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Impact of Leadership Behaviour on Job Satisfaction in Nigerian Public and Private Universities

Dr. Ezekiel Oluwadare Adeleye

Senior Lecturer, Department of Business Administration, Elizade University, Ilara-Mokin, Ondo State, Nigeria

Abstract:

Many studies on leadership seem to centre on the character and conduct of the topmost managers rather than the interactive influence process of winning support across a wider range of organisational members. This study investigated the leadership behaviour of a wider range of employees in the Nigerian private and public universities and the attendant impact on job satisfaction. It adopted the exploratory survey design and the quantitative method. The field studies involved over four hundred employees drawn from two public and four private universities in Nigeria. Sampling was based on convenience and respondents were asked to complete a hand administered multi-factor questionnaire on leadership behaviours and job satisfaction.

Through factor analysis of the leadership behaviour scales, five behavioural dimensions were identified namely selfless, freelance, partnering, disciplinary and dominating. Independent samples and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests revealed significant differences in the adoption of the five empirical models of leadership behaviour between the public and private universities. Specifically, the public universities scored highly on selfless behaviour, partnering behaviour and disciplinary behaviour, whilst in contrast, the private universities got significantly higher mean score on only the dominating behaviour. Next, multiple regression tests showed that the partnering and disciplinary behaviour had a wide range of positive effects on job satisfaction- both affective and cognitive, whereas the freelance behaviour and the dominating behaviour had no positive effects.

In the light of the results, public universities were advised to do away with freelance tendencies (laissez faire) just as the private universities were urged to be less dominating (autocratic) as a means of boosting job satisfaction. The study would encourage more exploratory and causal-comparative studies of leadership behaviours. As developers of people, universities required effective leadership for enhanced job satisfaction.

Keywords: Leadership, Leadership behaviour, Distributed leadership, Job satisfaction, Factor analysis

1. Introduction

All organisations including private and public universities required effective leadership to drive the rational processes of visioning, decision-making, co-ordination and control. However, in organisations such as secondary schools and universities where a large chunk of operating assets excluding land and buildings consists of men rather than machines and equipment, leadership as a means of influencing and mobilising support seems to be more crucial than management, which mainly seeks efficiency in work processes. Indeed the major problem of most organisations is poor leadership (Obiwuru, Okwu, Akpa and Nwankwere, 2011) in terms of influencing and carrying people along without necessarily having to deploy the authoritative tools of management. As a community of intellectuals and professionals, the ability to harness and utilize all resources and competencies would depend on the adoption of appropriate behaviours in the different leadership roles.

In academic and professional organisations, employees would normally require some respect, space and freedom in the conduct of work. Therefore, leadership models such as the autocratic style where the leaders engage in minimal consultation and instead monopolise the responsibilities for leadership may not be suitable to both public and private universities. This is due to the high level of education and expertise of the large majority of workers. As well, the laissez-faire model characterised by the committee system would seem to be more associated with the public universities. For a private university where operations would need to be more business-like and guided by a more deeply articulated vision and mission, the custodian, collegiate or transformational approaches to leadership are expected to be noticeable. The study expected a significant difference in leadership behaviour in public and private universities even as in both cases, it would be driven by superior argument, even if by an assistant lecturer rather than a professor, head of department or dean of faculty.

Organisations fail for lack of appropriate leadership behaviours across a wide spectrum of employees; which results in lower job satisfaction. Hence, the problem is to identify the leadership practices that could impact on job satisfaction as the means of making university academics and other staff more committed. This is more so for the newly emerging private universities, which have to survive and thrive as they were founded and funded by non-public interests and resources. The study therefore investigated the leadership behaviours of a wider range of university workers starting upwards from the intermediate and supervisory levels. This is in order to identify the good and bad behaviours that impact on worker job satisfaction in private and public universities. , so that good behaviours could be articulated for benchmarking.

- The specific objectives are as follows.
 - Explore the nature of leadership behaviours in Nigerian universities.
 - Identify the differences in the leadership behaviour of private and public universities.
 - Understand the impact of leadership behaviours on job satisfaction in Nigerian universities.
- In the light of the stated objectives, the study set to answer the following questions.
 - Is a specific leadership behaviour applicable in Nigerian universities?
 - Are there differences in the leadership behaviour of private and public universities?
 - What is the relationship between leadership behaviour and employee job satisfaction?
- Accordingly, three research hypotheses listed in the Null form as follows were proposed (Zikmund, 2003).
 1. A single leadership behaviour is not applicable in Nigerian universities.
 2. There is no significant difference in leadership behaviour in public and private universities.
 3. There is no relationship between leadership behaviour and employee job satisfaction.

The study is significant as leadership studies were more theoretical than empirical, even as comparative studies are rare. In addition, more leadership studies of people-intensive organisations such as the universities are important as the morale and character of community members seem to have fallen, consequently leading to inadequate academic inputs, poor quality of qualifications and employability problems.

This comparative study has the potential to generate more debate on how university leadership could be improved, with best practices identified for bench-marking especially between the public and private universities. The study is also justified given the apparent divergence rather than converge of opinion in the leadership literature. This exploratory causal-comparative study is a rare effort with high potentials for valid empirical evidence to support or refute some theoretical view-points.

2. Conceptual Framework

Leadership behaviour consist of the deeds and attitude that become manifest in the social influence process of winning the support and confidence of other people towards the purpose and vision of a group or organisation. A set of positive behaviour is expected to arouse the interest and confidence of employees, which translates to higher job satisfaction. This is illustrated in Figure 1, which presents the conceptual framework for the research. It lists some of the wide range of possible leadership behaviours including selfless, selfish, coercive, charismatic, teaming, visionary and freelance behaviour.

Leadership as the processes of using influence to shape up group goals, motivate behaviour and evolve organizational culture (Miner, 1988; Collins and Lazier, 1992; Koontz and Donnell, 1993) would be valid only if leadership behaviour is positive and appropriate. For instance, coercive behaviour may negate job satisfaction within the faculty structure of universities even though the reverse may be the case in the factory where work sheets, procedure manuals and performance expectations are largely quantitative.

In contrast, selfless behaviour otherwise identified as servant leadership (Dalati, 2014; Grint, 2015) and characterised by listening, joint-staking, empathy, persuasion and stewardship would impart positively on job satisfaction. The same would tend to apply to charismatic, selfless and visionary behaviours.

From the foregoing relational experience of people in the social influence process of winning support, the space to differentiate across Nigeria universities is rather wide. Leadership training is rare, funding levels differ even as there are large variations in adopting the culture of autonomy and collegiality. In addition, whereas the private universities may depict more of visionary behaviour, the public universities may be more freelance. Hence, no one had been able to find a cumulative and consistent pattern of leadership behaviour in universities (Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006; Wirbaa and Shmailan, 2015).

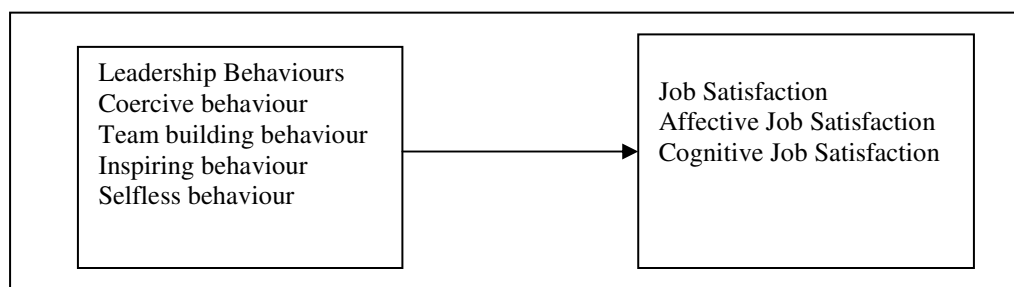


Figure 1: Conceptual Model (Proposed by the Author)

Job satisfaction constitute the second element of the conceptual framework. Although many studies have examined the impact of leadership on performance (Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006; Obiwuru, Okwu, Akpa and Nwankwere, 2011), studies of the intermediate factor of job satisfaction are rare. In addition, such studies focus on top leaders rather than the relational experience of people in the leadership process (Aziri, 2011; Dalati, 2014).

Job satisfaction is the combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person to truthfully say I am happy and fulfilled with my job (Vroom, 1964; Cropanzano and Wright, 1999; Aziri, 2011). Although it may be influenced by many external factors, it remains something internal that has to do with the emotions of the employee towards the job. That is job satisfaction presents a set of factors that cause a feeling of satisfaction. It is different from motivation, which is the management tool of getting the employee to work harder and smarter (Vroom, 1964). Nevertheless, motivation, at the top end of self actualisation, seem to be much closer to job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction as a measure of personal contentment and happiness is crucial to the job satisfaction, productivity and performance debate especially in higher education where performance measures are less quantitative and only better captured in the longer term (Adeye, 2013). It has to do with several organization related factors including job related factors and person related factors.

3. Theoretical Framework

The point was made earlier that leadership is the core resource in the university setting where people (students) make up the essential raw materials, work in progress (undergraduates) as well as the final products (graduates). According to the resource-based theory of the firm (Hamel and Prahalad, 1990; Amit and Schoemaker, 1993), leadership is one of the intangible assets that underlie the value creation process by effectively honing all other resources and working them to levels required for success at the minimum transaction cost. As such, the essence of leadership can be justified by the transaction cost theory (Williamson, 1975) and the signalling theory (Bergh, Ketchen, Boyd and Bergh, 2010). As large organisations and process-based factories engaged in custom production, a large amount of interactions take place across and within the various departments, faculties, schools, directorates, service units and laboratories of universities. These are handled in the main by powerful cells of intellectuals and professionals across the rank and file. This process involves many consequential transaction costs, which could become more or less costly depending on the kind of behaviour and attitude that the people involved display in this complex social influence process.

The essence of leadership according to the signalling theory is to identify positive and negative signals that impact on transactions, enhance rational optimisation paths and reduce information asymmetries. Without an appropriate leadership that could progressively reduce transaction costs and improper signalling, the university senate for instance could meet for hours without achieving any positive result. For example, some universities may be crippled by high transaction costs and vengeful signalling including professors perpetually at war in the senate or with their Vice Chancellors or Registrars.

Accordingly, this study embraces the idea that leadership is widely dispersed and that it involves a wide range of behavioural, attitudinal and cultural practices (Bolden, 2003; Dalati, 2014). Leadership effectiveness and its impact on job satisfaction would be a matter of how well transaction and signalling costs are minimised. This study therefore adopts the behavioural theory of leadership within a framework of shared responsibility.

4. Leadership Theories

Leadership theories arise from a set of assumptions deduced by way of reasoned argument and intended to explain some leadership phenomenon. Four such theories are prevalent in the literature- trait theory, situational / contingency theory, path-goal theory and behavioural theory (Collins and Lazier, 1992; Chandan and Devi, 2014). Recently, transactional theory and transformational theory have emerged as scholars shifted attention to the contextual nature of leadership and the relationship between leaders and followers.

The trait theory is otherwise known as the great man theory of leadership, which contends that leaders are born and not made (Ojo, 2009). In order words, leaders do not acquire the ability to lead but inherit it. Those who follow this theory believe that by studying the personalities and background of great leaders, a combination of traits could be assessed and used as the basis for assessing the suitability for a leadership position and the potential to succeed. The theory may not be suitable for leadership studies of modern, professional and large organisations as the great man theory seems unfashionable.

The situational theory, which later became more popular as the contingency theory proposes that the behaviour of a leader is contextual and varies from one situation to another (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958; Fiedler, 1967; Fiedler and Chemers, 1974; Blake and Mouton, 1982; Kennedy, 1982). Fiedler (1967) justified the situational theory as the most important and went ahead to derive from it, the contingency model, which holds that leadership effectiveness depends on the appropriate matching of the leader's style and the requirements of the group situation. The key situational factors include leader-member relations whether based on trust, cooperation, suspicion or apprehension; the task-structure whether routine, ambiguous or complex; and the position-power of the leader whether it is strong or weak (Grove, 1983; Coleman, 2000; Dalati, 2014). What seems important here is accurate identification of the situational factors; which however does not in itself equate to effective leadership.

The path goal theory of leadership of leadership is grounded in the expectancy theory of motivation (Evans, 1970; House and Dressler, 1974; Ojo, 2009). It tries to explain how the leader's behaviour influences the satisfaction and effort of subordinates. This is achieved by reducing road blocks and pitfalls at work, establishing clear communications on what the followers have to do to get the rewards they desire whilst also increasing the opportunities for personal development en route better job satisfaction (House, 2004). The theory identifies four kinds of leader behaviour namely: directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented (Evans, 1970; House and Dressler, 1974). Most often, universities operate more or less as bureaucracies, with high structures and rigid lines of

authority. The path-goal approach may be difficult to apply as performance measures are difficult to decipher even as there may not be very many reward alternatives quite unlike in the business sector.

The Behavioural Theory focuses on the behaviour and attitudes of people in the social influence process of winning and enlisting the support of other people and groups rather than on what trait or characteristics they possess (Ojo, 2009). The central argument among behavioural theorists is that since behaviour can be changed, leaders can be made through education, training and practice rather than by acquired traits. The theory posits that effective leaders behave differently from ineffective leaders, and that the need arises to identify a consistent set of behaviour for effective leadership that impact on results.

Four categories of leadership behaviour are popular in the literature (Collins and Lazier, 1992; Lussier and Achua, 2010). They are the job-centred leadership behaviour, employee centred leadership behaviour, initiating-structure or rule-based behaviour, and consideration behaviour based on supportive relationship. The behavioural theory is relevant within the hierarchical structure of large organisations such as universities, where, as colleagues, the power distance between leaders and follower is narrow. An example is the relationship between an Assistant lecturer and Senior lecturer. Respect, loyalty, obedience, commitment and co-operation would seem to be more defined by the professor's behaviour in a leader-follower circumstance.

Some other more modern theories include the transformational leadership theory and the transactional leadership theory (Coleman, 2000; Heath and safety Executive, 2012; Zaifada, Mohammed and Gabadeen, 2015).

Transformational leadership is underpinned by the need for leaders to inculcate in their subordinates a sense of purpose and the awareness of what is right and important, with a view to raise their maturity and move them beyond their own self-interest for the common good (Bolden et. al, 2003; Health and Safety Executive, 2012; Zaifada, Mohammed and Gabadeen, 2015). As such, transformational leadership may be more effective in transmitting a sense of mission and inspiring new ways of thinking towards the success of organizational goals and objectives. In this regard, private universities founded on entrepreneurial initiatives and desirous of success may seek to be transformational in an effort to be driven by innovation and creativity.

This approach however would require a lot of transactional negotiations with professors, parents, students as well as the regulatory agencies who often exercise over-bearing control that makes it difficult for any university to significantly differentiate itself. In addition, faculty may perceive transformational efforts as brain-washing. Furthermore, the question could be posed as to what level of inspiration would make meaning in public universities when government funds are taken for granted. This is not to say that some of the emergent problems of these universities such as sexual abuse, examination malpractice, poor quality of instruction are completely insulated from inspirational efforts. Even then, leadership behaviour, rather than what the leader says to inspire the people, would necessarily need to be in the forefront.

5. Leadership Behavioural Styles

There are many aspects of leadership behaviour, which have been condensed into a few conceptual categories namely autocratic, democratic, laissez faire and bureaucratic (Ojo, 2009; Lussier and Achua, 2010).

Autocracy is the complete centralization of authority in the top leadership who have all the powers to make decisions and deploy coercive motivational measures (Fiedler, 1967; Fiedler and Chemers, 1974; Obiwuru et.al., 2011). Leaders demand immediate obedience of orders and instructions, with any negligence on the part of subordinates resulting in punishment. There is little input from the subordinates even as the leader thinks he is the embodiment of wisdom and the only competent person. An autocrat can be hard-boiled (ruthless), benevolent (paternalistic) or manipulative (selfish). Autocratic leadership may be weird in a university setting because of high intellectualism as against a military command (Dalati, 2014; Wirbaa and Shmailan, 2015).

Democratic, Participative or Consultative leadership is about leaders who routinely Leaders consult and consider the opinion of work groups, encourage discussions in the decision-making process and arrive at a decision with popular consent. Employee participation or involvement in the decision-making process is rewarded whilst the exchange of ideas among subordinates and with the leader is encouraged (Lucia and Achua, 2010; Chandan and Devi, 2014). Leaders enable more freedom to group members who feel their opinions are honoured and given prominence, which in effect may generate a sense of confidence and job satisfaction (Dalati, 2014; Grint, 2015). Quality and workable decisions as well as win-win solutions are often guaranteed. The upturn is that so much time may be used up in the democratic negotiations process.

Laissez-faire leadership means the complete delegation of authority to subordinates (Bass and Bass, 2008; Ojo, 2009; Thrash, 2012). This absence of direct leadership may have both positive and negative effects. Free rein or freelance behaviour may be effective if members of the group are highly committed to their work. In contrast, it may be that the leader is incompetent. Members may feel insecure and develop frustration for lack of direction.

According to Bass (1985), Avolio, (2007) and Thrash (2012), the laissez-faire is the least desirable leadership behaviour to the extent that it is often perceived as the avoidance of leadership. This style is so named because of the passive manner in which the manager operates. According to Northouse (2007), the laissez-faire manager abdicates his or her responsibility, and makes no efforts to satisfy the needs of his or her colleagues or subordinates. The lack of concern for task and people may harm profits, productivity and morale (Bass, 1985).

Nevertheless, within the university setting and the distributed leadership framework adopted in this study, laissez faire behaviour may not be abdicative but rather aimed to give the space to co-pilots (professors, deans, heads of department, doctorates, chartered librarians, highly qualified technologists, and chartered administrators and planners) to make the right decisions and take the appropriate actions. It may be positively applicable if everyone takes anyone else as a well qualified and capable colleague, leader and customer, and do the right things. In this sense, laissez faire translates to the committee system in universities. The business outlook of private universities may be an exception.

Bureaucratic leadership is also popular. It emphasizes organizational rules, regulations, procedures and structures, which have been specified for the conduct of work. The leader and the subordinate are both chained to those rules and regulations, some of which could be outdated. The rules determine leader-follower relations (Kennedy, 1982; Miner, 1988) which are exceedingly formal and with little space for behavioural differentiation. This type of behaviour may not be far-fetched in some public universities

Expert leadership behaviour has emerged in response to increasing complexity of modern organizations. Leadership on the basis of expertise is underpinned by special ability, knowledge, talents and competence in handling people and situations skillfully (Hamel and Prahalad, 1990; Collins and Lazier, 1992; Coleman, 2000; Grint, 2015). Group members feel relieved when they work with an expert able to handle complex circumstances with flair, and devoid of acrimony. Leadership education and training is crucial as a means of earning the respect of the rank and file as well as enhancing organisational capacity (Grint, 2015). In the university setting however, intellectualism and expertise is generally high across board, and as such, leadership based on expertise alone may not be sufficient for results. The entrepreneurial origins of private universities is supportive to expert leadership.

A successful leader would be the one who aggregates the more positive types of behaviours to accomplish business goals. As such, it is expected that from data analysis, some of the fore-going styles or new ones would emerge, in addition to a clear distinction between behaviours that aid or hinder job satisfaction. This is in spite of the fact that empirical relationships between leadership on one hand and organizational performance and job satisfaction on the other hand remain inconclusive, difficult to interpret or less convincing (Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006; Fenwick and Gayle, 2008). The following sections report the field studies, the aim being to study the leadership behaviours of Nigerian private and public universities and the impacts on job satisfaction.

6. Research Design and Method

This study falls within the realm of positivist research, which is often used when a phenomenon is studied using variables measured by means of numbers or figures and analysed with statistical procedures. The survey method was adopted to capture perceptual data on the subject-matter by means of a self-administered questionnaire. Accordingly, the rules of rigid adherence to process and method as the only means of ensuring that results are credible and replicable were obeyed (Zikmund, 2003).

The study population was all intermediate and senior employees of Nigerian universities. On the basis of limited time and funds, sampling was localized to the cluster of universities within three states in the south West of Nigeria namely Ekiti, Ondo and Oshun. Six universities were selected, two of them being public universities while the remaining four were privately owned. A total of 450 members of staff were sampled based on convenience, respondent availability and readiness to complete and submit questionnaire same or next day. The process ensured fairly equal representation across the universities, faculties, departments and units. 415 questionnaires were returned, 409 of which were useful. Response and useful response rates were 92 % and 98 %.

A multi-factor questionnaire was designed and populated with instrument generated from the viewpoints expressed in sections two to five and validated against the instruments used in some prior studies (Bass, 1985; Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006; Wirbaa and Shmailan, 2015) as well as the counsel of some academic colleagues and a pilot test. The instruments focused on the relational aspects of leadership behaviour. The formal procedures of questionnaire design and administration were applied (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992; Zikmund, 2003). The questionnaire had a large number of forty six items. Hence, demographic data was excluded, being not expected to impact significantly on results in this comparative study of universities made up of intellectuals and professionals.

The questions captured perceptual data on a five-point Likert Scale ranging from "Almost never" (1) to "Almost always" (5) for leadership behaviours, while job satisfaction was on the six-point scale ranging from "Very poor" (1) to "Excellent" (6). All the questions required just a tick. Administration of the pilot and the final was by hand as many modern methods remained less effective in Nigeria. In spite of the weaknesses of relative scales in social and management research, their use remain popular (Adeleye and Yusuf, 2014; Dalati, 2014).

The data collected was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences [SPSS] Version 16.0 for Windows. The chosen procedures were aimed at achieving the study objectives. Validity and reliability tests were done to ensure that results are free from chance (Zikmund, 2003). Next, factor analysis was used to identify and interpret empirical clusters of correlated leadership behaviours. The relative weights of the instruments within each cluster or component depicts what it represents conceptually. The most important results of factor analysis is the total explained variance and the components matrix of factor loadings.

Regression tests of the relationships between dimensions of leadership behaviour and job satisfaction were carried out. Lastly, mean difference tests and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests were carried out to differentiate leadership behaviour and job satisfaction across the public and private universities. The most important results are the model summary, which shows predictive power of the model. The next is the ANOVA which reports the F-statistic and its significant level as the evidence of the extent to which the model captured the variation in the data. Thirdly, the correlation coefficient reports the relative power of each independent variable.

7. Data Analysis and Results

In order to test for validity, two random sub-samples of the respondents were created. The results from the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) Z test show clearly that none of the forty-six research instrument has any significant difference between the two random sub-samples of odd and even numbered respondents on the data file. All p-values are less than 0.05, meaning that the differences do not differ significantly from zero. As well, reliability test returned very high and close-knit Cronbach's Alpha values even as an F-value of 18.63 at $p = .000$ was returned for the job satisfaction measures. Having confirmed from the foregoing tests that the data were valid and reliable, the remaining tests target each of the research hypotheses.

7.1. Test for Singularity of Leadership Behaviour in Nigerian universities

Factor analysis was employed to test Hypothesis 1, stated in the Null form as follows:

- A single leadership behaviour is not applicable in Nigerian universities.

Appropriate procedures were taken to enhance convergence and interpretation (Child, 1970; Adeleye and Yusuf, 2006). Table 1 shows the summary results. Each of columns 2-6 represent a major type of leadership behaviour; which is interpreted based on the relative weights of the listed instruments. The last row reports the variance in the data set accounted for within each column.

Columns 2-6 of Table 1 reports five empirical models of leadership behaviour, which in the light of the weights of corresponding instruments, were interpreted respectively as selfless, freelance, partnering, disciplined and dominating behaviours. To the extent that five types of leadership behaviour emerged from data analysis, it is untenable to reject the Null Hypothesis (H_0) that a single leadership behaviour is not applicable in Nigerian universities. Indeed, a wide range of leadership behaviours are applicable.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|--|----------|-----------|------------|-------------|------------|
| Leadership Scales | Selfless | Freelance | Partnering | Disciplined | Dominating |
| Everyone want to create better job performance | .717 | | | | |
| The employees feel they are part of the organization | .666 | | | | |
| The employees feel they are recognized for their work | .643 | | .320 | | |
| The employees feel a real responsibility to make things work | .621 | | | .350 | |
| There is real partnership between managers and employees | .568 | | .458 | | |
| There is enthusiasm for better job performance | .562 | | | .431 | |
| Workers main concern is job security | | .751 | | | |
| Management main concern is not to make progress | | .729 | | | |
| Employees do not respect the leaders | | .641 | | | |
| The top management display real leadership traits | .431 | -.461 | | | |
| Employees are often part of the decision making process | | | .791 | | |
| There is a real feeling of team work | .398 | | .507 | | |
| Things get done because of workers' self-discipline | | | | .766 | |
| When things go wrong, we try to fix it, no blames | | | | .563 | |
| Only the top level managers make major decisions | | .316 | | -.446 | .360 |
| Things get done because employees fear for their jobs | | | | | .833 |
| Percentage of variance explained (Total = 56.97) | 27.09 | 9.56 | 7.05 | 6.81 | 6.47 |

Table 1: Factor Analysis of Leadership behaviours (Varimax Rotation).

Source: Survey Data on Leadership behaviour, 2015

7.2. Test for Differences in the Leadership Behaviour of Private and Public Universities

Independent samples test and one-way ANOVA were conducted to test the second hypothesis of the study, which is stated in the Null form as follows:

- There is no significant difference in leadership behaviour across the public and private universities.

The mean scores of the private and public universities on each of the five types of leadership behaviour reported earlier in Table 1 were computed and tested for significant mean differences.

Table 2 and Table 3 respectively report the t-test and ANOVA results. The results show that partnering behaviour, disciplinary behaviour and dominating behaviour varied significant between the public and private universities. as well, the t-test results also in Table 2 revealed that public universities have significantly higher mean scores on all the dimensions of leadership behaviour except the dominating behaviour on which the private universities scored significantly higher. All t-values are greater than 2.00 at p-values less than 0.05. Thus, the mean differences between the private and public universities are significant. Table 3 reports the major result of ANOVA test as another evidence of significant differences in leadership behaviour of the private and public universities. The most relevant result are shown in Columns 6 and 7 of Table 3. The F-values in column 6 are all high whilst the probability levels in column 7 are all significant. They are the ratio of the variance between the two groups of universities and the variance within the groups.

Figure 2 presents ANOVA mean plots of the mean scores of private and public universities. The five plots, one for each dimension of leadership behaviour show that the public universities have higher mean scores on all the leadership behaviours apart from the "dominating behaviour". The mean scores were labelled on the Y-axis, and the two points on the X-axis of each plot indicate the mean score for each category of universities.

The t-test and ANOVA results in Tables 2 and 3 as well as the mean plots in Figure 2 provide the evidence against Hypothesis 2, which is stated in the Null form as follows.

There is no significant difference in leadership behaviour in public and private universities.

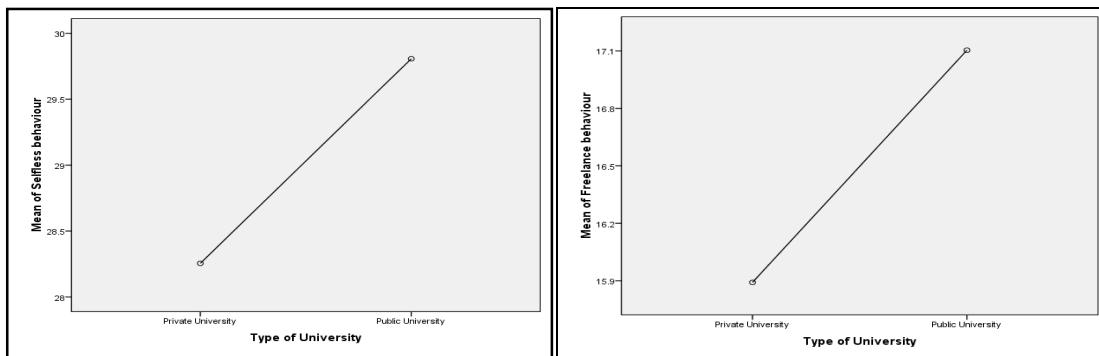
There is thus no basis to accept the Null Hypothesis (H_0) as leadership behaviour has been shown to vary significantly across the Nigerian public and private universities.

| Dimensions of Leadership behaviour | Assumptions on variance | F-Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------------|------|------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|------------|--------------------|---|-------|
| | | F | Sig. | t-values | Degrees of freedom | p-values (2-tail) | Mean Diff. | Std. Error of Diff | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Selfless behaviour | Equal | .795 | .373 | -2.358 | 364 | .019 | -1.552 | .658 | -2.846 | -.258 |
| | Unequal | | | -2.411 | 246.928 | .017 | -1.552 | .644 | -2.819 | -.284 |
| Freelance behaviour | Equal | .269 | .605 | -3.284 | 363 | .001 | -1.212 | .369 | -1.938 | -.486 |
| | Unequal | | | -3.197 | 210.382 | .002 | -1.212 | .379 | -1.959 | -.465 |
| Partnering behaviour | Equal | 9.980 | .002 | -2.173 | 391 | .030 | -.861 | .396 | -1.640 | -.082 |
| | Unequal | | | -2.425 | 367.596 | .016 | -.861 | .355 | -1.559 | -.163 |
| Disciplinary behaviour | Equal | 4.164 | .042 | -2.808 | 379 | .005 | -.922 | .328 | -1.567 | -.276 |
| | Unequal | | | -2.918 | 297.456 | .004 | -.922 | .316 | -1.543 | -.300 |
| Dominating behaviour | Equal | 5.033 | .025 | 2.584 | 390 | .010 | .505 | .195 | .121 | .889 |
| | Unequal | | | 2.690 | 325.683 | .008 | .505 | .188 | .136 | .874 |

Table 2: Mean Differences in Leadership behaviour of private and public universities
Source: Survey data, 2015.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|------------------------|----------------|----------------|--------------------|-------------|---------|------|
| Leadership behaviour | Variances | Sum of Squares | Degrees of Freedom | Mean Square | F-value | Sig. |
| Selfless behaviour | Between Groups | 193.356 | 1 | 193.356 | 5.560 | .019 |
| | Within Groups | 12659.486 | 364 | 34.779 | | |
| | Total | 12852.842 | 365 | | | |
| Freelance behaviour | Between Groups | 116.221 | 1 | 116.221 | 10.782 | .001 |
| | Within Groups | 3912.831 | 363 | 10.779 | | |
| | Total | 4029.052 | 364 | | | |
| Partnering behaviour | Between Groups | 66.166 | 1 | 66.166 | 4.721 | .030 |
| | Within Groups | 5479.748 | 391 | 14.015 | | |
| | Total | 5545.913 | 392 | | | |
| Disciplinary behaviour | Between Groups | 73.270 | 1 | 73.270 | 7.883 | .005 |
| | Within Groups | 3522.619 | 379 | 9.295 | | |
| | Total | 3595.890 | 380 | | | |
| Dominating behaviour | Between Groups | 23.013 | 1 | 23.013 | 6.679 | .010 |
| | Within Groups | 1343.803 | 390 | 3.446 | | |
| | Total | 1366.816 | 391 | | | |

Table 3: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) results
Source: Field data, 2015.



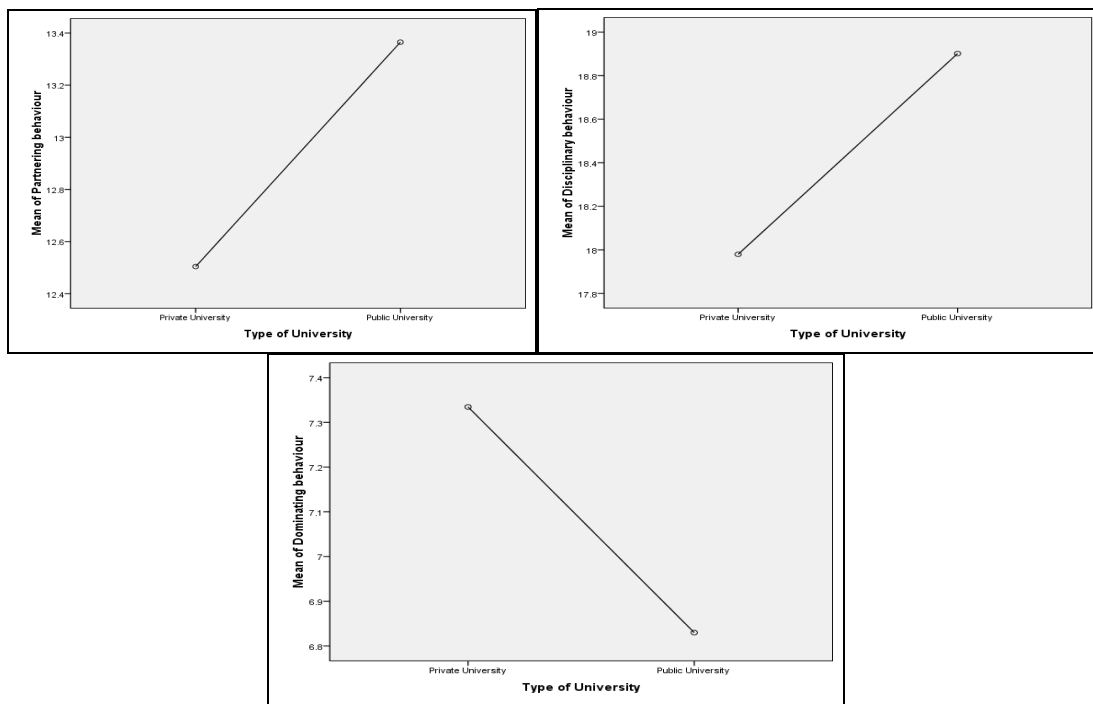


Figure 2: Mean Difference Plots of the Leadership Behaviour of private and public universities.
Source: Derived from Field data, 2015

7.3. Test of the impact of Leadership Behaviours on Job Satisfaction

Regression tests were done to explore the third hypothesis, which is stated in the Null form as follows.

- There is no relationship between leadership behaviour and employee job satisfaction.

The objective was to study the predictive power of the leadership behaviours as independent variables on job satisfaction as the dependent variable. The three major results are the model summary, ANOVA table and the regression coefficients table. Table 4a, b and c present the results. The R value of 0.584 in column 2 of Table 4a suggests that the leadership behaviours in the regression model accounts for 58 percent of the change in job satisfaction. Table 7b shows an F-value of 26.233 in column 5, which is significant at $p=0.00$. It is the ratio of the mean squares (Column 4) of the variation in the dependent variable that was captured within the regression model relative to the unexplained residual is high and. Lastly, Table 4c shows the regression coefficients in Columns 2 and their significance levels (p-values) in Column 5. Freelance behaviour has a negative coefficient of 1.073, whilst in contrast, dominating behaviour has a negative coefficient of 0.885. They are both are significant.

Regression tests of the impact of the leadership behaviours on the two categories of affective and cognitive job satisfaction were also conducted. High and significant F-values of 31.648 and 19.854 respectively were returned for affective and cognitive job satisfaction. The freelance behaviour has negative and significant impact of -0.606 on affective job satisfaction at $p=0.00$ and a negative impact of -0.536 on cognitive job satisfaction at $p=0.00$. In addition, dominating behaviour has a negative effect of -0.596 at $p=0.07$ on cognitive job satisfaction.

In contrast to the negative effects of freelance behaviour and dominating behaviour, three other leadership behaviours have positive impacts. The selfless behaviour has a positive impact of 0.239 at $p=0.047$ on affective job satisfaction and a positive effect of 0.362 at $p=0.05$ on cognitive job satisfaction. Partnering behaviour has a positive impact of 0.482 at $p=0.001$ on affective job satisfaction whilst disciplinary behaviour also has a singular positive outcome of 0.670 at $p=0.01$ on cognitive job satisfaction.

The foregoing results point to the fact that the five dimensions of leadership behaviour all have significant impacts on job satisfaction, some of which were negative. Hence, the Null Hypothesis of no relationship between leadership behaviour and employee job satisfaction in Nigerian private and public universities cannot be justified.

Accordingly, the Null form of Hypothesis 3 failed and was rejected. Leadership behaviours impact significantly on job satisfaction in the Nigerian public and private universities.

| 4a. Model Summary | | | | | | |
|--|-------------------|-----------|-------------------|----------------------------|--------|-------------------|
| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate | | |
| 1 | .584 ^a | .341 | .328 | 14.132 | | |
| a. Predictors: (Constant), Dominating behaviour, Disciplinary behaviour, Partnering behaviour, Freelance behaviour, Selfless behaviour | | | | | | |
| 4b. ANOVA ^b | | | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | |
| Model | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | |
| 1 | Regression | 26195.148 | 5 | 5239.030 | 26.233 | .000 ^a |
| | Residual | 50727.356 | 254 | 199.714 | | |
| | Total | 76922.504 | 259 | | | |
| a. Predictors: (Constant), Dominating behaviour, Disciplinary behaviour, Partnering behaviour, Freelance behaviour, Selfless behaviour | | | | | | |
| b. Dependent Variable: Aggregate Job Satisfaction | | | | | | |

| 4c. Regression Coefficients ^a | | | | | | |
|---|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|-------|--------|------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |
| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | |
| | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 76.349 | 8.113 | | 9.411 | .000 |
| | Selfless behaviour | .543 | .287 | .184 | 1.892 | .060 |
| | Freelance behaviour | -1.073 | .319 | -.199 | -3.362 | .001 |
| | Partnering behaviour | .817 | .340 | .187 | 2.404 | .017 |
| | Disciplinary behaviour | .872 | .407 | .151 | 2.141 | .033 |
| | Dominating behaviour | -.885 | .547 | -.098 | -1.618 | .100 |
| a. Dependent Variable: Aggregate Job Satisfaction | | | | | | |

Table 4: Regression results of the impact of leadership behaviours on job satisfaction.

Source: Results obtained from the analysis of Survey Data, 2015

8. Discussion of Results

The results in Section 7.1 is to the effect that a single leadership behaviour is not applicable in Nigerian universities. In some prior leadership study of top leadership, a range of leadership behaviors were identified but with less convincing effects on job satisfaction (Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006; Wirbaa and Shmailan, 2015). The selfless behaviour is akin to the servant-leader, the transformational or the transactional leadership style that have been identified in a number of works (Chandan and Devi, 2014; Coleman, 2000). The freelance behaviour is similar to the laissez faire style of leadership, where the leader leaves subordinates to their own devices, believing that they would do what is right. This model was often identified in studies of university leadership (Dalati, 2014; Wirbaa and Shmailan, 2015). The disciplinary behaviour is similar to directive or tell leadership whilst the partnering behaviour is a semblance of the supportive or team leader. Likewise, the dominating behaviour is akin to autocratic leadership, which is characterized by coercion and fear. The exact model deployed by individual universities will be partly an expression of some local specifics including culture and employee maturity (Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006). The high number of leadership behaviours is also indicative of the divergent nature of leadership, which is a skill and therefore lacks a set of principles (Chandan and Devi, 2014; Grint, 2015).

The second hypothesis of the study, which states that there is no significant difference in leadership behaviour across the Nigerian public and private universities was rejected. No doubt, their operating environment differ significantly in terms of mission, vision, objectives and pressures. Curiously though, the private universities were uniquely identified with dominating behaviour. This behaviour is analogous to autocratic leadership characterized by fear, unpredictability, dominance and command. What does dominating behaviour imply for private universities in the light of their entrepreneurial instinct and the natural interest to break-even, make some profit and achieve their goals sooner than later? Dominating leadership means standing on the neck of employees, cajoling them and create fear in them. This accounts for its negative impact in Section 7.3. This behaviour needs to be done away with as it would not achieve positive results, given the intellectual outlook of employees.

The public universities were characterised by a mix of leadership behaviours- selfless, freelance, disciplinary and partnering. The freelance behaviour, which was condemned as abdication in Section 5 (Bass and Bass, 2008; Ojo, 2009; Thrash, 2012) was found in Section 7.3 to impact negatively on both cognitive and affective job satisfaction. Public universities could do better if they harp more on the selfless, disciplinary and partnering behaviours. Given the university notions of academic freedom, autonomy, decentralisation, stability and collegiality, freelance behaviour may not mean complete abdication but a matter of allowing the freedom, space and time

for the highly knowledgeable rank and file to do the right things. Otherwise, the selfless leader may inadvertently become an isolated leader, if other colleagues and members rebel rather than co-operate.

9. Conclusions and Recommendations

The study concludes that a wide range of leadership behaviours are in vogue in universities but that a clear distinction exists between the private and public universities. Whereas the public universities were characterized by a mix of four out of the five empirical leadership behaviours identified in this study, in contrast, the private universities were uniquely associated with the fifth, that is, the dominating behaviour. The study also concluded that leadership behaviours impact significantly on job satisfaction, some of which were positive, others negative.

The universities should invest money on leadership training across the rank and file, so that people could have better appreciation of their role as leaders, irrespective of their levels in their universities. In this current era, academic quality, sexual and material harassment, misbehaving faculty and students, drug abuse, cultism, cohabitation and many other vices never typical of the ivory tower culture all now constitute remarkable threat to university education and its management. All these are indicative of failure. As such, the training that articulates leadership as everyone's responsibility, within the framework of distributed leadership is not out of place.

Apart from embracing distributed leadership, the behaviours that promote job satisfaction, and hence, commitment would require continuous articulation. The converse is true for freelance and dominating behaviours that have no positive impacts on job satisfaction. Hence, there is significant opportunity for learning and unlearning between the private and public universities.

The private universities do not need to be autocratic as a means of speedily achieving results, otherwise, turnover rate and several other consequences would follow. At the worst, the disciplinary behaviour, which was justified in Section 7.3 may have better appeal than the dominating behaviour. At the best, based on the empirical results of this study, all universities both public and private, would do better if they harp more on the selfless behaviour and the partnering behaviour that have the wider range of positive impacts on job satisfaction.

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