present in the model (that is, the total effect model, Figure 5.2, over the page, path c). In the model, transformational leadership significantly

predicted job satisfaction ($b = 0.50$, $t = 9.55$, $p < .001$) with the R^2 value suggesting that the model explained only 25 per cent of the variance in job satisfaction. Thus, wellbeing has a mediation effect on the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction.

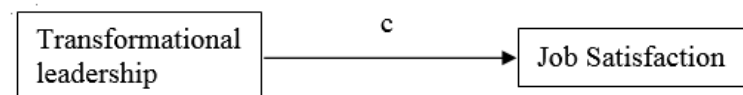


Figure 5.2: Simple relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction (total effect).

The Sobel test result, bootstrap confidence interval value and Kappa-squared value indicated that wellbeing genuinely mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The Sobel test ($z = 6.84$, $p < .001$) and bootstrap confidence intervals ($b = 0.26$, BCaCI [0.169, 0.371]) showed that there was a genuine indirect effect of transformational leadership on job satisfaction. The Preacher and Kelly (2011) Kappa-squared value $k^2 = .289$, 95% BCaCI [0.197, 0.387] also supported these findings.

5.6.2 Effect of wellbeing on relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment. This mediation test examined the mediation effect of wellbeing between transformational leadership and organisational commitment. The first test examined the relationship between transformational leadership and the mediating variable of wellbeing. As already reported in section 5.6.1 above, transformational leadership was significantly correlated with employee wellbeing.

The second mediation test examined the mediation effect of wellbeing on the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment.

Figure 5.3 shows the effect of transformational leadership on organisational commitment when wellbeing was present in the model (that is, direct effect; path c').

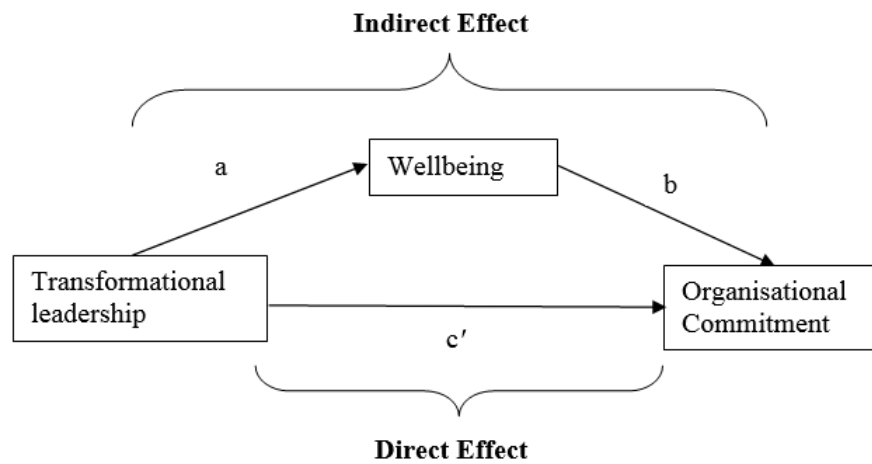


Figure 5.3: Mediated relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment.

The direct effect model (path c') showed that organisational commitment is predicted from both transformational leadership and wellbeing. Transformational leadership significantly predicted organisational commitment when wellbeing was present in the model ($b = 0.31, t = 5.32, p < .001$). The R^2 value indicated that the model explained about 24 per cent of the variance in organisational commitment. Wellbeing also significantly predicted organisational commitment as shown in path b ($b = 0.27, t = 4.60, p < .001$). These relationships are in the predicted positive direction. A positive b value indicates that as both transformational leadership and wellbeing increase, organisational commitment also increases.

Figure 5.4 (path c , over the page) shows the total effect of transformational leadership on organisational commitment when wellbeing was not present in the model. The total effect model showed that transformational leadership significantly predicted organisational commitment ($b = 0.42, t = 7.75, p = .001$). The R^2 value suggested that the model explained approximately 18 per cent of variance in organisational commitment.

This indicates that wellbeing had a mediating effect on the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment.

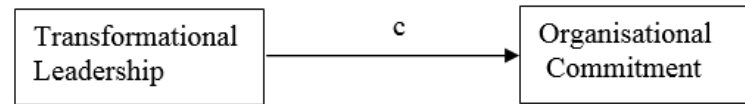


Figure 5.4: Simple relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment (total effect).

The Sobel test result, bootstrap confidence interval value and Kappa-squared value indicated that wellbeing genuinely mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment. The Sobel test ($z = 3.93$, $p < .001$) and bootstrap confidence intervals ($b = 0.113$, BCaCI [0.055, 0.186]) showed that there was a genuine indirect effect of transformational leadership on employee organisational commitment. The Preacher and Kelly (2011) Kappa-squared value $k^2 = .113$, 95% BCaCI [0.057, 0.179] also supported these findings.

5.6.3 Effect of wellbeing on relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention. This mediation analysis examined the mediation effect of wellbeing between transformational leadership and turnover intention. The first output showed the relationship between transformational leadership and wellbeing is same as the result reported earlier in section 5.6.1.

The second output derived from PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2013; www.processmacro.org) indicated the prediction of turnover intention by both transformational leadership (path c' ; Figure 5.5, over the page) and wellbeing (path b ; Figure 5.5, over the page). The results indicated that transformational leadership significantly predicted turnover intention when employee wellbeing was present in the model and that the relationship was negative; $b = -0.22$, $t = -4.23$, $p < .001$. The R^2 value

indicated that the model explained 39 per cent of variance in turnover intention when wellbeing was present in the model. Wellbeing also significantly predicted (path b, Figure 5.5) turnover intention and the relationship was negative. ($b = 0.50$, $t = -9.59$, $p < .001$). The relationships were in the predicted directions, with both transformational leadership and wellbeing displaying negative relationships with turnover intention.

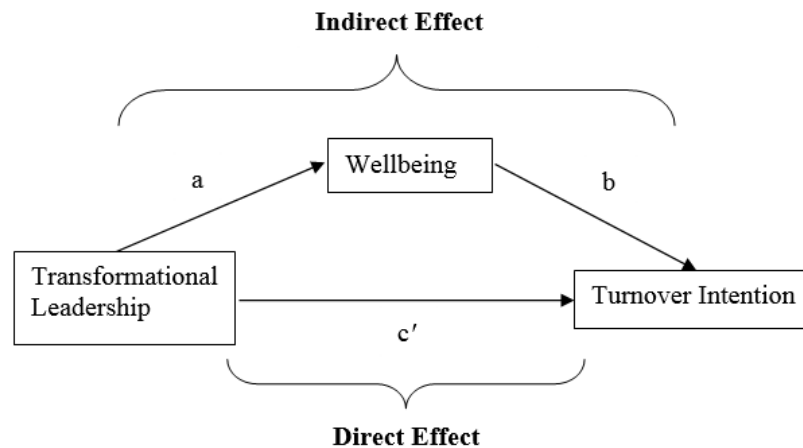


Figure 5.5: Mediated relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention.

The total effect model (that is, when wellbeing was not present in the model) showed that transformational leadership significantly predicted turnover intention (path c; Figure 5.6) and the relationship was negative ($b = -0.43$, $t = -7.95$, $p < .001$). The R^2 value showed that the model explained 18 per cent of variance in turnover intention. Therefore, it may be concluded that wellbeing mediates the relationship between transformational leadership style and turnover intention.

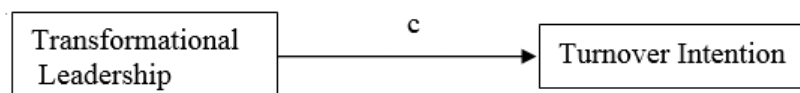


Figure 5.6: Simple relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention (total effect).

The Sobel test result, bootstrap confidence interval value and Kappa-squared value indicated that wellbeing genuinely mediated the relationship between

transformational leadership and turnover intention. The Sobel test ($z = -6.03, p < .001$) and bootstrap confidence intervals ($b = -0.210$, BCaCI [-0.295, -0.137]) showed that there was a genuine indirect effect of transformational leadership on employee turnover intention. The Preacher and Kelly (2011) Kappa-squared value $k^2 = .215$, 95% BCaCI [0.143, 0.286] also supported these findings.

5.6.4 Effect of wellbeing on relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction. This analysis examined the mediating effect of wellbeing between transactional leadership and job satisfaction. The first output through PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2013) indicated that transactional leadership significantly predicted wellbeing ($b = 0.23, t = 3.88, p < .001$). The R^2 value showed that transactional leadership explained only five per cent of variance in wellbeing. A positive b value also indicated that as transactional leadership increases, wellbeing would also increase, and vice versa.

The second output indicates the direct effect model. The model showed that transactional leadership significantly predicted job satisfaction when wellbeing was present in the model (Figure 5.7 over the page, path c') and the relationship was positive ($b = 0.11, t = 2.52, p < .01$). In other words, as transactional leadership increases the job satisfaction would also increase. Wellbeing also significantly predicted (path b , Figure 5.7 over the page) job satisfaction, and the relationship was also positive ($b = 0.70, t = 16.65, p < .001$). The R^2 value indicated that the model explained 54 per cent of variance in job satisfaction when wellbeing was present in the model. Thus, wellbeing mediates the relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction.

The total effect model (path c , Figure 5.8 over the page) showed that transactional leadership significantly predicted job satisfaction when wellbeing was not present in the model and the relationship was positive ($b = 0.26, t = 4.58, p < .001$). The R^2 value

suggested that the model explained only seven per cent of variance in turnover intention. Therefore, wellbeing mediates the relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction.

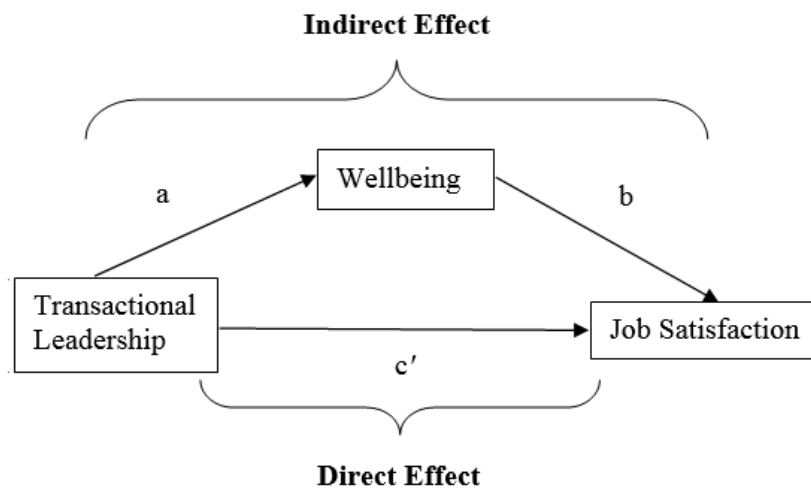


Figure 5.7: Mediated relationship between transactional leadership and Job satisfaction.

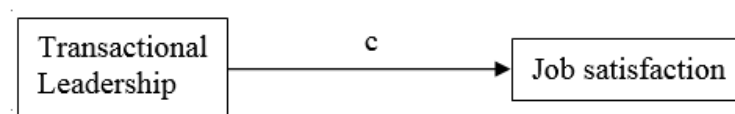


Figure 5.8: Simple relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction (total effect).

The Sobel test result, bootstrap confidence interval value and Kappa-squared value indicated that wellbeing genuinely mediated the relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction. The Sobel test ($z = 3.77, p < .001$) and bootstrap confidence intervals ($b = 0.16$, BCaCI [0.072, 0.251]) showed that there was a genuine indirect effect of transactional leadership on job satisfaction. The Preacher and Kelly (2011) Kappa-squared value $k^2 = .187$, 95% BCaCI [0.088, 0.280] also supported these findings.

5.6.5 Effect of wellbeing on relationship between transactional leadership and organisational commitment. This analysis examined the mediating effect of

wellbeing on the relationship between transactional leadership and organisational commitment. The first output through the PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2013) indicated that transactional leadership significantly predicted wellbeing and that transactional leadership explained only five per cent of variance in wellbeing. A positive b value indicated a positive relationship between transactional leadership and wellbeing.

The direct effect of transactional leadership (path c' , Figure 5.9) showed that transactional leadership significantly predicted organisational commitment when wellbeing was present in the model ($b = 0.15$, $t = 2.83$, $p < .01$).

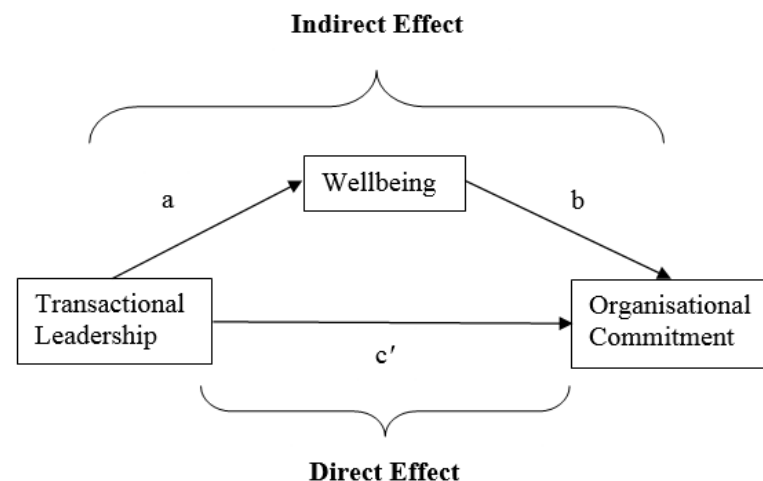


Figure 5.9: Mediated relationship between transactional leadership and organisational commitment.

Wellbeing also significantly predicted (path b , Figure 5.9) organisational commitment ($b = 0.36$, $t = 6.48$, $p < .001$). The R^2 value indicated that the model explained 18 per cent of variance in organisational commitment. The relationship was in the predicted direction with a positive b value showing that as both transactional leadership and wellbeing increases, organisational commitment would also increase.

Figure 5.10 (over the page) represents the effect of transactional leadership on organisational commitment when wellbeing was not present in the model (that is, the total

effect model, path c). The total effect model showed that transactional leadership significantly predicted organisational commitment ($b = 0.24$, $t = 4.12$, $p < .001$) with the R^2 value suggesting that the model explained about six per cent of variance in organisational commitment.

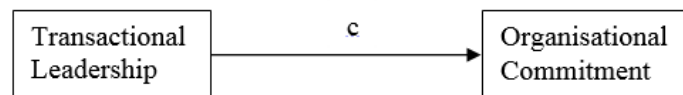


Figure 5.10: Simple relationship between transactional leadership and organisational commitment (total effect).

The Sobel test result, bootstrap confidence interval value and Kappa-squared value indicated that wellbeing genuinely mediated the relationship between transactional leadership and organisational commitment. The Sobel test ($z = 3.03$, $p < .001$) and bootstrap confidence intervals ($b = 0.082$, BCaCI [0.037, 0.147]) showed that there was a genuine indirect effect of transactional leadership on organisational commitment. The Preacher and Kelly (2011) Kappa-squared value $k^2 = .083$, 95% BCaCI [0.037, 0.146] also supported these findings.

5.6.6 Effect of wellbeing on relationship between transactional leadership and turnover intention. This mediation test examined the mediation effect of wellbeing between transactional leadership and turnover intention. The first analysis was about the relationship between transactional leadership and wellbeing which was highlighted earlier in section 5.6.4 showing that as transformational leadership increases wellbeing also increases.

The next regression analysis through PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2013) indicated that transactional leadership did not significantly predict turnover intention when wellbeing was present in the model (path c', Figure 5.11 over the page) and the

relationship was negative ($b = -0.07$, $t = -1.44$, $p = .150$). That is, as transformation leadership increases, the turnover intention decreases. The R^2 value indicated that the model explained 35 per cent of variance in turnover intention when wellbeing was present in the model. However, wellbeing significantly predicted (path b, Figure 5.11) turnover intention and the relationship was also negative ($b = -0.57$, $t = -11.58$, $p < .001$). These relationships were in the predicted direction.

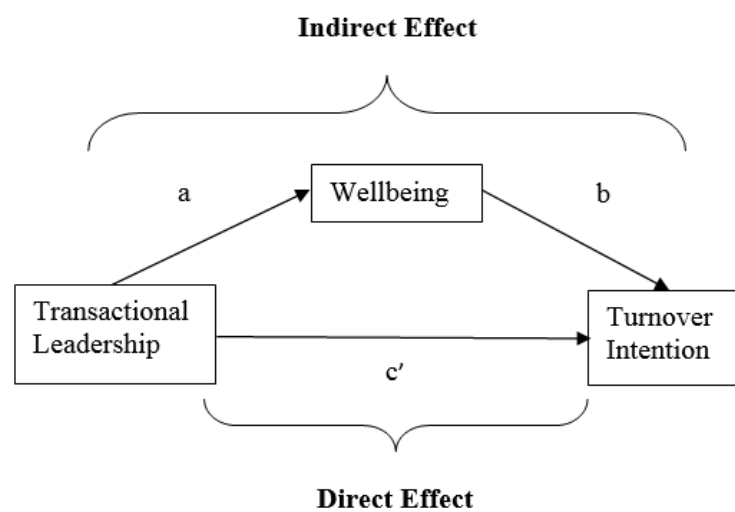


Figure 5.11: Mediated relationship between transactional leadership and turnover intention.

The total effect model showed that when wellbeing was not present in the model, transactional leadership significantly predicted turnover intention (Figure 5.12, path c , over the page) and the relationship was negative ($b = -0.20$, $t = -3.44$, $p < .001$). The R^2 value suggested that the model explained four per cent of variance in turnover intention. Therefore, wellbeing appears to have a mediating effect on the relationship between transaction leadership and turnover intention.

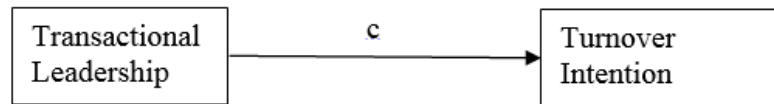


Figure 5.12: Simple relationship between transactional leadership and turnover intention (total effect).

The Sobel test result, bootstrap confidence interval value and Kappa-squared value indicated that wellbeing genuinely mediated the relationship between transactional leadership and turnover intention. The Sobel test ($z = -3.67, p < .001$) and bootstrap confidence intervals ($b = -0.13$, BCaCI $[-0.210, -0.060]$) showed that there was a genuine indirect effect of transactional leadership on turnover intention. The Preacher and Kelly (2011) Kappa-squared value $k^2 = .143$, 95% BCaCI $[0.069, 0.222]$ also supported these findings.

5.6.7 Effect of wellbeing on relationship between laissez-faire leadership and job satisfaction. This mediation analysis examined the mediation effect of wellbeing on the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and job satisfaction. The output of the regression analysis carried out by PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2013) indicated that laissez-faire leadership significantly predicted wellbeing ($b = -0.37, t = -6.70, p < .001$). The R^2 value showed that laissez-faire leadership explained 14 per cent of variance in wellbeing. A negative b value indicated that as laissez-faire leadership increases, wellbeing would decrease, and vice versa.

The direct effect model, (that is, when wellbeing is present in the model) showed that laissez-faire leadership significantly predicted job satisfaction (path c' , Figure 5.13, over the page) ($b = -0.13, t = -2.98, p < .01$). A negative b value showed that as laissez-faire leadership increases, job satisfaction would decrease. The R^2 value indicated that the model explains 53 per cent of variance in job satisfaction. Wellbeing also significantly predicted job satisfaction ($b = 0.68, t = 15.37, p < .001$) (shown as path b).

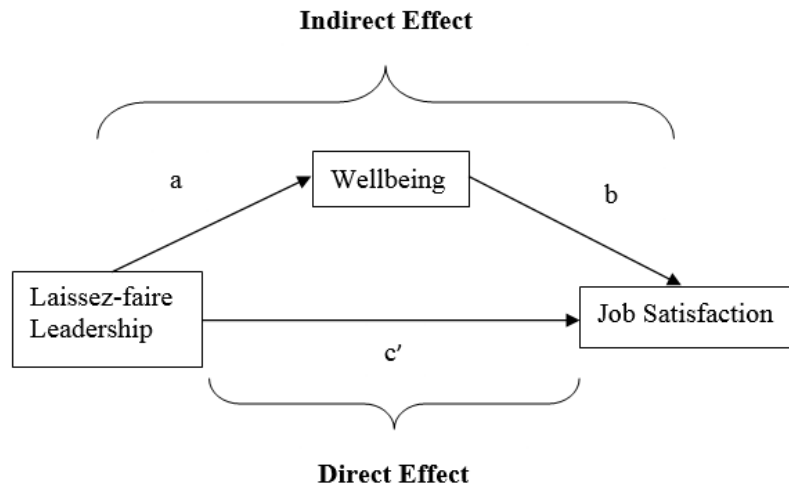


Figure 5.13: Mediated relationship between laissez-faire leadership and job satisfaction.

In the total effect model, (path c, Figure 5.14) laissez-faire leadership significantly predicted job satisfaction ($b = -0.38$, $t = -6.91$, $p < .001$). The R^2 value suggested that the model explained 15 per cent of variance in job satisfaction. Therefore, wellbeing appears to have a mediating effect on the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and job satisfaction.

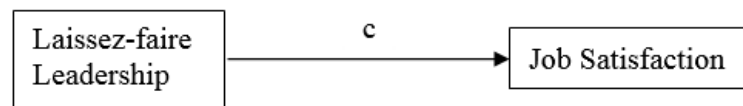


Figure 5.14: Simple relationship between laissez-faire leadership and job satisfaction

The Sobel test result, bootstrap confidence interval value and Kappa-squared value indicated that wellbeing genuinely mediated the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and job satisfaction. The Sobel test ($z = -6.13$, $p < .001$) and bootstrap confidence intervals ($b = -0.25$, BCaCI [-0.341, -0.164]) showed that there was a genuine indirect effect of laissez-faire leadership on job satisfaction. The Preacher and Kelly (2011) Kappa-squared value $k^2 = .277$, 95% BCaCI [0.178, 0.366] also supported these findings.

5.6.8 Effect of wellbeing on relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organisational commitment.

This mediation test examined the mediation effect of wellbeing between laissez-faire leadership and organisational commitment. As mentioned earlier, laissez-faire leadership was shown to have a significant negative relationship with wellbeing (see section 5.6.7). The direct effect (path c' , Figure 5.15, over the page) model showed that laissez faire leadership significantly predicted organisational commitment when wellbeing was present in the model ($b = -0.24$, $t = -4.07$, $p < .001$). A negative b value showed that as laissez-faire increases, organisational commitment would decrease and vice versa.

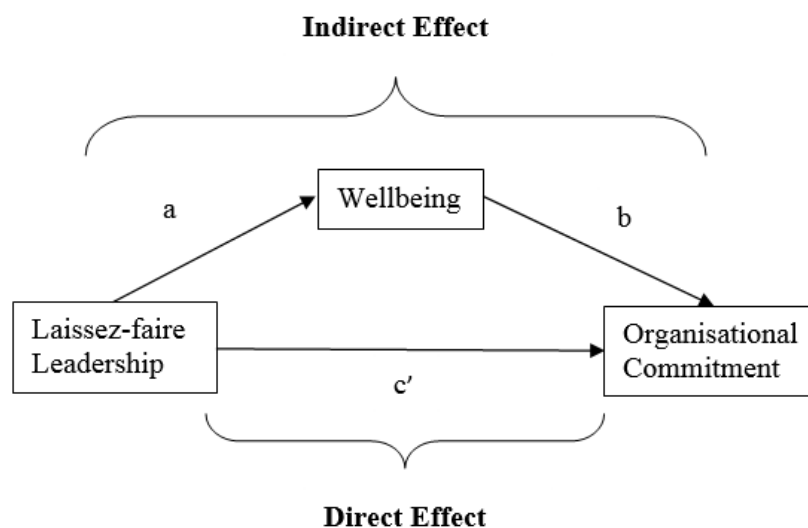


Figure 5.15: Mediated relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organisational commitment.

The R^2 value indicated that the model explained 21 per cent of variance in organisational commitment. Wellbeing also significantly predicted (path b) organisational commitment ($b = 0.31$, $t = 5.37$, $p < .000$). The relationship was also in the predicted direction; with a positive b value suggesting that as wellbeing increases, organisational commitment would also increase, and vice versa.

Figure 5.16 shows the total effect model which represents a simple relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organisational commitment. The total effect model (path c) suggests that laissez-faire leadership significantly predicts organisational commitment when wellbeing is not present in the model ($b = -0.35$, $t = -6.25$, $p < .001$). The R^2 value suggested that the model explained 12 per cent of variance in organisational commitment. Therefore, wellbeing appears to have a mediating effect on the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organisational commitment.

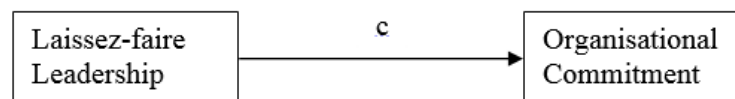


Figure 5.16: Simple relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organisational commitment (total effect).

The Sobel test result, bootstrap confidence interval value and Kappa-squared value indicated that wellbeing genuinely mediated the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organisational commitment. The Sobel test ($z = -4.16$, $p < .001$) and bootstrap confidence intervals ($b = -0.12$, BCaCI [0.184, 0.062]) showed that there was a genuine indirect effect of laissez-faire leadership on organisational commitment. The Preacher and Kelly (2011) Kappa-squared value $k^2 = .115$, 95% BCaCI [0.061, 0.180] also supported these findings.

5.6.9 Effect of wellbeing on relationship between laissez-faire leadership and turnover intention. The final mediation test examined the mediation effect of wellbeing between laissez-faire leadership and turnover intention. The first output through PROCESS Macro indicated that laissez-faire leadership had a significant negative relationship with wellbeing (see section 5.6.7).

The second output indicated that laissez-faire leadership significantly predicted turnover intention when wellbeing was present in the model and that the relationship was positive (direct effect, path c', see Figure 5.17). That is, as laissez-faire leadership increases the turnover intentions would also increase ($b = 0.20$, $t = 3.95$, $p < .001$).

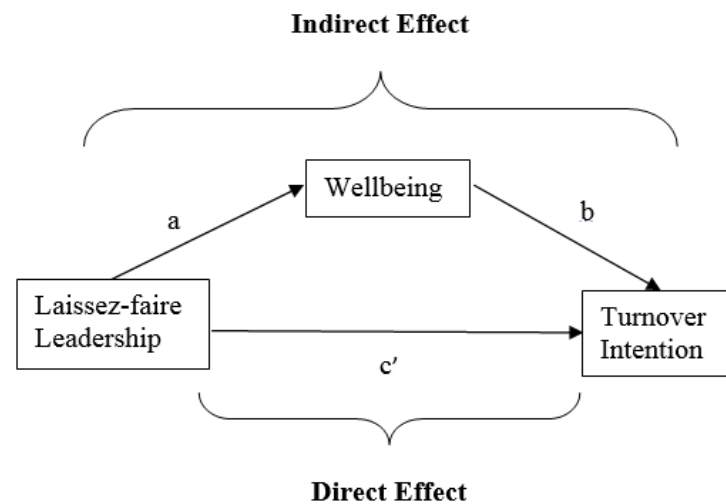


Figure 5.17: Mediated relationship between laissez-faire leadership and turnover intention relationship.

The R^2 value indicated that the model explained 38 per cent of variance in turnover intention when wellbeing was present in the model. Wellbeing also significantly predicted (path b) turnover intention and the relationship was negative ($b = 0.52$, $t = -10.14$, $p < .001$). The relationship was in the predicted direction.

Figure 5.18 (over the page) showed the simple relationship between the predictor and predicted variable (that is, total effect). When wellbeing was not present in the model, laissez-faire leadership significantly predicted turnover intention (path c) ($b = 0.39$, $t = 7.13$, $p < .001$) and the relationship was negative as predicted. The R^2 value suggested that the model explained 15 per cent of variance in turnover intention. Therefore, wellbeing appears to have a mediating effect on the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and turnover intention.

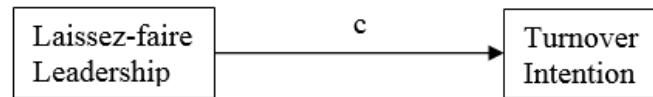


Figure 5.18: Simple relationship between laissez-faire leadership and turnover intention (total effect).

The Sobel test result, bootstrap confidence interval value and Kappa-squared value indicated that wellbeing genuinely mediated the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and turnover intention. The Sobel test ($z = 5.57, p < .001$) and bootstrap confidence intervals ($b = 0.19$, BCaCI [0.127, 0.272]) showed that there was a genuine indirect effect of laissez-faire leadership on turnover intention. The Preacher and Kelly (2011) Kappa-squared value $k^2 = .199$, 95% BCaCI [0.134, 0.275] also supported these findings.

In summary, the mediation effect of wellbeing on the relationship between the different leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) and organisational outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention) was examined applying the statistical tool, PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2013).

The analyses revealed that wellbeing had a number of mediation effects between the predictor and predicted variables. First, the mediation effect of wellbeing on the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction was examined (section 5.6.1). It was found that when wellbeing was present in the model (that is, direct effect), the model explained 57 per cent of variance in job satisfaction. However, when wellbeing was not present in the model (that is, total effect), the model explained only 25 per cent of variance in job satisfaction. Thus, wellbeing had a mediation effect on the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Both the

indirect effect result and the Sobel test also showed that wellbeing mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction.

Second, while examining the mediation effect of wellbeing on the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment (section 5.6.2), it was found that wellbeing had a mediation effect between these variables. When wellbeing was present in the model, transformational leadership explained 24 per cent of variance in organisational commitment. However, when wellbeing was not present in the model, the model explained only 18 per cent of variance in organisational commitment. Both the indirect effect result and the Sobel test showed that wellbeing mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment.

Third, the mediation analyses found that wellbeing mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention (section 5.6.3). When wellbeing was present, the model explained 39 per cent of variance in turnover intention. However, when wellbeing was not present in the model, the model explained only 18 per cent of variance in turnover intention. Again, both the indirect effect and the Sobel test showed that wellbeing had a mediation effect on the relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention.

Fourth, wellbeing had a mediation effect on the relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction (section 5.6.4). When wellbeing was present, the model explained 54 per cent of variance in job satisfaction. However, when wellbeing was not present, the model explained only seven per cent of variance in job satisfaction. Both the indirect effect and Sobel test results showed that wellbeing mediated the relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction.

Fifth, the mediation analyses found that wellbeing had a mediation effect on the relationship between transactional leadership and organisational commitment (section 5.6.5). When wellbeing was present, the model explained 18 per cent of variance in organisational commitment. However, when wellbeing was not present, the model only explained five per cent of variance in organisational commitment. Again, the indirect effect and Sobel test results both showed that wellbeing mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment.

Sixth, wellbeing had a mediation effect on the relationship between transactional leadership and turnover intention (section 5.6.6). The result showed that when wellbeing was not present in the model (that is, the total effect model), transactional leadership explained only four per cent of variance in turnover intention. But when wellbeing was present in the model (that is, the direct effect model) it explained 35 per cent of variance in turnover intention. The indirect effect result and Sobel test also showed that wellbeing had a mediation effect on the relationship between transactional leadership and turnover intention.

Seventh, wellbeing had a mediation effect on the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and job satisfaction (section 5.6.7). When wellbeing was present, the model explained 53 per cent of variance in job satisfaction. However, when wellbeing was not present in the model, it explained only 15 per cent of variance in job satisfaction. The indirect effect result and Sobel test also showed that wellbeing mediated the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and job satisfaction.

Eighth, the analyses found that wellbeing had a mediation effect on the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organisational commitment (section 5.6.8). When wellbeing was present, the model explained 21 per cent of variance in

organisational commitment. However, when wellbeing was not present in the model, it explained only 12 per cent of variance in organisational commitment. Again, the indirect effect result and Sobel test both showed that wellbeing mediated the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organisational commitment.

Finally, the mediation analysis found that wellbeing had a mediation effect on the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and turnover intention (section 5.6.9). When wellbeing is not present in the model (that is, total effect model), it explained only 15 per cent of variance in turnover intention. However, in the direct effect model (that is, when wellbeing was present), the model explained 38 per cent of variance in turnover intention. Both the indirect effect result and Sobel test showed that wellbeing had a mediation effect on the relationship between transactional leadership and turnover intention.

5.7 The Effect of Leadership Styles on Employee Wellbeing and Organisational Outcomes

One aim of both the followers' and leaders' surveys was to elicit each cohort's understanding of the affect leadership has upon employee wellbeing, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. In both the followers' and leaders' surveys the respondents were asked to respond on a four point Likert scale (1= not at all, 2 = slightly, 3 = moderately and 4 = strongly) to the confirmatory question that examined their views on how leadership affects employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes (see Appendix B, p. 255 and Appendix C, p. 262).

Figure 5.19 (over the page) shows the comparative responses of leaders and followers. The figure simply shows a comparative result of data obtained from two separate surveys and hence no statistical comparison was reported. There was common consensus among followers and leaders that leadership does affect employee wellbeing

and organisational outcomes. The data also suggest that leaders think that leadership has a greater effect on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes compared to the followers. For example, compared to the followers, a greater number of leaders think that leadership affects employee turnover intention. In the case of the follower survey 71 per cent of followers think leadership affects (slightly, moderately and strongly) turnover intention, while 91 per cent of the leaders feel that leadership affects (slightly, moderately and strongly) employee turnover intention. The following section presents the analysis of the open-ended responses from both the followers and leaders.

5.7.1 Open-ended questions for followers. Four open-ended questions were presented to the followers to express their views on the desired characteristics of an effective leader in an Australian regional university, their understanding of wellbeing at work, factors other than leadership that affect employee wellbeing, and their views on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. In addition, the followers were also asked if they had any other comments to make on the above issues. The findings of these responses are presented below.

5.7.1.1 *Desired characteristics of an effective leader in an Australian regional university.* The followers were asked ‘*In your opinion what are the characteristics of an effective leader in a regional university?*’ Respondents narrated their views of the characteristics in a descriptive form. However, occasionally the respondents directly mentioned specific leadership approaches such as innovative, transformational or.

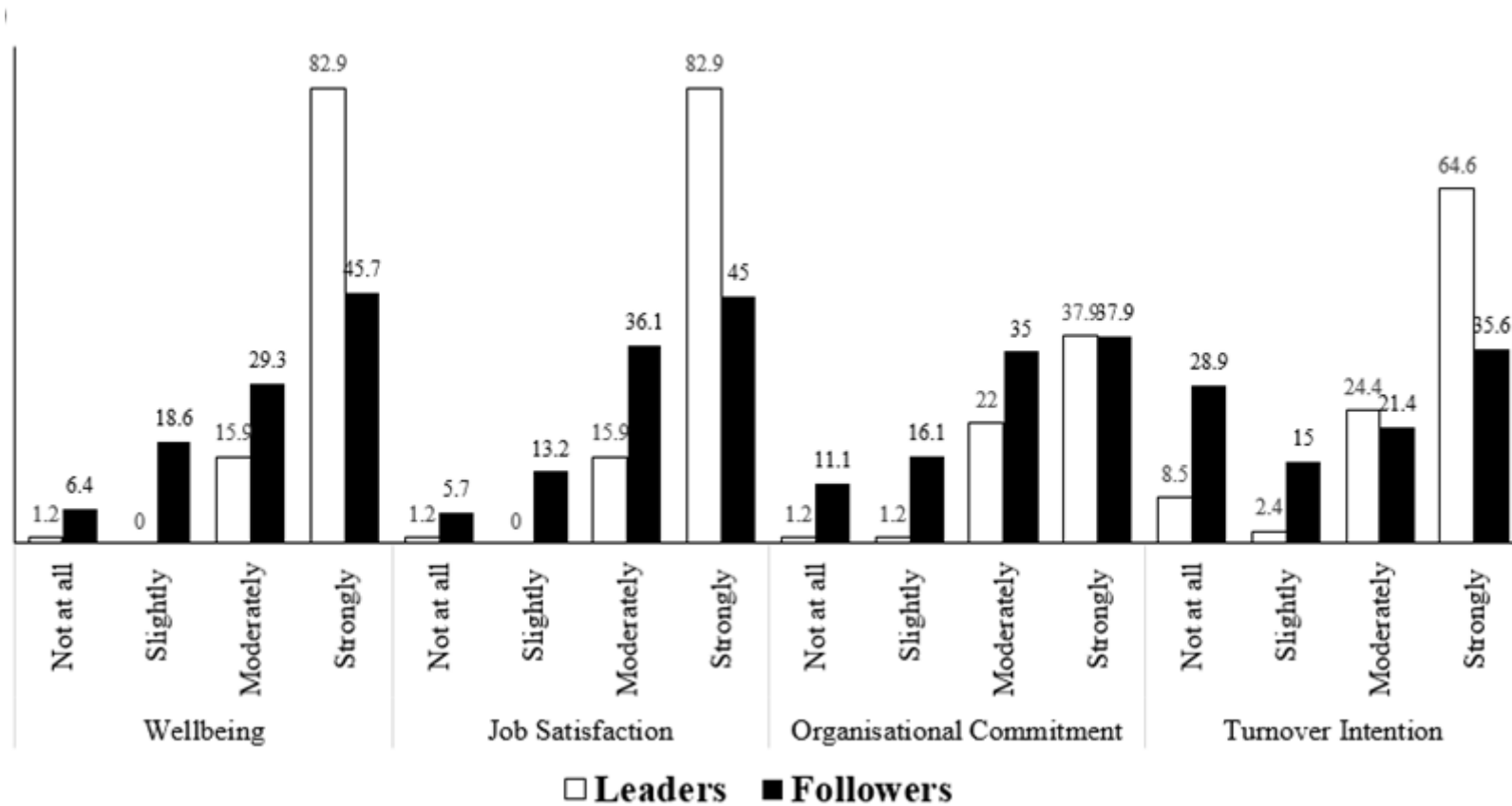


Figure 5.19: A comparison between followers' and leaders' view on the effects of leadership on employee wellbeing, and organisational outcomes of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention

consultative, inclusive, leads by example, ethical and authentic. The thematic analysis revealed that respondents highlighted attributes of different leadership styles discussed in Chapter 2 of this thesis. Those attributes were grouped together under different leadership styles. Key characteristics that appeared in the responses were: a leader has to be knowledgeable, visionary, a lateral thinker, listener, leading by example; act as a role model; develop confidence; motivates team for a shared vision; treat people individually; delegating task; inclusive, facilitate followers' development; honest, ethical and authentic.

As mentioned in the review of literature chapter, there are overlaps of different characteristics between leadership approaches. The key characteristics listed above are attributes of different leadership styles such as transformational, authentic, servant, distributed and spiritual leadership. Thus, while grouping comments for thematic analysis, comments from the one respondent were placed under different leadership approaches or themes. A comparison of the aggregated outcomes are shown in Figure 5.20 (over the page). Within the leadership styles of the Full Range of Leadership Theory (FRLT) used in the present research, Figure 5.20 (over the page) highlights a clear preference for transformational leadership among the employees of the Australian regional university used in this study. For example, while some respondents directly wrote “*innovative, transformational*” (Respondent 6), others wrote “*leaders' vision and passion unites people together towards the future*” (Respondent 12) or “*an effective leader can see opportunities 'over the horizon' that others can't see, and can motivate people to make the most of those opportunities*” (Respondent 23). A female academic wrote “*a leader who creates a shared vision and provides support for team members to achieve the shared vision*” (Respondent 74). These attributes clearly indicated followers' preference for transformational leadership.

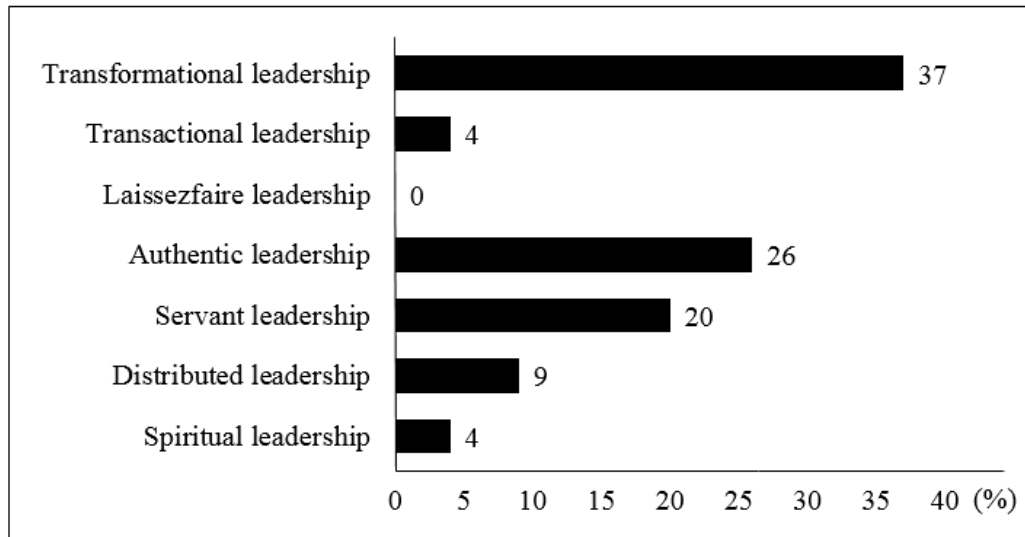


Figure 5.20: Preference of leadership styles by followers.

In contrast, Figure 5.20 highlights few of the respondents wanted their leader to be a transactional leader who rewards or punishes individuals based on an individual's performance. For example, a female academic reported *"someone who makes you feel that as long as you do your job well there will be rewards ... Someone who doesn't micromanage, but is aware of what his staff do and how well they do it"* (Respondent 231). Another respondent mentioned *"someone not afraid to performance manage those not pulling their weight"* (Respondent 118). Another female full-time academic responded *"rewards good work and performance manages poor work effectively"* (Respondent 82). Figure 5.20 suggests none of the respondents' preferred laissez-faire leadership.

Figure 5.20 also suggests that the respondents preferred characteristics of an effective leader in a regional university that may fit into other leadership styles such as authentic leadership, servant leadership, distributed leadership, and spiritual leadership. For example, while mentioning desired leadership characteristics a male full time professional staff reported *"consultative, inclusive, leads by example, ethical, authentic"* (Respondent 2). Another respondent commented *"not being parochial pushing to be the*

best listening, providing vision, providing guidance when needed, being open and able to admit mistakes, good communication, ability to ask the hard questions and accept hard answers, not having to hear only the good news but being able to take the bad”

(Respondent 217). These above characteristics portray characteristics of authentic leaders.

Figure 5.20 (page 157) also suggests that a number of respondents of the followers’ survey also preferred characteristics observed in servant leadership. For example, a male academic wrote *“an effective leader knows and understands the breadth of their role and capably delivers the required duties and responsibilities in a way that engages colleagues and subordinates in a motivating and collegial manner. An effective leader has as a construct 'service leadership' as their core driver in the way they deliver their role; they are not self-centred nor driven by greed or power, they are not trying to dominate or destroy others. They serve other subordinates through their leadership style and operate collegially with a strong sense of purpose as well as team harmony”*

(Respondent 7). Another respondent wrote *“someone who promotes others in the team and their work before their own”* (Respondent 81). However, a male academic expressed his opinion about lack of servant leadership culture in the sampled university arguing *“I find that most people in positions of leadership or authority don't have a 'service orientation' in the way they view themselves and the way they deliver their leadership”*

(Respondent 7).

Figure 5.20 (see page 157) also suggests that a number of respondents preferred distributed leadership within the university. While highlighting characteristics of an effective leader in the university, one respondent wrote *“they (leaders)] need to be able to balance giving autonomy and direct guidance so the person does not become lost/off track or feel micromanaged”* (Respondent 149). Another respondent stated *“an effective*

leader needs to allow discussion and to hear everyone's issues or ideas and allow for all involved to come to a consensus; disseminate the agreed decisions and describe 'how' this could be achieved or implemented. ... An effective leader does not micro manage but ensures that processes and procedures are clear and working well. An effective leader asks and listens to the team for how things might be improved" (Respondent 7). These descriptions are suggestive of a preference for a distributed leadership approach.

Finally, Figure 5.20 suggests a number of respondents prefer leadership characteristics that fit into the definition of spiritual leadership. For example, a full-time female professional staff reported *"leaders need to lead, but also to listen. Trust in staff needs to be an element of leadership also"* (Respondent 220). Another respondent wrote *"a leader who treats you as a valued team member with quality input to share. Someone who is not power driven but objective driven with deep consideration for their colleagues of all levels in the organisation. Someone who really cares, is kind and supports your career progression as well as your happiness in your unit"* (Respondent 25).

The contributions of leadership to both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes were repeatedly mentioned by the respondents while describing the characteristics of an effective leader in an Australian regional university. For example, a female academic suggested that *"understanding each person as a feeling individual with a personal life which is important to their overall wellbeing and functioning and working with this, without being their main support for managing their personal life or allowing their personal life to excuse consistently poor performance"* (Respondent 149).

While describing the characteristics of an effective leader in the Australian regional university, employees also highlighted the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction which are two key variables of interest of this current research. For

example, a respondent stated “*I also believe that they need to help the staff find their purpose in the role they are undertaking in order to get the highest level of staff satisfaction*” (Respondent 245).

5.7.1.2 What does wellbeing at work mean among the followers? The second open-ended question within the followers’ questionnaire was “*What does wellbeing at work mean to you?*” For some respondents wellbeing means physical and psychological health, for some it relates to collegiality, for others it is associated with leadership, while for some, wellbeing means job satisfaction. In general, the employees of a regional Australian university view wellbeing at work as “*being happy and healthy in mind and body*” (Respondent 159) or being “*healthy, happy and engaged*” (Respondent 123) or “*physically, psychologically and mentally well*” (Respondent 50).

Figure 5.21 (over the page) highlights the outcomes of the thematic analysis related to what wellbeing at work means to followers. The key elements that were identified to be important for wellbeing at work were collegiality, happiness at work, respect, health and safety, work-life balance, workload, flexibility and autonomy, job satisfaction, leadership, absence of stress, management’s concern for followers’ wellbeing, challenging work, career progression, and job security.

Collegiality was identified by the respondents as the key element of wellbeing at work. The respondents related collegiality with the overall working environment in the work unit. For many of the respondents, wellbeing at work relates to “*a feeling of contentment within the unit. Supported and surrounded by colleagues that you trust and acknowledge your contribution. Being happy to be at work*” (Respondent 25). One respondent reported “*workplaces need to be collegial and concerns with collegiality need*

to be addressed by leaders in the workplace” (Respondent 133) while another wrote “supportive and friendly workplace equals wellbeing in the workplace” (Respondent 60).

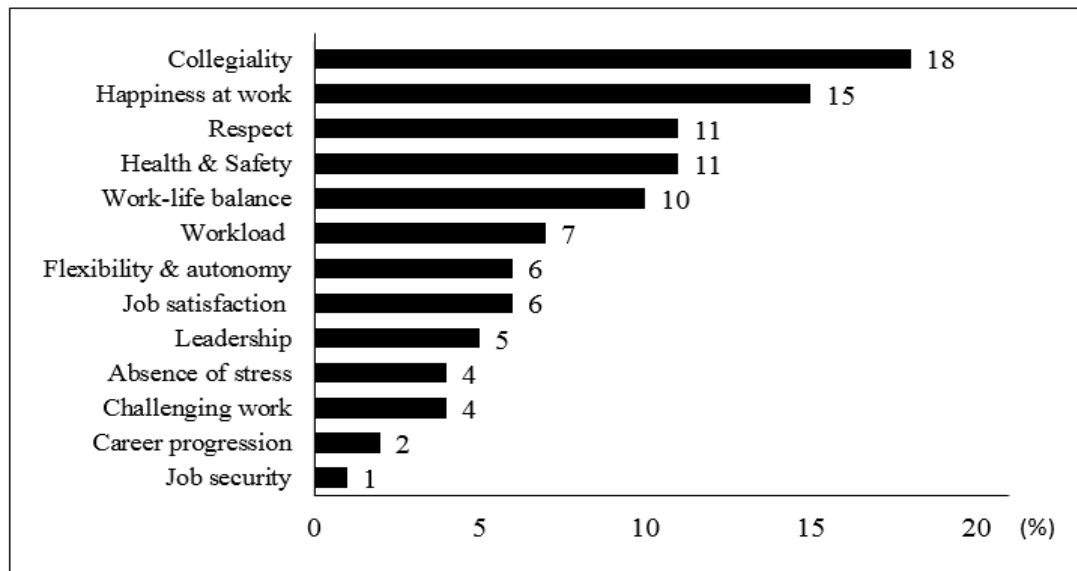


Figure 5.21: Meaning of wellbeing among employees of an Australian regional university

There were also many examples in followers’ responses that work-life balance was synonymous to wellbeing at work. For example, when answering the question about meaning of wellbeing at work, one respondent wrote “workplace life balance. Being respected” (Respondent 68), another mentioned “being able to maintain a work/life balance” (Respondent 223). Among the organisational outcomes examined in the present project, job satisfaction also emerged to be synonymous with employee understanding of wellbeing. For example, a male academic’s response to his understanding at work meant “happiness and job satisfaction, being allowed to reach and aim for goals” (Respondent 46) while a female professional staff wrote “challenging and supportive workplace leading to a feeling of job satisfaction” (Respondent 61).

Leadership emerged as a key theme when analysing respondents’ understanding of wellbeing at work. Many of the comments the respondents made about wellbeing are associated with leadership styles and presented earlier in section 5.7.1.1 (p. 154).

For example, a male academic wrote “*wellbeing in the workplace means the employee has a conducive work environment, supportive colleagues and supervisors. The employee should feel that he is valued and appreciated at work. The employer will reward and offer career advancement opportunities to the employee*” (Respondent 143). Another respondent mentioned “*feeling that what you do is highly valued by leadership*” (Respondent 145). A female academic reported “*well-being at a workplace refers to management's concern, activities and actions for the betterment of the employees' psychological and physical needs*” (Respondent 92). However, some respondents also mentioned “*employee wellbeing is not always the responsibility of the leader*” (Respondent 20).

5.7.1.3 Work circumstances other than leadership that affect wellbeing and organisational outcomes. The third open-ended question from the followers’ survey read “*In your opinion what other work circumstances, other than leadership, affect your wellbeing at work, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and/or turnover intentions?*” Figure 5.22 (over the page) highlights the results of the thematic analysis of the responses to this question. Many of the issues identified as key elements of wellbeing at work presented in the previous section emerged again as work circumstances other than leadership that may have effect on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. The thematic analysis of responses identified that collegiality, workload, career progression, reward and work-life balance are the key issues that, apart from leadership, affect staff wellbeing and organisational outcomes.

Workload appeared to be another major determinant other than leadership that affects employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. Emphasising the strong influence of workload on wellbeing and organisational outcomes, a respondent stated

“workload does affect wellbeing, especially if people feel they are not able to cope with the expectations” (Respondent 67).

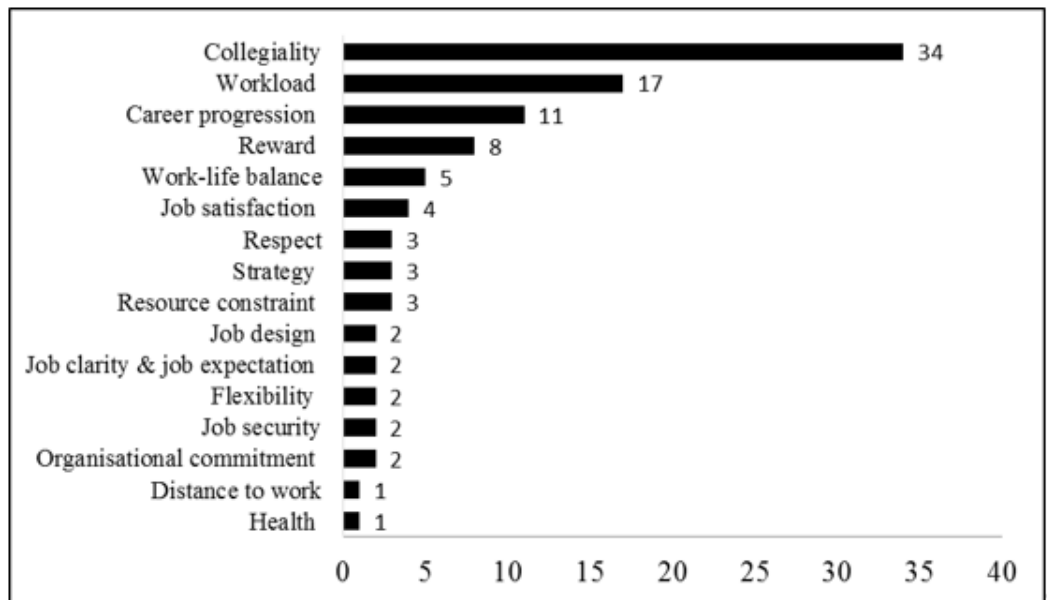


Figure 5.22: Characteristics other than leadership that affect employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes.

Although, the question was about circumstances other than leadership that affect employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes, the importance of leadership with regards to employee wellbeing and organisational outcome came up repeatedly from the responses of this question. For example, a male academic wrote “*leadership is the critical issue*” (Respondent 69) while a female professional staff stated “*my feelings towards my job and work are directly linked to poor leadership*” (Respondent 55). In contrast, another female professional staff stated “*the people we work with, not just our immediate supervisors, play a major part in our wellbeing at work, job satisfaction, and overall commitment to the organisation*” (Respondent 121).

5.7.1.4 Other comments by the followers. At the end of the followers’ survey there was an open-ended question asking respondents “*Do you wish to add anything else that has emerged for you as you have completed this survey, but not found an opportunity to*

express?” From this open-ended question, themes such as employee desire for a visionary leader, hierarchy in leadership culture, and how this hierarchical culture may affect employee wellbeing and organisational outcome were reflected in the respondents’ statements.

Leadership was consistently acknowledged as crucial for the success of an Australian regional university. For example, a male academic indicated that *“leaders’ vision and passion unites people together towards the future”* (Respondent 12). However, the responses from the followers within an Australian regional university also highlighted that there exist different layers of leadership that may affect employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. For example, a female full time professional staff argued *“I feel it is not just the immediate supervisor but the management layers above that have an impact on wellbeing in a workplace, i.e., the culture of a workplace”* (Respondent 41). The same view was echoed by other respondents with another stating *“I strongly believe the leadership of both my work unit and the organisation as a whole affect staff wellbeing and organisational success”* (Respondent 84). Another respondent described more vividly how leaders at different layers of the university hierarchy may affect different aspects within the university stating *“my direct supervisor is certainly important in how I feel about my workplace, but the (work unit) also has other senior leaders who are highly visible, available and connected to all workers/students. This makes a very big difference here and I find the different leaders to have different roles for myself ... So leadership can (and probably should) come from multiple sources allowing for different styles and purposes to meet the range of people and needs in big teams/organisations such as universities. It seems crazy to expect every good leadership quality in one person. Being genuinely personable and actively supportive is essential for all leaders though,*

otherwise how would you be able to approach them and set by example how colleagues should treat each other” (Respondent 149).

In summary, most of the respondents to the followers’ survey open-ended questions, whether highlighting qualities of an effective leader, defining wellbeing, or identifying issues other than leadership that affect wellbeing, stressed the need for better communication between leaders and followers. Followers strongly feel that leaders should listen to followers for a collegial atmosphere that is conducive to promoting both staff wellbeing and improving organisational outcomes.

5.7.2 Open-ended question for leaders A separate survey was conducted among people who lead ≥ 3 staff irrespective whether they are academic or professional staff. For the purpose of this thesis, they were operationally defined as leaders. Only one open-ended question was asked of the leaders: *“Do you wish to add anything else that has emerged for you as you have completed this survey, but not found an opportunity to express”*. Few comments were received. The subsequent thematic analysis of the written responses identified a consensus about the existence of multiple levels of leadership in the university hierarchy. For example, a male academic questioned *“do you feel you have chance to influence decisions/structure above your own level of responsibility”* (Respondent 30). Labelling the university a ‘top heavy’ organisation, another respondent stated *“I would think that almost all academics have a leader in their division as well as a leader on their campus or location. In addition, there are direct supervisors as well as Deans etc.”* (Respondent 94). Another female academic indicated that leadership above their immediate supervisor may also affect university employees in writing *“there are many levels of supervision, management and leadership in this university”* (Respondent 76).

5.7.3 Summary of findings of open-ended questions

The open-ended question responses revealed that leadership in an Australian regional university is hierarchical with different levels of that hierarchy affecting employees' wellbeing, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. Comments from both the follower and leader cohorts highlighted that the transformational leadership approach is the most preferred leadership in an Australian regional university. There appeared consensus among both the leaders and followers that leadership affects employee wellbeing, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. It is also found that, compared to the followers, leaders feel leadership is more important in affecting employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. Interestingly and importantly, the thematic analysis of the followers' responses identified that leadership is not the only factor that affects employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. The followers reported that collegiality, workload, reward, career progression, work-life balance, job satisfaction, job clarity, flexibility, job security, organisational commitment and health are other factors apart from leadership that are important for promoting employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. Finally, the thematic analysis revealed that listening to followers and being inclusive is an important characteristic of effective leadership in an Australian regional university.

5.8 Summary of Findings of the Research

The quantitative analysis of the followers' demographics revealed that there was a significant difference in the level of job satisfaction between different age groups of followers with job satisfaction. Specifically, up to age 55 years, job satisfaction of university employees' increases after which job satisfaction starts to decline. No gender differences were observed in any of the variables of interest. In terms of job status (academics versus professional staff). However, followers reported professional staff

leadership to be significantly more transformational compared to academic staff. It was also found that employee wellbeing fluctuates significantly with length of tenure in the organisation. The result showed that with the passage of time employee wellbeing reduces. No significant difference in employee wellbeing was observed in terms of the length of tenure under the current supervisor.

The statistical analysis of the followers' data also showed that transformational leadership is significantly correlated with: other leadership styles within the FRLT, employee wellbeing and each of the organisational outcomes of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intention. This relationship is negative in the case of laissez-faire leadership and turnover intention. Finally, an analysis of the leaders' survey data revealed that the level of transformational and transactional leadership differs significantly within different age groups of leaders. Compared to other age groups, the mean score for transformational and transactional leadership was highest among leaders within the 26-35 years age group.

The first research question of the current project was *“How do different leadership styles within the FRLT affect employee wellbeing in an Australian regional university setting?”* A hierarchical regression analysis found that while transformational leadership and laissez-faire leadership styles of FRLT significantly affect employee wellbeing, no significant relationship could be found between transactional leadership and organisational outcomes. Moreover, the results showed that laissez-faire leadership negatively affects employee wellbeing. Finally, the quantitative analysis of online survey feedback from the followers showed that leadership is an issue that is associated with employee wellbeing.

A thematic analysis of the followers' responses in relation to desired characteristics of effective leaders in a regional Australian university found that transformational leadership is the most desired leadership style. Moreover, the thematic analysis showed that leaders need to: be knowledgeable, visionary, lateral thinkers leading by example; act as a role model: motivate the team for a shared vision; inclusive; treat people individually; be a listener and mentor; facilitate followers' development; develop confidence; be honest; delegate tasks; and be ethical and authentic. Critically, these desired characteristics are those consistently linked with the transformational leadership style. Furthermore, respondents also mentioned characteristics that describe other leadership styles such as transactional leadership, authentic leadership, servant leadership, distributed leadership and spiritual leadership.

Responses to the confirmatory question from both the follower and leader surveys as to whether leadership affects employee wellbeing and organisational outcome conclusively showed that leadership affects employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes although leaders have stronger feelings about this issue. Indeed, compared to the leaders, fewer followers than leaders think that leadership affects employee turnover intention.

The second research question of the present thesis was "*How do different leadership styles within an Australian HES setting affect the organisational outcomes of job satisfaction, employee organisational commitment and turnover intention?*" The hierarchical regression analysis indicated that transformational leadership significantly affects employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. While no significant effect of transactional leadership on organisational outcomes was observed, it was found that laissez-faire leadership significantly and negatively affects

employee turnover intention. However, the qualitative analysis of the responses from the followers also revealed that there are other aspects of the workplace apart from leadership that affect employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. Thematic analysis of the open-ended responses highlights that these aspects include, in order, collegiality, workload, career progression, work-life balance, job design, respect, job security and health. Among the organisational outcomes, job satisfaction and organisational commitment also emerged to affect employee wellbeing.

The third and final research question of the current project was “*Within an Australian regional university setting, does employee wellbeing mediate the effect of different leadership styles on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, employee organisational commitment and turnover intention?*” Mediation analysis carried out with the PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2013) showed that wellbeing significantly mediated the relationship between each of the different leadership styles and organisational outcomes of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention.

The present chapter presented the results obtained from the quantitative analysis of data obtained from two surveys conducted among followers and leaders of an Australian regional university. The chapter also presented the outcomes from a qualitative analysis of followers and leaders’ responses to the open ended questions using thematic analysis. The next chapter will now discuss these quantitative results and qualitative findings in light of previous research. The following chapter will also identify organisational and theoretical implications of the present research with recommendations made for future research.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

The review of literature in the current thesis identified a number of key issues related to leadership in the Australian Higher Education Sector (HES). Firstly, the present environment of the HES both globally and within Australia is increasingly complex. Secondly, a number of leadership theories (for example, the Full Range of Leadership Theory, authentic leadership, servant leadership, distributed leadership, spiritual leadership) have been promoted in the HES context. Finally, there is a plethora of leadership research from diverse organisational settings that strongly support the effects of leadership style on both employee wellbeing (Aydin et al., 2013; Braun et al., 2013; Kelloway et al., 2012; Nielsen & Minir, 2009; Saleem, 2015; Tafvelin et al., 2011) and organisational outcomes such as employee job satisfaction (Felfe & Schyns, 2004; Kara et al., 2015; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015; Michel et al., 2011), organisational commitment (Aydin et al., 2013; Jabeen et al., 2015; Muchiri et al., 2012) and turnover intention (Ertureten et al., 2013; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015; Tse et al., 2013).

There is also evidence that employee wellbeing significantly affects the above organisational outcomes (Brunetto et al., 2012; Stiglbauer et al., 2012; Rodwell & Munroe, 2013; Wright & Huang, 2012). However, to date there is no known empirical research that has concurrently examined the effect of different leadership styles on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes in an Australian regional university setting. Moreover, there is no known empirical research that has examined the mediation effect of employee wellbeing on the relationship between leadership styles and organisational outcomes in a HES context. In view of the above issues, the aim of the present research was to examine the effect of different leadership styles on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes in an Australian regional university and how

employee wellbeing might mediate the relationship between leadership style and these organisational outcomes.

Three leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) under the FRLT were examined in the quantitative analysis of the data from the current project. For methodological reasons, other contemporary leadership approaches such as authentic leadership, distributed leadership or servant leadership could not be examined during the quantitative analysis. However, this gap was overcome through qualitative analysis of the open-ended questions in the followers' survey of the current research.

In the previous chapter, results obtained through the quantitative and qualitative data analysis were presented. The purpose of the present chapter is to discuss these results in order to answer the research questions and associated hypotheses. In the current chapter the discussion will initially present the findings to the observed effect of the demographic variables such as age, gender, job status, and tenure on organisational outcomes. Subsequently, a discussion of the observed effects of leadership style on both employee wellbeing and the organisational outcomes of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention will be presented. Thereafter, the findings relating to the mediating effect of employee wellbeing on the effect of leadership styles on organisational outcomes will be discussed. Finally, a number of issues emerged from the findings of the present research. These important issues related to leadership in the HES will also be discussed later in this chapter. Finally, this chapter will discuss the limitations of the present research and suggest a number of future research directions related to HES leadership.

6.2 Effect of Demographic Variables on Leadership Styles, Employee Wellbeing and Organisational Outcomes

The result of the present study suggests that the sample used may be considered as a true representative sample of the population of the university in terms of age, gender (male/female) and job status (academic/professional staff). Table 5.1 (Chapter 5, p. 116) showed the similarity of the samples (followers' and leaders' survey) with the overall university population in terms of age, gender and job status (R. Tennent, personal communication, January 30, 2015).

Previous research suggests equivocal findings related to the effect of demographic variables such as age, gender, job status (academic/professional staff), and tenure in the institution on variables such as employee wellbeing, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. For example, a number of studies have shown that demographic factors such as age, gender, job status and length of tenure may affect organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention in diverse organisational setting including the HES (Brown & Sargeant, 2007; Jafar, Kavousian, Beigy, Emami, & Hadavizadeh, 2010; Şaner & Eyüpogly, 2012; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009). In contrast, other studies have found no such effects (Chua et al., 2014; Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005; Yoleri & Bostanci, 2012). The findings of the current research will now be discussed in light of previous research.

6.2.1 Effect of age on leadership styles, employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. The present research revealed no correlation between leadership styles and age in the analysis of the followers' survey data. Moreover, ANOVA also revealed no significant difference between the followers' age groups (that is, ≤ 25 , 26-35, 36-45, 46-55, 56-65, ≥ 66 years) in terms of perceived leadership style. In support of the above findings, the analysis of the leaders' survey data also showed no

significant relationship between age, transformational and transactional leadership.

However, a moderately significant correlation was observed between age and laissez-faire leadership. This finding suggests that leaders within a regional university of the Australian HES feel the older a leader becomes, the more laissez-faire their leadership style becomes.

The above findings of the current study are supported by those of previous studies. For example, in a study among 56 leaders and 234 followers of a variety of organisations in the USA, Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin, and Marx (2007) found significant differences in transformational leadership in terms of age but observed no significant difference with regards to transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership styles. These investigators suggested that after a certain age, followers are no longer attracted towards transformation and tend to pursue new careers. Another previous study focused on higher education examined 106 professors from two German universities (Zacher, Rosing & Frese, 2011). The findings suggested no effect of age on transformational or transactional leadership. The differences in findings between the present findings and those of previous research may be due to the different demographic characteristics and methodologies when discussing the effect of age on laissez-faire leadership.

The present findings from the followers' survey also suggest no significant effect of age on employee wellbeing, organisational commitment, or turnover intention. However, ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of age on job satisfaction. The present data suggest that up until age 55 years, the older the respondent, the more satisfied they are in their job. However, after the age of 55 years, job satisfaction appears to reduce. A reason for this finding may be the fact that, irrespective of job status, university employees commence their job with high aspirations and are satisfied with

their achievements till they achieve 55 years of age. Thereafter their job satisfaction may decline. This finding and suggestion is consistent with previous findings of Şaner and Eyüpogly (2012) who conducted a study among 412 academics at a University in Cyprus. The researchers observed that intrinsic satisfaction continued to increase with age but the extrinsic satisfaction increased from 21-30 years and continues to increase to 51-60 years after which it declined. Another earlier research project by Ssesanga and Garrett (2005) focused on academic teaching and observed that younger academics are more likely to gain satisfaction from their university teaching through extrinsic factors while older academics appear to derive satisfaction from intrinsic aspects of their university life. These researchers defined intrinsic satisfaction as satisfaction related to occupational conditions or how employees feel about the nature of their job (for example, interactions with students and outcome of teaching). They defined extrinsic satisfaction as satisfaction related to environmental conditions that are external to the work such as salary, benefits, perceived support from supervisor, safety, and availability of resources.

While the present study observed a significant and inverse relationship between age and job satisfaction, there are inconsistent findings in the existing research among HES employees with regards to the relationship between these two variables. For example, a number of previous studies have observed linear relationships between age and job satisfaction (Nandan & Krishna, 2013) while other studies have found non-linear U-shaped (Brown & Sargeant, 2007) relationships, and others non-linear but non-U shaped (Sharma & Jyoti, 2009) relationships between these variables in university academics. Moreover, some studies have found no significant relationship (Yoleri & Bostanci, 2012) between age and job satisfaction among university employees. Again, as suggested when discussing the effect of age on leadership style, difference in sample size, proportion of male and female respondents, proportions of academic and professional

staff, age groupings and measurement tools used to measure job satisfaction in different studies may have contributed to these inconsistent findings.

6.2.2 Effect of gender on leadership styles, employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. An analysis of the data from both the followers' and leaders' surveys revealed no significant difference between male and female employees with regards to leadership styles, employee wellbeing, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention.

Thus, the suggestion that female leaders are more transformational (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003) was not supported by the findings of the present research. There are mixed findings in the leadership literature with regards to the influence of gender on leadership styles. For example, while a study among 141 managers of different international companies in the UAE found that women are more transformational compared to men (Fernandes & Awamleh, 2004); another earlier study among 56 leaders and 234 followers' from a variety of organisational settings in the USA found that gender alone did not influence transformational or transactional leadership style (Barbuto et al., 2007).

The current research also found no effect of gender on employee wellbeing in a regional Australian HES setting. This finding supports previous research by Cifrea, Verab, Rodríguez-sa'ncheza, and Pastora (2013) who observed no gender effect with regards to employee perceived job wellbeing among 840 male and female employees in a variety of organisational settings from 29 different countries.

Previous research has also observed equivocal findings on the effect of gender on job satisfaction within the HES. In a review examining organisational commitment, job satisfaction and religious commitment among university employees, Brown and Sargeant

(2007) observed inconsistent findings with regards to the effect of gender on HES employee job satisfaction. Indeed, a number of researchers found women to be more satisfied at work (Bender & Heywood, 2006) while other studies argued men to be more satisfied in their work than women (that is, Hullin & Smith, 1964; Locke, Fitzpatrick, & White, 1983). However, in a recent study based on British Household Panel Survey (BHPS), Green, Haywood, Kler and Leeves (2016) reported that “over the last two decades the female satisfaction gap has largely vanished” (p. 1).

A number of previous studies have found no significant difference between men and women with regards to their job satisfaction (D’Arcy, Syrotuik & Siddiqui, 1984; Golding, Resnick, & Crosky, 1983; Iacqua & Schumacher, 1995; Schroeder, 2003; Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005). For example, in a study among 182 academics in Uganda, Ssesanga and Garrett (2005) found no effect of gender on job satisfaction. Within the Australian HES, Kifle and Desta (2012) found different factors such as hours worked, workload, career advancement opportunity, contribution to society and relationship with co-workers contribute to job satisfaction among male and female employees of Australian universities. They found that although females are more satisfied at work than males, females are more satisfied with their contribution to the society while compared to their female counterparts, males are more satisfied with workload, hours of work and career advancement opportunity. This finding is further supported by a recent study among HES employees in the UK which found that women are more motivated by social factors than men (Peters & Ryan, 2015a).

The current research did not observe a significant effect of gender on employee organisational commitment in a regional Australian HES. This finding is consistent with the earlier findings of Al-Hussami, Saleh, Abdalkader, and Mahadeen (2011) who

surveyed 122 academics within a university in Jordan and found no effect of gender on organisational commitment. The present finding of no relationship between gender and organisational commitment in a sample from the HES is also consistent with the finding from other industry sectors. For example, Chua et al., (2014) surveyed 274 public service employees in Malaysia and found no effect of gender on employee organisational commitment. In contrast, Şentuna (2015) recently observed an effect of gender on affective, normative and continuance commitment among 213 physical education teachers in Turkey.

Finally, the current research did not observe any effect of gender on turnover intention. In recent related research, Wells, Peachey, and Walker (2014) examined gender differences in the relationships between transformational leadership, leader effectiveness, and turnover intentions and observed gender differences in the relationship between leader effectiveness and turnover intention in male and female coaches of National Collegiate Athletic Association in the USA. However, differences in purpose, context, sample population and measurement tools may explain the discrepancies in findings between the current and the previous study.

In summary, the current research did not observe any significant gender effect on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. These findings are consistent with previous research findings although there are equivocal findings related to the effect of gender on these organisational outcomes.

6.2.3 Effect of job status on leadership styles, employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. Analysis of the followers' survey data revealed that, except for transformational leadership style, no correlation was observed between job status, leadership styles, employee wellbeing, and organisational outcomes. The analysis of the

data from the leaders' survey also observed no significant correlations between job status and leadership styles. Moreover, ANOVA of followers' data revealed no significant differences between academics and professional staff (job status) on employee wellbeing, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, or transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. However, from the followers' survey data, a significant difference was observed in transformational leadership style with regards to job status (academics/professional staff). Specifically, the followers reported significantly greater transformational leadership among the professional staff compared to the academic staff.

There may be a number of reasons for the above finding of greater transformational leadership among the professional staff versus academic staff in the current project. Firstly, academics work more independently, and have less interaction with their supervisors compared to professional staff. Oakley and Selwood (2010) argued "the culture of academics is, if anything, distrustful of overt organisational leadership. This appears to be partly about not wanting to swap their professional expertise for what is perceived as the more banal role of management, but also about a more deep-seated resistance to the language of leadership" (p. 6). Secondly, although there was no significant difference between academics and professional staff length of service under their supervisors, statistical analysis of the followers' data showed that although insignificant, academics had worked more years than the professional staff and that the longer people served under the supervisor, the more they feel their leaders to be transactional.

6.2.4 Effect of tenure on leadership style, employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. Analysis of the data from the followers' survey revealed no significant correlation between the different leadership styles and either the length of

tenure at the university or tenure under the current leader. However, ANOVA indicated that followers who serve longer duration under their current leader feel their leaders to be more transactional. This finding suggests that with the passage of time, the relationship between the leader and the follower may become more bureaucratic and based on reward and punishment. Similar observations have previously been made in a study among managers of international companies in the UAE examining the effect of transformational leadership on job satisfaction and employee performance (Fernandes & Awamleh, 2004). These researchers found that people with ≤ 5 years of tenure in the job preferred transformational leadership compared to longer serving employees. The researchers argued that older employees become desensitized to transformational leadership and develop cynicism or indifference towards transformational leadership.

In the present study, ANOVA of the follower survey data showed that, irrespective of either their length of tenure in the university or under the current supervisor, the longer people served in the sampled regional university, the greater the feeling of employee wellbeing they experienced. This may relate to other factors of employee wellbeing that were mentioned by the respondents to an open-ended question about their thoughts on the meaning of wellbeing. For example, the respondents indicated collegiality, work-life balance, workload, flexibility and autonomy, respect, leadership, challenging work, reward, job security, and career progression as issues they feel constitute their understanding of wellbeing (see Chapter 5, Figure 5.21 on p. 161). The respondents also highlighted similar factors when asked what factors other than leadership that they feel affect their wellbeing, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions (see Chapter 5, Figure 5.22 on p. 163).

In support of the above findings from the thematic analysis of the followers' open-ended responses, a recent study on motivating and developing leaders within the HES in the UK found that issues such as job security, inspiring leaders, inspiring colleagues, respectful treatment, challenging work, and growth opportunities are important motivating factors for employees in the HES in the UK (Peters & Ryan, 2015a). Taken together with the present findings, it might be suggested that a greater sense of job security, bonds with colleagues, and significant advancement of career give a sense of wellbeing among people who stay longer in the organisation with these factors ultimately leading to a greater level of job satisfaction the longer the tenure of the employee. Furthermore, in a study examining the relationship between employee wellbeing and turnover intention among 951 occupational therapists in Australia, Scanlan, Meredith, and Poulsen, (2013) found employee wellbeing, job satisfaction and turnover intention are mutually associated. Indeed, they found that job satisfaction explains 33 per cent of the variance in turnover intention.

In conclusion, analysis of both the follower and leader surveys in the present research yielded equivocal findings compared to earlier studies on the effects of age, gender, job status, and length of tenure under the current supervisor or leader. For the followers in the present project, no significant difference was found with regards to the effect of age on leadership styles, employee wellbeing, organisational commitment, or turnover intention. However, it was found that until age 55 years, employee job satisfaction increases after which the level of job satisfaction declines. For the leaders surveyed in the current sample from an Australian regional university, no significant effect of age was observed on transformational and transactional leadership. However, a significant effect of age was observed on laissez-faire leadership. In addition, no effect of gender was observed on leadership styles, employee wellbeing, job satisfaction,

organisational commitment and turnover intention in both the followers and leaders. Moreover, no difference was observed with regards to job status, leadership styles (except transformational leadership style), employee wellbeing, and organisational outcome in the followers. In the leaders, no significant difference was observed with regards to job status and leadership styles. Although no significant correlation was observed in terms of the length of tenure under the current leader, it was found that the longer followers served under a leader, the more they felt their leaders to be transactional in their leadership style. It was also found that the longer followers stay in the organisation, the greater their level of wellbeing. Finally, irrespective of their length of tenure at the university or under the current supervisor, the longer people served in the sample university, the greater the feeling of wellbeing they experienced.

The focus of the discussion will now be directed to examining each of the current project's research questions in turn. Specifically, what is the effect of leadership styles on employee wellbeing; how do the different leadership styles within an Australian HES setting affect the organisational outcomes of job satisfaction, employee organisational commitment and turnover intention; and how does employee wellbeing mediate the effect of different leadership styles on these organisational outcomes?

6.3 The Effect of Leadership Styles on Employee Wellbeing

The first research question of the present research was “*How do different leadership styles within the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) affect employee wellbeing in an Australian regional university setting?*” This research question had the following associated research hypotheses:

- ***Hypothesis 1a: Transformational leadership style will positively affect employee wellbeing (at work) within an Australian regional university setting.***

- ***Hypothesis 1b:*** *Transactional leadership style will positively affect employee wellbeing of an Australian regional university setting.*
- ***Hypothesis 1c:*** *Laissez-faire leadership style will negatively affect employee wellbeing in an Australian regional university setting.*

A major finding of the present study was that leadership styles significantly affect employee wellbeing. Firstly, the correlational analysis showed that transformational leadership and employee wellbeing were significantly correlated. Secondly, the regression analysis revealed that transformational leadership significantly predicted employee wellbeing. Together these findings confirm the present hypothesis that transformational leadership style will positively affect employee wellbeing within an Australian regional university setting (hypothesis 1a).

This finding of transformational leadership positively affecting employee wellbeing is consistent with earlier research from a number of other organisational settings (McCarthy et al., 2011; Nielsen & Minir, 2009, Tafvelin et al., 2011). For example, McCarthy et al. (2011) in a study among 319 Australian human resource professionals of organisations with more than 50 employees and yearly turnover of more than AUS\$10 million found that 50 per cent of the respondents considered leadership to be the most important factor for improving employee performance. Similarly, in both a cross sectional (n = 447) and longitudinal (n = 188) study among Danish government employees, Nielsen and Minir (2009) found a direct relationship between transformational leadership and employee affective wellbeing.

In the present study, the hierarchical regression analysis did not show a significant effect of transactional leadership on employee wellbeing although it was observed that transactional leadership and employee wellbeing were positively correlated. Thus, the

current data did not confirm the hypothesis that transactional leadership style will positively affect employee wellbeing of an Australian regional university setting (hypothesis 1b). A reason for such finding may be that the correlation coefficient of transactional leadership in the case of the follower survey was not satisfactory. Furthermore, in a study among Canadian telecommunication field workers Kelloway et al. (2012) found that Active Management by Expectation (AMBE) which is a component of transactional leadership had negative affect on employee psychological wellbeing.

The current research observed that laissez-faire leadership style had a significant negative impact on employee wellbeing. This finding confirms the current thesis hypothesis that laissez-faire leadership style will negatively affect employee wellbeing in an Australian regional university setting (hypothesis 1c). This finding is supported by previous leadership research. For example, Zineldin and Hytter (2012) agreed that laissez-faire leaders in HES “do not set any clear direction, vision, or mission” (p. 250). Hence, it is expected that laissez-faire-leadership will not be conducive for employee wellbeing. Indeed, in their study on leadership style and employee wellbeing among academics (n=48) of a western European university, Zineldin and Hytter (2012) found no significant contribution of laissez-faire leadership on employee wellbeing. In further support of the present finding, another previous study among Canadian telecommunication employees Kelloway et al. (2012) found that laissez-faire leadership negatively affected employee psychological wellbeing.

Previous researchers have related issues such as workload and work-life balance with both employee wellbeing and leadership styles. For example, in a study on the effect of wellbeing on employee turnover intention in Australia, Scanlan et al. (2013) argued that “one person-related factor that may influence wellbeing at work is an individual’s

satisfaction with their work-life balance” (p. 396). More recently, in a study among employees of HES in the UK, Ryan and Peters (2015) found that workload is related to employee work-life balance. It is further argued that “many of the key antecedents of work-life balance were under the control of leadership teams” (Ryan & Peters, 2015, p. 5). Indeed, Ryan and Peters (2015) observed significant correlations between different aspects of leadership and work-life balance suggesting that employee wellbeing is associated with leadership style.

The qualitative thematic analysis of the open-ended questions of the followers’ survey in the current research also support the quantitative findings above that suggest a significant effect of leadership style on employee wellbeing in a regional Australian university. For example, in response to a question in the follower survey of the current study “*what does wellbeing at work mean to you?*” many of the employees mentioned the importance of work-life balance in affecting wellbeing at work. For example, highlighting the importance of work-life balance, one respondent said “*a safe and friendly environment offers work-life balance*” (Respondent 30), while another respondent simply mentioned “*work-life balance*” (Respondent 132). Respondents also consider leadership is responsible for employee wellbeing. For example, when answering the above question, a respondent wrote “*A harmonious workplace where staff feel safe and supported by colleagues and leadership*” (Respondent 193).

Many of the followers also related workload to their wellbeing at work. For example, in response to the above question, a respondent stated “*it means that I am treated with respect and given professional regard for my areas of expertise. I am also given flexibility to manage my workload*” (Respondent 103). In response to another question “*in your opinion what other work circumstances, other than leadership, affect*

your wellbeing at work, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and/or turnover intentions?” a respondent stated *“management of workloads is an issue that can lead to a number of negative effects on wellbeing”* (Respondent 58), while another respondent mentioned *“workload does affect wellbeing, especially if people feel they are not able to cope with the expectations”* (Respondent 67).

Respondents of the follower survey also indicated workload is related to leadership. For example, one of the respondents of the follower survey commented *“workload but that is also determined by my supervisor”* (Respondent 118). When given the opportunity to say anything that they could not express through the survey questions, another respondent mentioned *“I strongly believe the leadership of both my work unit and the organisation as a whole affect staff wellbeing and organisational success”* (Respondent 84). Taken together, the thematic analysis of qualitative findings from the open-ended questions of the followers’ survey are consistent with the recent findings of Ryan and Peters (2015) who suggested leadership style strongly effects employee wellbeing in a HES.

In conclusion, the findings of both quantitative and qualitative analysis of the present thesis, taken together with the extant literature, strongly suggest that leadership styles affect employee wellbeing within an Australian regional university setting. Specifically, both the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the present thesis showed that transformational leadership positively affects employee wellbeing, a finding that is consistent with the existing leadership literature. The current findings also suggest no significant effect of transactional leadership on employee wellbeing while laissez-faire leadership was found to have a negative effect on employee wellbeing, again a finding that is consistent with the extant literature. The qualitative analysis of the present data

suggested a number of issues such as work-life balance and workload are also associated with employee wellbeing. To again highlight the importance of leadership style in a HES, the thematic analysis of the open-ended questions in the current project has shown that both work-life balance and workload are also influenced by leadership within an organisation such as a regional Australian university.

6.4 The Effect of Leadership Style on Organisational Outcomes

The second research question of the present project was “*How do different leadership styles within an Australian HES setting affect the organisational outcomes of job satisfaction, employee organisational commitment and turnover intention?*” The research question had the following hypotheses:

- ***Hypothesis 2a:*** Transformational leadership style will positively affect employee job satisfaction within an Australian regional university setting.
- ***Hypothesis 2b:*** Transactional leadership style will positively affect employee job satisfaction of an Australian regional university setting.
- ***Hypothesis 2c:*** Laissez-faire leadership style will negatively affect employee job satisfaction at an Australian regional university setting.
- ***Hypothesis 3a:*** Transformational leadership style will positively affect employee organisational commitment within an Australian regional university setting.
- ***Hypothesis 3b:*** Transactional leadership style will positively affect employee organisational commitment within an Australian regional university setting.
- ***Hypothesis 3c:*** Laissez-faire leadership style will negatively affect employee organisational commitment at an Australian regional university setting.
- ***Hypothesis 4a:*** Transformational leadership style will negatively affect employee turnover intention within an Australian regional university setting.

- ***Hypothesis 4b:*** *Transactional leadership style will negatively affect employee turnover intention within an Australian regional university setting.*
- ***Hypothesis 4c:*** *Laissez-faire leadership style will positively affect employee turnover intention at an Australian regional university setting.*

Both the followers and leaders within the current sample from an Australian regional university reported that leadership style affects employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. In general terms, the present data suggest that leaders had stronger views about the effect of leadership (see Chapter 5, Figure 5.19 on p. 155). For example, while 71 per cent of followers ‘slightly’, ‘moderately’ or ‘strongly agreed’ that leadership style affects employee turnover intention, 91 per cent leaders ‘slightly’, ‘moderately’ or ‘strongly’ agreed that leadership style affects turnover intention. In contrast, 29 per cent of the followers feel that leadership has no impact on employee turnover intention.

The possibility of leaders’ elevated self-perception about their own leadership style and hence their view on the importance of leadership may have influenced the result. Thus, conceptualisation of the effect of leadership is a relative issue. While describing the attitudes of academics in the HES, Bolden et al. (2015) argued that “the very notion of ‘leadership’ and its common association with power and inequality, may be perceived as problematic and unappealing” (p. 9). Moreover, followers’ perspectives on the effect of leadership might be influenced by their view that apart from leadership, there are other important factors such as collegiality, work-life balance, respect, reward, job design and workload that may affect the organisational outcomes. Furthermore, differences of opinion between leaders and followers within the HES are also visible elsewhere. For example, a study among HES employees in the UK on leadership found that while 58 per cent HES employees feel the culture of their institution is bureaucratic, while only 13 per

cent of the governors of those institutions feel that the culture of those institutions is bureaucratic (Greatbatch, 2015).

In the present thesis, hierarchical regression analysis was undertaken to assess the effect of different leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) within the FRLT on organisational outcomes including job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. In the following sections, findings of the effect of each leadership style (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) on each of the organisational outcomes of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention will be discussed.

6.4.1 The effect of leadership style on job satisfaction. The analysis of the results of the followers' survey showed that transformational leadership had a significant impact on job satisfaction. This finding confirmed the hypothesis that transformational leadership style will positively affect employee job satisfaction within an Australian regional university setting (hypothesis 2a). The finding is consistent with the existing literature (AbuAlrub & Alghamdi, 2012; Aydin et al., 2013; Felfe & Schyns, 2004). For example, a meta-analysis conducted by Aydin et al. (2013) examined the effect of school principals' leadership style on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction and found that transformational leadership affects job satisfaction in a positive manner. However, in the hierarchical regression analysis of the present thesis, employee wellbeing was found to be the strongest predictor of job satisfaction in employees of a regional Australian university. Hence, in this current research project, a mediation analysis was carried out to examine the mediating effect of employee wellbeing on the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction which will be discussed later in section 6.5 of this chapter.

In the present project it was hypothesised that transactional leadership style will positively affect employee job satisfaction of an Australian regional university setting (hypothesis 2b). The current data rejects that hypothesis. The regression analysis showed that the impact of transactional leadership on job satisfaction was not statistically significant. There may be a number of reasons for such findings. Firstly, the alpha coefficient of transactional leadership was low ($\alpha = .62$). Secondly, the mediation analysis revealed that employee wellbeing was the strongest predictor of job satisfaction which explained maximum variance followed by transformational leadership, laissez-faire leadership and age. Thirdly, inconsistency has been observed in earlier research examining the relationship between transactional leadership style and job satisfaction. For example, in a study among 308 nurses in Saudi Arabia, AbuAlrub and Alghamdi (2012) found that transactional leadership had a negative impact on job satisfaction and the beta weight was significant. In contrast, in a recent study among 423 public and private organisations in Canada, Mathieu and Babiak (2015) found that although transactional leadership had a positive relationship with job satisfaction, the beta coefficient of the impact of transactional leadership on job satisfaction was not significant. Finally, an earlier study by Fernandes and Awamleh (2004) on the effect of transformational and transactional leadership styles on employee job satisfaction among managers at functional levels in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) found no significant effect of transactional leadership on job satisfaction. Thus, it appears that the relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction could not be established in this study and there are inconsistent findings in the literature about the impact of transactional leadership and job satisfaction.

Organisational and/or cultural context of the research, use of different measurement tools, and differences in measurement scales may contribute to the

discrepancies observed in research examining the effect of transactional leadership on job satisfaction. For example, although both studies (AbuAlrub & Alghamdi, 2012; Mathieu and Babiak, 2015) used the same measurement tool used in the current project MLQ 5x short (Avolio & Bass, 2004) and measured transactional leadership in a five-point Likert scale, the first study (AbuAlrub & Alghamdi, 2012) measured job satisfaction with 36 items of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (Spector, 1985). In contrast, in the more recent study by Mathieu and Babiak (2015), job satisfaction was measured with 20 items of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). The alpha coefficient for transactional leadership in the later study was only 0.59 while the overall (MLQ 5x short) alpha coefficient for the earlier study was 0.87. These reasons may explain the rejection of the current research hypothesis that transactional leadership would positively affect employee job satisfaction.

In the present study, laissez-faire leadership style was significantly and negatively related to job satisfaction. Moreover, the result of the regression analysis in the current project also showed that laissez-faire leadership had a significant and negative impact on job satisfaction. Thus, the hypothesis that laissez-faire leadership style will negatively affect employee job satisfaction at an Australian regional university setting (hypothesis 2c) was supported by the current findings.

This finding is consistent with Aydin et al. (2013) who found using meta-analysis that laissez-faire leadership had a negative impact on employee job satisfaction. However, although Mathieu and Babiak (2015) observed a negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership and job satisfaction, the beta weight of the relationship in the regression analysis was positive. This may have occurred due to the fact that in their research,

Mathieu and Babiak (2015) controlled transformational and transactional leadership while assessing the impact of laissez-faire leadership.

In summary, in the current study the hypothesis (hypothesis 2a) that transformational leadership style will positively affect employee job satisfaction within an Australian regional university setting was supported and the hypothesis (hypothesis 2c) that laissez-faire leadership style will negatively affect employee job satisfaction at an Australian regional university setting was also established. However, the hypothesis (hypothesis 2b) that transactional leadership style will positively affect employee job satisfaction of an Australian regional university setting could not be supported.

6.4.2 The effect of leadership style on organisational commitment. The present data revealed that transformational leadership was both positively correlated with organisational commitment and positively affects employee organisational commitment. These findings support the current research hypothesis that transformational leadership style will positively affect employee organisational commitment within an Australian regional university setting (hypothesis 3a).

The above result is consistent with previous research examining the effect of leadership style on organisational commitment (Aydin et al., 2013; Muchiri et al., 2012). For example, in a meta-analysis examining possible effects of leadership styles of school principals in Turkey, Aydin et al. (2013) found that as the transformational leadership behaviour of school principals increases, teachers' organisational commitment increases.

The present study observed that transactional leadership was also positively correlated with organisational commitment. However, the regression analysis revealed the

effect of transactional leadership on employee organisational commitment was not statistically significant. Thus, the hypothesis that transactional leadership style will positively affect employee organisational commitment within an Australian regional university setting (hypothesis 3b) was rejected.

There may be a number of reasons for not observing a significant effect of transactional leadership style on organisational commitment. Firstly, in the regression analysis undertaken in the current project it was found that both transformational leadership and employee wellbeing were the significant predictors of organisational commitment. Secondly, transformational and transactional styles of leadership were highly correlated in the present research which is expected as the two leadership styles are suggested to be paired and not contradictory to each other (Fernandes & Awamleh, 2004). Thirdly, a low alpha coefficient ($\alpha = .62$) of transactional leadership may also contribute to this outcome.

The present data suggest a significantly negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership and organisational commitment. However, no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership on organisational commitment was observed during the hierarchical regression analysis. Therefore, the present thesis hypothesis that laissez-faire leadership style will negatively affect employee organisational commitment at an Australian regional university setting (hypothesis 3c) was rejected. The composition of the sample, their attitude towards the effect of leadership on their organisational commitment, and the method of analysis may have contributed to this finding.

6.4.3 The effect of leadership style on turnover intention. In the present project, data analysis revealed that transformational leadership and employee turnover intention were negatively correlated. This finding suggests that as transformational leadership

increases, employee turnover intention will decrease, which is a positive outcome for any organisation. In further support of this finding, the regression analysis undertaken in the present study also showed that transformational leadership had a significant negative impact on turnover intention. Taken together, these findings confirmed the current thesis hypothesis that transformational leadership style will negatively affect employee turnover intention within an Australian regional university setting (hypothesis 4a).

The above finding is consistent with recent leadership research (Mathieu & Babiak, 2015; Tse et al., 2013) that posits transformational leadership leads to employees exhibiting lower turnover intentions. However, as with the present project's finding of employee wellbeing being a strong predictor of employee job satisfaction in a regional Australian university, employee wellbeing was also found to be the strongest predictor of turnover intention. The mediating effect of employee wellbeing was therefore assessed during the present research and the results discussed in section 6.5.

Transactional leadership was also negatively correlated to employee turnover intention. However, with turnover intention, no significant effect of transactional leadership style was observed following regression analysis. The hypothesis that transactional leadership style will negatively affect employee turnover intention within an Australian regional university setting (hypothesis 4b) was therefore rejected in the current research. This finding is consistent with Mathieu and Babiak (2015) who also found no significant effect of transactional leadership on employee turnover intention among employees from public and private organisations in Canada. However, in their research Mathieu and Babiak (2015), controlled for the effect of transformational leadership during their analyses.

Finally, the current data showed that laissez-faire leadership was positively related to turnover intention. Moreover, as expected, a positive effect of laissez-faire leadership on turnover intention was observed following the regression analysis. Taken together, these findings support the present study's hypothesis that laissez-faire leadership style will positively affect employee turnover intention at an Australian regional university setting (hypothesis 4c). Although there has been limited previous research examining the effect of laissez-faire leadership on turnover intention, the present finding is consistent with that of Mathieu and Babiak (2015) who examined these variables in 423 employees of public and private organisations in Canada. These researchers observed that laissez-faire leadership was the strongest predictor of turnover intention. However, although the current study found laissez-faire leadership to be a predictor of turnover intention, employee wellbeing was found to be the strongest predictor of turnover intention and employee wellbeing also had a negative impact on turnover intention. The mediating effect of employee wellbeing on the relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and employee turnover intention will be discussed at section 6.5 of this chapter.

In summary, consistent with the leadership literature in different organisational settings, the present findings strongly suggest that transformational leadership within a regional HES in Australia has a significant effect on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. In contrast, the present data revealed no significant effect of transactional leadership on these variables. Thus, the hypotheses (2b, 3b, 4b) regarding the effects of transactional leadership on organisational outcomes were rejected. Although hypotheses (2c & 4c) were supported with regards to the effect of laissez-faire on employee job satisfaction and turnover intention; no conclusive evidence was found in favour of the hypothesis (3c) that laissez-faire leadership may negatively affect organisational commitment. Finally, the present data

suggest employee wellbeing to be the strongest predictor of both job satisfaction and turnover intention. Therefore, it might be suggested that employee wellbeing may mediate the effect of leadership styles on organisational outcomes. The following section will discuss these unique and original findings from the present study that examined this mediating effect.

6.5 The Mediating Effect of Employee Wellbeing on the Relationship between Leadership Styles and Organisational Outcomes

Apart from concurrently examining the effect of three different leadership styles on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes, another unique contribution of the present research was to examine the mediating effect of employee wellbeing on the relationships between leadership style and organisational outcomes including job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. This section of the thesis discussion will address the third research question: “*within an Australian regional university setting, does employee wellbeing mediate the effect of different leadership styles on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, employee organisational commitment and turnover intention?*” This research question had the following associated research hypotheses:

- ***Hypothesis 5a*** *Employee wellbeing will mediate the effect of transformational leadership on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention in an Australian regional university setting.*
- ***Hypothesis 5b:*** *Employee wellbeing will mediate the effect of transactional leadership on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention in an Australian regional university setting.*

- ***Hypothesis 5c:*** *Employee wellbeing will mediate the effect of laissez-faire leadership on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention in an Australian regional university setting.*

Barry and Kenny (1986) identified that the mediator function of a third variable represents the generative mechanism through which the focal independent variable is able to influence the dependent variable of interest. More recently, it has been suggested that the mediating variable has to predict the dependent variable (Field, 2013).

A number of earlier studies have shown that employee wellbeing independently affects organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention (Brunetto et al., 2012; Stiglbauer et al., 2012). For example, in a study among 193 police officers in Australia, Brunetto et al. (2012) observed a significant positive relationship between employee wellbeing and job satisfaction, employee wellbeing and affective commitment, as well as a significant negative relationship between employee wellbeing and turnover intention. More recently, in a study of 226 Australian nurses, Rodwell and Munroe (2013) found that employee wellbeing explained additional variance in organisational commitment. While exploring the mediating effect of employee wellbeing on the relationship between job insecurity and turnover intention among 178 employees in Germany, Stiglbauer et al., (2012) also found that affective wellbeing, as measured by GHQ-12 (Goldberg & Hillier, 1979) had a negative effect on turnover intention. The current study also used the GHQ-12 (Goldberg & Hillier, 1979) to measure affective wellbeing of the academic and professional staff within an Australian regional HES setting.

In the present project, hierarchical regression analysis revealed that the mediating variable (employee wellbeing) had the greatest effect on job satisfaction. The same analysis further showed that employee wellbeing positively predicted organisational

commitment but negatively predicted turnover intention of employees within a regional Australian university. Moreover, it was found through the current project's mediation analysis (Hayes, 2013) that employee wellbeing mediated the relationship between the independent variables (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) and the dependent variables of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. The finding confirmed the hypotheses 5a, 5b and 5c of the present thesis.

In support of the above findings related to employee wellbeing mediating the relationship between leadership style and organisational outcomes, the qualitative research also revealed close associations between leadership styles, employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. As shown in Chapter 5 of the current thesis (pp. 160–163), thematic analysis of the open-ended responses of the followers' survey identified common issues such as collegiality, workload, work-life balance, job security, health and wellbeing, career progression and flexibility when describing both their understanding of wellbeing and the issues other than leadership that affect employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention.

The thematic analysis of the current thesis (see Figure 5.21, p. 161) revealed that collegiality was identified as a key component of employee wellbeing and also a factor that affects organisational outcomes. In work-life balance literature (Johnson & Hall, 1988; Karasek & Theorell, 1990) the term 'social support' is often used to describe support from work colleagues including peers and superiors. Balsmeyer, Haubrich, and Quinn (1996) argued that the word collegiality is not well defined in the academic setting. In a research project among faculty members at a Midwestern university in the USA they found that collegiality related to "willingness to serve on committees and perform work necessary to departmental operations, willingness to provide guidance and help

colleagues in their professional duties, respect for the ideas of others, and conduct of one's professional life without prejudice toward others” (p. 264).

A number of previous studies have also shown that factors such as workload, collegiality among co-workers, superior-subordinate relations, physical work conditions, work-life balance, degree of independence/flexibility, reward, career advancement/promotion, salary and job security affect job satisfaction and turnover intention (Kifle & Desta, 2012; Ryan & Peters, 2015; Şentuna, 2015; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009; Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005). Indeed, Ryan and Peters (2015) recently found that work-life balance is also significantly associated with employee intention to stay.

Leadership may influence many of the issues such as workload, physical work condition, challenging work, concern for followers, degree of independence/flexibility, reward, work-life balance, career advancement/promotion, salary and job security, which followers have identified as meaning of wellbeing at work. This may also explain how wellbeing may affect the relationship between leadership and organisational outcomes. For example, management concern for followers (individual consideration of transformational leadership), challenging work (intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership) are likely to reinforce leadership style which ultimately increase positive influence or reduces negative effects of leadership on organisational outcomes.

In summary, based on the qualitative and quantitative analysis undertaken within the current projects, and findings from previous research in the HES context, it might be suggested that apart from leadership, employee wellbeing is an important factor that affects organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. Thus, the present research strongly suggests that employee wellbeing

mediates the effect of leadership on organisational outcomes, highlighting the importance of a strong focus on employee wellbeing within the HES that aims for positive organisational outcomes.

6.6 Other Issues Emerging from this Research

In addition to examining and answering the research questions posed in the current research, a number of issues related to leadership in the Australian HES emerged during the present project. These issues include the leadership culture of an Australian regional university, thoughts on other leadership styles in the context of Australian HES, leadership style preferred by employees of the university, and differences of opinion between leaders and followers about the importance of leadership in a university setting.

The first issue arising from the present project is which leadership culture in HES within Australia and overseas might influence the leadership styles within the organisation. As discussed in Chapter 2 of the present thesis, the culture of an organisation influences leadership (Liden & Antonakis, 2009; Muchiri et al., 2011; Nyberg et al., 2011). Consistently, researchers have agreed that cultural characteristics need to be taken into consideration in the leadership research literature (Dorfman et al., 1997; Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede et al., 2010; House et al., 2004; Smith & Peterson, 1988). Indeed, in a recent study among employees of HES in the UK, Greatbatch (2015) found that 73 per cent of governors of universities in the UK acknowledged the importance of adopting a leadership style that is consistent with the leadership culture of their institution. Interestingly, the same recent study, based on responses from 841 employees and 62 governors in the UK, showed that 55 per cent of the employees reported that the culture of their institution is hierarchical (Greatbatch, 2015). The present finding about the leadership culture is consistent with this finding. Thus, despite a call for other ways to

conceptualise leadership in HES (Bolden et al., 2015, Davis & Jones, 2014), scholarly communities are still likely led by ‘command and control’ management approaches and driven by corporate economic goals (Greatbatch, 2015; Harris, 2009; Holt et al., 2013; Sharrock, 2012). The diverse cohorts making up the HES (that is, academic and professional staff), distinct organisational structures, differing nature of organisational goals, and the focus on achieving corporate economic goals may contribute to promoting a hierarchical leadership approach in an Australian regional university.

The second issue arising during the present research was the suggestion that a number of other leadership styles apart from the ones used in the FRLT may be observed within the HES setting. The qualitative analysis of the current project also facilitated an examination of the transformational leadership approach compared to other contemporary leadership approaches such as authentic, distributed, servant and spiritual leadership. Although the present data suggest a clear preference for transformational leadership in the sampled Australian regional university, the result of the qualitative analysis suggested that these same employees also highlighted characteristics of other leadership styles such as authentic, servant, distributed and spiritual leadership are also preferred in leaders. While the qualitative analysis of the followers’ responses to the open-ended questions in the current research showed that approximately 37 per cent of the respondents preferred transformational leadership, only four per cent preferred transactional leadership and none preferred laissez-faire leadership style. As there are common characteristics of transformational leadership attributed to other leadership styles listed above, the current research found that 25 per cent of the respondents preferred authentic leadership, 20 per cent servant leadership, nine per cent distributed leadership, and four per cent preferred spiritual leadership as being most applicable for an Australian regional university. It might therefore be useful to apply multiple lenses or theories for examining leadership

when examining leadership within the modern university, especially within a regional university context.

The third issue arising from the present project is the preferred leadership style within an Australian regional university. The current research compared the findings of both the quantitative and qualitative analysis to examine what leadership style is most appropriate in the context of an Australian regional university. The quantitative analysis of both the follower and leader surveys showed that transformational leadership is the most prevalent leadership style in the sampled Australian regional university. This finding is consistent with the leadership literature that suggests transformational leadership to be a leader-follower interaction-based leadership style and the most conducive leadership style for followers in many workplace settings (Braun et al., 2013; Hur et al., 2011; Jin et al., 2016; Lo et al., 2010; Northouse, 2011; Saleem, 2015).

The present quantitative finding that transformational leadership is the most prevalent leadership style in the sampled Australian regional university was confirmed by findings of the thematic analysis of the present research. Moreover, the qualitative analysis indicated a top down leadership style in the context of current leadership culture of the university. For example, while describing characteristics of a good leader in an Australian regional university, a respondent reported “*good leadership begins at the top and if it is lacking in anyway this flows on down the waterfall*” (Respondent 173). Another respondent stated “*I feel it is not just the immediate supervisor but the management layers above that have an impact on wellbeing in a workplace, i.e., the culture of a workplace*” (Respondent 41). Furthermore, followers’ response to a question “*In your opinion what are the characteristics of an effective leader in a regional university*” revealed that a number of leadership characteristics such as charismatic,

having global strategic thinking, creating shared vision and motivating team to achieve shared vision, focusing on outcomes, humility, promoting employee development, installing confidence among team members, taking responsibility, and inclusiveness as key characteristics of an effective leader.

Many of these above characteristics are key components of transformational leadership. For example, it has been argued that charisma is a key component of transformational leadership that generates emotional connection between followers and leaders and creates excitement about the shared mission (Bass, 1985; Fernandes & Awamleh, 2004). Motivating followers for a shared vision which appeared to be an important characteristic is also a key aspect of transformational leadership. Furthermore, other components of transformational leadership such as inspirational motivation, idealised influence, individualised consideration, and intellectual stimulation also attract employees towards accomplishment of shared vision (Appelbaum et al., 2015; Avolio & Bass, 1991; Ertureten et al., 2013). Although most of these qualities are key components of transformational leadership, many of these characteristics may also be attributed to other leadership styles such as authentic, servant, spiritual and distributed leadership. However, in the current study, a thematic analysis of the followers' responses to the above open-ended question showed that 37 per cent of the respondents preferred characteristics that are common to transformational leaders (see Chapter 5, Figure 5.20, p. 157). Hence, despite being a top-down leadership approach, the current study found that transformational leadership is preferable compared to other leadership styles such as authentic, servant, distributed and spiritual leadership.

Preference to the leadership traits found during the current study and mentioned above are also visible in recent research from the UK HES (Greatbatch, 2015). Thus

taken together it appears that transformational leadership style best describes those leadership characteristics. For example, key issues that employees in the HES in the UK wish to see in their line managers are vision, sense of direction, clear understanding of challenges, focus, knowledge to lead effectively, decision making, collegiality, good communication, testing ideas, integrity, consensus building, proper allocation of resources, people skill, positive outlook, trust, teamwork, encouragement for professional and personal development, willingness to listen, and having the best interest of the followers (Peters & Ryan, 2015b). Peters and Ryan (2015b) identified ‘having the right personal characteristics’, ‘relating in the right way’, and ‘representing the group’ as the three main dimensions of leadership among the line managers in the HES in the UK. The ‘right personal characteristics’ included vision, knowledge to effectively lead, sense of direction, focus, clear decision making, collegiality and ability to appropriately allocate resources. ‘Relating in the right way’ included listening and helping people in group, trust and encouragement. Finally, ‘representing the group’ included willingness to listen, clear understanding of opportunities and challenges, and individualised consideration. These characteristics are well-established elements of transformational leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1991; Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Lowe & Gardner, 2001; Simola et al., 2010). Perhaps that is why employees of HES prefer leaders with attributes of a transformational leader. Indeed, previous research examining CEO leadership style and its effect on organisational diversity practice among 582 CEOs and Vice Presidents of 286 large companies in Canada found that transformational leadership is closely correlated with organisational diversity practice and positively influences organisational diversity practice (Ng & Sears, 2012). It is also argued that transformational leadership promotes and supports innovation, which ensures the long-term sustainability of any organisation (Ancona & Caldwell, 1987). Therefore, in view of findings of the current study and

findings of the studies overseas it may be argued that transformational leadership may be considered as an effective leadership style under the prevailing top-down leadership culture of the HES in Australia.

The final issue identified within the current research project is differing opinions between leaders and followers within HES as to the effect of leadership on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. The current study found that although there is consensus among the followers and leaders in the current research that “*leadership is the critical issue*” (Respondent 62) and that leadership affects employee wellbeing, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention, there is difference between leaders and followers in terms of degree of effect of leadership on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. In the present project, compared to followers, leaders feel leadership has a greater effect on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. For example, while only nine per cent of leaders do not feel leadership affects turnover intention, 29 per cent of follower do not feel that leadership affect employee turnover intention. In further support of the differing views on leadership between leaders and followers, the quantitative analysis of the data in both the follower and leader surveys of the current project showed that respondents reported that the predominant leadership style within the sampled university is transformational leadership. The data showed that on a five-point Likert scale, mean indicator of transformational leadership was 2.53 for followers compared to 4.10 as indicated by leaders themselves. This finding suggests that compared to followers, more leaders feel that their leadership style is transformational. This difference between leaders and followers’ opinion is also evident in overseas studies. For example, in a recent study within the HES of the UK, Greatbatch (2015) found that there are differing opinions on leadership between leaders and followers. More than half of UK HES employees reported that the culture of their institutions is bureaucratic and

hierarchical while only 13 per cent of the governors think the culture of their institution is bureaucratic with only 19 per cent of the governors admitting that the culture of their institution is hierarchical (Greatbatch, 2015). Differences of opinion about leaders' effectiveness is also visible in a more recent large study in Australia. In a study on 4500 followers and 2500 leaders in the Australian workplace Healy (2016) found that there is a difference between followers' perception of their leaders' effectiveness and leader's self-perception about their effectiveness in the workplace. In a five point Likert scale where higher score indicated better perception about the leaders' performance, employees rating of their leaders (3.67) was much less than the leaders (3.87 to 4.14). Their immediate supervisors' self-rating about their effectiveness as leader was 3.87 while CEOs self-rating about their effectiveness was 4.14. The finding of the current study about differences of opinion between followers and leaders is therefore supported by studies in Australia and overseas.

6.7 Strengths and Limitations of the Research

The major strength and original contribution to knowledge of the present project is the concurrent examination of the effect of differing leadership styles on employee wellbeing and three important organisational outcomes in an Australian regional university setting through the use of the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991). Previous research has examined the effect of leadership styles on these variables but only focused on the effect of a particular leadership style on a specific organisational outcome.

The nature of the current HES, in particular within an Australian regional university, is unique due to its composition of two different types of employees (professional and academic), its dynamic nature, its unique set of strategic objectives, and its unique organisational structure. As discussed in Chapter 1 of the present thesis, a

modern university consists of academics that impart knowledge to the student cohort and a large body of professional staff who help facilitate this knowledge sharing process. As a result, each university has its organisational structure composed of different layers of leadership within both the academic and professional staff. Sometimes these leadership domains may overlap. For example, an academic may supervise professional staff besides other academics while leaders at different levels within the organisation may adopt different leadership styles. This unique organisational setting creates a leadership hierarchy within an Australian regional university. Therefore, an examination of leadership in a regional HES context will have a unique contribution to the knowledge of leadership.

Although there has been a plethora of previous research investigating the effect of different leadership styles in different organisational settings, there is no known research that has concurrently examined the effects of different leadership styles on multiple organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention together with the mediating effect of employee wellbeing within the Australian HES. The present research not only examined the effects of different leadership styles on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes in an Australian regional university setting, it examined the leadership phenomenon from both the leaders' and followers' perspectives. The present data revealed that both leaders and followers within the regional Australian university agree that leadership affects both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. However, there were differences between leaders and followers with the leaders identifying that leadership style has a significantly greater impact on employee wellbeing than that perceived by the employees.

Another unique contribution and strength of the present study is the examination of the mediating effect of employee wellbeing on the relationship between leadership styles and organisational outcomes in an Australian HES context. Although leadership style was found to be a key contributor to job satisfaction and turnover intention in the sample Australian HES setting, the present data found that employee wellbeing is the major determinant of each of these dependent variables. Moreover and uniquely, the present study is the first to identify that employee wellbeing mediates the relationship between leadership and organisational outcomes. In addition, the qualitative analysis identified that while leadership is a key determinant of employee wellbeing, other elements such as collegiality, work-life balance, respect, workload, happiness at work, flexibility and autonomy, career progression and job security also are important for both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes.

The present study has a number of other strengths. These include the representativeness of the sample, use of validated measurement tools, and strong logistical support from both the university leadership and employee union. Firstly, the sample can be considered as truly representative of the population of the university in terms of age, gender and job status (academic/professional staff). Secondly, a set of previously validated and widely-used measurement instruments were implemented in the present research. For example, the MLQ 5x short (Avolio & Bass, 2004) is a widely used tool to assess transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles along with outcome variables. The same instrument has been used in a number of countries and in diverse organisational settings (AbuAlrub & Alghamdi, 2012; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015; van Eeden, Cilliers, & van Deventer, 2008). However, there has been some inconsistencies in findings due to context and use of different scale for the dependent variables measured in the current project. The General Health Questionnaire—12

(GHQ-12) (Goldberg & Hillier, 1979) has also been widely used in previous leadership research as a valid tool for measuring psychological wellbeing and affective wellbeing in different organisational settings (Stiglbauer et al., 2012). In addition, organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention were also measured in the current research using valid and well-established measurement tools. Thirdly, the present research was supported by senior executives of the sample university including the Vice Chancellor, Heads of Directorates including People and Culture, Deans of Schools, and the local branch of the National Tertiary Education Union (NTEU). Taken together, the study is unique in that it was supported by both leaders and followers.

A number of limitations of the present research were also identified. Firstly, the research was cross sectional in design. The research was primarily quantitative dominant research with limited qualitative data analysis. Such an approach may not be robust enough to conclude a causal relationship among the variables of interest. This limitation was unavoidable due to the scope of the research being part of a PhD program that has to be completed within a specified timeframe. In future, longitudinal and more robust mixed method research with more qualitative data analysis tools could be conducted on the same population and in different organisational settings which may help to generalise the findings of the current research.

A second limitation of the present research is that the sample used in the current project was a sample of convenience and the data collected was self-report data which could potentially lead to problems of common method bias. Therefore, as recommended by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff (2003), a number of remedial measures such as different response scales for different measures, use of different questionnaire

sections, reverse questions, and, above all, strong assurance of confidentiality through the information sheet were used in the present project to overcome this limitation.

A third limitation of the present project was the sample size. Although the followers' survey response rate was 14 and 30 per cent for the leaders' survey, both samples may be considered as representative of the university population as shown in Table 5.1 on page 116. Following a number of reminders from the Vice Chancellor, Directors of university directorates including the Director of People and Culture, and local branch of the NTEU as well as incentives for participation including bookshop vouchers, further reminders could not be given due to the limitations imposed by the institutional ethics committee. Moreover, the sensitivity of the research topic and the occurrence of a natural disaster (cyclone) during the survey period may have also contributed to the relatively low response rate. However, Jones and Pitt (1999) carried out a research project examining typical response rates of postal, email, and World Wide Web survey methods and found that response rates of web-based surveys such as those used in the present project, was approximately 19 per cent. Indeed, a more recent research project among Australian HR professionals that used online survey methodology had a nine per cent response rate (McCarthy et al., 2011). Moreover, another previous research on work-life balance among the Australian and New Zealand surveying profession had a response rate of 11.8 per cent (Wilkinson, 2008). Thus, the present study's response rate of 14 per cent in case of followers' and 30 per cent for leaders' are comparable with those of previous studies.

A final limitation of the present project may be the reliability of the scale scores in both the follower and leader surveys. Although measurement items of the MLQ 5x short (Avolio & Bass, 2004) used for both transactional and laissez-faire leadership were

previously found to be reliable in diverse organisational settings, in the present research the Cronbach alpha for transformational leadership was not satisfactory in the followers' survey and laissez-faire leadership was not found to be satisfactory following the leaders' survey. The alpha coefficient for the current study was not satisfactory ($\alpha = .62$) even after removing items of 'Passive Management by Expectation'. The observed low alpha coefficient scores may be due to a number of factors. First, the current study was conducted among employees of an Australian regional university which has a distinct character compared to previous studies. Second, the low sample size for the leader survey ($n=82$). Third, Yukl (1999) observed that transactional leadership factors often split between transformation leadership and laissez-faire leadership. Finally, it might be argued that often effective leaders are both transformational and transactional (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999). Indeed, previous research has argued that transformational and transactional leadership are complimentary (Fernandes & Awamleh, 2004). However, the low alpha score of transactional leadership in the current study is consistent with those observed in previous studies (Carless, 1998; Heinitz, Liepmann, & Felfe, 2005; Mathieu & Babiak, 2015; Yammarino & Dubinsky, 1994). Moreover, there are previous examples where researchers have used only 'Active Manage by Expectation' for measuring transactional leadership (Kelloway et al., 2012).

6.8 Recommendations for Future Research

A number of future research directions are suggested based on the findings and limitations of the current research. Both the present findings and previous research suggest there is inconclusive evidence to definitively state the effect of demographic factors such as age, gender, and length of tenure on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention in the HES context. Therefore, further research may be undertaken to examine the effect of these factors on variables of interest.

The current research found that leaders and followers of an Australian regional university both preferred transformational leadership over other leadership styles. The same cohorts also agreed that transformational leadership has a positive impact on employee wellbeing, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment and a negative effect on turnover intention. However, since the effect of transactional leadership could not be conclusively proven in the present research, more longitudinal research on the FRLT with a larger sample size and in diverse organisational settings may facilitate a more conclusive finding. The present research also highlighted that both employees and leaders in an Australian HES consider other leadership approaches may be conducive for both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes in the HES. Further research on the measurement and implications of other leadership approaches such as authentic leadership, servant leadership, or distributed leadership is needed to explore the viability of each of these leadership approaches in HES.

The present research also observed differences between leaders and followers when it comes to the effect of leadership on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes in the HES. Further research is needed to explore practical steps that may help to reduce this gap between the viewpoints of leaders and followers.

Finally, the present project found that employee wellbeing was a key determinant of employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. However, the research further revealed that there are issues other than leadership which are crucial to both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes mentioned. These factors include collegiality, workload, work-life balance, degree of independence/flexibility, reward, career advancement/promotion and job security. Future research might also explore the relationship between employee wellbeing and these factors.

6.9 Conclusions

Leadership is considered to be the key ingredient in the failure or success of any organisation (Smith & Hughey, 2006). Within the HES, leadership is crucial to both fulfil the future needs of the society or to achieve a university's corporate economic goal. Indeed, there is consensus among leadership researchers, academics, policy makers and the wider population about the importance of effective leadership in the current volatile and complex global HES environment. Over recent decades the HES in Australia and internationally has undergone changes such as globalisation, diversity, competition nationally and internationally, growth of higher education export markets, the information and communication technology revolution, demographic changes, managing growth/change, financial sustainability, delivery mode of education, funding policy uncertainty and ever-changing government policy. As a result of these changes, leadership in the current HES has become an increasingly challenging and complex issue.

In view of the above challenges and changes, appropriate HES leadership is needed to create a vision for the modern university and prepare for future challenges within the HES. However, twenty-first century leadership has become more human relationship and purpose driven rather than task driven as it was historically. Indeed, it is now argued that motivating and developing HES employees is no longer appropriate and that HES organisations need to focus on the challenges of the future and develop leadership skills among the employees so that they may carry out the day-to day function of the HES and effectively overcome the challenges of the future (Peters & Ryan, 2015a).

Contemporary leadership literature has identified that apart from effective leadership, employee wellbeing is a key factor that affects organisational outcomes. However, there was a paucity of research in the HES both overseas and in Australia and

specifically in a regional university setting, that has examined the interaction between different leadership styles, employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. Hence, the purpose of the present research was to examine how the different leadership styles of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership within the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991) affect both employee wellbeing and the organisational outcomes of employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention in an Australian regional university. In addition, the current project examined and concluded that employee wellbeing mediates the effect of leadership on these organisational outcomes.

Although leadership in HES requires specific generic skills and attributes (Peters & Ryan, 2015b), it is also argued that leadership in the current HES requires many attributes and qualities that are also required by leaders of any other organisation (Greatbatch, 2015). Previous research has also highlighted how leadership, management and administration overlap each other although these constructs are often considered different. Previous research has also highlighted that leadership is influenced by the culture within the country examined and/or the organisation itself (Liden & Antonakis, 2009; Muchiri et al., 2011; Nyberg et al., 2011). Importantly, it is increasingly accepted that HES leadership should adapt to the leadership culture of the individual organisation (Greatbatch, 2015). In other previous HES research (Harris, 2009; Holt et al., 2013; Sharrock, 2012) as well in the current research, it was found that present day HES environment is hierarchical and driven by command and control systems of leadership and management.

The current research explored different leadership styles through examining followers' preference of desired leadership characteristics within their leaders in the current HES environment. The quantitative analysis of the current project concluded that

employees of an Australian regional university suggest a transformational leadership culture prevails in the sampled university. The current findings also concluded that effectiveness of transactional leadership could not be established. Indeed, through both quantitative and qualitative analysis, transactional leadership was found to be the least preferred leadership style compared to the transformational leadership style. Finally, the present project observed that the laissez-faire leadership style was rejected by the sampled employees as evidenced by both the qualitative and quantitative analysis.

In support of the quantitative findings, the qualitative findings also suggest that employees of an Australian regional university prefer leaders with the characteristics found in transformational leaders compared to other leadership styles including transactional, laissez-faire, authentic, servant, distributed and spiritual leadership. However, the same qualitative analysis revealed that many of the attributes (for example, visionary, leading by example, authentic, promoting follower career progression, humane) of these other leadership styles overlap with attributes commonly observed in transformational leadership theory. The present research concludes that transformational leadership may still be considered an effective leadership style within the HES, at least in a regional university setting. Furthermore, transformational leadership promotes diversity practice and social justice in the workplace (Ng & Sears, 2012) which is essential in the present day complex HES environment.

The findings of the present research also suggest that employee wellbeing is a key determinant of organisational outcomes in an Australian regional university. Moreover, the current research suggests that employee wellbeing is a mediating factor that influences the effect of leadership on organisational outcomes in an Australian regional university setting. Indeed, the mediation analysis used in the present project showed that

employee wellbeing mediates the relationship between the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and organisational outcomes such as employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions.

Furthermore, the current findings found that there are issues other than leadership that are vital to employee organisational outcomes and employee wellbeing. These include collegiality, work-life balance, workload, degree of independence/flexibility, career advancement/promotion and job security. Apart from these issues that affect wellbeing and organisational outcomes, the close relationship between leadership, employee wellbeing, and organisational outcomes was also reflected in the respondents' comments during the qualitative analysis in the current research.

The present findings have a number of important implications for both research and practice. By acknowledging the social and other temporal factors for determining shared aims and values within a university setting, leadership in the HES may be improved through effective recruitment and leadership development processes and practices. For the HES it is important to develop leaders for the future and a good succession plan includes long term planning, identifying individuals with appropriate abilities and traits and providing future leaders with opportunities to acquire leadership roles (Peters & Ryan, 2015a). The current findings suggest universities need to recruit and identify both academics and professional staff and leaders of these cohorts with the qualities of transformational leaders. Moreover, professional development training may be organised for leaders at different levels to improve their effectiveness as transformational leaders.

The present findings also identified employee wellbeing as a key determinant of positive organisational outcomes. Uniquely and conclusively, the present research

identified that employee wellbeing mediates the relationship between leadership and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention in an Australian regional university context. This finding implies that greater effort might be given to improve the wellbeing of academics and professional staff through addressing issues such as collegiality, work-life balance, strategy, job design, job security, workload, and flexibility. Indeed, collegiality was found to be the key ingredient of employee wellbeing at work and the major factor other than leadership that affects both employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes. Thus, initiatives, programs and policies that develop collegiality within the HES are needed to promote greater collegiality and communication between leaders and followers among academics and professional staff members. Indeed, research has shown that organisations that promotes employee wellbeing programs within the organisation have better business benefits (McCarthy et al., 2011).

In summary, the major implication of the present research is that developing appropriate leadership for the HES while also promoting employee wellbeing will not only facilitate increasing employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment while reducing staff turnover intention, they may also contribute to achieving the organisation's strategic economic goals and enable future leaders to meet the challenges of the complex twenty-first century HES environment.

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APPENDIX A ETHICS APPROVAL



Secretary, Human Research Ethics Committee
Ph: 07 4923 2603
Fax: 07 4923 2600
Email: ethics@cqu.edu.au

A/Prof Peter Reaburn and
Mr Ataus Samad
School of Business and Law
10 October 2014

Dear A/Prof Reaburn and Mr Samad

10 October 2014

**HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE ETHICAL APPROVAL PROJECT:
H14/06-154 IMPROVING DIAGNOSTIC AND SUPPORT PROCESSES FOR
REGIONAL AND RURAL FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN WHO HAVE LEARNING
DISABILITIES AND/OR DIFFICULTIES**

The Human Research Ethics Committee is an approved institutional ethics committee constituted in accord with guidelines formulated by the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) and governed by policies and procedures consistent with principles as contained in publications such as the joint Universities Australia and NHMRC *Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research*. This is available at http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/publications/synopses/_files/r39.pdf.

On 10 October 2014, the Chair of the Human Research Ethics Committee considered your application under the Low Risk Review Process. This letter confirms that your project has been granted approval under this process, pending ratification by the full committee at its October 2014 meeting.

The period of ethics approval will be from 10 October 2014 to 31 March 2015. The approval number is H14/06-154; please quote this number in all dealings with the Committee. HREC wishes you well with the undertaking of the project and looks forward to receiving the final report.

The standard conditions of approval for this research project are that:

- (a) you conduct the research project strictly in accordance with the proposal submitted and granted ethics approval, including any amendments required to be made to the proposal by the Human Research Ethics Committee;
- (b) you advise the Human Research Ethics Committee (email ethics@cqu.edu.au) immediately if any complaints are made, or expressions of concern are raised, or any other issue in relation to the project which may warrant review of ethics approval of the project. *(A written report detailing the adverse occurrence or unforeseen event must be submitted to the Committee Chair within one working day after the event.)*
- (c) you make submission to the Human Research Ethics Committee for approval of any proposed variations or modifications to the approved project before making any such changes;
- (d) you provide the Human Research Ethics Committee with a written “Annual Report” on each anniversary date of approval (for projects of greater than 12 months) and “Final Report” by no later than one (1) month after the approval expiry date; *(A copy of the reporting proformas may be obtained from the Human Research Ethics Committee Secretary, Sue Evans please contact at the telephone or email given on the first page.)*
- (e) you accept that the Human Research Ethics Committee reserves the right to conduct scheduled or random inspections to confirm that the project is being conducted in accordance to its approval. Inspections may include asking questions of the research team, inspecting all consent documents and records and being guided through any physical experiments associated with the project.
- (f) if the research project is discontinued, you advise the Committee in writing within five (5) working days of the discontinuation;
- (g) A copy of the Statement of Findings is provided to the Human Research Ethics Committee when it is forwarded to participants.

Please note that failure to comply with the conditions of approval and the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* may result in withdrawal of approval for the project.

You are required to advise the Secretary in writing within five (5) working days if this project does not proceed for any reason. In the event that you require an extension of ethics approval for this project, please make written application in advance of the end-date of this approval. The research cannot continue beyond the end date of approval unless the Committee has granted an extension of ethics approval. Extensions of approval cannot be granted retrospectively. Should you need an extension but not apply for this before the end-date of the approval then a full new application for approval must be submitted to the Secretary for the Committee to consider.

The Human Research Ethics Committee wishes to support researchers in achieving positive research outcomes. If you have issues where the Human Research Ethics Committee may be of assistance or have any queries in relation to this approval please do not hesitate to contact the Secretary, Sue Evans or myself.

Yours sincerely,

Dr Tania Signal
Chair, Human Research Ethics Committee

Cc: Project file

Approved

APPENDIX B

FOLLOWERS' SURVEY

(The questionnaire was circulated through a web based survey)

Information Sheet for Participants

I invite you to participate in a survey as part of my PhD studies. The project aims to examine the effect of different leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. The study was approved by the CQUniversity's Human Research Ethics Committee (reference number: H14/06154). The project has the support of both the Vice Chancellor, Professor Scott Bowman and his Advisory Committee.

This online survey will be sent to all CQUniversity employees (academic and professional staff). However, people working at CQ TAFE do not need to participate in this survey. The research is expected to be completed by December 2015. The data will be used for a PhD thesis, journal articles and conference papers.

The survey will take about 15-20 minutes to complete. There is no right or wrong answer to any questions. You need to just select your preferred answer from a drop down menu, tick one or multiple options, and also write your comments in the comment boxes provided. Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary and confidential. All responses in the survey will remain anonymous. The research findings will be based on group responses rather than individual response so that anonymity is assured. Completion of the survey will be treated as your consent to participate in the study. It will not be possible to withdraw any data from the survey database due to the nature of data collection and inability of the researcher to identify the participants. You may request a copy of the finding from the researcher written in plain English on completion of the project by sending an email to the researcher at a.samad@cqu.edu.au.

There is no anticipated risk involved in this study. Choosing not to participate in this research will have no adverse implication on you whatsoever and you may end your participation at any time. Participation in the survey will not expose you to any possible personal, legal or psychological risk. However, if completing the survey causes you any

distress, please end your participation and contact CQUniversity Employee Assistance Program (Tel: 1800 172 069 or 07 4930 6471, Email: n.stubbins@cqu.edu.au).

If you have any concern about the manner the research is being conducted you may please contact the CQUniversity Research Ethics Officer (Telephone: +61 7 49 23 2603, Facsimile: +61 7 4923 2600, Email: ethics@cqu.edu.au). For any further inquiries please contact the researcher at the following address:

Ataus Samad
Research Higher Degree Candidate
School of Business and Law
Bldg: 7/G.24, CQUniversity Australia
Rockhampton Qld 4701
Phone: +61 7 4930 6720
Email: a.samad@cqu.edu.au

Associate Professor Peter Reaburn (Supervisor)
School of Medical and Applied Sciences
Bldg: 6/1.26
CQUniversity Australia
Rockhampton Qld 4701
Phone: +61 7 4923 2621
Email: p.reaburn@cqu.edu.au

Section A—General Demographic Questions

I would like to start the survey with some general demographic questions.

1. Are you male or female?

☐ Male

☐ Female

2. Indicate your age in years.

(Drop down menu)

3. Are you working?

☐ Continuing full-time

☐ Continuing part-time

☐ Casual

☐ Fixed term full-time

☐ Fixed term part-time

4. Are you?

☐ Academic

☐ Professional staff

5. If you are an academic, please indicate the level at which you are working.

☐ Not applicable (If you are a professional staff)

☐ Level C

☐ Research Higher Degree Candidate

☐ Level D

☐ Level A

☐ Level E

☐ Level B

☐ SM/Executive Appointment

6. If you are a professional staff, please indicate the level at which you are working.

☐ Not applicable

☐ HEW Level 4

☐ HEW Level 8

(If you are an academic)

☐ HEW Level 1

☐ HEW Level 5

☐ HEW Level 9

☐ HEW Level 2

☐ HEW Level 6

☐ HEW Level 10

☐ HEW Level 3

☐ HEW Level 7

☐ SM /Executive Appointment

7. Duration (in years) of your employment in CQUniversity, Australia (CQU).

(Drop down menu).

8. Please indicate the campus you work in.

☐ Adelaide

☐ Mackay Ooralea

☐ Brisbane

☐ Melbourne

☐ Bundaberg

☐ Non Campus Aligned

☐ Cairns Distance Education Study Centre

☐ Noosa

- ☐ Emerald
- ☐ Gerald University Centre
- ☐ Gladstone

- ☐ Rockhampton North
- ☐ Sydney

9. Please indicate which division, school or directorate you work in (Please select the most appropriate answer. For example, if you work under a school please indicate the school instead of the higher education division).

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Vice-Chancellor and President's Office | <input type="checkbox"/> School of Nursing and Midwifery |
| <input type="checkbox"/> International and Service Division | <input type="checkbox"/> School of Engineering and Technology |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Facilities Management Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> School of Human, Health and Social Sciences |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Marketing Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> Learning and Teaching |
| <input type="checkbox"/> People and Culture Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> Higher Education Directorate |
| <input type="checkbox"/> International Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> Office of Research Services |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Information and Technology Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> Office of Indigenous Directorate |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Industry, Vocational Training Division | <input type="checkbox"/> Engagement and Campus Education Division |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Academic Learning Services Unit Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> Development and Alumni Relations |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Business Development and Industry Engage Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> Student Experience & Governance Division |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Business Performance Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> Student Experience and Governance Division |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Financial Services Division | <input type="checkbox"/> Student Experience and Communications Directorate |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Higher Education Division | <input type="checkbox"/> Governance Directorate |
| <input type="checkbox"/> School of Medical and Applied Sciences | <input type="checkbox"/> Student Residence Directorate |
| <input type="checkbox"/> School of Business and Law | <input type="checkbox"/> Not Known |
| <input type="checkbox"/> School of Education and the Arts | |

10. Duration (in years) of your employment in above division, school or directorate.

(Dropdown menu)

11. Indicate the name of your work unit

(A work unit should be thought of as the immediate group of people with whom you work on a regular basis. For example, within the People and Culture directorate you may work in the business support, employee relations, or business development work unit. Likewise, an academic may work within the School of Business and Law but the work unit may be Management or Law discipline).

12. Duration (in years) of your employment in this work unit.

(Drop down menu).

13. Duration (in years) of your employment under the immediate supervisor/ manger
(The person who is your immediate superior and to whom you report to on work related issues)

(Drop down menu).

Section B: Leadership

For each statements below, please indicate how these statements fit **your immediate** supervisor/manager by ticking the appropriate scale as shown beside each question.

14. The immediate supervisor/ manager I am rating:

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts.					
Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.					
Fails to interfere until problems become serious.					
Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards.					
Avoids getting involved when important issue arise.					
Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs.					
Is absent when needed.					
Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.					
Talks optimistically about the future.					
Instils pride in me for being associated with him /her.					
Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.					
Waits for things to go wrong before taking action.					
Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.					
Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.					

Spends time teaching and coaching.					
Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.					
Shows that he/she is a firm believer in “if it ain’t broke, don’t fix it”.					
Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.					
Treats me as an individual rather than just a member of a group.					
Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action.					
Acts in ways that builds my respect.					
Concentrates her/his full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures.					
Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.					
Keeps track of all mistakes.					
Displays a sense of power and confidence.					
Articulates a compelling vision of the future.					
Directs my attention towards failures to meet standards.					
Avoids making decisions.					
Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others					
Gets me look at problems from many different angles.					
Helps me to develop my strengths.					
Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.					
Delays responding to urgent questions.					
Emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission.					
Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations.					
Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.					

15. In your opinion what are the characteristics of an effective leader in a regional university?

There is no right or wrong answer. We simply wish to know your thoughts on this issue.

--

Section C: Wellbeing

16. What does wellbeing at work place mean to you?

There is no right or wrong answer. We simply wish to know your thoughts on this issue.

--

17. Please indicate your feelings on your wellbeing at work:

	Better than usual	Same as usual	Less than usual	Much less than usual
Have you recently been able to concentrate on what you're doing				

18. Please indicate feelings about the following:

	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
Have you recently lost much sleep over worry?				
Have you recently felt constantly under strain?				
Have you recently felt you couldn't overcome your difficulties?				
Have you recently been feeling unhappy or depressed?				
Have you recently been losing confidence in yourself?				
Have you recently been thinking yourself as a worthless person?				
Have you recently been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?				

19. Recently how have you felt about the following?

	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less than usual
Have you recently felt that you are paying a usual part in things?				
Have you recently felt capable of decisions about things?				
Have you recently been able to enjoy your normal day to day activities?				
Have you recently been able to face up to your problems?				

Section D: Organisational Outcomes

20. Please indicate your level of agreement and disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Neutral	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
I feel fairly satisfied with my present job.					
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.					
Each day at work seems like it will never end.					
I find real enjoyment in my work.					
I consider my job rather unpleasant.					

21. Please indicate how each of these statements represents your feeling towards your organisation.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.						
I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.						

I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organisation.						
I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation						
I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organisation						
This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.						

22. Please indicate how each of these statements represents your feeling.

	Do not agree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Do agree
Giving thought to my future career, I can see myself still working for my present employer in three years.					
If at the present moment I was offered an equivalent position at another company, I would take it.					
At the present time I see no reason to look for an alternative position.					
Lately I have been thinking about leaving my employer.					

Section E: Your own thoughts

23. In your experience how does your immediate supervisor's leadership affect the following?

	Not at all	Slightly	Moderately	Strongly
Your wellbeing at work.				
Your overall job satisfaction.				
Your commitment to the organisation.				
Your intention to leave the organisation.				

24. In your opinion what other work circumstances, other than leadership, affect your wellbeing at work, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and / or turnover intentions?

25. Do you wish to add anything else that has emerged for you as you have completed this survey, but not found an opportunity to express?

26. Would you be willing to participate in a focus group discussion/individual interview on leadership, wellbeing and organisational outcomes at this university?

☐ Yes

☐ No

27. Would you like to have a summary of findings of this research on completion of this project?

☐ Yes

☐ No

28. Would you like to participate in a draw to win one of five \$50.00 gift voucher that will be presented to five lucky participants of this survey?

☐ Yes

☐ No

APPENDIX C

LEADERS' SURVEY

(The questionnaire was administered through a web based survey)

Information Sheet for Participants

I invite you to participate in a survey as part of my PhD studies. The project aims to examine the effect of different leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) on employee wellbeing and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. The study was approved by the CQUniversity's Human Research Ethics Committee (reference number H14/06154).

The project has the support of both the Vice Chancellor, Professor Scott Bowman and the Vice Chancellor's Advisory Committee. This survey is designed to gather self-perceptions of CQUniversity academic and professional staffs who are in the leadership/management/supervisory role within this university. If you are working at CQ TAFE, then you do not need to participate in this survey. The research is expected to be completed by December 2015. The data will be used for a PhD thesis, journal articles and conference papers.

The survey will take about 5 minutes to complete. There is no right or wrong answer for any questions. You need to just select your preferred answer from a drop down menu, tick one or a number of multiple options and also write your comments in the comment boxes provided. Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary and confidential. All responses in the survey will remain anonymous. The research findings will be based on group responses rather than individual response so that anonymity is assured. Completion of the survey will be treated as your consent to participate in the study. It will not be possible to withdraw any data from the survey database due to the nature of data collection and inability of the researcher to identify the participants. You may request a copy of the finding from the researcher written in plain English on completion of the project by sending an email to the researcher at a.samad@cqu.edu.au.

There is no anticipated risk involved in this study. Choosing not to participate in this research will have no adverse implication on you whatsoever and you may end your participation at any time. Participation in the survey will not expose you to any possible personal, legal or psychological risk. However, if completing the survey causes you any

distress please end your participation and contact CQ University Employee Assistance Program (Tel: 1800 172 069 or 07 4930 6471, Email: n.stubbins@cqu.edu.au).

If you have any concern about the manner the research is being conducted you may please contact the CQUniversity Research Ethics Officer (Telephone: +61 7 49 23 2603, Facsimile: +61 7 4923 2600, Email: ethics@cqu.edu.au). For any further inquiries please contact the researcher or the supervisor at the following address:

Ataus Samad
Research Higher Degree Candidate
School of Business and Law
Bldg: 7/G.24, CQUniversity Australia
Rockhampton Qld 4701
Phone: +61 7 4930 6720; Email: a.samad@cqu.edu.au

Associate Professor Peter Reaburn (Supervisor)
School of Medical and Applied Sciences
Bldg: 6/1.26, CQUniversity Australia
Rockhampton Qld 4701
Phone: +61 7 4923 2621
Email: p.reaburn@cqu.edu.au

Section A – General Demographic Questions

I would like to start the survey with some general demographic questions.

1. Are you male or female?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

2. Indicate your age in years.

3. Are you?

- ☐ Academic
- ☐ Professional Staff

4. Please indicate the campus you work at.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Adelaide | <input type="checkbox"/> Mackay Oorelea |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Brisbane | <input type="checkbox"/> Melbourne |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bundaberg | <input type="checkbox"/> Noosa |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Emerald | <input type="checkbox"/> Rockhampton North |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Gladstone Marina | <input type="checkbox"/> Sydney |

5. Please indicate which division, school or directorate you work in (Please select the most appropriate answer. For example, if you work under a school please indicate the school instead of the higher education division).

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Vice-Chancellor and President's Office | <input type="checkbox"/> School of Nursing and Midwifery |
| <input type="checkbox"/> International and Service Division | <input type="checkbox"/> School of Engineering and Technology |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Facilities Management Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> School of Human, Health and Social Sciences |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Marketing Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> Learning and Teaching |
| <input type="checkbox"/> People and Culture Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> Higher Education Directorate |
| <input type="checkbox"/> International Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> Office of Research Services |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Information and Technology Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> Office of Indigenous Directorate |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Industry, Vocational Training Division | <input type="checkbox"/> Engagement and Campus Education Division |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Academic Learning Services Unit Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> Development and Alumni Relations |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Business Development and Industry Engage Directorate | <input type="checkbox"/> Student Experience & Governance Division |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Business Performance Directorate Division | <input type="checkbox"/> Student Experience and Governance |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Financial Services Division | <input type="checkbox"/> Student Experience and |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Communications Directorate | |

- ☐ Higher Education Division
 ☐ Governance Directorate
☐ School of Medical and Applied Sciences
 ☐ Student Residence Directorate
☐ School of Business and Law
 ☐ Not Known
☐ School of Education and the Arts

6. Duration (in years) of your current leadership/management in this work unit.

(A work unit should be thought of as the immediate group of people with whom you work on a regular basis. For example, within the People and Culture directorate you may work in the library, accounts section, ITD section or grounds maintenance work unit etc).

(Drop down menu)

7. Approximately how many people are there in your work unit?

(Drop down menu)

Section B: Self-assessment of your leadership style

8. For each statements below, please indicate by ticking the appropriate scale as shown beside each question how these statements fit your leadership style.

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
I provide others with assistance in exchange for their effort.					
I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.					
I fail to interfere until problems become serious.					
I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards.					
I avoid getting involved when important issue arise.					
I talk about my most important values and beliefs.					
I am absent when needed.					
I seek differing perspectives when solving problems.					
I talk optimistically about the future.					
I install pride in others for being associated with me.					
I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.					

I wait for things to go wrong before taking action.					
---	--	--	--	--	--

9. Please indicate how these statements fit your leadership style.

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.					
I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.					
I spend time teaching and coaching.					
I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.					
I show that I am a firm believer in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it".					
I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.					
I treat others as individuals rather than just a member of a group.					
I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action.					
I act in ways that builds others' respect for me.					
I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures.					
I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.					
I keep track of all mistakes.					

10. Please indicate by ticking the appropriate scale as shown beside each question how these statements fit your leadership style.

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
I display sense of power and confidence					
I articulate a compelling vision of the future.					
I direct my attention towards failures to meet standards.					
I avoid making decisions.					

I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.					
I get others to look at problems from many different angles.					
I help others to develop their strengths.					
I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.					
I delay responding to urgent questions.					
I emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission.					
I express satisfaction when others meet expectations.					
I express confidence that goals will be achieved.					

Section C: Your thoughts

11. In your experience how does immediate supervisor/manager's leadership affect their followers'?

	Not at all	Slightly	Moderately	Strongly
Wellbeing at work				
Overall job satisfaction				
Commitment to the organisation.				
Intention to leave the organisation				

12. Do you wish to add anything else that has emerged for you as you have completed this survey, but not found an opportunity to express?

--

13. Would you be willing to participate in a focus group discussion/individual interview on leadership, wellbeing and organisational outcomes at this university?

☐ Yes ☐ No

14. Would you like to have a summary of findings of this research on completion of this project?

☐ Yes ☐ No

APPENDIX D

ANOVA RESULTS (FOLLOWERS' SURVEY)

Table D.1:

ANOVA of the independent, mediating and dependent variables in relation to age groups (Followers' Survey)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Transformational Leadership	Between Groups	7.515	5	1.503	1.517	.185
	Within Groups	271.485	274	.991		
	Total	279.000	279			
Transactional Leadership	Between Groups	4.265	5	.853	.851	.515
	Within Groups	274.735	274	1.003		
	Total	279.000	279			
Laissez-faire	Between Groups	2.628	5	.526	.521	.760
	Within Groups	276.372	274	1.009		
	Total	279.000	279			
Wellbeing	Between Groups	10.032	5	2.006	2.044	.073
	Within Groups	268.968	274	.982		
	Total	279.000	279			
Job Satisfaction	Between Groups	11.510	5	2.302	2.358	.041*
	Within Groups	267.490	274	.976		
	Total	279.000	279			
Organizational Commitment	Between Groups	8.631	5	1.726	1.749	.124
	Within Groups	270.369	274	.987		
	Total	279.000	279			
Turnover Intention	Between Groups	4.726	5	.945	.944	.453
	Within Groups	274.274	274	1.001		
	Total	279.000	279			

Table D.2:

ANOVA of the independent, mediating and dependent variables in relation to gender (Followers' Survey)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Transformational Leadership	Between Groups	3.042	1	3.042	3.064	.081
	Within Groups	275.958	278	.993		
	Total	279.000	279			
Transactional	Between Groups	.040	1	.040	.040	.841
	Within Groups	278.960	278	1.003		
	Total	279.000	279			
Laissez-faire	Between Groups	.254	1	.254	.253	.615
	Within Groups	278.746	278	1.003		
	Total	279.000	279			
Wellbeing	Between Groups	.376	1	.376	.375	.541
	Within Groups	278.624	278	1.002		
	Total	279.000	279			
Job Satisfaction	Between Groups	3.081	1	3.081	3.104	.079
	Within Groups	275.919	278	.993		
	Total	279.000	279			
Organizational Commitment	Between Groups	.264	1	.264	.263	.608
	Within Groups	278.736	278	1.003		
	Total	279.000	279			
Turnover Intention	Between Groups	.420	1	.420	.419	.518
	Within Groups	278.580	278	1.002		
	Total	279.000	279			

Table D.3:

ANOVA of the independent, mediating and dependent variables in relation to job status (Followers' survey)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Transformational Leadership	Between Groups	4.698	1	4.698	4.761	.030*
	Within Groups	274.302	278	.987		
	Total	279.000	279			
Transactional	Between Groups	.410	1	.410	.409	.523
	Within Groups	278.590	278	1.002		
	Total	279.000	279			
Laissez-faire	Between Groups	1.871	1	1.871	1.877	.172
	Within Groups	277.129	278	.997		
	Total	279.000	279			
Wellbeing	Between Groups	1.022	1	1.022	1.023	.313
	Within Groups	277.978	278	1.000		
	Total	279.000	279			
Job Satisfaction	Between Groups	2.736	1	2.736	2.753	.098
	Within Groups	276.264	278	.994		
	Total	279.000	279			
Organizational Commitment	Between Groups	1.179	1	1.179	1.180	.278
	Within Groups	277.821	278	.999		
	Total	279.000	279			
Turnover Intention	Between Groups	1.657	1	1.657	1.660	.199
	Within Groups	277.343	278	.998		
	Total	279.000	279			

Table D.4:

ANOVA of the independent, mediating and dependent variables in relation to tenure at the university (Followers' Survey)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Transformational Leadership	Between Groups	4.758	3	1.586	1.596	.191
	Within Groups	274.242	276	.994		
	Total	279.000	279			
Transactional Leadership	Between Groups	.887	3	.296	.293	.830
	Within Groups	278.113	276	1.008		
	Total	279.000	279			
Laissez-faire Leadership	Between Groups	4.431	3	1.477	1.485	.219
	Within Groups	274.569	276	.995		
	Total	279.000	279			
Wellbeing	Between Groups	12.704	3	4.235	4.389	.005*
	Within Groups	266.296	276	.965		
	Total	279.000	279			
Job Satisfaction	Between Groups	2.599	3	.866	.865	.460
	Within Groups	276.401	276	1.001		
	Total	279.000	279			
Organizational Commitment	Between Groups	2.611	3	.870	.869	.458
	Within Groups	276.389	276	1.001		
	Total	279.000	279			
Zscore: Turnover Intention	Between Groups	3.298	3	1.099	1.100	.349
	Within Groups	275.702	276	.999		
	Total	279.000	279			

Table D.5:

ANOVA of the independent, mediating and dependent variables in relation to tenure under current supervisor (Followers' Survey)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Transformational Leadership	Between Groups	.167	2	.084	.083	.920
	Within Groups	278.833	277	1.007		
	Total	279.000	279			
Transactional Leadership	Between Groups	.638	2	.319	.317	.728
	Within Groups	278.362	277	1.005		
	Total	279.000	279			
Laissez-faire Leadership	Between Groups	.398	2	.199	.198	.821
	Within Groups	278.602	277	1.006		
	Total	279.000	279			
Wellbeing	Between Groups	2.104	2	1.052	1.052	.351
	Within Groups	276.896	277	1.000		
	Total	279.000	279			
Job Satisfaction	Between Groups	1.180	2	.590	.588	.556
	Within Groups	277.820	277	1.003		
	Total	279.000	279			
Organizational Commitment	Between Groups	.636	2	.318	.317	.729
	Within Groups	278.364	277	1.005		
	Total	279.000	279			
Turnover Intention	Between Groups	1.416	2	.708	.706	.494
	Within Groups	277.584	277	1.002		
	Total	279.000	279			

APPENDIX E

ANOVA RESULTS (LEADERS' SURVEY)

Table E.1:

ANOVA of the independent variables in relation to age groups - (Leaders' survey)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Transformational Leadership	Between Groups	10.179	4	2.545	7.683	.000*
	Within Groups	25.506	77	.331		
	Total	35.685	81			
Transactional Leadership	Between Groups	5.365	4	1.341	5.601	.001*
	Within Groups	18.438	77	.239		
	Total	23.802	81			
Laissez-faire Leadership	Between Groups	2.192	4	.548	1.632	.175
	Within Groups	25.864	77	.336		
	Total	28.056	81			

Table E.2:

ANOVA of the independent variables in relation to gender - (Leaders' survey)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Transformational Leadership	Between Groups	.680	1	.680	1.553	.216
	Within Groups	35.005	80	.438		
	Total	35.685	81			
Transactional Leadership	Between Groups	.733	1	.733	2.540	.115
	Within Groups	23.070	80	.288		
	Total	23.802	81			
Laissez-faire Leadership	Between Groups	.048	1	.048	.138	.711
	Within Groups	28.007	80	.350		
	Total	28.056	81			

Table E.3

ANOVA of the independent variables in relation to job status (Academic versus Professional Staff) - (Leaders' survey)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Transformational Leadership	Between Groups	.752	1	.752	1.723	.193
	Within Groups	34.933	80	.437		
	Total	35.685	81			
Transactional Leadership	Between Groups	.050	1	.050	.168	.683
	Within Groups	23.752	80	.297		
	Total	23.802	81			
Laissez-faire Leadership	Between Groups	1.080	1	1.080	3.204	.077
	Within Groups	26.975	80	.337		
	Total	28.056	81	.752		

Table E.4:

ANOVA of the independent variables in relation to tenure of leadership - (Leaders' survey)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Transformational Leadership	Between Groups	.470	3	.157	.347	.791
	Within Groups	35.215	78	.451		
	Total	35.685	81			
Transactional Leadership	Between Groups	.210	3	.070	.323	.874
	Within Groups	23.592	78	.302		
	Total	23.802	81			
Laissez-faire Leadership	Between Groups	.265	3	.088	.248	.862
	Within Groups	27.790	78	.356		
	Total	28.056	81			