# Transformational Leadership and Enhanced Employee Engagement: Relationship, Roles, Accreditation, and Capacity Building Implications

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by

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# Abstract

**Transformational Leadership and Enhanced Employee Engagement: Relationship, Roles, Accreditation and Capacity Building Implications**
**Frankie Lynn Harriss**

**Key Words**

Transformational leadership, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, transactional leadership, higher education leadership, employee engagement, Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, Micronesia, accreditation, capacity building, higher education

Rising quality assurance standards and levels of accountability in higher education have placed stress on my organization, a two-year community college located in Micronesia, a sub-region of Oceania, in the western Pacific Ocean, which has historically maintained a culture of reactivity to accreditation sanctions. As quality standards increase in rigor and accountability, the demands on employee engagement become ever greater. Today, accreditation requires every employee be engaged in cycles of sustainable continuous quality improvement, assessment of student learning, purposeful dialogue, and institutional effectiveness. US regional accreditation is vital to maintain fiscal integrity of the organization. If terminated, students lose access to Pell Grant, a US Department of Education Title IV funding initiative for low-income students in undergraduate programs of study. Pell Grant is the organization's single most important revenue source, captured from students through tuition and fees. Because revenue sources are not diversified, loss of US regional accreditation, and subsequent loss of Pell Grant, would thus negatively impact organizational stability. This study examined transformational leadership as a potential means for enhancing employee engagement, thereby increasing organizational potential for responding to evolving accreditation standards. This mixed methods study explored the relationship between perceived transformational leadership and follower work

engagement within my organization, described how leaders enhanced follower engagement, and investigated to what extent and in what ways the background, training, development, and experiences of organization leaders contributed to leadership skills and their ability to enhance follower engagement. A sequential mixed methods design was employed for which first quantitative data, and then qualitative data, were collected and analyzed. Quantitative data were used on a Micronesian higher education context to test transformational leadership theory that predicts transformational leadership is positively correlated with employee engagement, using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). Quantitative follower engagement data were collected using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). Qualitative data from semi-structured interviews were then analyzed to further explore leadership and its ability to enhance employee engagement for followers at this Micronesian higher education institution. This study does not substantiate the importance of transformational leadership for enhancing employee engagement, but instead shows transactional contingent reward is more important in this cultural and institutional context. The college leadership does not generally meet the expectations of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire full range leadership model, yet college employees are significantly highly engaged. Additionally, analysis of the quantitative data obtained contributes to academic discussions on potential problems with the MLQ and UWES and show these constructs may not be ideal for measuring transformational leadership or engagement. Institutional recommendations for training current and future college leaders and for developing cross-sector partnerships are given. In addition, the wider implications for future research and practice are provided.

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# List of Abbreviations

| | |
|---|---|
| AB | Absorption |
| ACCJC | Accrediting Commission for Community and Junior Colleges |
| AERA | American Educational Research Association |
| ALO | Accreditation Liaison Officer |
| CI | Confidence Interval |
| COR | Conservation of Resources (theory) |
| CR | Contingent Reward |
| CRT | Cognitive Resources Theory |
| DE | Dedication |
| DF | Degrees of Freedom |
| EE | Extra Effort |
| EFF | Effectiveness |
| FAS | Freely Associated States |
| Five I's | Five Factors of Transformational Leadership (IIA, IIB, IC, IM, and IS) |
| FSM | Federated States of Micronesia |
| FRLT | Full Range Leadership Theory |
| GWA | Gallup Workplace Audit |
| GTOL | General Theory of Leadership |
| HE | Higher Education |
| HEI | Higher Education Institution |
| HRM | Human Resources Management |
| IC | Individualized Consideration |
| IEQA | Institutional Effectiveness and Quality Assurance |
| II(A) and IIA | Idealized Influence Attributes |
| II(B) and IIB | Idealized Influence Behaviors |
| IM | Inspirational Motivation |
| IP | Internet Protocol |
| IS | Intellectual Stimulation |
| ISA | Intellectual, Social, Affective (engagement scale) |
| JEMCO | Joint Economic Management Council |
| JD-R | Job Demands-Resources (model) |
| LF | Laissez-faire |
| LMX | Leader-Member Exchange (theory) |
| LPC | Least Preferred Coworker |
| M | Mean |
| MBEA | Management-by-Exception Active |
| MBEP | Management-by-Exception Passive |
| MBI | Maslach Burnout Inventory |
| MLQ | Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire |

| | |
|---|---|
| N | Sample Size |
| ns | Not Significant |
| OCB | Organizational Citizenship Behavior |
| OHP | Occupational Health Psychology |
| p | p-value (calculated probability) |
| PATS | Pohnpei Agriculture and Trade School |
| r | Spearman's Coefficient of Rank Correlation ($r_s$) |
| SD | Standard Deviation |
| SET | Social Engagement Theory |
| PATS | Ponape Agriculture and Trade School |
| QUAL | Qualitative |
| QUAN | Quantitative |
| SAT | Satisfaction with Leadership |
| SLQ | Servant Leadership Questionnaire |
| t | t value (t test) |
| TTPI | Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands |
| UoL | University of Liverpool |
| US | United States (of America) |
| USD | United States Dollar |
| USDE | United States Department of Education |
| UWES | Utrecht Work Engagement Scale |
| VI | Vigor |
| VPIEQA | Vice President for Institutional Effectiveness and Quality Assurance |
| WASC | Western Association of Schools and Colleges |

# Chapter 1. Introduction

## Introduction

Over the last decade, rising quality assurance standards and levels of accountability for compliance in higher education have placed stress on my organization, which has historically maintained a culture of reacting to accreditation sanctions. When out of compliance with accreditation standards, the US Department of Education (USDE) requires institutions resolve deficiencies within two-years (the "two-year rule"). As quality standards increase in rigor and accountability, and time frames for resolving deficiencies decrease, demands on employee engagement are higher. In the past, organizational statements and promises to improve were sufficient, whereas the last decade ushered in a tight focus on compliance. Today, accreditation requires every employee be engaged in purposeful dialogue; there is ongoing assessment of student learning, and cycles of sustainable continuous quality improvement to increase institutional effectiveness and to evidence student learning, achievement, and success. These evolving standards necessitate a shift in organizational leadership culture from one that is passive to one that is highly proactive and effective.

The organization is a two-year community college, offering primarily associate degrees, and is located in Micronesia. Micronesia is a sub-region of Oceania and three nations of this sub-region maintain a relationship with the United States (US) in the form of a Compact of Free Association (Compact). This relationship is an extension and evolution from the days of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands (TTPI) established following World War II. Negotiations began within the TTPI in 1969 that continue to the present (White & Lindstrom, 1997). Periodically provisions of each Compact are renegotiated and jointly managed by a team of members from the US and each respective nation. In other words, there are three Compacts and three management teams.

Each body that oversees management and negotiation of the Compact provisions is called the Joint Economic Management Council (JEMCO) (US Department of the Interior, 2015). These affiliated nations are also referred to as Freely Associated States (FAS). Each nation has negotiated its own financial agreement as part of its Compact, and currently for all three nations, this includes access to US Federal Financial Aid for higher education for its low-income citizens. Moreover, citizens of the US and likewise citizens of these FAS can travel and work with reciprocity and thus without the necessity of a visa (US Department of the Interior, 2015).

The college cannot directly control the economic provisions of the Compact. However, where the college does have direct control is through compliance with US regional accreditation standards. US regional accreditation is necessary to maintain the fiscal integrity of the organization because if terminated, students lose access to Pell Grant, a US Department of Education Title IV funding initiative for low-income students in undergraduate programs of study (US Department of Education, 2014). The college is specifically accredited by the Accrediting Commission for Community and Junior Colleges (ACCJC), Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC). This is the only US regional accreditor that has a separate agency for community and junior colleges that primarily offer two-year degrees. However, loss of access for Micronesian citizens to Pell Grant as a result of re-negotiation is always a concern.

Pell Grant is the organization's single most important revenue source, captured from students through tuition and fees. Over the last decade, on average, over 84% of the college's students have qualified for and relied on Pell Grant. Because revenue sources are not diversified, loss of US regional accreditation, and subsequent loss of Pell Grant, would thus severely impact organizational stability. The college has enough reserves on hand to survive a few years if access to Pell Grant was lost, but there are no tangible long-term solutions. Situated in a developing nation where the minimum wage is only $1.35 USD per hour, students could never afford the estimated total price of attendance for full time study, which is approximately $9,355 USD per

academic year (not including residence hall fees), and thus is prohibitive (source College web site).

Up until 2011, the college also received direct access to Compact funds worth a $3.8 million USD annual allocation. In 2011, JEMCO passed a resolution imposing a decrement of $700,000 USD each year, over the course of four years, for a total reduction of $2.8 million USD annually (current annual allocation is now merely $1 million USD). The college's total operating budget is approximately $13 million USD, and thus this had a substantially negative impact on the college's financial stability. Each year thus far the national government has made up for the decrement by providing equivalent funds to the college. Unfortunately, the government takes this decision annually, leaving the college leadership wondering each year, if the funding will indeed come through. As the decrement total is now $2.8 million dollars, the college simply could not operate long-term without rapidly depleting reserves if the national government does not support the decrement difference. This precarious financial situation has also prompted the ACCJC to closely monitor this situation because any institution must be financially stable, in order to maintain eligibility and remain accredited.

The US members of the JEMCO team who passed this resolution for a decrement in 2011 did so due to lack of trust in the competence and capacity of the college leadership of the time. JEMCO also took this decision because the college was out of compliance for accreditation standards and had been moved from "warning" to the more severe sanction of "probation" (*Table 1.1*). When an institution is unable to meet quality assurance standards, their constituents and stakeholders lose confidence in the institution. The ACCJC placed the college from warning to probation because the visiting team members and accrediting commission had no confidence in the college leadership, and that leadership had failed to adequately respond to recommendations to meet standards. The visiting team articulated a concern that college leaders neither understood the accreditation process, nor the standards.

Table 1.1

*ACCJC types of sanctions, non-compliance indictors, on accredited institutions (ACCJC, 2015)*

| Sanction | Definition |
|---|---|
| **Warning** | *An institution has been determined by the Commission not to meet one or more standards, and Reaffirmation for one year is not warranted. When the Commission finds that an institution is out of compliance with the Commission's Standards to an extent that gives concern to the Commission, it may issue Warning to the institution to correct its deficiencies, refrain from certain activities, or initiate certain activities, and meet the standards. The Commission may also issue Warning if the institution has acknowledged within its Institutional Self Evaluation Report or Special Report the deficiencies leading to serious noncompliance, and has demonstrated affirmative steps and plans to fully resolve the deficiencies within twelve months (p. 43).* |
| **Probation** | *An institution has been determined by the Commission not to meet one or more standards, and there is a serious concern on the part of the Commission regarding the level and/or scope of the noncompliance issues. When an institution deviates significantly from the Commission's Standards, but not to such an extent as to warrant a Show Cause mandate or the termination of accreditation, the Commission will impose Probation. The Commission may also impose Probation when the institution fails to respond to conditions placed upon it by the Commission, including a Warning (p. 44).* |
| **Show Cause** | *When the Commission finds an institution to be in substantial noncompliance with Commission's Standards, it will mandate Show Cause. The Commission may also mandate Show Cause when the institution has not responded to the previous conditions imposed by the Commission. Under Show Cause, the institution is required to demonstrate why its accreditation should not be withdrawn at the end of a stated period by providing evidence that it has corrected the deficiencies noted by the Commission and is in compliance with the Commission's Standards (p. 44).* |
| **Withdraw Accreditation for Noncompliance (formerly called, termination)** | *If, in the judgement of the Commission, an institution has not satisfactorily explained or corrected deficiencies of which it has been given notice, or has taken action that has placed it significantly out of compliance with the Eligibility Requirements, Accreditation Standards, and Commission policies (together Commission's Standards), its accreditation may be withdrawn (p. 44).* |

Note: US regional accrediting agencies are working towards achieving a common vocabulary for sanctions, as these definitions have varied across these agencies, complicating public comprehension.

A long-standing concern for Micronesian higher education institutions (HEIs) has been "inadequate development for institutional leaders and potential leaders" (Beno, Moses, Rota, & Takeuchi, 2006, p. 3). This enacted probation status negatively impacted the morale of college employees who also lost confidence in the college leadership. Without competent, capable leaders the long-term stability of the institution is at risk, and trust cannot be regained. Studies have consistently demonstrated that success and stability of organizations rely on the promotion of functional and effective leaders and the leadership process (Kezar & Lester, 2011). Transformational leadership, the key leadership style under review (see chapter 2), might be a way forward. Transformational leadership offers potential to engage employees because such leadership involves, "improving the performance of followers and developing followers to their fullest potential" (Northouse, 2013, p. 191).

Over 99% of the students the college serves are from one Micronesian nation. Six campuses are located across the four main islands states of Yap, Chuuk, Pohnpei, and Kosrae, though in total the nation is composed of 607 islands that cover nearly 5.2 million square kilometers of the western Pacific Ocean. And, those four island states span a distance of over 2,777 km of the Pacific Ocean. Only the island of Pohnpei has an undersea fiber optic cable, and thus high speed internet capacity, which limits the use of modern meeting technologies to bridge the distances between sites. The college serves as the only national college and as such its failure would mean drastically limiting the access of higher education for the people of the nation. How many other nations would be impacted so detrimentally with the failure of a single college? Because this is such a uniquely and tightly bounded context that is little studied, this work provides a fascinating case for examination.

My organizational role as vice president for institutional effectiveness and quality assurance (VPIEQA) and accreditation liaison officer (ALO) includes responsibility for institutional compliance with US regional accreditation standards. Under Title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965, US regional accreditors act as gate-keepers to financial assistance programs, including Pell Grant (US Department of Education, 2014). As noted above, Pell Grant is

currently the organization's primary source of revenue captured from student tuition and fees. Through insufficient leadership capacity, absence of proactive engagement, limited resources, and evolving accreditation standards, the organization has an established history of responding to accreditation sanctions (Beno et al., 2006). Accreditation standards necessarily require active participation of all employees. Organizational leaders (administrators) must therefore be able to enhance employee engagement to ensure ongoing compliance with those accreditation standards. It is my responsibility to improve leadership capacity in a transformational direction, and to ensure increased engagement of employees so that the organization resiliently meets sanctions and improves long-term compliance. Transformational leadership may enhance employee engagement; however, the correlation between transformational leadership and employee engagement has been examined in few studies, and the process for how leadership might enhance employee engagement has not been heavily explored (Shuck & Herd, 2012; Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011). Moreover, I work in a unique organizational context that is not represented in the literature.

To that end, this mixed methods study explores the relationship between perceived transformational leadership and follower work engagement within my organization, describes how leaders enhance follower engagement, and investigates to what extent and in what ways the background, training, development, and experiences of organization leaders contribute to leadership skills and the ability to enhance follower engagement. A sequential mixed methods design is employed for which first quantitative data are collected and analyzed, and then qualitative data are collected and analyzed. In this study, quantitative data will be used on a Micronesian higher education (HE) context to test transformational leadership theory that predicts transformational leadership is positively correlated with employee engagement. To examine the possible correlation, quantitative leadership data will be collected by a Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), and quantitative follower engagement data will be collected by the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (chapters 2-3). Qualitative data from semi-

structured interviews will then be used to further explore leadership and its ability to enhance employee engagement for followers at this Micronesian HEI. The rationale for collecting both quantitative and qualitative data is to merge these data in order to corroborate, enrich, and validate results in an effort to bring increased understanding to this problem that could not be achieved by examining these data independently. This leads us on to three central research questions and five sub-questions that will be taken up in the next two chapters.

# Chapter 2. Literature Review

## Introduction: Transforming the Micronesian HEI context. What Approach to choose?

Chapter 1 describes an HEI located in a developing island nation that must build both capacity and proactive employee engagement in order to navigate a turbulent HE environment. This turbulent environment includes meeting evolving accreditation standards and increasing levels of accountability, while also operating under budget constraints. Though located in a developing nation, this HEI must adhere to US standards of accountability to maintain access to its primary revenue source, Pell Grant, captured through student tuition and fees. In order to effectively meet these challenges and strengthen organizational capacity, transformational leadership is proposed as a means for enhancing employee engagement. Consequently, this study requires an exploration of transformational leadership theory, employee engagement theory, and the tools utilized to measure these concepts. Additionally, this chapter provides initial rationale for the specific tools utilized in this study, chapter 3 provides further rationale, and chapters 6-7 provides limitations.

This chapter is organized to first provide a review of contemporary leadership theories. Transformational and transactional leadership (new leadership) theories (Gordon, 2011) are discussed in detail, and Bass and Avolio's (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and full range leadership model are justified for quantitative exploration. Next, an exposition of engagement theory is offered, beginning with Kahn's (1990) introduction of *personal engagement* and the various conceptualizations and tools that have since resulted. Schaufeli and Bakker's (2004) conceptualization of engagement and their Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) are also justified for quantitative exploration. Moreover, this chapter makes evident the lacking univocality for both the concepts of leadership and engagement, while also evidencing these constructs have value to organizations and merit further study. In consideration of the diverse academic views on both the leadership and engagement constructs, debate on the tools used to measure these

constructs, as well as evidence that leadership and engagement might vary with context, the necessity for a qualitative component to this study, to enhance and validate the quantitative investigation, is established.


## Transformational Leadership

### What is Leadership?

What makes an effective leader? This is a question we ponder nearly every day, in some form or another, within my organization and social groups. We critique, admire, emulate successes, and avoid failures of leaders we know. Likewise, the leadership concept is popular debate with both the general public and researchers. There have been at least 65 proposed classification systems developed over the last six decades to describe leadership dimensions and no common definition has yet been agreed upon by scholars (Northouse, 2013). Leadership ideals have changed across generations and might have a variety of universals or subtleties specific to culture (Moe, Pappas, & Murray, 2007; Spreitzer, Perttula, & Xin, 2005). Researchers have explored traits, behaviors, power relationships, skills, styles, situations, and distinguishing features of leadership *versus* management (Derungs 2011; Northouse, 2013). There exists extensive literature on leadership, yet debate continues around how best to complete the statement, "leadership is…" (Northouse, 2013, p.2).

Organizations of every variety seek individuals with leadership skills, believing such individuals can navigate an organization through challenging times, changing circumstances, and improved fiscal stability (Derungs, 2011; Northouse, 2013). Studies consistently demonstrate leadership is important to the success and stability of an organization (Kezar & Lester, 2011). To be a leader, one needs followers. Within an organization, leadership includes relationships between fellow leaders, with subordinates, and with others (Derungs, 2011; McCaffery, 2010). Thus leadership becomes a multi-dimensional process, not merely characteristics of the individual, and research can benefit from a more collective approach (Derungs, 2011; Northouse 2013).

For this study, Northouse's (2013) definition of leadership is generally employed, "*Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal*" (p. 5). Thus, leadership is a transactional, interactive, non-linear, and transformative process between leader and followers (McCaffery, 2010; Northouse, 2013; Shuck & Herd, 2012). Where it is interactive in nature, the concept of "leader" is not confined to individuals in positions of authority or formal power, and the definition used implies leadership is obtainable by all, and thus can be *emergent leadership* (Kezar & Lester, 2011; Kezar, 2012).

However, for practical reasons, the scope of this study only examines leaders who hold positions of authority within the college, *assigned leadership* (Northouse, 2013). Though emergent leadership exists, practical identification of those leaders and those who might be their followers would be difficult to achieve within the time frame of this doctoral work. Because assigned leaders must also fulfill the roles of managers or administrators, these three terms will be treated as equivalent across this study. The amount of recent leadership literature itself can be overwhelming, and the scope of this work certainly cannot include a 3,000-year review of leadership. As Grint (2011) observes, the scholarship of leadership began with recorded history. Consequently, I limit this review to contemporary leadership described in the literature over the last few decades (1975-2015) with focus quickly narrowing to transactional and transformational leadership approaches developed during this time.

Over the last century, the theory and practices of leadership have evolved extensively. Northouse (2013) provides a review of that evolution over the last century as progressing from themes of domination (1920-1929); influence and a focus on personality traits (1930s); group theory and persuasion (1940s); leadership behaviors and effectiveness (1950s); influencing behaviors to achieve common goals (1960s); organizational behavior and reciprocity between leader and follower (1970s); continued focus on influence, traits, persuasion, and Burn's (1978) movement for leadership as a transformational process (1980s); and from the 21st century, scholars continue agreeing to disagree on the definition of leadership. A common definition is unlikely to be

achieved soon, and so too the quest for a General Theory of Leadership (GTOL) continues (Sorenson, Goethals, & Haber, 2011). Regardless of the numerous definitions of leadership, and whether or not leadership constitutes a useful scientific construct, it is a genuine phenomenon important to the effectiveness of the organization under study (Yukl, 2010).

The prevailing leadership approaches are divided by Gordon (2011) into traditional and non-traditional approaches. Traditional approaches operate with adherence to a hierarchical structure where the leader is in a position of power over the follower, and this power relationship is regarded as unproblematic. Non-traditional approaches promote a shift in the power relationship such that leaders share power with followers and thus the line between leader-follower is blurred. Gordon (2011) goes further to present an analysis of the substantive leadership literature and generates five broad leadership approaches: "trait, style, contingency, new leadership, and dispersed leadership" (p. 195). Dispersed leadership represents the emerging non-traditional approaches, and the other four approaches fall under those considered traditional (Gordon, 2011).

Organizing leadership approaches by traits, capabilities, and behaviors, Northouse (2013) draws attention to those approaches that place the leader at the center of the process versus those that place the leader-follower relationship as central. Yukl (2010) proposes that the leadership effectiveness literature and related theories can be more practically classified by the three variables: "characteristics of the leaders", "characteristics of the followers", and "characteristics of the situation" (p. 12). However, to maintain consistency within the existing literature, Yukl (2010) also classifies leadership into five approaches: trait, behavior, power-influence, situational, and integrative.

A number of scholars have presented analyses of leadership that attempt to simplify and so enhance practical application. Derungs (2011) simplifies classification by focusing on only two orientations for leadership: "traits of leadership" and "behaviors of leadership" (p. 45). Longsworth (2010) classifies leadership using a framework dividing leadership into, "the who, the what, and

the how" (p. 25). *Who* represents the central leader and his/her traits, *what* represents skills, behaviors, and attitudes acquired, and *how* represents the process of leadership (Longsworth, 2010). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) propose the three domains of *follower, leader*, and the leader-follower *relationship*, and note that categorization using this system would overcome challenges on how to organize new leadership theories that do not fit neatly under older typologies such as trait, behavior, style, or contingency.

Grint (2011) connects the evolution of leadership models to historical and cultural contexts, including related economic cycles, political cycles, cycles of war, and ultimately links them to contemporary challenges, such as religious and political fundamentalism and global warming. He further discusses two binary models, centralization-decentralization and science versus culture, to explain the evolution of leadership models over the last century. He describes his centralization-decentralization model as a pattern similar to a pendulum swinging between centralized and decentralized models of leadership. For the science-culture binary model leadership has a tendency to swing back and forth between the linguistics of culture and science. Similarly, this mixed methods study swings from a scientific, quantitative focus in chapter four, to a culturo-linguistic, qualitative focus in chapter five. In chapter six, the pendulum rests, and these results are synthesized to achieve an equilibrium reflective of not only the statistical data of models, but also the cultural and organizational mores that influence the leadership concept for followers in this cultural context, in this HEI, at this point in time. In the end, Grint (2011) admits:

> *…the more scientifically inclined amongst us might be inclined to see greater rationality in leadership styles across time; the more liberal amongst us might see the spread of collaborative styles as proof positive of their deeply held antipathy to individual leadership manifest in heroic men; the more cynical amongst us might perceive none of these patterns but just an accumulation of historical detritus strewn around by academics and consultants hoping…to make sense of a senseless shape, or at least, to make a living from constructing patterns to sell (p. 12).*

Though we recognize perfect leadership does not exist, there is public value in pursuing leadership, and history ideally steers us away from leadership that

has previously gone badly wrong (Grint, 2011). The specific classification system utilized is largely irrelevant to this study and thus the debate for a uniform leadership taxonomy is left to those more compelled by such work. When looking towards leadership to enhance employee engagement, one must select which leadership approach is most likely to bring about this desired engagement within this bounded context. Next, a brief overview of contemporary leadership theories and their limitations is provided, moving from leader-centered perspective to leadership as a dyadic relationship.

**Leader-centered Approaches**
The traits approach to leadership focuses on identifying traits positively correlated with leadership. Over a century of studies have been conducted on the trait approach, but these are largely focused on the leader, rather than leadership as a process. For example, these studies fail to examine followers and situational variables (Yukl, 2010). Under the skills model of leadership, skills rather than traits are examined. Katz (1955) defined a skill as an ability that can be developed and exhibited through performance. So, through both job experiences and training, leaders can become more effective in their roles (Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly, & Marks, 2000).

The style approach emphasizes leader behavior and actions towards followers in varied contexts. Rather than *who* the leader is, one examines *how* and *what* leaders do (Yukl, 2010). The focus shifts from that of leader to include followers and examination of leadership as a process. This approach does not offer a developed theory, but instead a framework from which the leader is able to generally assess their leadership style by describing their behavior. Much research under this approach has added reliability; however, these two dimensions have not been associated with performance outcomes, a universally generalizable set of behaviors has not been derived for effective leadership, and researchers disagree on how both dimensions mutually affect followers. The only conclusive result is that considerate leaders gain increased follower satisfaction (Northouse, 2013; Yukl, 2011).

When studies failed to provide a universal set of traits and behaviors for effective leadership, contingency theories were developed in an effort to explain why different styles of leadership might be more effective in different situations. Contingency theories include situational leadership and path-goal, as well as leadership substitutes theory, least preferred coworker (LPC), normative decision model, cognitive resources theory (CRT), and the multiple linkage model (Fiedler, 1995; Yukl, 2011). This leadership approach matches a leader's style to an ideal context for increased effectiveness (Ayman, Chemers, & Fiedler, 1995; Fiedler, 1995). This theory relies on an essentialism foundation where one seeks to identify the single best way to lead and relies upon the assumption that one can determine the essence of leading in a given context (Collinson, 2011). And, though much empirical research has been conducted to support the theory (Ayman et al., 1995), application of the work is not as practical for the organization because the instruments used can be cumbersome, and the organization is prompted to re-engineer situations rather than teaching leaders how to adapt their styles to the situation at hand (Northouse, 2013; Yukl, 2011).

**Leadership as a Dyadic Relationship**
Leader-member exchange (LMX) Theory derives from earlier research on vertical dyad linkage (VDL) theory, social exchange theory, and the norm of reciprocity (Anand, Hu, Linden, & Vidyarthi, 2011; Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Northouse, 2013; Yukl, 2010). LMX theory assumes the "leader-follower relationship within a work group is unique, varies in quality, and should be studied as a dyad" and therefore follower perceptions are not averaged to ascertain leadership style (Anand, et al., 2011, p. 311). Leader communication is deemed essential to build mutual commitment, respect, and trust; but LMX does not provide the details on how the leader develops these factors within their follower relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Research has supported the LMX influence of high-quality leader-follower exchanges with positive organizational outcomes associated with job satisfaction, promotions, citizenship behaviors, innovation, lower turnover, and other performance variables (Anand et al., 2011). These high-quality exchanges

result in followers doing more, feeling positive, and committing to organizational success (Northouse, 2013).

Currently, LMX is the only leadership theory placing this dyadic relationship as central to an effective leadership process (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX does classify work groups as either the "in-group" or "out-group," where the in-group is utilized with higher frequency to achieve goals more effectively and, though not intended, it suggests the support and development of privileged work units and thus has the appearance of being discriminatory and unfair. Additionally, a variety of LMX instruments have been used by researchers, making comparative studies difficult (Anand et al., 2011). As the focus of this study is about achieving more highly engaged staff and building capacity for all employees, a leadership approach based on differential treatment for an in-group would be counter to that aim.

Servant leadership is the only leadership approach that places altruism and caring for others as the core component to the leadership process and guides leaders to place followers first, share power, and foster the individual development and growth of each follower (Anand et al., 2011; Greenleaf, 2008; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010). For the servant leader, social responsibility extends to employees as well as the community and larger society (Anand et al., 2011). There is a lack of consensus for a common servant leadership framework and there exist multiple versions of the Servant Leadership Questionnaires (SLQ) (Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005). Research shows that when followers do not prefer or desire a servant leader relationship, it is not effective. Though servant leadership shows promise, its empirical research is still at a rudimentary stage (Anand et al., 2011; Russell & Stone, 2002).

Political and corporate scandals and societal crises across the world have prompted researchers to explore both the advantages and disadvantages of leadership and its fundamental nature (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Caza & Jackson, 2011). Society is seeking trustworthy leadership. This area of research, having just come into focus since 2003, examines the authenticity of

leaders and leadership itself (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Though definitions of an authentic leader vary, generally one is considered an authentic leader if one's thoughts and actions always demonstrate the four elements of: self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). Currently, authentic leadership is widely popular but, there is not yet consensus on a definition, and with only a few formative reviews, the empirical research is scant, and thus validation is lacking (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Caza & Jackson, 2011).

Thus far, we have briefly sampled the problematic nature of defining and comparatively measuring leadership against the variety of academic theories on the concept. Rather than refining a definition over time, and achieving a general theory of leadership, the pendulum continues to swing. In the next section, we explore the more promising leadership theories of transformational and transactional leadership. As these are discussed, it will be evident that many of the leadership theories presented are situated, in some form, within these new leadership theories, and further rationalizes why this study focuses on transformational leadership.

**New Leadership: Transactional and Transformational Approaches**
The term new leadership was applied to transactional and transformational leadership theories because authors felt they were embracing an alternative approach to leadership study by viewing leaders as, "managers of meaning" as opposed to "mandating influence" (Gordon, 2011, p. 196). Transformational leadership is a process by which a leader encourages followers to exceed performance expectations by fostering commitment to a higher moral cause and does so through strong emotional attachment (Díaz-Sáenz, 2011). Transformational leaders motivate followers beyond comfort zones to realize their full potential, improve performance, and transcend self-interest for the greater good (Derungs, 2011; Northouse, 2013).

In 1973, James Downton coined the term *transformational leadership* and in 1978 James MacGregor Burns distinguished transformational leadership from transactional leadership (Díaz-Sáenz, 2011). Burns (1978) stated:

*"…transforming leadership…occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality…their purposes…become fused…it [transforming leadership] raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both leader and led, and thus it has a transforming effect on both"* *(p. 20).*

Whereas, *transactional leadership* is a limited relationship without lasting purpose, primarily involving the exchange of something of value (economic, political, or psychological) between leaders and followers. A transaction occurs (Burns, 1978). The transactional leader motivates followers then by appealing to an exchange of personal desires and self-interest (Aarons, 2006). For example, the leader receives a work product from the follower and the follower receives a pay bonus; or a political leader is supported through campaign contributions and in exchange provides support for desired legislation (Yukl, 2010). The transactional leader articulates expectations and specifies the rewards the follower will receive upon fulfillment of expectations (Bass & Avolio, 1994). These transactional exchanges range from the obvious to less obvious ones such as commitment, trust, and respect (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). Values relevant to transactional leadership are those associated with the exchange process such as reciprocity, fairness, and trustworthiness, though there is no specific moral dimension (Yukl, 2010).

Transformational leadership has a moral dimension, making it relevant to today's societal push for ethical leadership and builds relationships with a lasting purpose (Northouse, 2013). Current public sentiment regarding unethical leadership by various world politicians and corporate leaders, such as accounting scandals which led to the collapse of Enron in the US, have revived interest in the ethical leader. However, modern transformational theory is more focused on practical achievement of goals and tasks as

compared to Burns' (1978) focus on heightened morality and social reform. And though Burns' (1978) pivotal work heavily influenced transformational leadership theory development, it is the work of Bernard M. Bass (1985) that has become the source of most transformational leadership empirical research (Yukl, 2010).

Bass (1985) considered transformational and transactional leadership as distinctive processes that the effective leader uses in combination, and thus they are not mutually exclusive. Transformational leadership is thus described as an expansion of transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Avolio (2011) asserts that transformational leadership, through substantive research, has been shown to be highly effective across organizational contexts and within all levels of an organization. Avolio (2011) states, through transformational leadership, followers have increased commitment, engagement, and satisfaction.

In a higher education context, Derungs (2011) posits that transformational leaders are likely to move followers and organizations past challenges and necessary changes through inspiration, motivation, and stimulation. College leadership descriptions frequently note that transformational leaders are sought and that rapidly changing times require leaders who can transform an institution. A new leadership program for aspiring community college presidents developed by *The Aspen Institute* has a strategic curriculum for their *College Excellence Program* that includes, "Leading Transformational Change." One can hardly review a US college presidential position announcement or attend a leadership training program and not see the term "transformational leader" used. The other leadership term most frequently noted for community college leaders is a "visionary leader." Often, both terms are used to describe today's community college leader: transformational and visionary. Bass and Avolio's (1994) transformational leader is one who is visionary.

Appealing specifically to my institutional role, transformational leadership thus offers a promising approach for ensuring compliance with accreditation

standards by engaging employees to commit to the necessary transformative changes for compliance. Performance levels could be raised, while employees look beyond themselves, and instead look towards the importance of improving the only college that serves the nation. Moreover, both leader-member exchange (LMX) and transformational leadership theories have been the most frequently explored over the last two decades (Anand, et al., 2011). From 2000-2010 over 476 articles on transformational leadership were published across a large range of professional journals making it the most studied leadership theory, applied broadly across professional contexts (Díaz-Sáenz, 2011). Thus, the prevalence of transformational leadership in the literature further added to its appeal for application in this study.

Consequently, transformational leadership theory was chosen for exploration and application to the context under study because this leadership approach:

- has been extensively and empirically studied from many professional perspectives and contexts;
- is supported by extensive research that shows it as a highly effective form of leadership (Northouse, 2013);
- has been evidenced to increase employee engagement, commitment, and satisfaction (all of which are components of engagement);
- is viewed as a process between the leader and follower emphasizing follower needs;
- offers a broad view of leadership;
- involves high standards and moral responsibility; and
- appeals to this researcher's experience for what a good leader should be.

As discussed in chapter 1, engaging all employees across the college is essential for adequate organizational response to evolving quality assurance standards and increased accountability for student learning, achievement, and success. In addition to engaging employees, employee capacity (skills, abilities, knowledge, and resources) needs to be developed so that the institution has the necessary competence and resiliency to keep up with this

rapidly changing accountability climate. Given that capacity building is a key strategy for this study context, an ideal leader is one who is investing in followers and developing those followers into leaders, and that is a goal of the transformational leader (Avolio, 2011).

Bass's perspective for transformational leadership has been the most heavily employed in empirical research, but two alternative transformational leadership perspectives have offered additional substantive contributions to understanding the transformational leader. Bennis and Nanus (2007) and Kouzes and Posner (2012) both conducted interviews on middle and senior level managers and developed additional transformational leadership perspectives and models. However, due to its prevalence in the literature, and thus potential for drawing comparisons, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and full range leadership model were selected for use in this study, and this tool is discussed in the next section.

## An Investigation of Transformational Leadership and Enhancing Employee Engagement. Which models measure best?

### Literature Informing Choice of the Study's First Quantitative Instrument Used, the FRLT and MLQ

*The Full Range Leadership Theory (FRLT) Model*
Bass and Avolio developed a *full range leadership theory* (FRLT) model that contains nine components of leadership style ranging from laissez-faire (the absence of leadership) to the more desired transformational leader (Avolio, 2011). It is expected that every leader will exhibit each of the nine components or styles in the model. For increased leadership effectiveness, one strives for an optimal model profile utilizing desired leadership styles more frequently and least desired styles less frequently (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

*Transformational Leader*
Transformational leadership in this model is defined with implementation of one of the four I's as presented in Table 2.1 (Bass & Avolio, 1994). By the full

range leadership model, one should strive to lead by the four I's (Table 2.1) of transformational leadership frequently; however, there will be times when the leader will need to employ positive transactional leadership styles such as articulating expectations, establishing goals, and monitoring performance (Avolio, 2011; Bass & Avolio, 1994). In other words, transformational leadership is an extension of transactional leadership: both styles of leadership are used together when necessary for increased effectiveness. The full range leadership model thus represents a continuum between transformational and transactional leadership (Avolio, 2011).

Table 2.1

*The full-range leadership model four I's of transformational leadership defined, and expanded to the five I's for this study*

| **Idealized influence (II): II(A) & II(B)** | the leader who serves as a role model thus increasing emotional engagement of followers who desire emulating the leader (Derungs, 2011; Díaz-Sáenz, 2011; Moe, Pappas, & Murray, 2007; Shuck & Herd, 2012). These leaders are exemplars of the values, vision, and goals they communicate (Northouse, 2013; Shuck & Herd, 2012). Follower perceptions, formed through emotional bonds and "relational identification," create opportunity for transformation (McCaffery, 2010; Shuck & Herd, 2012, p. 169). The leader is respected, trusted, and admired and may be referred to as charismatic, visionary, persistent, and determined (Díaz-Sáenz, 2011; Northouse, 2013).<br><br>Idealized influence can further be divided into both *attributes* **[II(A)]** and *behaviors* **[II(B)]** for measurement, and thus this work refers to the _five I's_ of transformational leadership rather than the *four I's* commonly referenced (Bass & Avolio, 2004). |
|---|---|
| **Inspirational motivation (IM):** | the leader builds employee confidence and team spirit that aspirational goals can be attained, which in turn promotes self-efficacy and enhanced engagement (Derungs, 2011; Moe et al., 2007; Shuck & Herd, 2012). The leader communicates expectations clearly and ensures work is both meaningful and challenging (Díaz-Sáenz, 2011). |

| Intellectual stimulation (IS): | the leader fosters innovative, creative strategies to solve difficult problems and to achieve aspirational goals (Derungs, 2011; Moe et al., 2007; Shuck & Herd, 2012). Followers are encouraged to examine and question old assumptions for viability (Díaz-Sáenz, 2011). |
|---|---|
| Individualized consideration (IC): | the leader creates a supportive environment, offers attention to individual needs and development of strengths, builds personal relationships, and serves as a mentor while managing to retain team cohesion and spirit. Attention and appraisal of individual actions improves motivational fitness of the team (Chipunza & Gwarinda, 2010; Derungs, 2011; Díaz-Sáenz, 2011; Shuck & Herd, 2012). |

Pounder (2001) asserts that effective HE leaders will avail themselves of both transactional and transformational leadership characteristics and that the institutional effectiveness of universities has been linked to both transformational and transactional leadership styles. Further, the higher education context is well established around a reward system, similar to transactional contingent reward (CR), where one produces products and is rewarded for that achievement (such as recognition, tenure, titles, promotion, overload pay).

*Transactional Leader*
Avolio (2011) describes transactional leadership as occurring when the leader assesses follower performance or behavior, and then either disciplines or rewards the follower accordingly. The full range leadership model has three components to transactional leadership (Table 2.2): contingent reward (CR), management-by-exception active (MBEA), and management-by-exception passive (MBEP) defined below.

Table 2.2

*The full-range leadership model components of transactional leadership and laissez-faire non-leadership defined*

| Transactional Leadership | |
|---|---|
| **Contingent reward (CR):** | builds from contingency theory and is considered the most positive, constructive, and effective form of transactional leadership. The leader articulates expectations and a reward is offered in exchange for completing the transaction satisfactorily (Avolio, 2011; Bass & Avolio, 1994). The reward could be recognition for a job well done, a benefit such as earning a day of leave, or receiving a pay bonus, for example. |
| **Management-by-exception active (MBEA):** | is considered a more corrective form of transactional leadership as compared to the constructive style offered by CR. When using MBEA, the leader is actively involved in compliance oversight by monitoring follower deviations from expected practice and notifying the follower when deviating to prompt corrections or improvements (Avolio, 2011; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Though a leader is expected to use this style occasionally for overall effectiveness, effective leaders would not use it to excess. Known exceptions to where using this style more frequently is considered necessary, positive, and effective include high-risk work settings and situations that are life-threatening (Avolio, 2011). |
| **Management-by-exception passive (MBEP):** | is similar to MBEA, except that the leader is not actively monitoring and instead passively waits for errors and deviations to occur, and then seeks corrective action (Avolio, 2011). |
| Absence of Leadership | |
| **Laissez-faire (LF)** | represents avoidance of, or the absence of, leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994). |

*Absence of Leadership*
The final component of the full range leadership model is *laissez-faire* (LF) leadership (Table 2.2). It is the non-transaction, non-leadership factor (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Northouse, 2013). According to Avolio (2011), LF is the most inactive and ineffective form of leadership and ideally never utilized by a leader. Northouse (2013) sums it up as, the LF leader has a hands-off approach, gives up responsibility, procrastinates on decisions, provides no feedback, and offers no support to followers to ensure they are satisfied or professionally developing.

*Three Dimensions of the Full Range Leadership Model*
Overall, the full range leadership model has three dimensions:

1. active↔passive leadership styles (Five I's←CR—MBEA—MBEP→LF),
2. effective↔ineffective leadership styles (Five I's←CR—MBEA—MBEP→LF),
3. and the frequency with which a given style is utilized (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

A leader should work towards utilizing the most active, effective forms of transformational leadership (the five I's) the most frequently, contingent reward (CR) somewhat frequently, management-by-exception active (MBEA) less frequently, management-by-exception passive (MBEP) rarely, and laissez-faire (LF) never.

*The MLQ Model Itself*
Bass and Avolio (2004) then developed a 360-degree Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) that can be used to examine follower perceptions, supervisor perceptions, and self-perceptions as to one's profile on the full range leadership model (Appendices 1 and 2). The leader sees how frequently they are utilizing the nine component leadership styles of the full range leadership model. Additionally, the MLQ measures three leadership outcomes for followers' extra effort (EE), effectiveness (EFF), and satisfaction (SAT) with leadership. One's profile can also be compared to benchmarks and universal norms.

To this point, I have discussed leadership approaches and offered rationale for selecting transformational leadership and the MLQ (full range leadership model) for use in this study. Further, detailed rationale for the MLQ is provided in chapter 3 and limitations are discussed in chapters 6-7. Though emergent leadership is recognized as important, this work focuses on assigned leadership and those classified as *administrators* within the organization. Avoiding debates on semantics around a term upon which academics still fail to agree, the terms leader, manager, and administrator are used

interchangeably in this work, and leadership is thus a process utilized by these individuals

The MLQ provides follower perceptions on the three leadership outcomes of satisfaction with leadership, extra effort, and effectiveness. Leadership effectiveness can be evaluated by a number of criteria and such measures are as diverse as the definitions of leadership. Commonly, effectiveness is associated with enhanced follower and organizational unit performance, facilitation of goal attainment, and follower perceptions and attitudes (Yukl, 2010). One cannot be certain which leadership effectiveness indicators are most relevant, however, this study specifically focuses on follower engagement as a measure of leadership effectiveness. As noted earlier, transformational leadership has been shown to increase commitment, engagement, and satisfaction of followers (Avolio, 2011). This study will go on to see whether or not transformational leadership can enhance follower engagement in this Micronesian HE context. First, we will explore the engagement concept.

## Literature Informing Choice of the Study's Second Quantitative Instrument Used, the UWES

*The Role of Engagement*
Engagement first appeared in the literature with Kahn's (1990) introduction of *personal engagement,* defined as the:

> *simultaneous employment and expression of a person's preferred self in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional), and active, full role performances* (p. 700).

Individuals exert work effort when they identify with their work. There is the extent to which the individual exerts physical, cognitive, mental, and emotional energies within the work role, and there is the extent to which the work role facilitates this individual expression (Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2014). Engagement calls for investing one's head, hands, and heart (Ashforth &

Humphrey, 1995). However, since Kahn's (1990) definition, employee engagement has been defined and conceptualized inconsistently (Shuck & Wollard, 2010).

Shuck and Wollard (2010) conducted a literature review and compiled engagement definitions for comparison. Some research posits engagement is a personal decision, whereas, other research implies engagement is an organizational-level variable. Types of engagement were also variable across definitions. Shuck and Wollard (2010) state employee engagement has a foundation in the individual psychology of that employee and is observed through the employee's behavior: the employee takes decisions to engage or to disengage. Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011) note engagement is variably represented as a *state* or a *trait*. After a meta-analysis, they concluded engagement varies both within and between individuals, and is best referred to as simply engagement because it is likely to have both trait and state components.

As emphasized by Shuck and Wollard (2010), the engagement literature does agree that employee engagement involves adaptive behaviors directed towards meeting or exceeding organizational outcomes. Through a synthesis of engagement definitions, they defined employee engagement as, "an individual employee's cognitive, emotional, and behavioral state directed toward desired organizational outcomes" (p. 103). They also point to a lack of empirical research on employee engagement and note that most literature is anecdotal rather than evidence-based. After examining 159 employee engagement publications from 1990-2010, Shuck and Wollard (2010) found only 26 were empirical studies. In my review of the literature, many of these empirical studies were also based on self-reported data derived from Likert-type scales, a further limitation. Self-reported data run the risk of individuals being dishonest in responses. Unless more clearly defined, Likert-type scales can often be relative (What is the difference between "agree" and "strongly agree"?). And, statistical power is limited for Likert-type scales where one can only draw correlations, but cannot pronounce cause and effect relationships.

Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes (2002) defined employee engagement as, "the individual's involvement and satisfaction with, as well as enthusiasm for work" and used a Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA) to measure correlations with business-unit outcomes (p. 269). These researchers found employee satisfaction and engagement were related to five business outcomes: productivity, profit, customer satisfaction, retention, and employee safety (Harter et al., 2002). This implies an engaged employee would be a valuable organizational asset and serve as an important resource (Wefald, Mills, Smith, & Downey, 2012).

Several academically grounded engagement approaches have been derived from Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of engagement. Soane, Truss, Alfes, Shantz, Rees, and Gatenby (2012) posit engagement is not a set of enacted behaviors but rather a state (being engaged). They developed and reliability and validity tested a three-facet Intellectual, Social, Affective (ISA) Engagement Scale to define, operationalize, and measure engagement. They then used the ISA Engagement Scale to examine the relationship between their three facets of engagement and three organizational outcomes: organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), task performance, and turnover intentions. Results of their study showed significant correlation between engagement and all three outcomes. OCB and task performance were positively correlated with engagement while turn-over intentions were negatively correlated with engagement.

May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) developed an engagement scale ("May" Scale), grounded in psychological engagement theory, and derived from Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of psychological engagement (physical, cognitive, and emotional engagement). May et al. (2004) did not find these three dimensions to be distinct, and instead, using an average score for the three dimensions, they found engagement was significantly related to safety, availability, and psychological meaningfulness.

Also building from Kahn's (1990) engagement construct, Saks (2006) developed a tool to measure engagement, but in doing so distinguished

between *job engagement* and *organization engagement* positing they are distinct constructs. Saks (2006) also grounded his work in that of social engagement theory (SET) and suggested that employee engagement can be understood through the lens of SET in which interactions between the individual employee and the organization are in "reciprocal interdependence" and abiding "rules of exchange" that include "reciprocity or repayment rules" (p. 603). He found that both forms of engagement were positively related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction and negatively related to an intention to quit.

Similar to Saks (2006) and May et al. (2004), Rich, LePine, and Crawford (2010) build from Kahn's (1990) seminal work in an effort to develop a theory that would place engagement as a pivotal mechanism linking individual characteristics and organizational factors to job performance. Rich et al. (2010) constructed a scale similar to May et al. (2004) to more precisely reflect Kahn's (1990) conceptualization and three (physical, emotional, and cognitive) dimensions of engagement. They found engagement enhanced job performance and was likely to lead to improved performance in terms of task performance and OCB. Engagement levels predicted job performance in regard to job satisfaction, job involvement, and intrinsic motivation.

Britt (1999) takes an entirely different approach, conceptualizing engagement as the degree of both commitment and responsibility one feels during a given operation or event. Britt (1999) grounded his conceptualization in the responsibility *triangle model*, whose elements include event, prescription, and identity images. He used a one factor model for measuring engagement rejecting the multi-factor conceptualizations. Through a study of US soldiers, Britt (1999) found they were more engaged when performance guidelines were clearly articulated, personal control over the job was perceived, and when prescription (rules) were relevant to one's identity. Britt, Adler, and Bartone (2001) found engagement in deployed US soldiers increased when they found meaning in their work and were able to identify with their work role (relevance), which aided a belief that one's job was meaningful and important.

*The Balance Between Engagement and Burnout*

For other researchers, employee engagement evolved from work conducted on burnout. *Burnout* was coined by Freudenberger in 1974 when he described aid volunteers who became progressively emotionally depleted and lost motivation (Bakker et al., 2014). Burnout has had many definitions over the years, but consensus exists for three core dimensions: exhaustion, feelings of cynicism, and detachment from one's job (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and alternative versions for different occupational fields were developed to assess burnout across the three dimensions of exhaustion, cynicism, and reduced personal efficacy (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

Positive psychology has led to an examination of human strengths and optimal activity, so rather than focusing on negative psychological states, such as burnout, more positive states are being explored through positive organizational scholarship (Maslach et al., 2001; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Peterson, Park, and Seligman (2005) considered the pursuit of engagement as one of three orientations to happiness. They described engagement as a, "self-less absorption in ongoing activity" (p. 28).

Engagement has also been viewed as the opposite to burnout and characterized by energy rather than exhaustion, involvement rather than cynicism, and efficacy rather than ineffectiveness; and thus engagement can be assessed by opposite scores on the three dimensions of the MBI (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Studies have also shown engaged employees have low levels of neuroticism whereas those who feel burnout experience high levels (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). That said, Shuck and Herd (2012) note high levels of engagement might represent an unbalanced state for the employee so that engagement has both a benefit and cost (employer benefits, the employee's personal life may suffer). Others argue engagement involves optimizing the domains of occupational health psychology (OHP) and human resources management (HRM) to respectively promote employee wellness and organizational health so that both mutually benefit (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). Work engagement is not equated to workaholism, where one is

strongly, compulsively driven to work, but rather working because it is intrinsically motivating and enjoyable (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007).

Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli (2001) developed the job demands-resources model (JD-R) that predicts burnout and engagement, and thus organizational performance. The JD-R breaks burnout into the two general categories of job demands and job resources. The central JD-R model assumption is that regardless of one's job (making this broadly applicable to all professional contexts), strains develop when one experiences high job demands (exhaustion) and has limited job resources (disengagement) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001). Research shows that when job demands are high, having access to job resources increases motivation and buffers stress-reactions from those job demands. The motivational process, in turn increases engagement, lowers cynicism, and leads to performance excellence (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands serve as predictors to burnout and job resources serve as predictors to engagement (Bakker et al., 2014).

*Antecedents and Consequences of Engagement*
Few empirical studies have been conducted to predict what factors might lead to employee engagement, and the majority of those have been cross-sectional (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). Because engagement has been conceptualized as opposite to burnout, studies have also traditionally included the antecedents for both concepts (Bakker et al., 2014). Generally, these antecedents have been classified as either *situational factors* or *individual factors*.

Kahn (1990) found three psychological conditions of, "meaningfulness, safety, and availability" as important towards shaping employee roles (p. 703). He posited individuals unconsciously ask the following three questions: "(1) How meaningful is it for me to bring myself into this performance? (2) How safe is it to do so? and (3) How available am I to do so?" (p. 703). Contingent upon the answers, the employee chooses either engagement or disengagement. One

can then consider meaningfulness, safety, and availability as possible predictors of engagement (Rich et al., 2010).

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found job resources were antecedents to work engagement. Job resources are classified as situational factors and are those aspects of one's job that aid achievement of goals, reduction of job demands, or promote personal growth (Bakker et al., 2014). Job resources were also shown to be the most important predictors to work engagement in two meta-analytic reviews (Christian et al., 2011; Halbesleben, 2010). The relationship between engagement and job resources is reciprocal (Christian et al., 2011; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007).

Job resources found as antecedents to engagement included, "task variety, task significance, autonomy, feedback, social support from colleagues, high quality relationship with the supervisor, and transformational leadership" (Bakker et al., 2014, p. 393; Christian et al., 2011; Tims et al., 2011;). Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) note this antecedent relationship is explained by Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics theory, where certain job characteristics (such as feedback and autonomy) have a motivating potential and are predictive of positive outcomes; and, additionally by Ryan and Deci's (2000) self-determination theory, where job resources are fulfilling fundamental human needs. Additionally, social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997), conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfall & Shirom, 2000), broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001), and jobs demands-resources (JD-R) theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) have also been suggested to further support rationale for resources enhancing engagement (Halbesleben, 2010; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007).

Personal resources, such as self efficacy, offer motivational potential, and have also been shown as important predictors of work engagement (Christian & Slaughter, 2007; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007). In a reciprocal relationship, or "upward spiral," self-efficacy has been shown to serve as both an antecedent to and consequence of engagement (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007, p. 150). Personality has also been shown as an antecedent

of work engagement, and specifically, extraversion and low neuroticism related to higher work engagement (Bakker et al., 2014; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). Extraverts often have optimistic outlooks, and optimism has been shown as an antecedent to work engagement (Halbesleben; 2010; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007).

Though vigor might prompt one to better engage with their job and organization, Shirom (2003) argues that vigor is an alternative conceptualization to that of engagement, an antecedent to engagement. Shirom (2003) posits vigor as obliquely related to burnout, rather than as a polar opposite along the same continuum. Vigor is described as a positive affective response, related to energetic resources, and linked to feelings of emotional energy, cognitive vividness (liveliness), and physical strength that can be attributed to one's job and workplace. Shirom (2003) derived this conceptualization of vigor from the energetic resources described by Hobfoll's (1989, 1998) COR theory.

A positive relationship between home and work was shown to enhance engagement and partners appear capable of positively infecting one another, as if engagement were contagious. This type of crossing-over is referred to as, "emotional contagion" (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007, p. 151).

Engagement has become popular in the literature for its potential to enhance employee performance outcomes, which then has positive consequences for one's organization. However, engagement literature has focused less on consequences of engagement, and Halbesleben (2010) posits that is likely because one often assumes engagement is the outcome. Though they acknowledged direct causality was unclear, Christian and Slaughter (2007) found engagement had positive benefits to one's health and work commitment. And, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) note employees who are engaged are likely to be more attached to their organization and have lower intentions towards leaving. Thus, engaged employees are possibly more satisfied, committed, and healthy, and are likely to achieve higher performance outcomes while

being less likely to seek alternative employment (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007).

If engagement is contagious, there are implications for the potential of leaders to spread engagement. As noted, a relationship between transformational leadership and engagement has been shown. Leaders are also in a position to design work environments that minimize stress and burn-out while enhancing both individual and collective motivation and engagement (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007; Shuck & Herd, 2012).

*The UWES Itself*

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) have also conceptualized engagement as the opposite to burnout, however the presumption that engagement can be assessed by an opposite Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) profile is rejected (Maslach et al., 2001). Rather, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) believe both burnout and engagement are distinct concepts that should be independently assessed. They argue that though one might generally expect burnout and engagement to be negatively correlated, one cannot expect a perfect negative correlation between the two, nor do they feel the relationship between the two constructs can be studied empirically when measured with the same questionnaire (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Scheufeli and Bakker (2004) define engagement as a, "positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (p. 4). They consider vigor and dedication to be opposites to exhaustion and cynicism respectively; however, they have eliminated lack of professional efficacy, as empirical research has shown it to be less important to burn out. Moreover, they found, through interviews, that being happily immersed and engrossed in one's work seems more important to engagement than does efficacy, and they defined this state as *absorption* (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

*Activation* (energy) represents the continuum between vigor and exhaustion and *identification* represents the continuum between dedication and cynicism (Table 2.3). Thus, exhaustion (low activation) and cynicism (low identification)

would characterize burnout (low energy; poor identification with work role), whereas, vigor (high activation) and dedication (high identification) would characterize engagement (high energy; strong identification with work role) (Bakker et al., 2014; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). To measure work engagement, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) developed a 24-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), and through on-going psychometric evaluation reduced to a 17-item (UWES-17) version (Appendix 3), a 15-item (UWES-15) version, and finally a nine-item version (UWES-9) (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006).

Table 2.3

*Antipodes of burnout and engagement developed by Bakker, Demerouti, and Sanz-Vergal (2014)*

| Burnout | | ↔ | Engagement | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Activation (energy) low | **Exhaustion** | ↔ | **Vigor** | Activation (energy) high |
| Identification low | **Cynicism** | ↔ | **Dedication** | Identification high |

*Note: Absorption is a distinct measure of engagement that is not defined as opposite to burnout, and is evidenced when one is gladly immersed in work* (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

The UWES has been most popularly used in the academic literature (although little in the academic workplace) and has been applied to more contexts and validated in more countries than any of the other measures of engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Viljevac, Cooper-Thomas, & Saks, 2012). Fundamentally, the UWES offers the most empirical data for comparison, is grounded in academic literature, was readily available to the researcher, and was suitable for the study context. Moreover, the UWES has a solid theoretical underpinning with empirical support from the literature. Further details on the UWES are provided in chapter 3, along with additional rationale for selecting the UWES for purposes of this study. Limitations of the UWES are provided in chapters 6-7.

As, Byrne (2015) states, engagement is a complex concept that, "is not easily transported from practice to science," but certainly has value for stimulating conversations about employees within organizations (p. 7). Though definitions

of engagement vary, they are part of the positive psychology movement, positive organizational scholarship, and exploration of positive employee psychological characteristics (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). Despite the varied engagement constructs and concerns that engagement is an old concept repackaged, there is empirical support that engagement is a distinct construct meriting further study (Christian et al. 2011; Saks, 2006). And, these work engagement constructs are similar enough to Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) to permit comparisons. I have reviewed academic conceptualizations of engagement since its introduction by Kahn (1990), discussed nine approaches towards measuring engagement, and provided rationale for selecting the UWES.

## Summary

This chapter has provided a review of contemporary leadership theories and narrowed to focus on the potential of transformational leaders, as measured by the MLQ, to enhance follower engagement. This was followed by a review of the engagement literature developed since Kahn's (1990) seminal work, and rationale for selecting the UWES as a measure of follower engagement. None of the approaches to leadership or engagement have commanded the field, but both the MLQ and UWES have been among the most frequently used tools to measure transformational leadership and engagement respectively, allowing for comparability to other (educational) contexts, as the debate widens in the concluding sections.

In chapter 1, the potential for transformational leadership to enhance employee engagement was discussed as a possible means for the organization to keep pace with evolving accreditation standards and increased levels of governmental accountability for institutional effectiveness and academic quality. In chapter 3, research questions are posed and methodology is explored in detail.

# Chapter 3. Methodology

## Introduction

This chapter describes the worldviews, theoretical lenses, methodological approaches, and methods of data collection and analyses employed in this study. Rationale for mixing methods is provided. Additionally, ethical considerations to protect participants and overall research integrity are interwoven throughout the chapter and offered as rationale to methods utilized. The research questions posed in this study are:

1. Does perceived transformational leadership in my organization enhance employee engagement?
2. How does perceived leadership enhance employee engagement in my organizational context?
3. To what extent and in what ways does background, training, development, and experience of organization leaders contribute to leadership and the ability to enhance employee engagement?

The study design is an explanatory sequential QUAN→QUAL mixed methods approach (see Figures 3.1 and 3.2). Quantitative data were obtained through an electronic questionnaire and followed by qualitative data through semi-structured interviews. Quantitative data first were analyzed by descriptive and inferential statistics. Then via a grounded theory approach, qualitative data were analyzed by open, focused (axial), and selective coding.

## Epistemological Assumptions

The researcher's master's level work was completed in the biological sciences, lending a strong preference and level of comfort operating under the postpositivist worldview. That said, the researcher was not able to dialogue with her previous research subjects—seagrasses and algae. Quantitative data has its importance in revealing trends, patterns, relationships, and cause and effect. But when working with humans and engaging in dialogue, one can venture beyond the numbers and capture data that otherwise might not be revealed. Rather than speculate about the *how* and *why,* or feelings and impact, we can ask our participants directly. This offers the advantages of moving beyond mere statistical significance to the validation of relevance and

importance to the individuals concerned and contexts we study. To better answer these research questions, a mixed methods approach was selected. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) proposes four worldviews as acceptable for mixed methods research: postpositivist, constructivist, participatory, and pragmatist. Under pragmatism, this explanatory sequential QUAN→QUAL mixed methods approach exemplifies a "freedom of choice" for methods and design to best answer questions posed (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 41; Creswell, 2014, pp. 10-11; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2011).

**Worldview**

The pragmatic or pragmatist worldview offers the pluralistic approach desired for this study and pragmatism is suitable for mixed methods research (Creswell, 2014). Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) describes the fundamental characteristics of the pragmatist worldview as:

- "consequences of actions;"
- "problem centered;"
- "pluralistic;" and
- "real-world practice oriented" (p. 40).

The primary driver under this worldview is not the worldview itself, nor the methods, but the research questions being asked and what works as the most practical approach (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). One is able to merge quantitative and qualitative research into one study and benefit from their compatibility (Cohen et al., 2011). This worldview fits the researcher's agreement that quantitative and qualitative approaches need not be polarized, and offers a practical approach and application to the questions posed in this study.

All three research questions can be informed by quantitative data and then enhanced and triangulated with qualitative data. However, once one begins mixing methods, can one simply state the operating worldview is pragmatism? For clarity, the foundation of this research is based upon the over-arching worldview of pragmatism. Because methods are mixed, yet sequential, this research also operates first under the postpositivist worldview and

assumptions during the quantitative phase. Because the work is sequential, and the quantitative phase is a linear process, where data are first discretely collected and followed by a separate analysis phase (Boeije, 2010), this is a rational approach. For the second, qualitative phase the worldview and assumptions shift to that of social constructivist. The qualitative phase is an iterative process of simultaneous collection and analysis of data (Boeije, 2010); however, this phase did not begin until the quantitative phase was complete. Similar to weaving, the longitudinal threads (warp) were laid firmly in place via quantitative analysis, and lateral threads (weft) were interwoven through qualitative analysis, generating multi-dimensionality (texture). By "bridging the ontological divide," I was able to generate more interesting, interwoven data offering more of the fabric of my context (Bryman, 2007, p16).

Compared to postpositivist assumptions those of the social constructivist are less firm and still evolving, therefore elaboration is necessary. Through social constructivism, as I seek to understand the world in which I live and work, I have begun to recognize that my own experiences influence my data collection and interpretations (Charmaz, 2014; Creswell, 2014). By listening carefully to participants, my research aims to utilize their views as much as possible. I recognize that participants are shaped by and generate meaning through their interactions with others and the world in which they live. Each participant has varied, subjective meanings ascribed to their experiences (Creswell, 2014). Any interpretations and theoretical models generated as a result of my study are merely a depiction, a snapshot (Charmaz, 2014). The world and the people who live in it are not static. Minds and behaviors of individuals and the meanings they form change through new, daily experiences. Thus, I do not believe in absolute truth, and any truth revealed during this study was true only for those discrete moments data were captured, and through those individuals who participated, their views, and interpreted meanings in those moments in time.

**Theoretical Lens**
This study operates under social science theory and is more specifically

grounded both in leadership theory and human resources development theory. I focus on leadership as a process, and particularly transformational and transactional leadership theory applied to an unusually tightly bounded higher education context through the *full range leadership model* (Avolio, 2011; Derungs, 2011; McCaffery, 2010; Northouse, 2013). Employee engagement is exceedingly popular with copious literature having been generated over the last few decades; however, few actual empirical studies have been conducted. A gap in employee engagement theory exists with more work and assumptions supported by opinion rather than evidence (Shuck & Wollard, 2010). Relying largely on existing human resources development theory, I draw from this theoretical base in order to better understand how the organization might better succeed through followers and leaders who are motivated, committed, engaged, passionate, and productive.
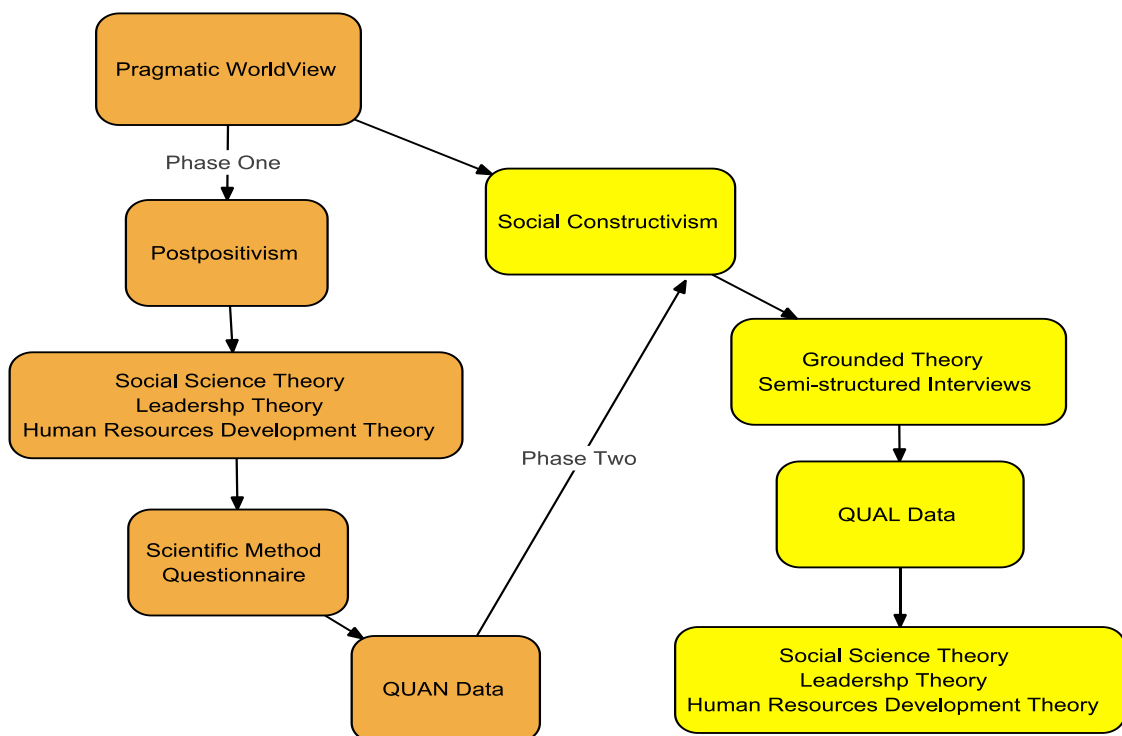


*Figure 3.1.* Overall development of this explanatory sequential QUAN→QUAL study. Phase one operated under postpositivism and phase two under social constructivism. For a grounded theory approach and to focus on emergence, the existing theories were consulted after coding of data was accomplished. The theory exploration and lens under phase one provided the initial framework but did not restrict and bias emergence of theory under phase two.

## Rationale for Mixing Methods

### Methodological Approach

The researcher could have merely explored the research questions with a quantitative study; however, simply obtaining a statistically significant result, or lack thereof, is rather dull and did not meet the greater challenge desired for my doctoral research. I live and work in an amazing, unique, bounded context, and it would be a shame not to capture the rich, interesting data available and underrepresented in the literature through an added qualitative component. It seems irrational to apply only one worldview lens to a context under study. No one knows which worldview or methodology offers the "best" lens, so why not err on the side of caution and refuse to acquiesce to forced restrictions on my work when it would benefit from mixing methods? Pragmatism and mixed methods allow me to escape the dichotomous choice between constructivism and postpositivism and avoids reducing "behaviour to technicism" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 15; Creswell, 2014). Moreover, Ercikan and Roth (2006) posit this dichotomy is "fallacious" (p. 14).

As a starting point, quantitative data were desired because there were no baseline or regional data in which I might reasonably ground initial assumptions and predictions for perceived leadership and follower engagement for my organization. Conducting insider research as an executive within the organization, I preferred a passive means to gather those data. Because my qualitative phase would not begin until quantitative data were collected and analyzed, I also needed a rapid means of collecting sufficient data from across the organization. A questionnaire assessing perceived leadership and follower engagement was the best, most practical means for obtaining sufficient quantitative data to lay a foundation towards answering the research questions. Quantitative questionnaire data offered an initial glimpse into my organization and following up on those data with a qualitative component I was thus better positioned to make interpretations and thence recommendations.

Grounded theory methods were applied to qualitative data analysis. Why use grounded theory? Interestingly, the systematic, rigorous approach to

analyzing qualitative data offered by grounded theory both appeals to my quantitative background and develops a new qualitative dimension. The framework for conducting this type of research is well established and I used both Boeije (2010) and Charmaz (2014) to guide the methods applied in this work. Through face-to-face, semi-structured interviews, further data towards answering all three research questions were obtained. In order to compare responses and ensure desired data were obtained, some questions were asked of all participants. However, indulging flexibility to explore interesting participant narratives, the researcher followed on with an unlimited number of additional questions. All questions were open-ended and designed to obtain unstructured responses (Cohen et al., 2011). Because grounded theory was used for qualitative methods, in keeping both with pragmatism and a social constructivist viewpoint, the open-ended and unstructured questions better allowed for the emergence of phenomena. This triangulated and complementary approach provides rich details and places even greater importance on consequences of the work, questions posed, and data obtained (Bryman, 2006; Creswell, 2014). Additionally, data are more complete and offer surprising, unexpected results (Bryman, 2006), as indeed has been the case.

When Bryman (2006) examined research methods used in published mixed methods studies, 121 involved self-administered questionnaires and 159 used semi-structured interviews. These two were by far the most commonly used methods. I chose precisely the same two methods for my work. For practical reasons, I was able to sample a larger percentage of college-wide employees across six campuses and four islands by gathering data through an electronic questionnaire. By taking advantage of regularly scheduled college travel, I was able to conduct qualitative semi-structured interviews with diverse personnel in different island contexts. For ethical reasons, elaborated upon under research design, this approach taken best suits the bounded context and challenges of conducting insider research as one holding an executive level position within the organization. This research is thereby practical, attempting to avoid pitfalls one might experience when adopting one specific, narrow worldview and associated set of assumptions to examine a complex

set of questions. For all these reasons, an explanatory sequential QUAN→QUAL design was justified (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

## Research Design

**Pragmatic, explanatory sequential QUAN→QUAL mixed methods approach**

| Quantitative Data Collection | Quantitative Data Analysis | Semi-structured Interview Design | Qualitative Data Collection | Qualitative Data Analysis: Grounded Theory | Quantitative & Qualitative Results Integrated |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| •MLQ & UWES Questionnaire Data (N=83) <br>•Survey Monkey | •Baseline leadership & engagement data <br>•Spearman's rank correlation <br>•Excel <br>•Prism 6.0 | •Puprposeful selection of participants (N=8) <br>•Interview Guide developed | •Face-to-face interviews <br>•Digital recordings Olympus LS-7 <br>•Transcripts <br>•Dragon Dictate 4.0 <br>•Member checks | •Memoing <br>•Line-by-line coding <br>•Comparative methods <br>•Focused coding <br>•Selective coding <br>•Member checks | •Interpretations & explanations <br>•Secondary data utilized <br>•Informed discussion <br>•Implications <br>•Future research |

*Figure 3.2.* Methodological framework used for this explanatory, sequential QUAN→QUAL mixed methods approach. Adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark (2011, p. 121).

## Methods

## Phase One: Quantitative Approach

The quantitative phase of this study was conducted November 2014 through April 2015.

### Instrumentation

As reported in chapter 2, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) were selected as instruments to measure follower perceptions of leadership and work engagement respectively (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). These two structured questionnaires were selected because they have been tested for validity, reliability, used in many cultural and contextual settings, and are grounded in extensive research literature (Baron, 2013; Bass & Avolio, 2004; Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Hetland, 2012; Littman-Ovadia & Balducci, 2013; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Shuck & Reio, 2011; Soane et al., 2012; Viljevac et al., 2012; Wefald et al., 2011). The UWES can be delivered in three forms titled UWES-9, UWES-15, and UWES-17 that contain nine, fifteen, or seventeen question items. The UWES-17 was selected because the shortened version UWES-9 items (and thus scores) are contained within, and could also be calculated from these same UWES-17 data.

### The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), 5X-Short was selected as the instrument for measuring transformational leadership. The MLQ 5X-Short is a copyrighted 45-item close-ended questionnaire designed as a 360-degree assessment, to be completed by the leader, the leader's supervisor, and associated followers (institutionally assigned supervisees). This tool was designed to aid leaders toward enhancing their leadership potential to obtain outcomes in collaboration with followers and associates. This tool not only measured the Five I's for transformational leadership as discussed in Chapter 2, but also measured a full range of leadership styles (effective ⟷ ineffective) including transactional leadership (contingent reward and active management-by-exception), passive avoidant (passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire), and three outcomes of leadership: extra effort,

effectiveness, and satisfaction with leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Ability to explore a full range of leadership styles as perceived by followers allowed the researcher to generate follower perceived baseline leadership data for the institution as well as transformational leadership scores.

For this study, the researcher was only interested in follower perceptions, therefore only followers completed the questionnaire. Followers were those individuals formally assigned within the institutional hierarchy to report to a specific leader. The item answer choices were of Likert-scale type which varied by five scores: 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4= frequently, if not always. The *MLQ Manual and Sample Set* (3rd edition) included a scoring sheet and directions for calculating scores. Four question items provided scores towards measuring all characteristics with the exception of extra effort and satisfaction, which had only three and two question items respectively.

The researcher selected this tool because it has been used in hundreds of research studies, many organizational contexts, and across many cultures. The 45 items measure both leadership and effectiveness in ways already supported by research as associated with leadership and organizational success. The MLQ 5X-Short was recommended for use in research over the MLQ 5X-Long and has been tested for reliability, validity, and been normed for data comparison (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Bass and Avolio (2004) achieved validation through discriminatory and confirmatory factor analysis and reliability scores were high and ranged .74-.94 exceeding Cronbach's $\propto \geq .70$, the literature recommended internal consistency cutoff. The MLQ 5X-Short is copyrighted; however, permission was granted to display five sample items and they are provided in Appendix 2.

**The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale**
The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was selected as the tool for collecting employee work engagement data. Work engagement as measured by the UWES was defined as,

"*a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Rather than a momentary and specific state, engagement refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior. Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties. Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one's work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work*" (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, pp. 4-5).

The UWES is a 17-item (UWES-17) close-ended questionnaire that provides scores for vigor (VI), dedication (DE), absorption (AB), and an overall work engagement score (Appendix 3). Vigor and absorption are measured with six question items and dedication is measure by five (see Table 3.1 and Appendix 3). The UWES was originally developed as a 24-item questionnaire and after testing seven items were removed as being unsound. The UWES has been tested for factorial validity, inter-correlations, cross-national invariance, internal consistency, and stability with results presented in the *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale Preliminary Manual version 1.1* (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). A shortened version of the UWES-17 was developed, the UWES-9. In this version, eight items were eliminated and only three question items each were used to measure vigor, dedication, and absorption (see Table 3.1 and Appendix 3). A third, 15-item version of the UWES exists; however, since internal consistency is high for all three scales, the researcher chose to specifically explore only the UWES-17 and UWES-9, unless results were highly contradictory. The same 17-item questionnaire was used to obtain the scores for both scales.

Table 3.1

*Utrecht Work Engagement Scale 17-item and 9-item versions*

| UWES-17: | UWES-9 |
|---|---|
| VI – 6 question items | VI – 3 question items |
| DE – 5 question items | DE – 3 question items |
| AB – 6 question items | AB – 3 question items |

Similar to reasons for selecting the MLQ, the researcher selected the UWES because it has been used in many research studies, across more than nine countries, with multiple occupational contexts, and includes norm data for comparisons (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The UWES was also chosen because it is readily available, includes a manual, and requires no further expense or permissions for use. The question items are brief and suitable for an employee with a US ninth-grade reading level. The researcher could find no studies measuring transformational leadership or employee work engagement within the Micronesian context.

**Data Collection and Ethical Considerations**

Paid permission to utilize the MLQ (5X Short), and to access the manual and sample set, was obtained 12 November 2014 through *Mind Garden, Inc.* The UWES authors granted advanced permission for use in non-commercial scientific research (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Both questionnaires were combined for simplified electronic delivery to participants using *SurveyMonkey*. One additional question item was added at the outset requiring the respondent to identify his or her immediate supervisor from a provided list of administrators. Though this question item was added to the electronic form as such, the MLQ tool itself was not altered, because, on the paper version of the MLQ, the respondent would simply provide (hand write) this information at the top of the form. In other words, this datum (immediate supervisor) was not numbered as a question item on the paper form. Then, on the electronic questionnaire, the 45-item MLQ was presented first and was followed by the 17-item UWES (UWES-17) for a total of 63 questionnaire items.

The question identifying one's immediate supervisor was required to be completed, insofar as data had to be associated with an identified leader. Without this association, no other data obtained (additional questions answered) from the questionnaire would be applicable to the study. If the participant did not wish to identify his or her immediate supervisor, they were able to simply stop at this point – maintaining the right to skip any question asked and to withdraw at any time. The respondent was also able to skip answering any of the remaining 62 question items as per the *Participant Information Sheet*—participation is voluntary and, "If you participate, you can also skip any questions you do not wish to answer." Following required *Mind Garden, Inc.* policy when delivering the MLQ questionnaire on the internet, the researcher set up the questionnaire as directed, sent an electronic link for *Mind Garden, Inc.* formal review, and received additional consent to deliver the MLQ (5X short) via *SurveyMonkey* on 25 November 2014.

Because this is inside research, and the researcher holds a position of authority at the institution, ethical considerations made it necessary to solicit participation and to administer the questionnaires in a manner least confrontational, least likely to produce feelings of work obligation or coercion, and least likely to produce feelings of negative work consequences for non-participation; it offered the highest degree of confidentiality and anonymity possible (Bell, 2010; Cohen et al., 2011). A *Participant Information Sheet* and *Participant Consent Form* for the questionnaire were sent by individual email to 319 possible English proficient participants, representing 83% of college-wide employees on 13 November 2014. Both forms emphasized participation was voluntary, participants could withdraw at any time, and that there was no penalty of any kind for withdrawing from the study.

The MLQ (5X Short) is comparable to a US ninth-grade level (Bass & Avolio, 2004), so those positions for which individuals have college email and an office computer were considered to be those with sufficient English proficiency. There were surely other individuals in college positions who possessed English proficiency but did not have a college email account or a college provided computer. Paper versions of the questionnaires could have been

provided. However, soliciting those individuals would have been face-to-face or through regular college mail. As those positions without computers are typically the lowest ranking staff, tensions surrounding saying "no" to an administrator would have been too great to risk. Further increased potential for loss of anonymity and confidentiality by submitting paper versions would occur, as the number of participants completing paper versions would be few. For this insider research, the researcher did not want to be able to associate a given response to a specific respondent.

The cultural context of Micronesia dictates one is not supposed to disappoint others by telling them "no" (Hezel, 2013). For example, an answer of "maybe" is offered as a means to express "no," without actually having to articulate "no."

> "Island people have a way of speaking to the person rather than about the particular matter at hand. They don't want to disappoint a person who is making a request of them. If yes is what someone wants to hear, then yes is what he will hear. After all, islanders desperately want to make people feel good" (Hezel, 2013, p. 81).

This is further complicated when an administrator is asking as the pressure would be greater to avoid disappointment, because Micronesians feel one must respect authority figures (Hezel, 2013).

Sending a hardcopy document requesting participation would also lend an air of formality, and likely add pressure to accept participation. Use of email minimized tensions that can arise when asking individuals to participate face-to-face or by hard copy. Rather than having to articulate "no" or "maybe," the possible participant was able to utilize the very non-confrontational, non-disappointing approach of simply not replying to the emails. No more than two email solicitations were sent because asking repeatedly lends no credence to claims participation is voluntary and that there are no consequences for non-participation.

To reduce risks around maintaining anonymity and confidentiality with possible participants in electronic communications, no group email messages, including blind carbon copy, were used. Participation was solicited seven days in advance to allow time for thoughtful consideration and to ask questions of the researcher. Moreover, Cohen et al. (2011) noted a short, pre-questionnaire covering letter, informing participants of the upcoming questionnaire, is effective at positively increasing response rates. The researcher's University of Liverpool (UoL) email was used to emphasize this was not the request of the practitioner administrator, but merely a doctoral student. Utilizing college email or physical campus mail might have created confusion and conflation. The researcher obtained a list of current employee emails from the Information Technology Office and individual emails were sent 25-26 November 2014 to 319 possible participants. A second email was sent 10-11 December 2014 to the remaining 258 possible participants who had not yet responded to decline or accept participation. The survey remained open to 104 individuals who offered consent until 06 January 2015.

*SurveyMonkey* was used to reduce time required, restrict questionnaire access to consented participants, control the number of submissions by an individual respondent, and to simplify data collection from across the four island states and six campuses of the college. Additionally, use of *SurveyMonkey* allowed increased anonymity and confidentiality for respondents. For example, 104 individuals offered consent to complete the questionnaire, but only 83 of those individuals actually completed the questionnaire. The researcher does not know specifically which 21 respondents chose not to complete the questionnaire, or which 83 did complete the questionnaire, in the end. Respondents do not identify themselves on the questionnaire but were also informed that once they completed the questionnaire, their data could not be removed from the study, as the researcher would be unable to identify which data set belonged to a given respondent for redaction. The researcher did not send a reminder email to the 104 consented participants about the survey closing date, because such action would imply the participant was obligated to complete the questionnaire. Because this was an insider study, the researcher did not

collect data on respondent characteristics such as state or country of origin, campus, gender, and age in effort to increase respondent confidence in anonymity. These possibly insightful data were a trade-off for increased comfort and honesty from respondents. These approaches were used to increase anonymity, confidentiality, and freedom to withdraw at any time for all respondents.

*SurveyMonkey* allowed for survey access to be restricted to only those 104 who offered consent through use of password protected access, and a further restriction to one completed questionnaire per computer. *SurveyMonkey* provided respondent IP addresses, so that multiple submissions could be identified and eliminated. One redundant submission was eliminated.

Only 21 administrators were provided on the list of immediate supervisors from which the respondent could choose. Though leadership occurs at all levels within the organization and not merely in those with positions of authority and power (Kezar & Lester, 2011), the researcher chose to focus on individuals in administrative positions for this study, specifically those at middle and executive management levels. Ideally the study would have included faculty division chairs, but some divisions were too small and several faculty chairs had served only a few months to a year in their position. So, either there were too few followers who might serve as respondents from a division (less anonymity) or too little known about the leader's style to be able to offer valid perceptions.

On 07 January 2015, data were extracted from *SurveyMonkey* for analysis. After reviewing the data, 83 respondents had completed the questionnaire and this bounded-college population sample size exceeded the minimum of n= 30 for statistical analysis (Cohen et al., 2011). The MLQ and UWES manuals were used for directions on calculating the full range of leadership and engagement scores. Microsoft Excel for Mac 2011, version 14.5.1 was utilized to calculate means, standard deviations, and standard errors for both aggregated and disaggregated leadership and engagement scores for comparison against benchmarks and norms provided in the MLQ and UWES

manuals (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Microsoft Excel for Mac 2011, version 14.5.1, was used to graph both leadership and engagement results. Prism 6.0 for Mac OSX, version 6.0f, was used to graph comparison engagement results for aggregated and disaggregated UWES-17 and UWES-9 scores.

Based on previous empirical studies, one could predict a positive correlation between transformational leadership and employee engagement. But because I found no previous leadership and engagement studies conducted in a Micronesian cultural context, I chose not to make an untested assumption within this culture. Transformational leadership was composed by and within a Western culture and context and may not be universally equivalent in effectiveness, functionality, or application (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Additionally, the full range of perceived leadership styles and outcomes measured by the MLQ (not just transformational leadership) were explored for relationships to follower work engagement. Therefore, two-tailed rather than one-tailed correlation analyses were performed. Prior to analyses, the following hypotheses and significance levels towards answering the research question were established:

How is transformational leadership in my organization related to follower work engagement?

Null hypothesis ($H_0$): There is no correlation between transformational leadership and follower work engagement, as measured by the MLQ and UWES respectively, at my organization.

Alternative hypothesis ($H_1$): There is a correlation between transformational leadership and follower work engagement, as measured by the MLQ and UWES respectively, at my organization.

The null hypothesis will be rejected if the statistical results show there is a correlation between perceived transformational leadership, as measured by the MLQ, and follower engagement, as measured by the

UWES, at a significance level of $p \leq .05$

How do other leadership styles and outcomes measured by the MLQ relate to follower work engagement?

Null hypothesis: ($H_0$): There is no correlation between leadership style (or outcome) and follower work engagement as measured by the MLQ and UWES respectively.

Alternative hypothesis ($H_1$): There is a correlation between leadership style (or outcome) and follower work engagement as measured by the MLQ and UWES respectively.

The null hypothesis will be rejected if the statistical results show there is a correlation between perceived leadership style (or outcome), as measured by the MLQ, and follower work engagement, as measured by the UWES, at a significance level of $p \leq .05$

Prism 6.0 for Mac OSX, version 6.0f, was used to perform two-tailed Spearman's Rank correlation coefficient ($r_s$) correlation analyses for ordinal, nonparametric data, and to generate a multiple correlation analysis matrix. Significance levels were calculated for $p \leq .05$, $p \leq .01$, $p \leq .001$, and $p \leq .0001$. Null hypotheses were rejected (alternative accepted) at a significance level of $p \leq .05$, and otherwise accepted.

## Phase Two: Qualitative Approach
The qualitative phase of this study was conducted April 2015 through August 2015.

### Participants
Non-probability, purposeful convenience sampling of 21 potential participants who currently held, or recently held, a formal leadership position of authority within the institution was pursued. Each potential participant was both a leader and a follower and thus could offer perspectives from both points of

view. Because the context of the study was bounded to one small institution this non-random, purposeful, and convenience sampling was deemed appropriate. Additionally, because the total population was small, constituted one that was rare, and from whom data was sparse to nonexistent, this approach was reasonable (Maxwell, 2013; Seidman, 2006).

There were only 25 middle and upper level management positions in total within the institution. Of these, only 19 of the 25 positions were open for sampling. Four individuals were eliminated for ethical reasons because they were my direct supervisor, my two subordinates, and myself. The other two positions were vacant at the time these data were collected. The potential participants represented 83% (19/23) of the existing, filled administrative positions within the institution at the time of the study; plus, there were two recent, former leaders, making up a total of 21 potential participants.

Because this was insider research and the researcher held a position of higher authority, the researcher felt those colleagues who were also in formal positions of authority might be more comfortable and thus honest in responses. The researcher did not feel comfortable soliciting interview participation from those in non-administrative positions for this study. Pressure to participate and to please the researcher, and stress during participation for faculty and staff were risks not worth taking for the sake of data collection. At the minimum, soliciting participation was selfish, as this work was for purposes of earning a doctoral degree. As Bell (2010) states, when conducting insider research, you need to, "satisfy yourself that you have done everything possible to ensure your research is conducted in a way which complies with your own ethical principles" (p. 53).

Potential participants were sent an interview specific *Participant Information Sheet* and *Participant Consent Form* from the researcher's University of Liverpool (UoL) student email on 6 April 2015. No group emails or blind carbon copy emails were sent. All potential participants had also previously received a *Participant Information Sheet* and *Participant Consent Form* for the questionnaire (quantitative phase). As a result, there was some confusion for

potential participants to recognize the interview was a new, different request. A few potential participants responded to the 6 April 2015 email informing the researcher they had, "already completed the interview" or "already completed the questionnaire." This confusion might have contributed to a lower overall response rate. Nine individuals responded, one declined participation, and eight scheduled interviews.

Due to substantiated confusion between questionnaire participation and interview participation, the researcher chose not to send a second email requesting interview participation to those 12 potential participants who had not yet responded. Because of the researcher's position of authority within the institution, multiple requests to participate may have no longer been perceived as voluntary, optional, or without consequence. Eight interview participants had to be sufficient to avoid doing harm. These participants represented 35% (8/23) of the existing, filled administrative positions; and 38% (8/21) of the possible participants.

**Data Collection**
An interview guide was developed and eight face-to-face semi-structured interviews were scheduled and conducted between 09 April and 01 May 2015 (see Appendix 4). Interviews were scheduled at times most convenient for participants. Locations for interviews varied but were selected based on convenience for the participant, highest possibility for maintaining confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy, and least likely to result in any interruptions.

Prior to each interview commencement, the researcher verbally reviewed the *Participant Information Sheet* and *Participant Consent Form* in person and answered questions and concerns that had not already been addressed through email exchanges. Particular emphasis was stressed around the limitations of confidentiality and anonymity, use of a digital recorder, voluntary participation, the lack of consequences for withdrawing at any time, the *UK Data Protection* Act, freedom to refrain from answering any and all questions

posed, and the contact information for both the researcher and the UoL Research Participant Advocate.

Regarding limits of anonymity and confidentiality, the institution's name is not revealed in this study; however, there are a limited number of institutions across the Micronesian region, and certain characteristics revealed in this study would allow the curious individual capacity to deduce the specific institution under study. For the researcher, the benefits of reducing a literature gap outweighed concerns for complete institutional anonymity. Additionally, one could further deduce the 25 positions making up the purposeful sample, and narrow interview data to those positions and thus individuals. Participants needed to have this explained in detail to be certain they were still comfortable proceeding. The researcher assured participants that extraordinary care would be taken to redact details from transcript excerpts that were printed and used in this study so that others could not identify such statements as theirs, and thus ensure confidentiality. The researcher certainly would not reveal participants or connect participants to statements, but the researcher cannot control what participants might choose to reveal to others.

To increase comfort and honesty of participants, the researcher stressed the clear line between student doctoral researcher and that of institutional practitioner. When serving in the role as researcher, information revealed in an interview is strictly confidential and never to be used except for the purposes of that research as intended and articulated in the *Participant Information Sheet* and *Participant Consent Form*. As per the American Educational Research Association (AERA) *Code of Ethics* standard 12.01.c, "Confidential information provided by research participants, students, employees, clients, or others is treated as such by education researchers even if there is no legal protection or privilege requiring them to do so. Education researchers protect confidential information and do not allow information gained in confidence to be used in ways that would unfairly compromise research participants, students, employees, clients, or others" (AERA, 2011, February, p. 149). Both the *Participant Information Sheet* and *Participant Consent Form* were completed and signed in the presence of the

interviewer. Electronic copies of both forms were transmitted by email and participants received additional hard copies.

Each interview was digitally recorded with an Olympus Linear PCM LS-7 recorder, subsequently uploaded to the researcher's password protected computer, and then the recording was deleted from the Olympus digital recorder. Nuance Communications, Inc. Dragon Dictate 4.0, a voice recognition software, was used to assist the researcher towards transcribing the digital recordings onto Apple, Inc. Pages version 5.5.3. The researcher established an effective user profile with Dragon Dictate, then listened to the interview digital recordings with headphones, and spoke the participants' words out loud for Dragon Dictate to transcribe. Corrections were made as the researcher progressed carefully through each interview.

Each interview was listened to a second time while transcripts were reviewed for accuracy. For effective, efficient coding the interviewer needed to carefully listen to respondents. By listening to each interview *in situ*, then carefully twice by digital recording, and having spoken participant's words, initial coding was more efficiently and effectively completed. Reflexively, I considered transcription to be integral to qualitative analysis of these data (Charmaz, 2014; Paulus, Lester, & Dempster, 2014).

Once each transcript was completed in Pages, it was exported into Microsoft Word Mac 2011, version 14.5.1 and emailed to the participant for an initial member check. The purpose was to ensure accuracy and to provide opportunity for the participant to withdraw. Transcripts contained no names, initials, or codes that would allow anyone to directly identify the participant. Once each participant validated the transcript, it was considered ready for data analysis – all eight participants offered validation. The interviews were semi-structured, totaled 8:32:06 hours, ranged in length from 0:36:56 to 1:43:00 hours, and interview mean length was 64 minutes. Aggregated transcripts had a word count of 51,227 words and interview mean word count was 6,403 words.

**Data Analysis: Coding**

Grounded theory stems from *symbolic interactionism* and *pragmatism*, the researcher's expressed worldview (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). The researcher chose to collect and analyze data using grounded theory because the researcher valued the systematic, albeit flexible structure established by grounded theory procedures (Charmaz, 2014).

 The researcher used the definition of coding articulated by Lewins and Silver in Boeije (2010):

> *Qualitative coding is the process by which segments of data are identified as relating to, or being an example of, a more general idea, instance, theme or category. Segments of data from across the whole dataset are placed together in order to be retrieved together at a later stage (p. 95).*

Open coding was completed using line-by-line coding. Interview transcripts were formatted with a 6.5 cm left margin, printed, and line-by-line codes were hand-written in the margin. Line-by-line coding was conducted on all eight interviews using actions and gerunds (verbs ending in "ing") rather than theming data. Coding for actions minimized the risk of the researcher focusing on individuals rather than what was occurring within these data (Charmaz, 2014). Using actions and gerunds minimized tendencies towards conceptual leaps prior to completing requisite analysis (Boeije, 2010; Charmaz, 2014). As Charmaz (2014) posits, when gerunds are used, they serve as a heuristic device where the researcher focuses on the data, is able to identify processes, draw comparisons, propose emergent links between processes, and identify further directions to explore. Line-by-line coding was utilized to reduce risks that the researcher accepted participant world-views without questioning, a caution Charmaz (2014) notes is common when researchers study individuals from their own profession. Constant comparative methods were also used to identify similarities and differences within and between interview data (Boeije, 2010; Charmaz, 2014). A total of 1,261 codes were generated during this coding cycle.

A methodological journal was used for both memo writing (memoing) and engagement in reflexivity about pre-conceptions from the outset to the

conclusion of these qualitative data analyses (Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Paulus et al., 2014). However, memos migrated from handwritten to electronic memos in NVivo as the researcher moved to focused coding. Memos were used because they were deemed necessary prompts to analyze codes from the outset and help the researcher to move from coding to written ideas without sacrificing conceptual details (Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 1990).

During open coding, efforts were made to convert interview data into codes. During focused (axial coding) the researcher worked to convert those codes back into data, albeit salient data, that could be raised to the level of category (Boeije, 2010). On this coding cycle, the researcher began using NVivo for Mac, version 10.2.0 and codes were reduced from 1,261 to 35, and finally to 21 total. During this coding cycle nine categories were developed that had not been anticipated. However, 12 other codes were clearly fitting into anticipated categories from the leadership (MLQ) and engagement (UWES) questionnaire tools utilized.

When interviews were coded for these categories, little to no text remained uncoded. This served as evidence these codes formed salient categories that best represented these data (Boeije, 2010). Saturation of these codes (called nodes in NVivo) occurred after the third interview (Table 3.2). The frequency with which these categories were coded throughout the eight interviews is also presented in Figure 5.1. Member checks on these qualitative results and coding categories was solicited between 06 August-10 October 2015. Therefore, even though these eight participant interviews fell short of the twelve to twenty interviews commonly recommended for grounded theory studies (Charmaz, 2014; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011), the researcher feels confident the quality and depth of these eight interviews provided data sufficiency and saturation. Selective coding followed to determine the most important categories, to ground those categories in the literature, and to generate a theoretical model (Boeije, 2010).

Table 3.2

*Nodes identified and coded in NVivo during the final stages of the focused (axial) coding cycle per respondent with saturation occurring after the third interview*

| Saturation of codes | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Respondents** | | | | | | | | |
| **Categories (nodes)** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| **Anticipated Categories** | | | | | | | | |
| **Leadership Transformational** | | | | | | | | |
| II(A) | | x | x | x | | x | x | x |
| II(B) | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| IM | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| IS | x | x | x | x | x | | x | |
| IC | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| **Transactional** | | | | | | | | |
| CR | x | x | x | x | | | x | |
| MBEA | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x |
| **Passive-Avoidant** | | | | | | | | |
| MBEP | x | x | x | x | x | | x | |
| LF | | x | x | x | x | | x | x |
| **Follower Engagement** | | | | | | | | |
| VI | x | | x | | x | x | x | x |
| DE | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| AB | x | x | | x | | x | | x |
| **Unanticipated Categories** | | | | | | | | |
| Parochial Education | | | x | | x | x | x | x |
| Accessing US HE | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| Mentoring | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| Accelerating Promotion | | x | x | | | | x | x |
| Familial Support | x | x | | | x | x | | x |
| Respecting | | | x | | x | x | | x |
| Self Deprecating | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| Effective Communications: Listening | x | x | x | x | | x | x | |
| Getting All Kinds of Things Done to You | | x | x | | | | | |

## Summary

This two-phase explanatory, sequential QUAN→QUAL mixed methods approach balanced postpositivist and pragmatic, social constructivist worldviews with ethical methods for inside research in order to answer the

three central research questions. The quantitative results are presented in chapter 4 and the qualitative results are presented in chapter 5.

# Chapter 4. Phase I: Quantitative Results

## Introduction

As described in chapter three, the MLQ and UWES were combined into one questionnaire and delivered to participants via *SurveyMonkey*. Out of 384 positions at the college, 319 possible participants were purposefully selected, 104 individuals offered consent, and of those 83 completed the questionnaire for a response rate of 26.0% and an overall completion rate of 79.8% representing 22.0% of the total college population (see Figure 4.1). This exceeds a minimal, respectable sample size of 30 cases required for statistical analysis (Cohen et al., 2011).

## Population Sample Size, Response Rate, and Completion Rate for the Questionnaire
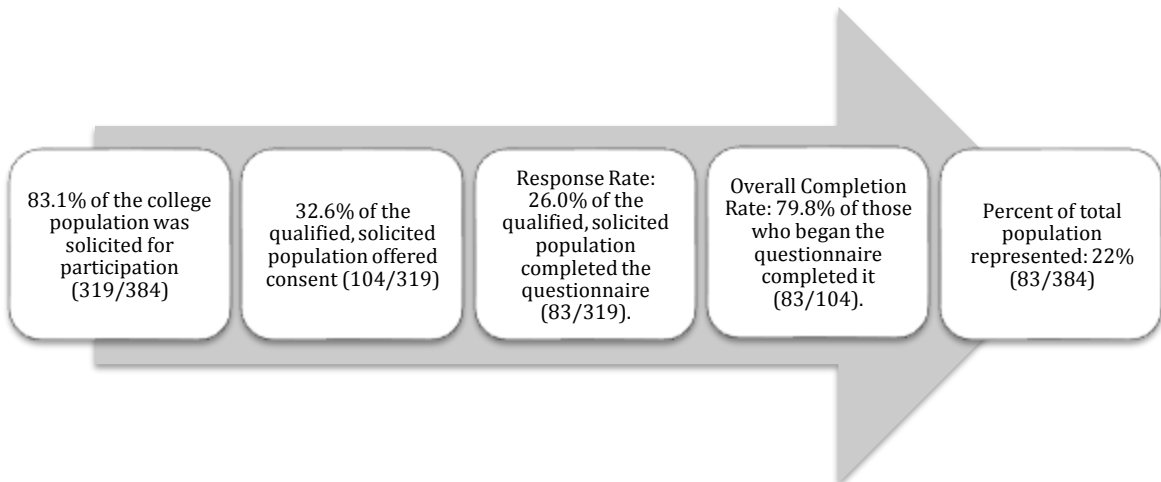


*Figure 4.1.* The college population, purposeful sample size, response rate, and overall completion rate are presented.

## MLQ Results

In order to inform the central research questions:

1. Does perceived transformational leadership in my organization enhance employee engagement?

2. How does perceived leadership enhance employee engagement in my organizational context?

3. To what extent and in what ways does background, training, development, and experience of organizational leaders contribute to leadership and the ability to enhance employee engagement?

I first needed to know what the perceived leadership styles were within the college. I could not establish a relationship between perceived transformational leadership and follower engagement if there were no transformational leaders within the institution. Perhaps other perceived leadership styles enhance employee engagement? And, because there are no baseline leadership data for my organization or the context in which the college operates, I needed to build these baseline data. To that end, I first needed to examine the MLQ results and answer the following sub-questions:

- *Sub-question 1: How do followers perceive leadership styles in my organization?*
- *Sub-question 2: How do leaders at my institution, as perceived by followers, compare to MLQ benchmarks and norms?*

Analyzing MLQ results, 21 administrative leaders were established on the questionnaire, but data were obtained for only 18 of those leaders and their associated followers, therefore data for only 18 leaders are presented here. The MLQ data offered follower perceptions of leadership styles. Leadership categories as measured by the MLQ and their associated benchmark scores are presented in Figure 4.2. All MLQ leadership results range between scores of 0-4: 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4= frequently, if not always. MLQ data from the questionnaire were extracted and both college aggregated and disaggregated individual leadership scores were calculated and results displayed in Figures 4.3-4.10.

**Leadership Styles, Outcomes, and Benchmarks for the MLQ**

| Five I's of Transformational Leadership | Transactional Leadership | Passive/Avoidant Behaviors | Outcomes of Leadership |
|---|---|---|---|
| •Idealized Influence Atrributes (IIA)<br>•Idealized Influence Behaviors (IIB)<br>•Inspirational Motivation (IM)<br>•Intellectual Stimulation (IS)<br>•Individualized Consideration (IC)<br>•**BENCHMARK 3-4** | •Contingent Reward (CR)<br>•**BENCHMARK 2-3**<br>•Management-by-exception Active (MBEA)<br>•**BENCHMARK 1-2** | •Management-by-exception Passive (MBEP)<br>•Lassez-Faire (LF)<br>•**BENCHMARK 0-1** | •Extra Effort (EE)<br>•Effectiveness (EFF)<br>•Satisfaction with Leadership (SAT)<br>•**BENCHMARK 3.5-4** |

*Figure 4.2.* MLQ broad leadership categories are classified as transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant. All nine leadership styles and the three outcomes of leadership as measured by the MLQ are provided along with their associated abbreviations used in data presentations throughout this study. Benchmark scores are provided and have been validated by Bass and Avolio (2003).

Mean aggregated college perceived leadership scores as measured by the MLQ with standard deviations ranging from 1.12-1.36 are presented in Figure 4.3, and are compared to normed population scores and benchmarks (Bass & Avolio, 2003; Bass & Avolio, 2004). To facilitate examination of college aggregated results, these same data were separated into the three broad MLQ leadership categories of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive-avoidant behaviors, as well as leadership outcomes, and presented in Figures 4.4-4.7.

## Aggregated College Data for MLQ Perceived Leadership Scores
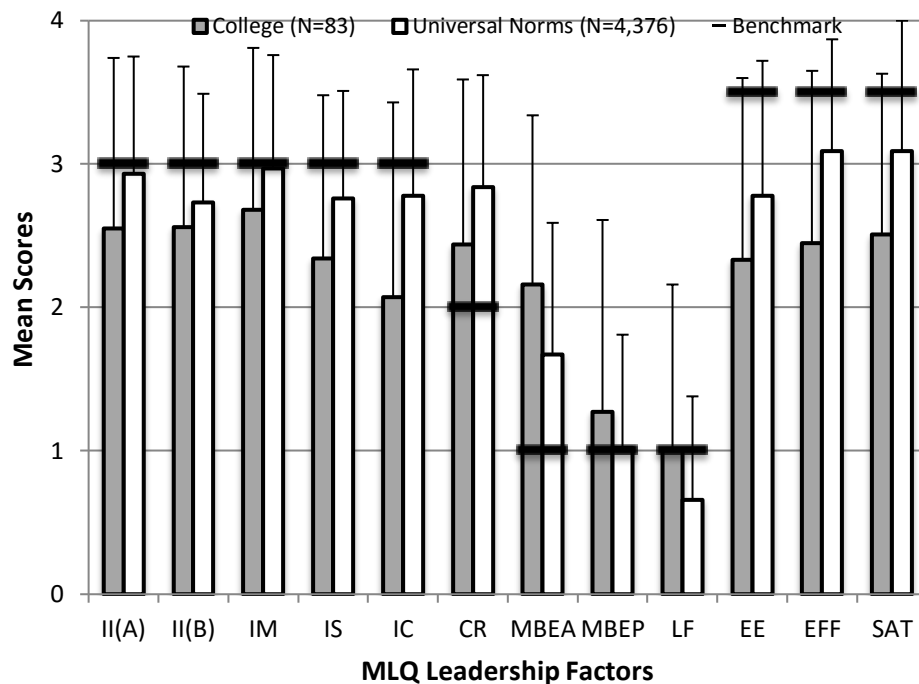


*Figure 4.3.* Mean aggregated perceived leadership scores (+SD) for the college (N=83) compared to the normed population scores (+SD) for lower level rating (N=4,376). Benchmarks are scores of 3-4 for II(A), II(B), IM, IS, IC; scores of 2-3 for CR; scores of 1-2 for MBEA; scores of 0-1 for MBEP and LF; and scores of 3.5-4 for EE, EFF, and SAT.

Norms and percentiles were examined using a scale based on lower level ratings as provided by Bass and Avolio (2004) because all scores were derived from follower (supervisee) perceptions. Overall perceived leadership scores for the college show that leaders are less transformational (II(A), II(B), IM, IS, & IC) and less constructively transactional via contingent reward (CR) than the norms (Figures 4.3, 4.4, and 4.5). Additionally, perceived leadership outcomes for extra-effort (EE), effectiveness (EFF), and satisfaction with leadership (SAT) also are lower than norms (Figure 4.3 and 4.7). Contrastingly, overall college scores for corrective, transactional leadership via management-by-exception active (MBEA), and the passive-avoidant behaviors of management-by-exception passive (MBEP) and laissez-faire (LF) are higher than the norms (Figures 4.3, 4.5, and 4.6).

**Aggregated College Data for MLQ Perceived Transformational Leadership Scores**



*Figure 4.4.* Mean aggregated perceived transformational leadership scores (+SD) for the college (N=83) and compared to the normed population scores (+SD) for lower level rating (N=4,376). Benchmarks scores are 3-4.

Mean college perceived transformational leadership scores ranged between 2.07 to 2.68 (2 = "sometimes") as measured by the MLQ with standard deviations ranging from 1.12-1.36 (Figures 4.3 and 4.4). As already noted, all scores show college leadership is less transformational than the norm. Benchmarks are not met for any of the Five I's of transformational leadership and indicate areas for improvement. The gap between college scores and both the norm and benchmark scores from largest to smallest was individualized consideration (IC), intellectual stimulation (IS), idealized influence attributes (IIA), idealized influence behaviors (IIB), and inspirational motivation (IM) respectively.

The college ranked in the 20th percentile for individualized consideration (IC) and intellectual stimulation (IS), the 30th percentile for idealized influence attributes (IIA) and inspirational motivation (IM), and the 40th percentile for idealized influence behaviors (IIB). In other words, 60-80% of the norm population scored higher than the college for perceived transformational leadership scores.

## Aggregated College Data for MLQ Perceived Transactional Leadership Scores
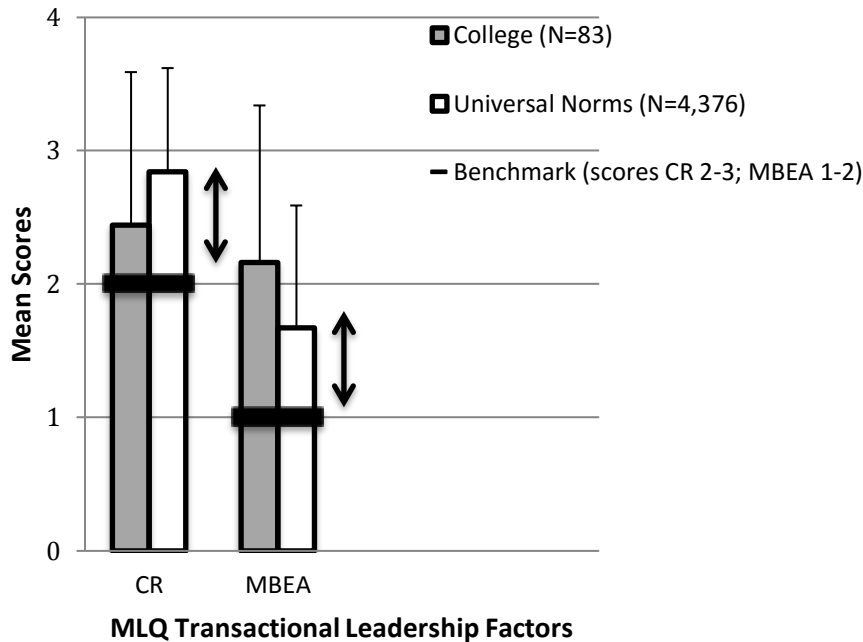


*Figure 4.5.* Mean aggregated perceived transactional leadership scores (+SD) for the college (N=83) and compared to the normed population scores (+SD) for lower level rating (N=4,376). Benchmark scores for Contingent Reward (CR) are 2-3; and benchmark scores for Management-by-exception Active (MBEA) are 1-2.

The mean college score for contingent reward (CR) was 2.44 and for management-by-exception active (MBEA) was 2.16 with standard deviations of 1.15 and 1.18 respectively (Figures 4.3 and 4.5). The college score for CR falls below the norm of 2.84; however, the CR score does fall within the benchmark score range of 2-3. And though more than 70% of the norm population scored higher, one does not want a CR score to fall below two or exceed three. In other words, a leader should "sometimes" (2) to "fairly often" (3) be utilizing contingent reward; and, this is exactly what is perceived of college leaders by their followers. Examining MBEA, the college exceeds both the norm score of 1.67 and ideal benchmark score of "once in a while" (1) to "sometimes" (2), though by only a small margin. Data placed the college near the 50th percentile for MBEA.

**Aggregated College Data for MLQ Perceived Passive-Avoidant Behavior Scores**
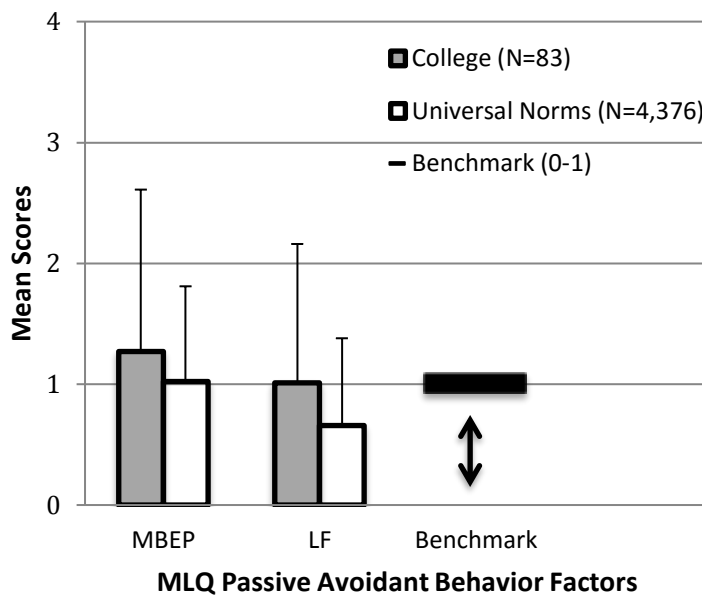


*Figure 4.6.* Mean aggregated perceived passive-avoidant behavior scores (+SD) for the college (N=83) and compared to the normed population scores (+SD) for lower level rating (N=4,376). Benchmark scores for both Management-by-exception Passive (MBEP) and Laissez-Faire (LF) are 0-1.

Mean college scores for management-by-exception passive (MBEP) and laissez-faire (LF) were 1.27 and 1.01 with standard deviations of 1.34 and 1.15 respectively (Figures 4.3 and 4.6). These passive, ineffective leadership styles are to be avoided, and used "never" (0) to "once in a while" (1), therefore benchmark scores are those less than or equal to one. The college MBEP score exceeded both the 1.02 norm and 0-1 benchmark scores. Similarly, the college LF score exceeds the 0.66 norm; however, the LF score reached just above the benchmark score by merely .01. The college is above the 70th percentile for MBEP and between the 70th-80th percentile for LF. Alternatively, only 20-30 percent of the norm population scored higher than the college for these perceived, passive-avoidant leadership behaviors. In other words, compared to the norm population and ideal practice, the college is perceived to be utilizing passive-avoidant leadership behaviors too frequently.

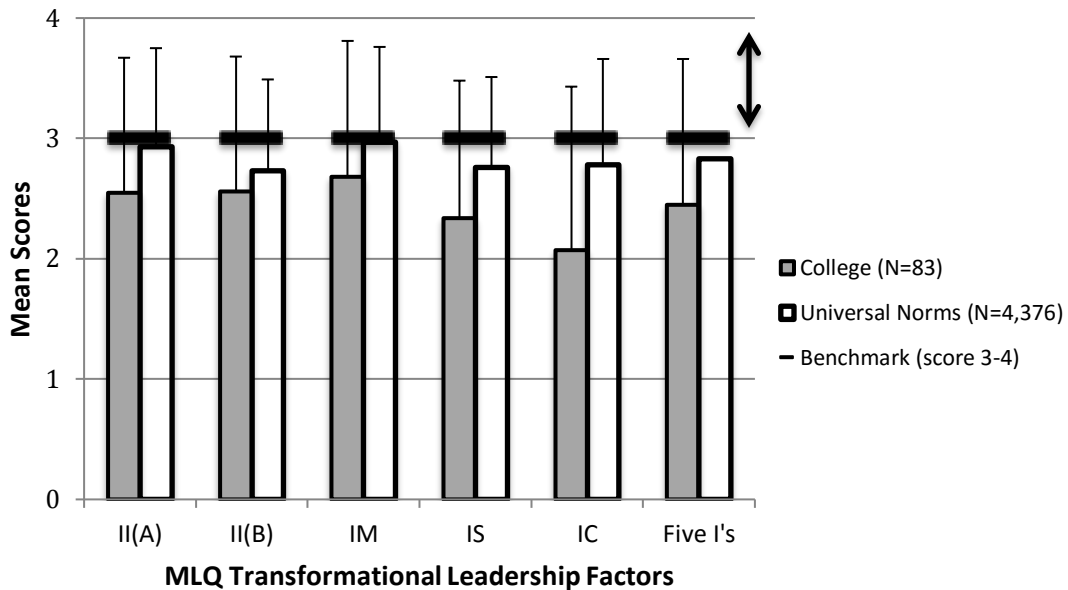**Aggregated College Data for MLQ Perceived Outcomes of Leadership Scores**
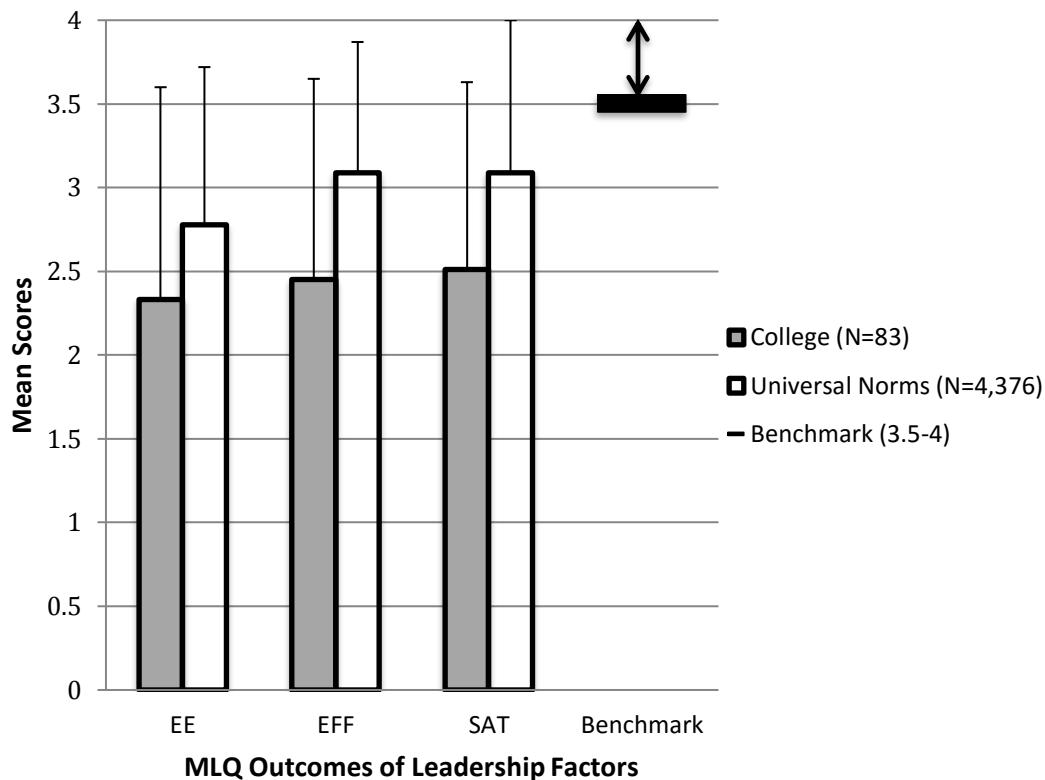


*Figure 4.7.* Mean aggregated perceived outcomes of leadership scores (+SD) for the college (N=83) and compared to the normed population scores (+SD) for lower level rating (N=4,376). Benchmark scores for Extra Effort (EE), Effectiveness (EFF), and Satisfaction with Leadership (SAT) are 3.5-4.

The mean college scores for extra effort (EE), effectiveness (EFF), and satisfaction with leadership (SAT) were 2.33, 2.45, and 2.51 with standard deviations of 1.27, 1.20, and 1.12 respectively (Figures 4.3 and 4.7). All three college mean outcome scores were lower than the norm data of 2.78, 3.09, and 3.09 respectively. All three scores were also lower than the benchmark scores of 3.5 to 4. The college mean scores for EE and EFF were at the 30th percentile and for SAT only at the 20th percentile. For these outcomes of leadership, where the ideal is that these are perceived as occurring "frequently, if not always" (4), 70-80% of the norm population scored higher.

MLQ data were disaggregated for the 18 individual leaders and presented in Figures 4.8, 4.9, and 4.10. Additionally, on all three graphs, norm scores for

lower level ratings were displayed and are represented in profile by leader number 19 (Figures 4.8, 4.9, and 4.10). Figure 4.8 displays the results for individual leader MLQ transformational leadership scores, Figure 4.9 shows results for individual leader MLQ transactional and passive-avoidant scores, and Figure 4.10 displays the MLQ outcomes of leadership scores.

**Disaggregated Data for MLQ Perceived Transformational Leadership Scores for Eighteen College Leaders**
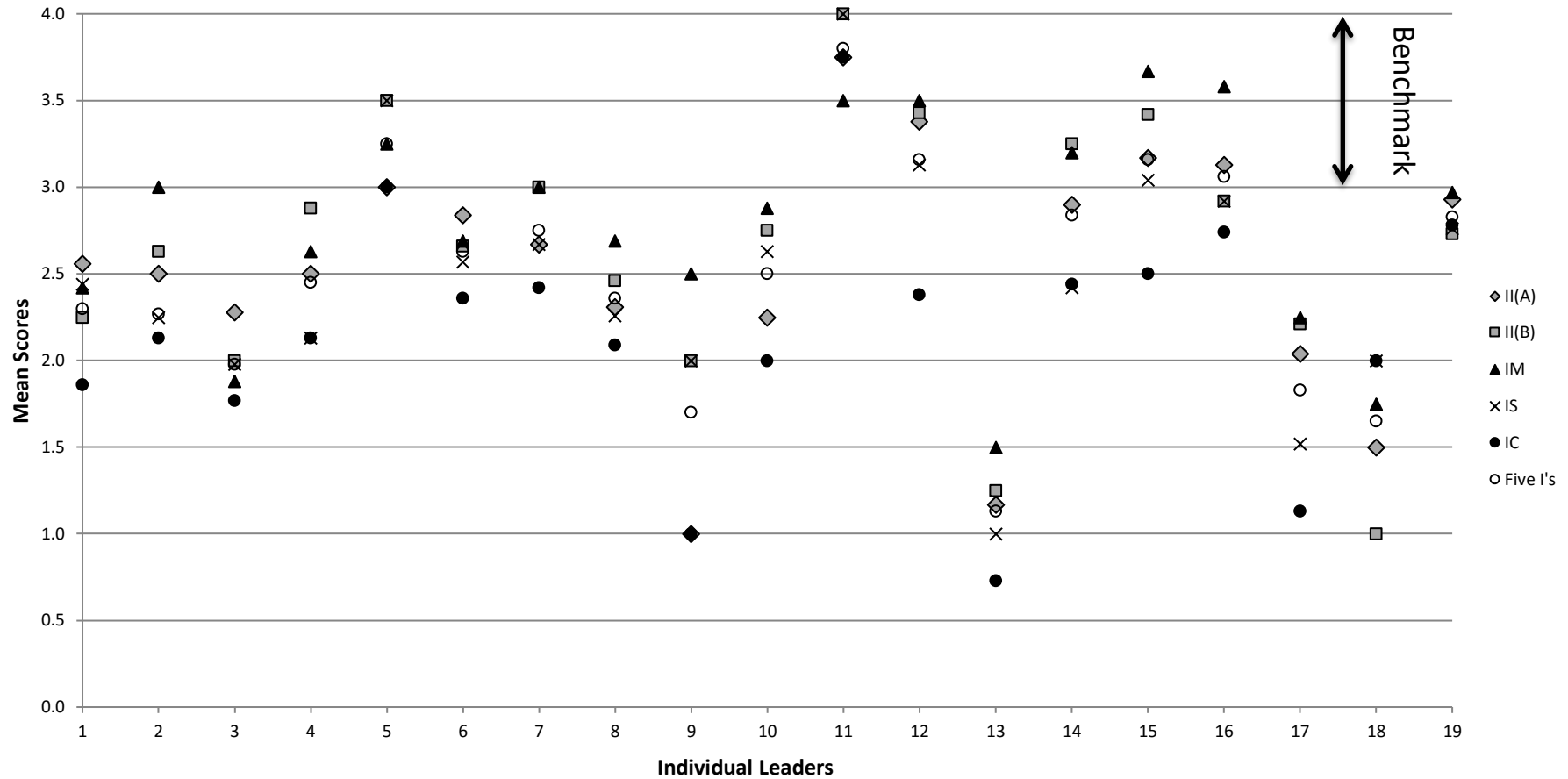


*Figure 4.8.* Mean disaggregated perceived leadership scores. Leaders 1-18 are individual college administrative leaders and for comparison leader 19 represents the normative leadership data for lower level rating. Benchmarks are scores of 3-4. See also Table 4.1.

Examining perceived transformational leadership scores on Figure 4.8 and as summarized in Table 4.1, eight leaders had some factor scores falling within the benchmark range of "fairly often" (3) to "frequently, if not always" (4). Two leaders (11.1%) had all Five I's falling within the benchmark range and two additional leaders had all but IC fall within the benchmark range. When compared to the norm data as represented on Figure 4.8 by leader 19, two leaders (5 and 11) were more transformational than the norm for all factors. Individual leader scores compared to norm scores for the Five I's are summarized in Table 4.1. If the total Five I's score is considered, five (27.8%) of the leaders exceed the benchmark and six (33.3%) leaders surpass the norm.

Table 4.1

*A summary of the individual leader scores compared to norm scores for the transformational Five I's factors and overall Five I's score from Figure 4.8*

| MLQ | | Leaders | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Factor | Benchmark Score | Total Scoring Higher than the benchmark | Percentage Scoring Higher than the benchmark | Individual Leader Number as represented on Figure 4.8 |
| II(A) | 3-4 | 5 | 27.8% | 5 11 12 15 16 |
| II(B) | | 7 | 38.9% | 5 7 11 12 14 15 16 |
| IM | "fairly often" (3) to "frequently, if not always"(4) | 8 | 44.4% | 2 5 7 11 12 14 15 16 |
| IS | | 4 | 22.2% | 5 11 12 15 |
| IC | | 2 | 11.1% | 5 11 |
| Five I's | | 5 | 27.8% | 5 11 12 15 16 |
| Factor | Norm Score | Total Scoring Higher than the Norm | Percentage Scoring Higher than the Norm | Individual Leader Number as represented on Figure 4.8 |
| II(A) | 2.93 | 5 | 27.8% | 5 11 12 15 16 |
| II(B) | 2.73 | 9 | 50.0% | 4 5 7 10 11 12 14 15 16 |
| IM | 2.97 | 8 | 44.4% | 2 5 7 11 12 14 15 16 |
| IS | 2.76 | 5 | 27.8% | 5 11 12 15 16 |
| IC | 2.78 | 2 | 11.1% | 5 11 |
| Five I's | 2.83 | 6 | 33.3% | 5 11 12 14 15 16 |

Inspirational motivation (IM) was the transformational leadership factor for which nine (50.0%) leaders scored highest. For 16 of the 18 leaders, individualized consideration (IC) was their lowest overall score among the Five I's. Based on normed data one would expect idealized influence

behaviors (IIB) to be the lowest score among the Five I's for leaders, yet this was exhibited above the norm for nine college leaders.

Transactional leadership scores of contingent reward (CR) and management-by-exception active (MBEA) for individual college leaders are presented in Figure 4.9 and summarized in Table 4.2. For benchmark comparison, 11 (61.1%) of the college leaders were utilizing CR with desired perceived frequency; four leaders were perceived as overusing and three underusing CR (Figure 4.9 and Table 4.2). Seven (38.9%) of the college leaders were using MBEA with desired perceived frequency. And, 11 leaders were perceived as overusing MBEA as compared to the benchmark and 14 (78.8%) compared to the norm (Figure 4.9 and Table 4.2).

Table 4.2

*A summary of the individual leader scores compared to benchmark and norm scores for the MLQ transformational factors from Figure 4.9*

| MLQ | | Leaders | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Factor | Benchmark Score | Total Scoring Within the Benchmark | Percentage Scoring Within the Benchmark | Individual Leader Number as represented on Figure 4.9 |
| CR | 2-3 "sometimes" (2) to "fairly often" (3) | 11 | 61.1% | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10  14 |
| MBEA | 1-2 "once in a while" (1) to "sometimes" (2) | 7 | 38.9% | 1 2 3    7    13    16 18 |
| Factor | Norm Score | Total Scoring Higher than the Norm | Percentage Scoring Higher than the Norm | Individual Leader Number as represented on Figure 4.9 |
| CR | 2.84 | 4 | 22.2% | 11 12    15 16 |
| MBEA | 1.67 | 14 | 77.8% | 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 14 15 16 17 |
| Contingent Reward (CR) is a more constructive form of transformational leadership whereas Management-by-exception Active (MBEA) involves more corrective behaviors. | | | | |

Passive-avoidant leadership scores of management-by-exception passive (MBEP) and laissez-faire (LF) for individual college leaders are presented in Figure 4.9 and summarized in Table 4.3. For benchmark comparison, six (33.3%) of the college leaders were utilizing MBEP with desired perceived frequency; the remaining 12 leaders were perceived as overusing MBEP (Figure 4.9 and Table 4.2). Twelve (66.7%) of the leaders were perceived as overusing MBEP compared to the norm. Nine (50.0%) of the college leaders were using LF with desired perceived frequency; the remaining nine leaders were perceived as overusing LF as compared to the benchmark and 11 (61.1%) compared to the norm (Figure 4.9 and Table 4.3). Leader 12 was perceived to "never" (0) exhibit LF leadership, whereas leader 5 was perceived as "frequently, if not always" (4) exhibiting LF leadership.

Table 4.3

*A summary of the individual leader scores compared to benchmark and norm scores for the MLQ passive-avoidant factors from Figure 4.9*

| MLQ | | Leaders | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Factor | Benchmark Score | Total Scoring Within the Benchmark | Percentage Scoring Within the Benchmark | Individual Leader Number as represented on Figure 4.9 |
| MBEP | 0-1 "never" (0) to "once in a while" (1) | 6 | 33.3% | 1  6  12  14 15 16 |
| LF | 0-1 "never" (0) to "once in a while" (1) | 9 | 50.0% | 1  4  6 7  11  12  14 15 16 |
| Factor | Norm Score | Total Scoring Higher than the Norm | Percentage Scoring Higher than the Norm | Individual Leader Number as represented on Figure 4.9 |
| MBEP | 1.02 | 12 | 66.7% | 2 3 4 5  7 8 9 10 11  13  17 18 |
| LF | 0.66 | 11 | 61.1% | 2 3  5  7 8 9 10 11  13  17 18 |
| Management-by-exception Active (MBEA) is a reactive style of leadership whereas Laissez-faire (LF) is effectively the absence of leadership. | | | | |

**Disaggregated Data for MLQ Perceived Transactional and Passive-Avoidant Leadership Scores for Eighteen College Leaders**
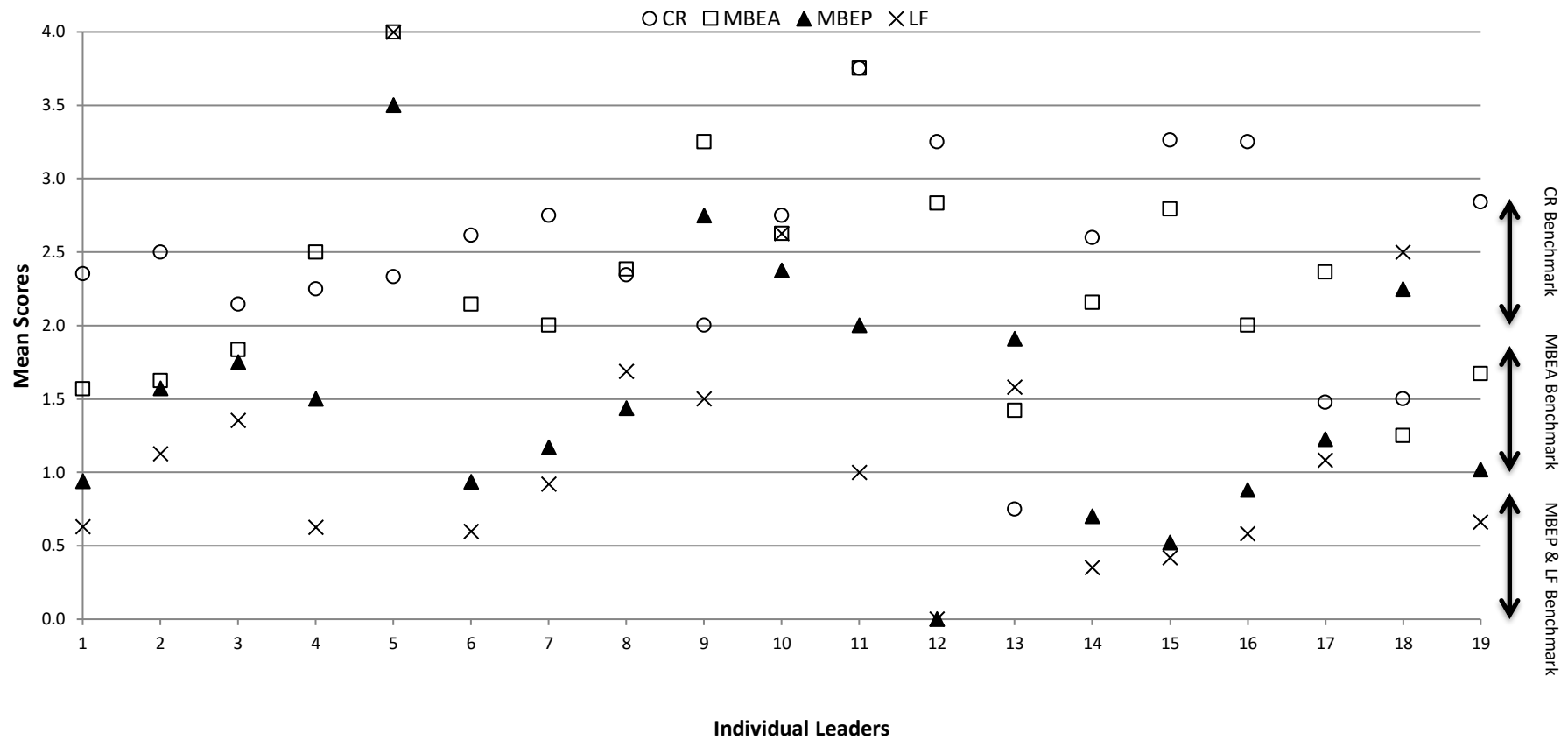


*Figure 4.9.* Mean disaggregated perceived leadership scores. Leaders 1-18 are individual college leaders and for comparison, leader 19 represents the normative leadership data for lower level rating. Benchmarks are scores are 2-3 for CR, 1-2 for MBEA, and 0-1 for both MBEP and LF. See also Tables 4.2 and 4.3.

**Disaggregated Data for MLQ Perceived Outcomes of Leadership Scores for Eighteen College Leaders**
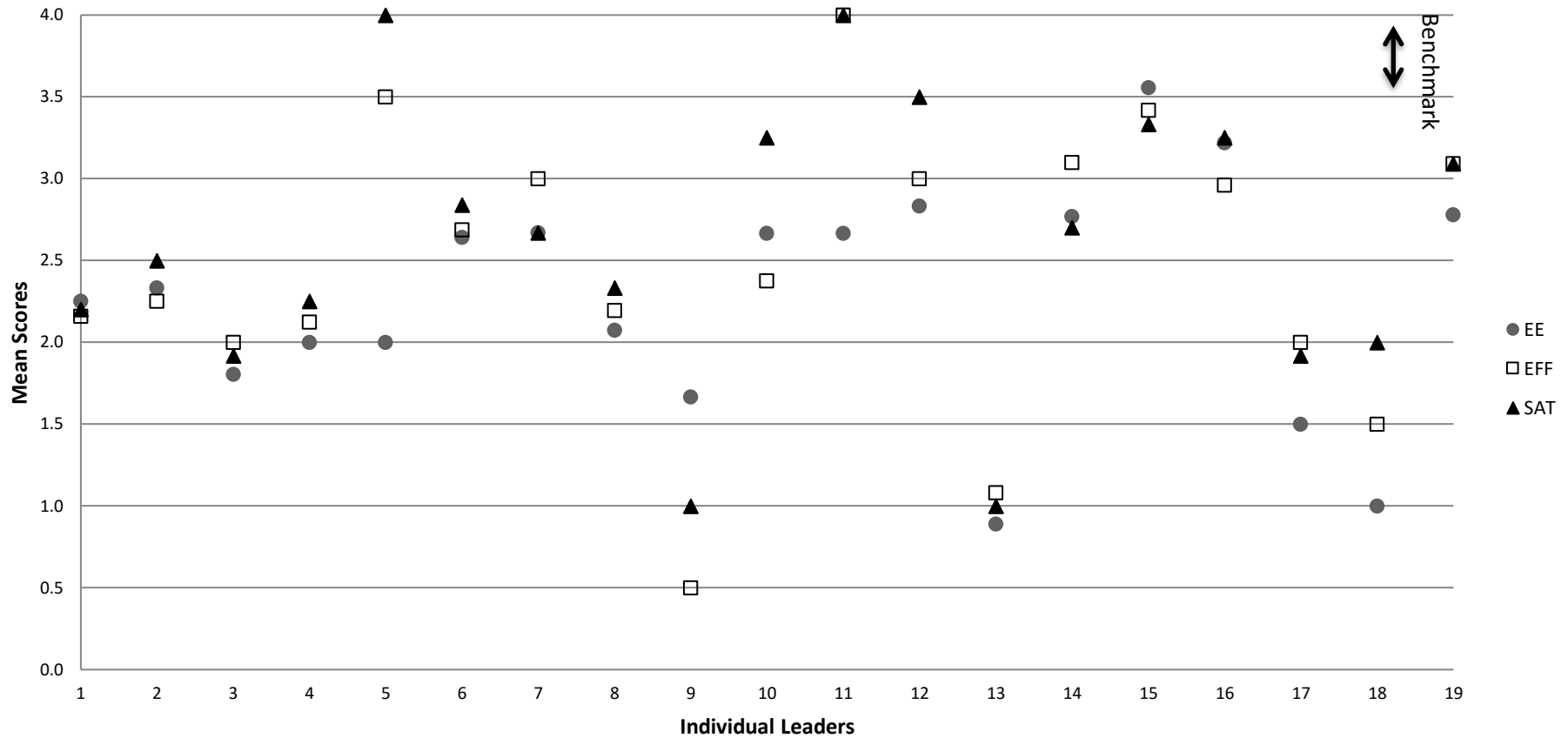


*Figure 4.10.* Mean disaggregated perceived leadership outcome scores. Leaders 1-18 are individual college leaders and for comparison leader 19 represents the normative leadership data for lower level rating. Benchmark scores are 3.5-4

Perceived outcomes of leadership mean scores were plotted for the 18 individual college leaders (numbers 1-18) and norm scores for lower level ratings were represented in profile as the leader labeled number 19 (Figure 4.10). Benchmark scores are 3.5-4 for extra effort (EE), effectiveness (EFF), and satisfaction with leadership (SAT). Benchmarks call for a range of more than "fairly often" (3) and closer to "frequently, if not always (4). Examining Figure 4.10, only one leader (number 15) was perceived to meet the benchmark for extra effort (EE), only two leaders were perceived to meet the benchmark for effectiveness (EFF) (numbers 5 and 11), and three leaders were perceived to meet the benchmark for satisfaction (SAT) (numbers 5, 11, and 12).

When the 18 individual college leaders were compared to the norm data:
- Three leaders (numbers 12, 15, and 16) scored higher than the norm (2.78) for the leadership outcome extra effort (EE); and
- Four leaders (numbers 5, 11, 14, and 15) scored higher than the norm (3.09) for effectiveness (EFF); and
- Six leaders (numbers 5, 10-12, and 15-16) scored higher than the norm (3.09) for satisfaction with leadership (SAT).

Having now answered these two sub-questions:
- *Sub-question 1: How do followers perceive leadership styles in my organization?*
- *Sub-question 2: How do leaders at my institution, as perceived by followers, compare to MLQ benchmarks and norms?*

-the next step was to examine UWES data for frequency of follower engagement. Additionally, these results also help build an institutional profile and baseline follower engagement data. To that end, the following sub-question was explored:
- *Sub-question 3: How frequently do employees (followers) in my organization feel engaged and how does this compare to Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) norms?*

## UWES Results

To answer this third sub-question, data from the questionnaire for the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) were extracted and examined for overall college employee work engagement scores and for follower work engagement scores for each of the 18 leaders. Scores for both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 scales were calculated for comparison. Additionally, scores were calculated for each of the three constituent parts of engagement by using the UWES dimensions of vigor (VI), dedication (DE), and absorption (AB) for both scales. All UWES work engagement results range between scores of 0-6 where 0 = never, 1 = almost never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often, and 6 = always (Appendix 3). These data are presented in Figures 4.11, 4.12, and 4.13 and Tables 4.5, 4.6, and Appendix 3.

College employee work engagement was examined by calculating scoring percentages for both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 dimensions, and comparing totals to the database (see Tables 4.4 through 4.8) published by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, pp. 35 and 38-39).

Table 4.4

*Recoded Utrecht Work Engagement Scale Dimensions for Scoring Percentage Comparisons*

| |
|---|
| 0 to 0.99 → 1 (once per year or less) |
| 1 to 1.99 → 2 (at least once per year) |
| 2 to 2.99 → 3 (at least once a month) |
| 3 to 3.99 → 4 (at least a couple of time a month) |
| 4 to 4.99 → 5 (at least once a week) |
| 5 to 6.00 → 6 (a couple of times per week or daily) |

*Note.* Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) recoded the UWES to allow for scoring percentages to be compared (p. 34).

Table 4.5

*Scoring Percentages for the UWES-17 Dimensions for College Work Engagement Compared to the Dutch Database*

| UWES Score | Vigor-17 | | Dedication-17 | | Absorption-17 | | Total UWES-17 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | College | Database | College | Database | College | Database | College | Database |
| 1 | 0.82 | 0.5 | 0.49 | 1.7 | 1.45 | 1.3 | 1.45 | 0.8 |
| 2 | 1.23 | 2.8 | 0.49 | 6.0 | 0.80 | 7.0 | 0.80 | 4.4 |
| 3 | 0.82 | 13.3 | 1.47 | 14.9 | 1.52 | 21.4 | 1.52 | 17.7 |
| 4 | 6.76 | 28.0 | 3.68 | 23.5 | 6.44 | 30.5 | 6.44 | 30.1 |
| 5 | 7.38 | 33.0 | 3.92 | 27.4 | 6.15 | 26.2 | 6.15 | 31.1 |
| 6 | 82.99 | 22.4 | 89.95 | 26.5 | 83.66 | 13.8 | 83.66 | 15.9 |

*Note.* The database scoring percentages are from Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, p.35). Recoded UWES scores are defined in Table 4.4. These database values are based on Dutch norms and N=2,313.

Table 4.6

*Scoring Percentages for the UWES-9 Dimensions for College Work Engagement Compared to the Dutch Database*

| UWES Score | Vigor-9 | | Dedication-9 | | Absorption-9 | | Total UWES-9 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | College | Database | College | Database | College | Database | College | Database |
| 1 | 0.41 | 0.5 | 0.68 | 1.9 | 0.68 | 2.7 | 0.68 | 1.1 |
| 2 | 1.63 | 2.8 | 0.54 | 6.2 | 0.54 | 10.1 | 0.54 | 5.8 |
| 3 | 0.82 | 13.0 | 1.63 | 15.2 | 1.63 | 23.0 | 1.63 | 19.1 |
| 4 | 6.94 | 25.0 | 4.50 | 21.7 | 4.50 | 27.6 | 4.50 | 28.3 |
| 5 | 7.76 | 31.4 | 5.45 | 25.8 | 5.45 | 21.5 | 5.45 | 28.7 |
| 6 | 82.45 | 27.2 | 87.19 | 29.3 | 87.19 | 15.1 | 87.19 | 17.0 |

*Note.* The database scoring percentages are from Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, p.35). Recoded UWES scores are defined in Table 4.4. These database values are based on Dutch norms and N=9,679.

From the Dutch database (Tables 4.5 and 4.6), Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) note 50% or more of employees had mean scores of 5 or 6 for both vigor and dedication; and, 40-45% had mean scores of 5 or 6 for both absorption and the UWES total score. For the college employees these percentages were greater. Mean scores of 5 or 6 occurred for just over 90% of college employees for vigor, approximately 93% for dedication, 89.8% for both absorption-17 and the UWES-17 total score, and 92.6% for both absorption-9 and the UWES-9 total score (Tables 4.5 and 4.6).

Less than 1% of college employees scored low with feelings of job engagement occurring only "once a year or less" compared to approximately

2% of those in the Dutch database. On the opposite side of the spectrum, 83-89% of college employees experienced feelings of engagement "a couple of times per week or daily" whereas the Dutch database showed this level of engagement for only 20% of employees. Regardless of which engagement scale was used (UWES-17 or UWES-9), results showed college employees felt more frequently engaged compared to those employees within the Dutch database (Tables 4.5 and 4.6).

Because differences surely exist between countries and cultures, the percentage distribution database for "other languages" in which the UWES had been administered were also examined (Tables 4.7 and 4.8) as provided by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, pp. 38-39). This database included Australia, Canada, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Norway, South Africa, and Spain (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). For the *other languages* norm, more than 50% of employees had mean scores of 5 or 6 on both engagement scales, 27-37% had scores of 3 or 4, and less than 10% scored only a 1 or 2. Though the *other languages* norm data showed higher engagement than the Dutch database, college employees still exhibited more frequent engagement comparatively.

Table 4.7

*Scoring Percentages for the UWES-17 Dimensions for College Work Engagement Compared to the Other Languages Database*

| UWES Score | Vigor-17 | | Dedication-17 | | Absorption-17 | | Total UWES-17 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | College | Database | College | Database | College | Database | College | Database |
| 1 | 0.82 | 0.6 | 0.49 | 1.3 | 1.45 | 2.0 | 1.45 | 0.7 |
| 2 | 1.23 | 2.5 | 0.49 | 3.9 | 0.80 | 6.6 | 0.80 | 3.5 |
| 3 | 0.82 | 9.4 | 1.47 | 9.7 | 1.52 | 16.3 | 1.52 | 11.8 |
| 4 | 6.76 | 22.1 | 3.68 | 18.0 | 6.44 | 25.2 | 6.44 | 24.9 |
| 5 | 7.38 | 34.4 | 3.92 | 26.8 | 6.15 | 28.9 | 6.15 | 34.8 |
| 6 | 82.99 | 31.1 | 89.95 | 40.3 | 83.66 | 21.0 | 83.66 | 24.3 |

*Note.* The database scoring percentages are from Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, p.39). Recoded UWES scores are defined in Table 4.4. These database values are based on other language norms and N=12,161.

Table 4.8

*Scoring Percentages for the UWES-9 Dimensions for College Work Engagement Compared to the Other Languages Database*

| UWES Score | Vigor-9 | | Dedication-9 | | Absorption-9 | | Total UWES-9 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | College | Database | College | Database | College | Database | College | Database |
| 1 | 0.41 | 1.0 | 0.68 | 1.5 | 0.68 | 3.0 | 0.68 | 1.1 |
| 2 | 1.63 | 3.5 | 0.54 | 4.1 | 0.54 | 7.4 | 0.54 | 4.3 |
| 3 | 0.82 | 10.1 | 1.63 | 9.5 | 1.63 | 15.1 | 1.63 | 12.6 |
| 4 | 6.94 | 20.7 | 4.50 | 18.0 | 4.50 | 22.5 | 4.50 | 24.4 |
| 5 | 7.76 | 29.5 | 5.45 | 25.6 | 5.45 | 23.3 | 5.45 | 32.6 |
| 6 | 82.45 | 35.3 | 87.19 | 41.3 | 87.19 | 23.4 | 87.19 | 25.1 |

*Note.* The database scoring percentages are from Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, p.38). Recoded UWES scores are defined in Table 4.4. These database values are based on other language norms and N=12,631

College employee engagement scores for all dimensions of both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 scales were also compared to mean database scores to test for significance. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) provided databases for both Dutch norms and *other language* norms. Both sets of norms were compared to college work engagement scores for all UWES dimensions and independent, two-tailed, one-sample t-tests for significant differences were performed (Tables 4.9 and 4.10). Nonparametric analyses were not performed because the norm data consisted of only the mean (M), standard error (SE), standard deviation (SD), and sample size (N). There were statistically significant differences (p≤.0001) between college and Dutch mean employee engagement scores, in all dimensions of both the UWES-17 and UWES-9. Results showed mean college employee engagement scores were significantly higher than Dutch normed mean employee engagement scores (Table 4.9).

There were also statistically significant differences (p≤.0001) between college and *other language* norm mean employee engagement scores in all dimensions of both the UWES-17 and UWES-9. Results showed mean college employee engagement scores were significantly higher than *other languages* normed mean employee engagement scores (Table 4.10).

Table 4.9

*Results of t-tests and Descriptive Statistics for Dimensions of the UWES-17 and UWES-9 for College and Dutch Norm Scores*

| Outcome | Group | | | | | | 99% CI for Mean Difference | | t | df |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | College | | | Dutch Norms | | | | | | |
| | M | SD | N | M | SD | N | | | | |
| UWES-17 | 5.14 | 1.18 | 83 | 3.82 | 1.1 | 2313 | 1.002 to 1.638 | | 10.71**** | 2394 |
| VI-17 | 5.09 | 1.09 | 83 | 3.99 | 1.08 | 2313 | 0.7889 to 1.411 | | 9.114**** | 2394 |
| DE-17 | 5.43 | 0.98 | 83 | 3.81 | 1.31 | 2313 | 1.246 to 1.994 | | 11.15**** | 2394 |
| AB-17 | 4.94 | 1.36 | 83 | 3.56 | 1.18 | 2313 | 1.038 to 1.722 | | 10.41**** | 2394 |
| UWES-9 | 5.25 | 1.02 | 83 | 3.74 | 1.17 | 9679 | 1.178 to 1.842 | | 11.72**** | 9760 |
| VI-9 | 5.07 | 1.05 | 83 | 4.01 | 1.14 | 9679 | 0.7364 to 1.384 | | 8.440**** | 9760 |
| DE-9 | 5.53 | 0.77 | 83 | 3.88 | 1.38 | 9679 | 1.259 to 2.041 | | 10.88**** | 9760 |
| AB-9 | 5.15 | 1.16 | 83 | 3.35 | 1.32 | 9679 | 1.425 to 2.175 | | 12.38**** | 9670 |

*Note*: M = mean; SD = Standard deviation; CI = confidence interval; VI = vigor; DE = dedication; AB = absorption. Mean work engagement scores are presented for all dimensions of both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 versions. Dutch group norm data were obtained from Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, p. 34). All UWES work engagement results range between scores of 0-6 where 0 = never, 1 = almost never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often, and 6 = always. Results are significant at the .05 level (two-tailed).

*p≤.05
**p≤.01
***p≤.001
****p≤.0001

Table 4.10

*Results of t-tests and Descriptive Statistics for Dimensions of the UWES-17 and UWES-9 for College and Other Language Norm Scores*

| Dimension | Group | | | | | | 99% CI for Mean Difference | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | College | | | Other Language Norms | | | | | |
| | M | SD | N | M | SD | N | | t | df |
| UWES-17 | 5.14 | 1.18 | 83 | 4.10 | 1.11 | 12161 | 0.7249 to1.355 | 8.503**** | 12242 |
| VI-17 | 5.09 | 1.09 | 83 | 4.24 | 1.09 | 12161 | 0.5407 to 1.159 | 7.080**** | 12242 |
| DE-17 | 5.43 | 0.98 | 83 | 4.33 | 1.36 | 12161 | 0.7147 to 1.485 | 7.356**** | 12242 |
| AB-17 | 4.94 | 1.36 | 83 | 3.77 | 1.28 | 12161 | 0.8067 to 1.533 | 8.296**** | 12242 |
| UWES-9 | 5.25 | 1.02 | 83 | 4.05 | 1.19 | 12631 | 0.8727 to 1.547 | 9.241**** | 12712 |
| VI-9 | 5.07 | 1.05 | 83 | 4.18 | 1.24 | 12631 | 0.5385 to 1.241 | 6.524**** | 12712 |
| DE-9 | 5.53 | 0.77 | 83 | 4.28 | 1.36 | 12631 | 0.8650 to 1.635 | 8.365**** | 12712 |
| AB-9 | 5.15 | 1.16 | 83 | 3.68 | 1.43 | 12631 | 1.065 to 1.875 | 9.345**** | 12712 |

*Note*: M = mean; SD = Standard deviation; CI = confidence interval; VI = vigor; DE = dedication; AB = absorption. Mean work engagement scores are presented for both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 versions. Other languages normed data were obtained from Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, p. 38). All UWES work engagement results range between scores of 0-6 where 0 = never, 1 = almost never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often, and 6 = always. Results are significant at the .05 level (two-tailed)

  *p≤.05
 **p≤.01
 ***p≤.001
****p≤.0001

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) recommended utilization of the UWES-9 over the UWES-17 because the UWES-9 showed a better fit to both the one-factor (one dimension) and three-factor (three dimension) model for work engagement data when compared to the UWES-17. Therefore, college data were examined for differences between the two scales. Overall college work engagement data for all dimensions of both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 are shown in Figure 4.11. Disaggregated college data for all 18 college leaders, comparing their individual follower engagement scores on all three dimensions and total scores from UWES-17 and UWES-9, are provided in Appendix 5.

**Aggregated College Data for UWES-17 and UWES-9 Employee Engagement Scores**
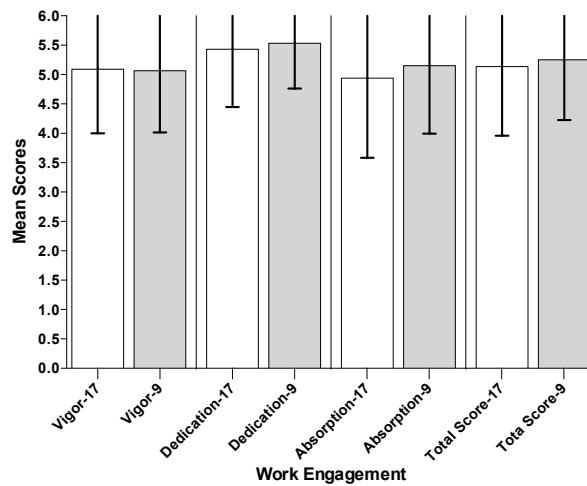


*Figure 4.11.* Overall college mean scores (N=83) for the three dimensions of engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption; in addition to the total Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) scores, are presented for both the UWES-17 and UWES-9. All UWES work engagement results range between scores of 0-6 where 0 = never, 1 = almost never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often, and 6 = always. Error bars terminate at the maximum score of 6.0.

To test for significant differences between college UWES data sets, four independent, two-tailed, paired samples t-tests were used to compare college mean work engagement scores for all dimensions of both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 (Table 4.11). Results showed no significant differences ($p \leq .05$) between the three dimension scores or total scores for the college UWES-17 and college UWES-9 mean employee work engagement scores (Table 4.11). In other words, overall employee engagement results did not differ significantly for the college when using either the UWES-17 or UWES-9 version.

Table 4.11

*Results of t-tests and Descriptive Statistics for Dimensions of the UWES-17 and UWES-9 for College Data*

| Dimension | Group | | | | | | 99% CI for Mean Difference | t | df |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | College UWES-17 | | | College UWES-9 | | | | | |
| | M | SD | N | M | SD | N | | | |
| Total Score | 5.14 | 1.18 | 83 | 5.25 | 1.02 | 83 | -0.5562 to 0.3362 | 0.6425 ns | 164 |
| VI | 5.09 | 1.09 | 83 | 5.07 | 1.05 | 83 | -0.4129 to 0.4529 | 0.1204 ns | 164 |
| DE | 5.43 | 0.98 | 83 | 5.53 | 0.77 | 83 | -0.4565 to 0.2565 | 0.7310 ns | 164 |
| AB | 4.94 | 1.36 | 83 | 5.15 | 1.16 | 83 | -0.7213 to 0.3013 | 1.070 ns | 164 |

*Note*: M = mean. SD = Standard deviation; CI = confidence interval; VI = vigor; DE = dedication; AB = absorption. Overall college work engagement scores are presented for both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 versions. All UWES work engagement results range between scores of 0-6 where 0 = never, 1 = almost never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often, and 6 = always. Results are significant at the .05 level (two-tailed).
    *p≤.05
   **p≤.01
  ***p≤.001
****p≤.0001

College work engagement mean scores for the dimension of dedication (DE) were highest on both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 (Figure 4.11 and Table 4.11). Results of six, independent t-tests on the dimensions of UWES-17 showed the mean score for dedication-17 was significantly higher than the mean score for vigor-17 (t = 2.113, df = 164, p≤.05, 95% CI = -0.5277 to 0.2277), and for absorption-17 (t = 2.663, df = 164, p≤.01, 99% CI = 0.01047 to 0.9695), but showed no significant difference from the UWES-17 total score (t = 1.722, df = 164, p≤.05, 95% CI = -0.04244 to 0.6224). Results also showed vigor-17 was significantly greater than absorption-17 (t=0.7841, df = 164, p≤.05, 95% CI = 0.2277 to .5277). No other significant results were obtained.

Results of six, independent t-tests on the dimensions of UWES-9 showed the mean score for dedication-9 was significantly higher than the mean score for vigor-9 (t = 3.219, df = 164, p≤.01, 95% CI = 0.1778 to 0.7422), for absorption-9 (t = 2.487, df = 164, p≤.05, 99% CI = -0.01828 to 0.7783), and

for the UWES-9 total score (t = 1.996, df = 164, p≤.05, 95% CI = 0.003014 to 0.5570). No other significant results were obtained.

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) generated five categories of statistical norms from "very low" to "very high" where upper and lower limits were set based on percentiles of less than 5th, 5-25th, 25-75th, 75-95th, and greater than 95th respectively (p. 40). These categories and associated norm scores for both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 are presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12

*Statistical Norm Categories for All the Dimensions of the UWES-17 and UWES-9*

|  | Vigor | | Dedication | | Absorption | | Total UWES Score | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | 17 | 9 | 17 | 9 | 17 | 9 | 17 | 9 |
| Very low | ≤ 2.17 | ≤ 2.00 | ≤ 1.60 | ≤ 1.33 | ≤ 1.60 | ≤ 1.17 | ≤ 1.93 | ≤ 1.77 |
| Low | 2.18 – 3.20 | 2.01 – 3.25 | 1.61 – 3.00 | 1.34 – 2.90 | 1.61 – 2.75 | 1.18 – 2.33 | 1.94 – 3.06 | 1.78 – 2.88 |
| Average | 3.21 – 4.80 | 3.26 – 4.80 | 3.01 – 4.90 | 2.91 – 4.70 | 2.76 – 4.40 | 2.34 – 4.20 | 3.07 – 4.66 | 2.89 – 4.66 |
| High | 4.81 – 5.60 | 4.81 – 5.65 | 4.91 – 5.79 | 4.71 – 5.69 | 4.41 – 5.35 | 4.21 – 5.33 | 4.67 – 5.53 | 4.67 – 5.50 |
| Very High | ≥ 5.61 | ≥ 5.66 | ≥ 5.80 | ≥ 5.70 | ≥ 5.36 | ≥ 5.34 | ≥ 5.54 | ≥ 5.51 |

*Note:* Data for this table were obtained from Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, p. 40). 17 = scores for the UWES-17 dimensions. 9 = scores for the UWES-9 dimensions. N = 2,313 for UWES-17 and N = 9,679 for UWES-9.

Using these five categories, the overall college aggregated employee work engagement scores were "high" for all dimensions on both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 (Figure 4.11 and Tables 4.11-4.12). For all eighteen leaders examined in this study, one can see how engaged their respective followers felt by examining Figures 4.12, 4.13, and Appendix 5. Mean follower scores as calculated from all dimensions of the UWES-17 showed that overall one leader's supervisees had low engagement, one leader's supervisees had "average" engagement, and the other sixteen leaders had employees who felt "high" to "very high" engagement (Table 4.13). Vigor was the only category for the UWES-17 where this trend deviated and four sets of followers felt only "average" vigor.

Table 4.13

*Summary Observations from the UWES-17 Follower Engagement Data*

| Observations | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Dimension | Category | # of Leaders | Leader Number |
| Vigor | Very High | 1 | 2 |
| | High | 12 | 1   3 4   6 7 8   10   12 13   15   17 |
| | Average | 4 | 5         11       14       18 |
| | Low | 1 | 9 |
| Dedication | Very High | 2 | 2               11 |
| | High | 14 | 1   3 4 5 6 7 8   10   12 13 14 15 16 17 |
| | Average | 1 | 18 |
| | Low | 1 | 9 |
| Absorption | Very High | 1 | 2 |
| | High | 15 | 1   3 4 5 6 7 8   10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 |
| | Average | 1 | 18 |
| | Low | 1 | 9 |
| Total Score | Very High | 1 | 2 |
| | High | 15 | 1   3 4 5 6 7 8   10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 |
| | Average | 1 | 18 |
| | Low | 1 | 9 |

*Note:* Figures 4.12, 4.13 and Appendix 5 exhibit these data.

Mean follower scores as calculated from all dimensions of the UWES-9 also showed that overall one leader's supervisees had "low" engagement, one leader's supervisees had "average" engagement, and the other sixteen leaders had employees who felt "high" to "very high" engagement (Table 4.14). Vigor was again the only category for the UWES-9 where this trend deviated and three sets of followers felt only average vigor. Overall the UWES-9 scores resulted in more leaders having followers classified with "very high" engagement (Table 4.11 and Figure 4.13).

Table 4.14

*Summary Observations from the UWES-9 Follower Engagement Data*

| Observations | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Dimension | Category | # of Leaders | Leader Number |
| Vigor | Very High | 2 | 2                11 |
| | High | 12 | 1     3 4   6 7 8 10    12 13    15 16 17 |
| | Average | 3 | 5                        14                    18 |
| | Low | 1 | 9 |
| Dedication | Very High | 6 | 2            7    10 11 12    14 |
| | High | 10 | 1     3 4 5 6    8                13    15 16 17 |
| | Average | 1 | 18 |
| | Low | 1 | 9 |
| Absorption | Very High | 3 | 11            15      17 |
| | High | 13 | 1 2   3 4 5 6 7 8 10    12 13 14       16 |
| | Average | 1 | 18 |
| | Low | 1 | 9 |
| Total Score | Very High | 4 | 2                10 11 12 |
| | High | 12 | 1     3 4 5 6 7 8                13 14   15 16 17 |
| | Average | 1 | 18 |
| | Low | 1 | 9 |

*Note:* Figures 4.12, 4.13 and Appendix 5 exhibit these data.

To this point, I have examined follower perceptions of leadership styles and outcomes, compared those organizational perspectives to benchmarks and norms, examined frequency of employee engagement, and compared those results to normative data for significance. Though overall college scores for MLQ leadership factors fail to meet benchmarks with the exception of contingent reward (CR), we do see individual leaders who fall within the ideal benchmarks. Interestingly, and despite overall leadership scores not falling within ideal ranges, the college employee engagement levels are significantly higher than Dutch and *other language* norms. Employees report a significantly high level of dedication in particular. Notwithstanding the generally and relatively high levels of employee engagement, these data also suggest individual leaders can have an impact on employee engagement in the college. In the next section, this relationship is further examined for statistical significance.

# Follower Employee Engagement Data Disaggregated Leadership Engagement Data – UWES-17

◆ Vigor    ○ Dedication    △ Absorption    ✕ Total Score
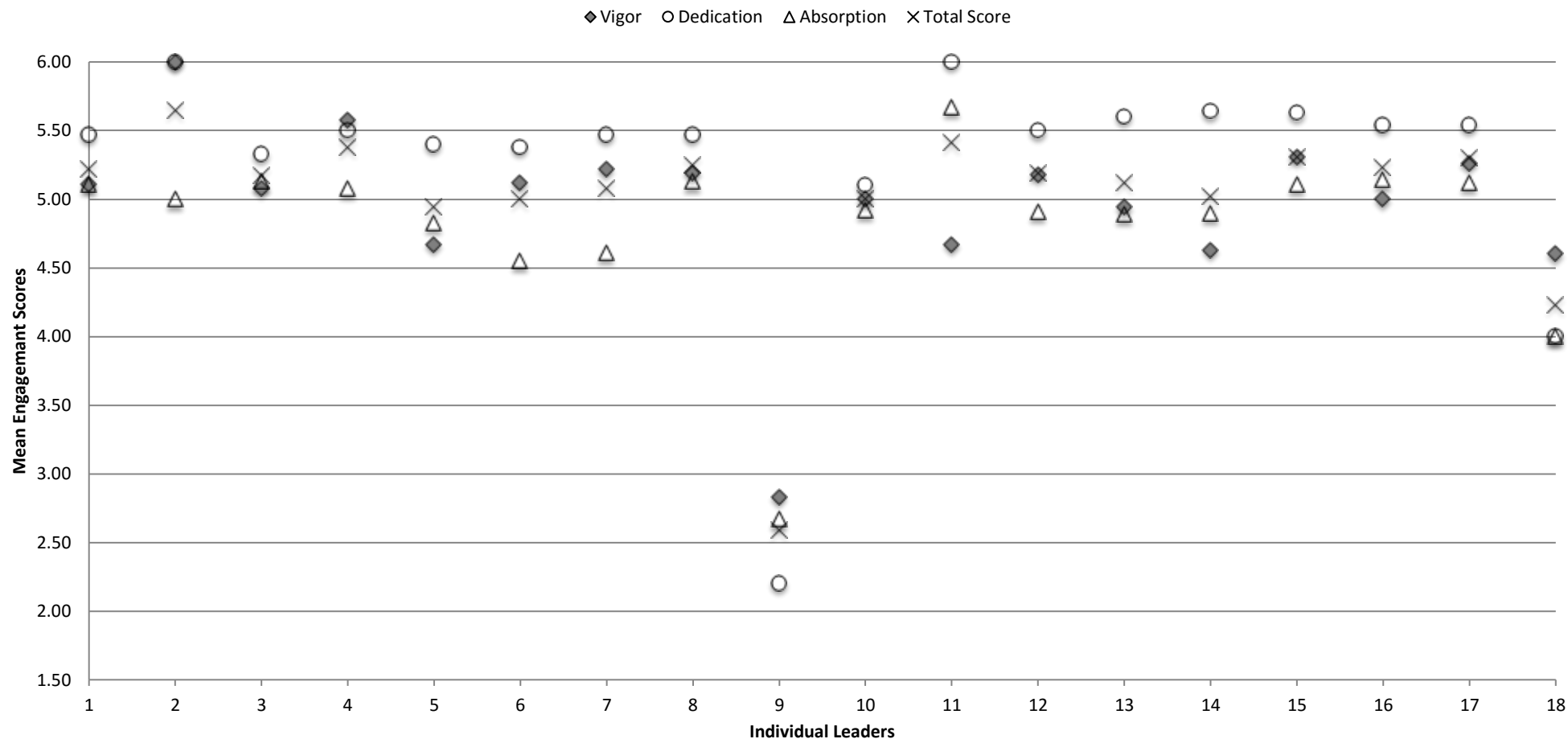


*Figure 4.12.* Mean follower engagement scores for eighteen college leaders are presented for the three dimensions of engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption; in addition to the total Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) scores, for the UWES-17 version. All UWES work engagement results range between scores of 0-6 where 0 = never, 1 = almost never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often, and 6 = always. Note: the Y-axis does not begin at zero in order to show more detail in the higher scoring ranges, and because no scores under 2.20 were obtained.

**Follower Employee Engagement Data Disaggregated Leadership Engagement Data – UWES-9**
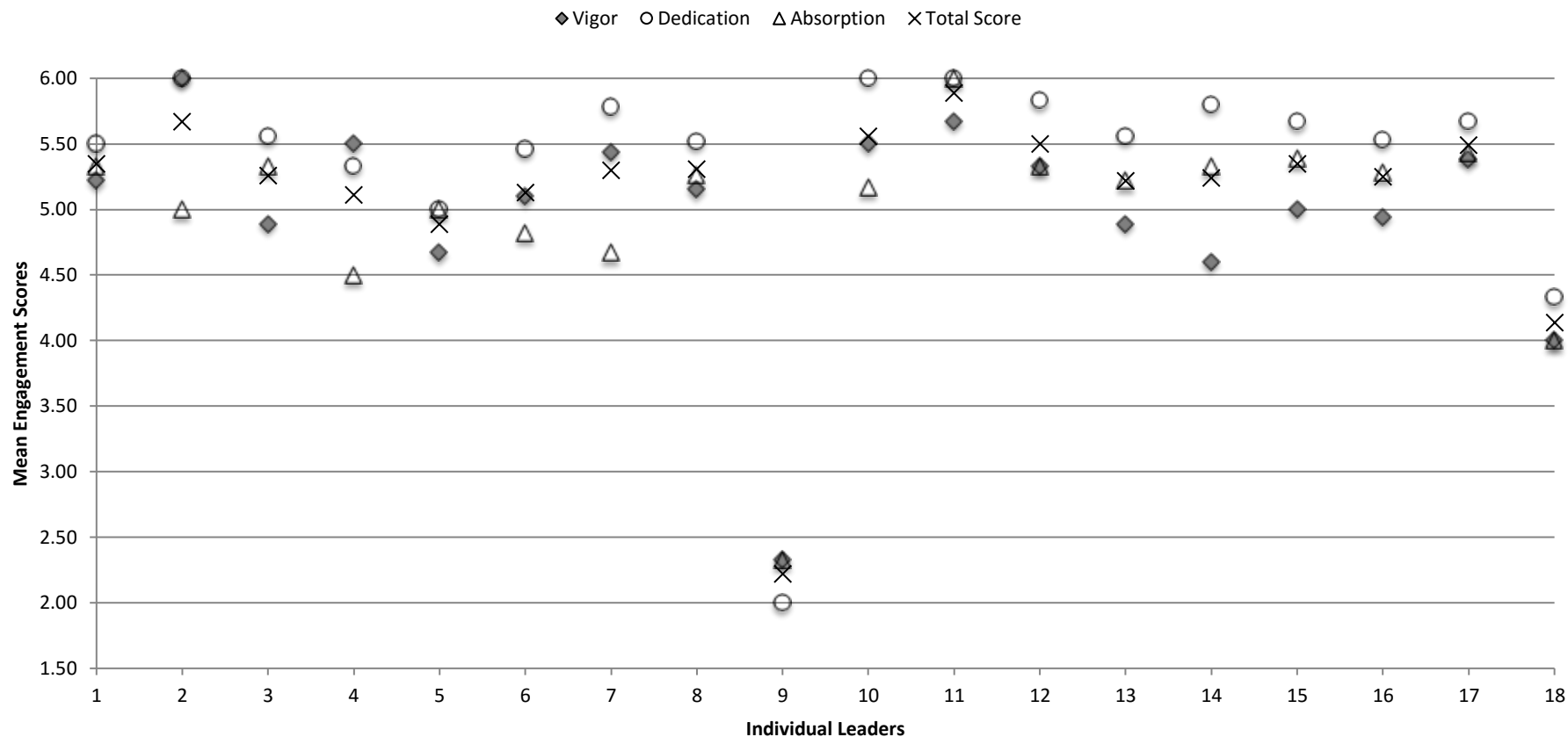


*Figure 4.13.* Mean follower engagement scores for eighteen college leaders are presented for the three dimensions of engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption; in addition to the total Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) scores, for the UWES-9 version. All UWES work engagement results range between scores of 0-6 where 0 = never, 1 = almost never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often, and 6 = always. Note: the Y-axis does not begin at zero in order to show more detail in the higher scoring ranges, and because no scores under 2.00 were obtained.

## MLQ and UWES Correlation Analysis Results

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used to measure follower perceptions of leadership and follower work engagement was measured by both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 versions (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).  To examine the relationship between leadership and engagement, a correlation analysis was performed with all MLQ factors and all UWES dimensions. Table 4.15 shows descriptive and correlation statistics for all variables and individual level of analysis.

For this analysis, the following sub-questions were asked:
- *Sub-question 4: How is transformational leadership in my organization related to follower work engagement?*
- *Sub-question 5: How do other leadership styles and outcomes measured by the MLQ relate to follower work engagement?*

**Hypothesis 1**
For sub-question 4:
- $H_0$: There is no correlation between transformational leadership and follower work engagement, as measured by the MLQ and UWES respectively, at my organization (rejection at a significance level of $p \leq .05$).
- $H_1$: There is a correlation between transformational leadership and follower work engagement, as measured by the MLQ and UWES respectively, at my organization.

Results show there is a modest positive correlation between dedication-17 (DE-17) and idealized influence attributes (IIA) ($r = .49$, $p \leq .05$). No other correlations between transformational leadership factors and employee engagement resulted (Table 4.15). Though the null hypothesis can be rejected, one must recognize only one, modest, positive correlation resulted. Further, a similar result was not obtained between DE-9 and II(A).

**Hypothesis 2**
For sub-question 5:

- $H_0$: There is no correlation between leadership style (or outcome) and follower work engagement, as measured by the MLQ and UWES respectively (rejection at a significance level of $p \leq .05$).

- $H_1$: There is a correlation between leadership style (or outcome) and follower work engagement, as measured by the MLQ and UWES respectively.

Results show there is a modest positive correlation between contingent reward (CR) and both dedication-9 (DE-9) and the total UWES-9 ($r = .55$ and .54, $p \leq .05$). Leadership outcome extra effort (EE) modestly positively correlated with DE-9 ($r = .54$, $p \leq .05$). Laissez-faire (LF) leadership had a modest negative correlation with dedication-17 (DE-17) ($r = -.49$, $p \leq .05$). Once again the null hypothesis can be rejected while also recognizing only a few modest correlations resulted (Table 4.15).

## Table 4.15

*Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Between the MLQ, UWES-17, and UWES-9 (N= 83)*

| | M | SD | II(A) | II(B) | IM | IS | IC | Five I's | CR | MBEA | MBEP | LF | EE | EFF | SAT | UWES-17 | VI-17 | DE-17 | AB-17 | UWES-9 | VI-9 | DE-9 | AB-9 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| II(A) | 2.55 | 1.19 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| II(B) | 2.56 | 1.12 | .90**** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| IM | 2.68 | 1.13 | .87**** | .90**** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| IS | 2.37 | 1.14 | .88**** | .89**** | .87**** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| IC | 2.08 | 1.36 | .91**** | .90**** | .89**** | .86**** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Five I's | 2.45 | 1.21 | .93**** | .97**** | .91**** | .94**** | .93**** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| CR | 2.44 | 1.15 | .83**** | .79**** | .87**** | .87**** | .77*** | .84**** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| MBEA | 2.16 | 1.18 | .40 | .65** | .56* | .56* | .43 | .62** | .37 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| MBEP | 1.27 | 1.34 | -.54* | -.32 | -.41 | -.25 | -.30 | -.35 | -.48* | .13 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| LF | 1.01 | 1.15 | -.63** | -.45 | -.48* | -.32 | -.41 | -.45 | -.55* | -.03 | .90**** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| EE | 2.33 | 1.27 | .81**** | .77*** | .88**** | .78*** | .74*** | .80**** | .95**** | .31 | -.64** | -.67** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| EFF | 2.45 | 1.20 | .91**** | .95**** | .89**** | .91**** | .93**** | .96**** | .83**** | .50* | -.34 | -.40 | .79**** | | | | | | | | | | |
| SAT | 2.51 | 1.12 | .87**** | .91**** | .89**** | .95**** | .89**** | .95**** | .84**** | .56* | -.24 | -.30 | .78*** | .94**** | | | | | | | | | |
| UWES-17 | 5.14 | 1.18 | .35 | .25 | .28 | .10 | .22 | .19 | .30 | .02 | -.36 | -.36 | .27 | .20 | .15 | | | | | | | | |
| VI-17 | 5.09 | 1.09 | .16 | .12 | .14 | .00 | .04 | .06 | .17 | -.08 | -.47 | -.32 | .22 | .07 | .05 | .69** | | | | | | | |
| DE-17 | 5.43 | .98 | .49* | .43 | .45 | .19 | .41 | .34 | .36 | .01 | -.44 | -.49* | .39 | .43 | .29 | .75*** | .35 | | | | | | |
| AB-17 | 4.94 | 1.36 | .32 | .20 | .25 | .15 | .19 | .25 | .30 | .07 | -.25 | -.20 | .27 | .20 | .18 | .78*** | .34 | .48* | | | | | |
| UWES-9 | 5.25 | 1.02 | .35 | .33 | .37 | .33 | .17 | .29 | .54* | .11 | -.27 | -.20 | .47 | .37 | .37 | .64** | .45 | .51* | .60** | | | | |
| VI-9 | 5.07 | 1.05 | .25 | .32 | .24 | .26 | .17 | .24 | .41 | .11 | -.13 | -.15 | .30 | .26 | .29 | .68** | .67** | .40 | .43 | .76*** | | | |
| DE-9 | 5.53 | .77 | .35 | .42 | .43 | .30 | .26 | .34 | .55* | .08 | -.27 | -.26 | .54* | .46 | .40 | .46 | .29 | .60** | .38 | .86**** | .62** | | |
| AB-9 | 5.15 | 1.16 | .46 | .32 | .31 | .25 | .21 | .36 | .36 | .15 | -.44 | -.39 | .37 | .38 | .29 | .53* | .14 | .58* | .73*** | .66** | .21 | .55* | -- |

Note: M = mean; SD = standard deviation; II(A) = idealized influence attributes; II(B) = idealized influence behaviors; IM = inspirational motivation; IS = intellectual stimulation; IC = individualized consideration; CR= contingent reward; MBEA = management-by-exception active; MBEP = management-by-exception passive; LF = laissez-faire; EE = extra effort; EFF = effectiveness; SAT = satisfaction with leadership; UWES = Utrecht Work Engagement Scale; VI = vigor; DE = dedication; AB = absorption; 17 = 17 item scale; 9 = 9 item scale. Correlation significant at the .05 level (two-tailed).

*p≤.05
**p≤.01
***p≤.001
****p≤.0001

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**Additional Correlation Analysis Results**

All five factors of transformational leadership and the total Five I's score were highly positively intercorrelated (r ranging from .86 to .94, p≤.0001). Contingent reward (CR) was also highly positively intercorrelated with all five factors of transformational leadership as well as the overall Five I's score (r ranging from .77 to .87, p ranging from ≤.001 to ≤.0001). The highly positive intercorrelations between these factors indicate practical differentiation may be difficult and the strong correlation with CR makes differentiating transformational leadership from CR difficult. Management-by-exception active (MBEA) was moderately positively correlated with idealized influence behaviors (IIB) and the total Five I's score (r ranging from .62 to .65, p≤.01); and modestly positively correlated with inspirational motivation (IM) and intellectual stimulation (IS) (r =.56, p≤.05).

Laissez-faire (LF) and management-by-exception passive (MBEP), both passive-avoidant leadership styles, highly positively correlated (r = .90, p≤.0001). Both LF and MBEP were moderately negatively correlated with extra effort (EE) (r ranging from -.64 to -.67, p≤.01). All factors of transformational leadership and contingent reward (CR) highly positively correlated with the leadership outcomes of extra effort (EE), effectiveness (EFF), and satisfaction with leadership (SAT) (r ranging from .74 to .95, p≤.0001). Management-by-exception active (MBEA) modestly positively correlated with EFF and SAT (r ranging from .50 to .56, p≤.05). In other words, all factors of transformational leadership and transactional leadership positively correlate to the leadership outcomes of EE, EFF, and SAT with the exception of no correlation between MBEA and EE. Additionally, all three leadership outcomes highly positively intercorrelate (r ranging from .78 to .94, p ranging from ≤.001 to ≤.0001).

All three measures of engagement for the UWES-17 moderately to highly positively correlate with the overall UWES-17 score (r ranging from .69 to .78, p ranging from ≤.01 to ≤.001). VI-17 does not intercorrelate with DE-17 or AB-17; however, DE-17 and AB-17 do modestly positively intercorrelate (r =.48,

p≤.05). Likewise, all three engagement measures of the UWES-9 moderately to highly positively correlate with the overall UWES-9 score (r ranging from .66 to .86, p ranging from ≤.01 to ≤.0001). DE-9 has a moderate positive intercorrelation with VI-9 (r =.62, p≤.01) and a modest positive intercorrelation with AB-9 (r =.55, p≤.05). VI-9 does not intercorrelate with AB-9. As expected, UWES-17 and UWES-9 total scores moderately positively correlate (r =.64, p≤.01), VI-17 and VI-9 moderately positively correlate (r =.67, p≤.01), DE-17 and DE-9 moderately positively correlate (r=.60, p≤.01), and AB-17 and AB-9 highly positively correlate (r =.73, p≤.001).

Correlation findings are graphically represented in Figures 4.14, 4.15, and 4.16. Figure 4.14 shows the pattern between the MLQ full range model leadership styles and three leadership outcomes (EE, EFF, and SAT). As expected, passive avoidant leadership styles (LF and MBEP) have a negative correlation to the outcomes of leadership. Intellectual stimulation (IS) and idealized influence behaviors (IIB) were more positively correlated for SAT and EFF respectively. Overall results are similar to those published in a meta-analytic review by Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996). Yukl (1999) notes there is abundant evidence positively relating transformational leadership to leadership effectiveness indicators such as follower satisfaction, performance, and motivation; and that CR positively correlates with these criteria, albeit with weaker, less consistent results. Of interest, and in contrast to published results, transactional contingent reward (CR) is more strongly, positively correlated with extra effort (EE) than are any of the transformational factors in my organizational context. This might partly be due to the fact that this was the only ideal leadership style within which college leaders were perceived to meet the benchmark (Figures 4.3, 4.5, and Table 4.2). Further possible reasons why this result was obtained are further explored in the qualitative phase.

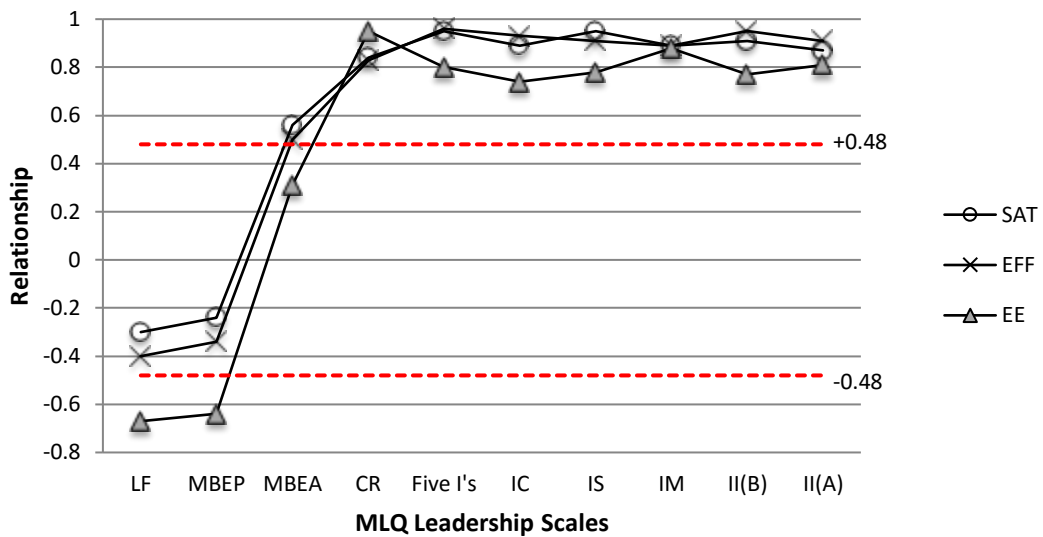**Correlations of Leadership Styles to Leadership Outcomes**



*Figure 4.14.* Correlations between MLQ scales and the leadership outcomes Extra Effort (EE), Effectiveness (EFF), and Satisfaction with Leadership (SAT) are represented. The dashed lines emphasize that those points above +0.48 and those below -0.48 respectively are statistically significant at the 5% level.

Figure 4.15 graphically represents the correlations between leadership styles and follower engagement as measured by the UWES-17 and its three sub-measures. As previously indicated, the only modest significant correlations were a positive correlation between II(A) and DE-17 and a negative correlation between LF and DE-17 (Table 4.15). The results imply that low levels of dedication (DE) are related to laissez-faire (LF) leadership and higher levels of dedication (DE) are related to leaders exhibiting idealized influence by having trust and respect of their followers. Though an overall pattern exists as expected for higher engagement relative to transactional and transformational leadership styles over the passive-avoidant styles (LF and MBEA), results are not significant, nor are they consistent between transactional CR and transformational leadership styles.

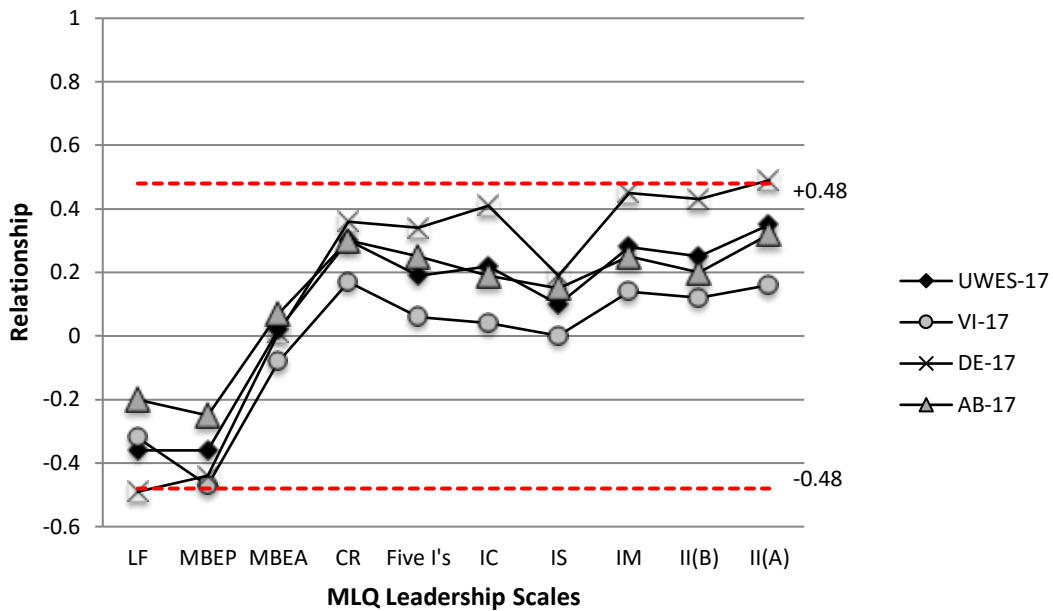**Correlations of Leadership Styles to Employee Engagement (UWES-17)**



*Figure 4.15*. Correlations between MLQ scales and the UWES-17 engagement measures of vigor (VI), dedication (DE), and absorption (AB) are represented. The dashed lines emphasize that those points above +0.48 and those below -0.48 respectively are statistically significant at the 5% level.

Figure 4.16 graphically represents the correlations between leadership styles and follower engagement as measured by the UWES-9 and its three sub-measures. As previously noted, the only modest significant positive correlations were between CR and both the total UWES-9 and DE-9 scores (Table 4.15). When using the UWES-9, evidence suggests that transactional contingent reward (CR) leadership style is more related to follower engagement and dedication. Again an overall pattern exists as expected for higher positive engagement relative to transactional and transformational leadership styles over the passive-avoidant styles (LF and MBEA), but again with the exception of CR, those results were not significant.

**Correlations of Leadership Styles to Employee Engagement (UWES-9)**
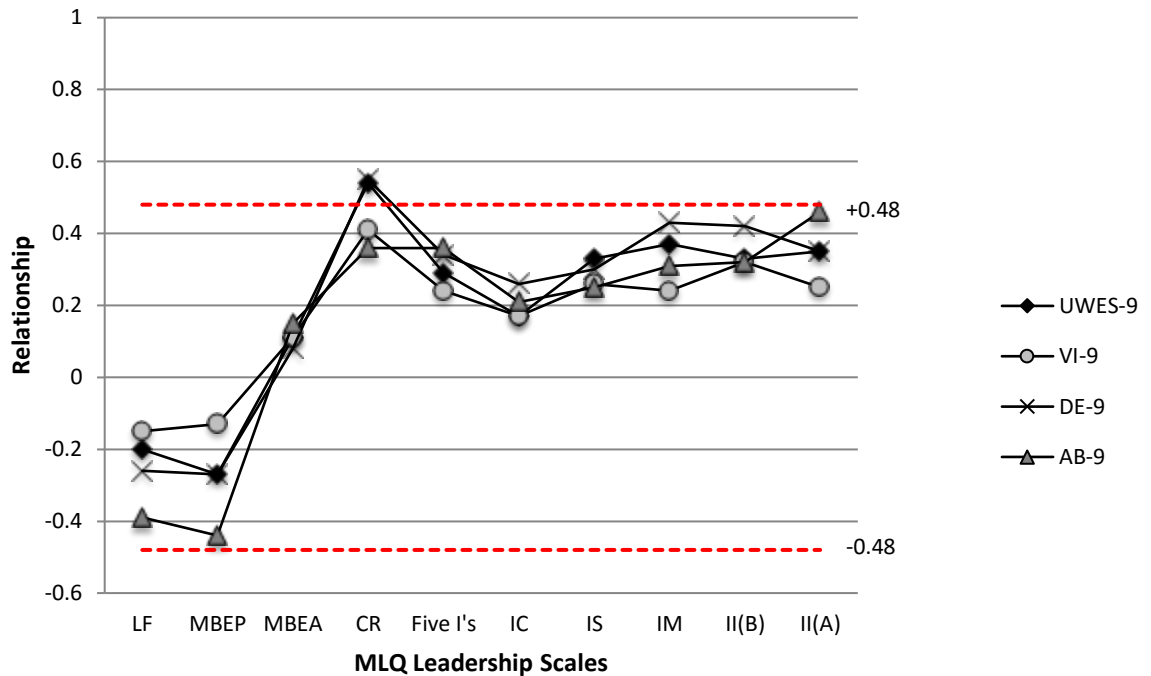


*Figure 4.16.* Correlations between MLQ scales and the UWES-9 engagement measures of vigor (VI), dedication (DE), and absorption (AB) are represented. The dashed lines emphasize that those points above +0.48 and those below -0.48 respectively are statistically significant at the 5% level.

## Summary

In this chapter I have examined the central research questions through the following sub-questions:

- *Sub-question 1: How do followers perceive leadership styles in my organization?*

- *Sub-question 2: How do leaders at my institution, as perceived by followers, compare to MLQ benchmarks and norms?*

- *Sub-question 3: How frequently do employees (followers) in my organization feel engaged and how does this compare to Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) norms?*

- *Sub-question 4: How is transformational leadership in my organization related to follower work engagement?*

- *Sub-question 5: How do other leadership styles and outcomes measured by the MLQ relate to follower work engagement?*

Aggregated results for follower perceptions show that 60-80% of the norm population scored higher than the college for all five transformational leadership factors. The college also fell below desired benchmark scores for transformational leadership, indicating underutilization of these styles. College leaders scored below the norm for transactional contingent reward but fell within the desired benchmark range for this leadership style. In other words, college leaders were perceived to utilize contingent reward with desired frequency. The college scored higher than the norm and exceeded the benchmark score for transactional management-by-exception active indicating this style is utilized by college leaders more frequently than desired and more so than 50% of the norm population. Passive-avoidant leadership styles were also over-utilized by college leaders and comparatively, only 20-30% of the norm population over-utilizes these styles. The college fell below benchmarks for all three outcomes of leadership factors and 70-80% of the norm population scored higher.

For the 18 individual college leaders examined, two fell within the ideal benchmark range and exceeded norm scores for all five I's of transformational leadership. Two additional leaders also met these same criteria for all factors except individualized consideration. Eight total leaders exhibited one or more of the five I's within the benchmark range. When a total Five I's score was used, five (27.8%) of the leaders exceeded the benchmark and six (33.3%) leaders surpass the norm. As perceived by followers, less than 44.4% of the college leaders studied exhibit transformational leadership factors with desired frequency.

Examining individual college leaders as perceived by their followers for transactional leadership factors, 11 (61.1%) of the leaders fell within the ideal benchmark range for using contingent reward and four (22.2%) were perceived to over-utilize this style.  Seven (38.9%) of college leaders were

using MBEA with desired frequency and 11 (61.1%) were overusing this style. Four leaders (22.2%) exhibited the desired balance between contingent reward and management-by-exception active. Only leader 5 exhibited the desired balance between transformational leadership and contingent reward; however, leader 5 was also perceived as overusing management-by-exception active and both forms of passive avoidant leadership styles. In other words, no single college leader met the desired benchmark for all MLQ (full range leadership model) factors. Additionally, for passive-avoidant leadership styles, 12 (66.7%) leaders were perceived as overusing the management-by-exception active style and nine (50%) were overusing the laissez-faire style.

For outcomes of leadership, only one leader met the benchmark for extra effort, two leaders met the benchmark for effectiveness, and three leaders met the benchmark for satisfaction with leadership. However, between three to six leaders (16.7-33.3%) exceeded the norm scores for these outcomes.

Engagement results showed that for all dimensions of both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 scales used, college employees felt significantly (p≤.0001) more frequently engaged compared to those employees in both the Dutch and *other languages* databases. Overall college employee engagement results did not differ significantly for the college when using either the UWES-17 or UWES-9 version. However, the mean college score for dedication-17 was significantly higher than the mean score for both vigor-17 and absorption-17. Additionally, vigor-17 was significantly greater than absorption-17. The mean college score for dedication-9 was also significantly higher than the mean score for vigor-9, absorption-9, and the UWES-9 total score.

Overall college aggregated employee work engagement scores were "high" for all dimensions on both the UWES-17 and UWES-9. When disaggregated, individual leader data were examined for both UWES scales and overall, one leader's followers had low engagement, one had average engagement, and the other sixteen leaders had followers who felt "high" to "very high" engagement. When the three dimensions were examined for both scales, this

trend held except for vigor where followers of 3-4 leaders felt only "average" vigor and the other 13-14 leader's followers felt "high" to "very high" vigor (only one leader had "low" vigor).

Hypothesis one, for a correlation between transformational leadership and follower work engagement as measured by the MLQ and UWES was accepted, insofar as only one modest positive correlation existed between idealized influence attributes and dedication-17. Hypothesis two, for a correlation between leadership style (or outcome) and follower work engagement as measured by the MLQ and UWES was accepted. In addition to the above correlation, a modest positive correlation between contingent reward and both dedication-9 and total UWES-9 was obtained. Additionally, a modest negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership and dedication-17 resulted. The absence of leadership is related to less dedication and a contingent reward (transactional) leadership style is related to higher dedication and engagement.

Because engagement scores were significantly high with most followers exhibiting "high" to "very high" levels of engagement, this modest result is not surprising. Regardless of the perception of leadership style, most employees reported being highly engaged. Therefore, the likelihood of obtaining a highly significant correlation between transformational or other leadership styles and employee engagement was unlikely. Either the UWES engagement scale is not the most ideal for this culture and context, or college employees truly are this highly engaged despite leadership style and outcomes of leadership. Clarification on this point is explored through the qualitative phase.

So, does transformational leadership in my organization enhance employee engagement? There is only modest evidence thus far to support this relationship. And transactional leadership, specifically contingent reward, more highly, albeit still modestly, correlates to employee engagement. Results from this context show that the factors of transformational leadership intercorrelate with each other, as well as transactional and laissez-faire

factors implying they may not be exclusive to the transformational leadership model.

Where a relationship is exhibited clearly is between the MLQ leadership scales (full range leadership model) and the outcomes of leadership. Transactional and transformational leadership positively correlate with the outcomes, and passive-avoidant leadership negatively correlates with these outcomes for the college. We are thus beginning to see how leadership might enhance employee engagement for the college, but this required further exploration in the qualitative phase.

With leadership profiles begun, I also explore to what extent and in what ways background, training, development, and experience of college leaders contribute to their leadership and the ability to enhance employee engagement in the qualitative phase.

# Chapter 5. Phase II: Qualitative Results

## Introduction

The three central research questions are now analyzed through a social constructivist lens by use of grounded theory methods.

### Central Research Questions

1. Does perceived transformational leadership in my organization enhance employee engagement?
2. How does perceived leadership enhance employee engagement in my organizational context?
3. To what extent and in what ways does background, training, development, and experience of organizational leaders contribute to leadership and the ability to enhance employee engagement?

Additionally, new questions that have arisen as a result of quantitative analyses are also explored. For example, why is employee engagement, and dedication in particular, so high for the college compared to other cultural contexts? And, why is transactional contingent reward leadership more positively correlated with the outcomes of leadership than are the anticipated transformational leadership factors?

The rationale for restricting specific respondent demographic data for publication was addressed in the qualitative methods. Generally, the eight interview respondents represent both sexes, a range of ages, four culturally different islands, and three different national origins. They are referred to here as respondents 1-8.

The frequency with which categories were coded throughout the eight participant interviews is provided in Figure 5.1. The frequency of a code was not the main driver for selecting final categories, though this played a role in consideration. Categories that were telling and insightful against the data

were the main drivers (Charmaz, 2014); for example, one category was coded only four times. More important was that once these categories were established, and all interviews recoded for these categories, little to no text remained uncoded, indicating salient categories (Boeije, 2010). The anticipated categories for leadership and engagement proved salient, but other surprising categories emerged. This chapter first provides results for the anticipated categories, follows with those that were unanticipated, and concludes with a summary.
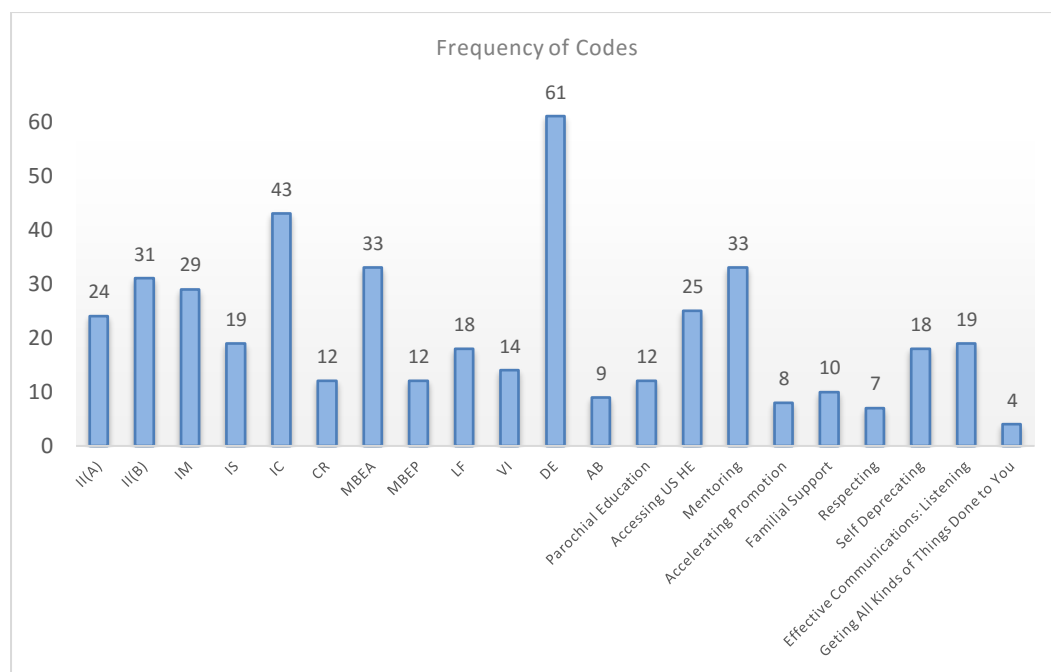


*Figure 5.1*. The frequency with which categories were coded throughout the eight participant interviews.

## Leadership Styles, Outcomes, and Follower Engagement: 12 Anticipated Categories Emerging from the Quantitative Phase

Focused coding revealed that the leadership styles from the full range leadership model and the follower engagement dimensions of vigor, dedication, and absorption were salient categories. These categories were defined and discussed in chapters 2 and 3.

## Leadership

### Transformational Leadership: Five I's

### 1. Idealized Influence – Attributes (IIA)

Respondents identify trust, respect, and considering the needs of others and the organization over oneself as important attributes of leaders thus aligning with "idealized influence attributes". The importance of respect is reiterated throughout this chapter, and we see it emerge as a core category. When respondents are discussing these attributes, they also reveal how follower engagement might be enhanced or diminished. There is obvious overlap between idealized influence attributes and behaviors and practically teasing these two apart is challenging.

> *…they're [ideal leaders] going to be trustworthy, and honest, and interested in your welfare (Respondent 4).*

> *… if you don't respect others then you won't be able to accomplish a lot that you want…if you don't have that [respect] there will be people who will not listen… (Respondent 6).*

> *There is a lot of personal interests or group of people and their interests that usually dominates the bigger picture…you have to deal with it correctly…as a leader you have to push it away like that and say, "no, this is the way" (Respondent 3).*

Respondents feel that unless one has earned trust and respect, followers will not be willing to offer support. Respondent 3 recognizes it is important to resist domination by personal interests, but that is not always easy in this cultural context and is navigated more readily through respectful approaches. In other words, fist-pounding, dismissive demands pointing the way will more likely leave that leader walking the path on their own. Though the Micronesian culture frowns on using positions of power for personal gain, there is an expectation that power is used to benefit others when possible (Hezel, 2013). Social and cultural capital are power resources that can be accumulated, invested, or converted (Swartz, 1997), and Bourdieu (1986) describes cultural capital as including cultural goods, whereas social capital includes networks and relationships. Micronesian culture is about building capital by investing in

individuals, and through assistive acts one generates a duty for reciprocity, a kind of Micronesian insurance (Hezel, 2013).

Respondent 4 also identifies an ideal leader as one who works beside you and considers your personal welfare. Avolio (2011) references this as, "someone who leads with you and ahead of you" (p. 60).

> …he [respected leader] would not expect someone to do anything that he would not do himself. He thought of the safety of his workers…He would take the tougher jobs, he wouldn't just assign them…He would not hesitate to get physically, well completely involved…He would step in whenever needed (Respondent 4).

Respondents recognize the importance of leaders not being arbitrary in decision-making. Respondents recognize they feel better about their leadership actions and decisions when they know they are applying policies, procedures, and practices uniformly and fairly, and do so for the best interests of the college. We see several examples throughout respondent narrative of leaders admitting actions that impact people directly are difficult to take, but consistency and fairness alleviates distress. Followers are likely to be more accepting of decisions when fairness is established and thus trust and respect earned.

> "…be fair to everybody. Whoever you're supervising, you treat everybody the same [quoting father's valued advice] …" (Respondent 2).

> …because I'm the kind of people that feel for others. But in leadership you must make decision, although it may be hard on some people, you have to make it for the good of the system (Respondent 8).

With a rapidly changing HE environment, leaders have to influence followers to be willing to take risks and that means sharing those risks with their followers. Trust is necessary for risk taking.

> …just made everyone feel really comfortable. And, we felt like taking the risks… (Respondent 2).

**2. Idealized Influence—Behaviors (IIB)**
Respondents discuss the importance of leading and working for others rather than personal gain. Leadership is about what one can give, not what one can take. And, the respondents note their level of engagement, especially dedication, is higher when they know that the work they are doing will positively impact others and the college. This ideal is aligned with cultural expectations.

> *I don't just think about me alone just doing work…There's a purpose for why I do things, and why I should not give up… you realize that in the long-term you're impacting so many people…The recipient is what inspires me (Respondent 6).*

> *… I spend a lot of time and I really want to come back and finish it [work] because I know, I have confidence this thing [policy], once it gets through, it's going to have a good impact on the college, or my office, or the staff… (Respondent 7).*

Leaders taking decisions that benefit the majority and the organization, not the individual, though fair, can lead to tensions because this does not align with cultural expectations for investing in social capital.

However, leaders are able to take these decisions more readily within the college as the college is held accountable to external accreditation standards of best practices. Accreditation through the US can be both a helpful tool and source of "blame" to mitigate community upset. A leader can state the college must do "this" because accreditation standards state we must. Without accreditation, the college's students are no longer able to utilize US Federal Financial Aid to pay for tuition, fees, and books. And, for those reasons, the general community has come to recognize the importance and need for the college to adhere to such standards. The college is gaining a reputation as the one place on the islands where all the usual cultural rules cannot apply with as much weight. This is not to say that these tensions do not exist, the college leaders are simply offered more latitude than political leaders, for example.

> *… we had to close down all of the open accounts that are open in all the businesses, because all these people were abusing it…I remember one time when one guy, he was one of those that does that [abused open accounts]… He came and said, "let's have lunch." So we went out for lunch and then he started, "who do you think you are?" You know he's from another island, he knows me very well, "you closed out all of these accounts," …because they were abusing it. "These are the things we do in order to help our people, to do the jobs we do." "But sir don't you think there's a better way to do it than having to just spend money on unnecessary beer and stuff like that and write it in for something else?" [respondent] …he went away unhappy because I said "No, I'm not going to change my mind…". But it's a different world…When I come here [the college] I see a lot of professionalism at the institution of higher learning more than in the political world or political arena (Respondent 3).*

### 3. Inspirational Motivation (IM)

Respondents identify the need for motivational, enthusiastic, and inspirational leadership that also offers meaningful, challenging work. Challenging, proud, fulfilling, and meaningful work is also associated with the engagement dimension of dedication, and we see respondents referring to their dedication here.

> *… that was a challenge but it was fun work…my supervisor said, "It's yours. So you do it. You present it. You get it passed if you want it passed. And you figure out how to make it work." And so that was fun (Respondent 2).*

> *…I like the job that I do…being with the people who continue to create new things makes me, you know, interested… I like more challenging things…I like to associate myself with that kind of work…For me I think pride more in what I do because he [a college leader] is able to move us in that direction where we are…the culture is now different than we used to have it before (Respondent 3).*

Additionally, respondents indicate a desire for leaders to provide inspiration and vision for the future of the organization. Motivation has occurred where a positive vision was put forth, and clearly Respondent 7 has been motivated and is engaged with dedication as a result. There is meaning and purpose provided by a clear, motivational vision.

> *…one thing that our president now displayed is the vision that he has when he came in… the White paper… that is something that sets the goals and says, "The ship is going this way and this is what we need to do." …that vision and that goal setting is good...a leader without a vision, you won't know where it's gonna end up. Day-by-day stuff. Just deal with the problems when they come in (Respondent 7).*

The importance of team spirit and unity, which is another factor exhibited by the inspirationally motivational leader, is also discussed. Respondents exhibit pride in unity and working as a team, and this again evidences dedication to the college.

> *…I have the authority to make that decision. So, we already know that, that's out of the way. But, it would be to my benefit to take into account or consider other points of view…either validate my decision or compare to another point…we sometimes have to adjust how we think and how we feel, because we work in a team…we now understand that we need to work together…our campus wide meetings are starting to be big. I see a lot of internal departments working together (Respondent 5).*

## 4. Intellectual Stimulation (IS)

Followers indicate inspiration and stimulation by creative, innovative leaders who are able to reframe and examine challenges through a new lens. Inspirational and challenging work again are measures of dedication and thus engagement.

> *I am inspired by the leaders who are very creative…are innovative (Respondent 3).*

> *… a good leader…will stand ready to improvise, and to have different interpretations for different situations, so that you can devise a solution…to at least be mindful to look at things from different angles (Respondent 5).*

Here a respondent discusses leaders who do not utilize effective communications and through ineffective communications exhibit public criticism of followers. Those leaders who intellectually stimulate are to focus the team on challenges (the what), not the follower's (the who) mistakes (Avolio, 2011). We also see the clash between confrontational, openly angry

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approaches that are contrary to Micronesian cultural expectations (Hezel, 2013). To build positive relationships, leaders must be encouraging, patient, and understanding and this will generate mutuality and trust (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). The respondent is obviously not engaged when experiencing this confrontational, indifferent type of leadership. Both vigor and dedication are diminished in this example.

> *I've had those moments where I've been…not scolded but I feel like I'm not putting out all my 100% potentials to do what needs to be done, because I felt like I'm not meeting the supervisor's expectation… "Why didn't you meet the deadline? …I don't want to accept this problem." And, for us Micronesian's we are, most of us we tend to shy away if you're confronted, we're not good with confrontation… little things that they don't realize…little comments, or even a sigh, showing or doing those little things in front of the staff…you can see that they are not calm…Those things that I see, I feel that they [leaders] are weak (Respondent 1).*

The respondent then describes leadership that was intellectually stimulating and how removing the fear of making mistakes and being singled out for failures results in both engagement and satisfaction with leadership. Removing fear builds trust, and that trust earns the leader respect.

> *… I make mistakes but they help me to see through the mistakes and help me to see how I can improve…They're always positive…I'm not afraid of making mistakes because I know that they would be supportive… (Respondent 1).*

This example also evidences individualized consideration where a supportive environment for learning is created (Avolio, 2011).

**5. Individualized Consideration (IC)**
Mentorship and Coaching are attributes of transformational leaders who exhibit individualized consideration because the transformational leader focuses on generating leaders from among one's followers (Avolio, 2011). Mentorship and coaching are also highlighted in the unanticipated results. Further, we see the importance of leaders paying particular attention to individuals, considering them as more than merely employees, and understanding the necessary support for enhancing individual capacity.

*… you're not only focusing on the work itself, you have to know the people that work under you…(Respondent 1).*

*… the person is always positive and always encouraging through tough times. They always make you feel like it is okay…they will notice when things are tough and…tell you, "it's fine" (Respondent 6).*

Gardner and Cleavenger (1998) explored the positive aspects of *ingratiation*, such as being warm, charming, assistive, praising individual ideas, and inquiring about one's life outside the workplace. They found ingratiation was strongly, positively correlated with IC because these behaviors example concern and personal interest for followers. In Micronesian culture, a traditional society, leaders are expected to care for the needs of their followers, including both family and personal needs. That investment offers a return of loyalty, trust, and respect (Spreitzer et al., 2005).

Communications, and especially effective listening that results in individualized support and encouragement are also essential to leaders who exhibit individualized consideration (Avolio, 2011). Communications and effective listening are also highlighted in the unanticipated results. Within the interviews, IC had the highest number of coded references (43) of all the leadership styles (Figure 5.1). Given the importance of human relationships to Micronesian culture (discussed further under "Respecting"), this is not a surprising result.

*They [ideal leaders] were always good listeners…good supporters… able to…give advice when it was appropriate and at the right times (Respondent 2).*

*… tries to understand. Supporting us… Whereas instead of coming in and, "Man, you should really…I don't think you need that…I don't think you want…" When we ask for something they counter, "Are you sure you really need that" …Are you sure this is what you should do." Make you [pause]…yeah, listening and supporting. Listening and supporting (Respondent 7).*

Here a respondent reflects on a time he did not use individualized consideration getting the job completed on time and pleasing his boss was

more important than mentoring and creating a supportive environment. Though he notes he was effective in getting the job done, he had "some casualties" and satisfaction with his leadership was low.

> *…I was getting a lot of people upset because I was yelling at them…telling them they were not meeting the expectations…the project, we were on track… to my boss it was really good because, hey, "This guy is getting people to move and is getting the projects done." But to the folks that I was leading, most days they were a little bit upset… We are supposed to be considerate of our employees…I thought I was doing a really good job, I thought I was being a good leader because I was getting the job done…I also knew that I would have to have some casualties… but I didn't care, I was getting the job done (Respondent 5).*

This follower reflects on previous college leadership without IC where listening was not effective and was rather disingenuous. As a result, he was "turned off," or disengaged. One does not feel respected in such situations and likewise the leader is not respected in return, and the reputation of the office suffers with a ripple effect to the larger college.

> *…we had a meeting…on the early registration…a teleconference…And it broke my heart that when we talked about this… then he [the leader] said, "But… we've already decided." And, that kind of leadership turned me off, because, "If you've already decided then who am I? I'm just…a data to be included, that the campus 'participated' but you really didn't intend to listen to me." So, I would like a leader that listens and considers even the small one. Who knows, maybe that's the best decision coming from that one person. At least consider it. Listen… (Respondent 8).*

Two-way communications are necessary for effectiveness and follower interactions have to be personalized by the leader (Avolio, 2011). Leaders need to make followers feel ownership rather than as merely menial laborers (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Recognition of work is important and this example from Respondent 4 overlaps with contingent reward (CR).

> *When my staff reports, I try to read those reports and respond… Even if it's just a, "thank you." "That report was good". Something that says I have at least acknowledged what they're doing. I've been in situations where you sent stuff off and never hear anything about it, and I don't like that (Respondent 4).*

Failing to listen, support, encourage, and understand followers will result in followers who are not engaged. Work will not have meaning or purpose and dedication and engagement will be lost.

**Transactional Leadership**

**6. Contingent Reward (CR)**
Respondents identify with CR leadership style and the importance of establishing clear expectations, setting goals, and offering both rewards and recognition for achievement and good performance. Respondents indicate this recognition does not need to be anything elaborate or in the form of big rewards; rather, the simple, respectful "thank you" and "well done" statements are most often sufficient. That said, in order to feel genuinely respected, at some point employees also do expect rewards in the form of compensation, growth opportunities, and security and this is further discussed under dedication (Wiley & Lake, 2014).

> *… the guy said, "This is your objective, here is the money, you do whatever you want, just get me the results" … doesn't talk harsh, doesn't scold anybody, but he's firm…he's not a micromanager… just a good leader…we know what our priorities are… (Respondent 7).*

> *…recognize the work that I do… if they say, "Oh, I see you've done a lot of work on this. I still see some room for improvement, but I see that you have really done a lot of work on this, and I appreciate that". Even that is enough to make me feel recognized…to say, "Thank you," sometimes is very important…Just to be recognized in small ways (Respondent 2).*

When leaders recognize work, they are exhibiting respect for their team members. And, you can see how important this is to respondents and their feelings of engagement. They need validation that their work is meaningful and purposeful, and thus receiving leader respect in this way increased employee dedication and engagement. Followers reciprocate in their respect of their leaders and this then extends to respect for the college. Once again we see the importance of respect and reciprocity. Respondents note positive feedback is not always sufficient in frequency. Concern is expressed for frequency and quality of required, formal performance evaluations, as these

are opportunities to highlight strengths and positively encourage improvement goals.

> *… I like to hear from my supervisor telling me about what I am doing well… also to tell me what I need to do better…I want to balance there… be able to say these are the weaknesses and this is how I can help you to set goals, and the steps to achieve those goals… some they don't do a good job in evaluating their staff…to really sit down with a supervisee and say, "Okay, these are the things or areas that you are doing well, keep it up. These are the areas that you are doing very poorly and how can you improve on this? How can I help you to set goals and improve in these areas?" …some are not doing the best they can…they [staff] would say I have not been evaluated yet for a year, or two years (Respondent 1).*

In chapter 4 we saw CR modestly significantly positively correlated with the overall employee engagement score (UWES-9) and dedication (DE-9) dimension. Through respondent narrative we begin to understand why and we see a strong inter-connection to our core category of respect. Reflecting also on quantitative results we saw that CR was the only leadership style that was utilized with ideal benchmark frequencies for the eighteen college leaders as assessed by their followers. Despite falling within the benchmark scores, qualitative assessment shows that not all followers feel they are recognized frequently enough.

### 7. Management-by-exception active (MBEA)
Respondents indicate the need for leaders to actively ensure compliance and maintenance of acceptable performance levels. The full range leadership model benchmark (chapter 4) claims this leadership style should not be used excessively. College leaders were perceived to be utilizing this style only a little more frequently than is allegedly ideal. However, in a time of increased external compliance and accountability, and within a culture that has a tendency to be reactive rather than proactive, this style may be needed more frequently than the model suggests.

> *… there's a tendency where people slack off, so we need someone who needs to be on top of things… (Respondent 1).*

> *… when I came up here I was told to get things moving…the only way to get things moving was… the military way. We need to do this because this is what the college requires. We have this deadline so… (Respondent 5).*

There is also recognition that the college has to work more effectively than other island entities, like the government. The college is held accountable to external quality standards through accreditation and thus compliance is not optional. The institution is required to evidence continuous improvement of institutional effectiveness.

> *… [supervisor] continues to ask me to, you know, "Make them look at these things carefully, on a regular basis." He [supervisor] never stops…And I like that, you know? Imagine if we don't have somebody who does that. We would be…laid back again…And when we would lay back again, things are going to go backward, like the government does (Respondent 3).*

Respondents evidence frustration when this style is utilized excessively--micromanaging. Trust is not exhibited by the leader in these cases and thus the leader is not evidencing respect of the follower. Dedication and engagement is diminished when one micromanages. The follower feels such interventions are not meaningful to the work that needs accomplished and actually prevents the follower from feeling productive.

> *…basically micromanaged to the point where, you know…I said, "You've got to rely on us to do certain things, because otherwise you're just pressuring me, and you're taking away my attention to attend to my guys, and to get the job done" (Respondent 7).*

For those micromanaging, trusting others to get the job done, and well done may be a challenge. Rather than merely questioning work as did the micromanager in the previous example, this respondent actually does his followers' work due to lack of trust.

> *… I tend to be impatient and so I go out and try to do everything…when I start doing that, others look at me and, "Don't micromanage," and then I start to realize… when I start doing that, then people relapse and say, "Okay," and next time I have to do it again. And then, I cannot do everything because I have all of these*

*responsibilities. So, yes, also accept responsibilities with others. But, you know, often I mistrust others … So, unless I trust the person… (Respondent 8).*

Followers may be all too glad to allow the micromanaging leader to do their work for them. And, they are unlikely to do future work as assigned, assuming the leader will do it anyway. Blau's (1964) social exchange theory helps to explain the importance of reciprocal trust and loyalty (Blau, 2008; Knottnerus & Guan, 1997). Leaders can delegate increasing responsibilities to followers they trust, and in return this can build follower trust, loyalty, and commitment (Blau, 2008; Lo, Ramayah, & De Run, 2010). There is no meaning or pride to work assigned and then completed by the leader, in the end. Such action shows lacking trust, and thus lacking respect. Whether the lacking trust is justified through consistently poor performance and failure on behalf of the follower, without respect both dedication and engagement will diminish. The leader has to be more corrective to affect improvements in the followers, rather than doing the work himself.

As noted by the respondent, impatience can play a role. It takes time to train leaders and work with staff to improve performance. A great deal of time. If this highly effective transactional leader is removed from the setting, there is no one left behind who can fill his role as a leader. Then, that office, department, or campus is at risk. As the respondent also noted, he has many responsibilities. Leaders might find themselves more engaged in micromanagement than desirable because they have been overwhelmed with more work and responsibilities than effectiveness will allow. The path of least effort is to just do the work himself and get on to the many other tasks at hand. And this may also be the result of accelerated promotion. Further, campuses often find themselves short of several low and mid-level management positions. It is not unusual to see individuals serving in three positions simultaneously until jobs are approved for advertising, the advertisement phase is conducted, a search is completed, and people finally hired. All too frequently, one human may do the work of two-three positions for months. No time for strategic management is available in such cases.

**Passive-Avoidant Leadership: "Paddling Forward, But Not Together"**

**8. Management-by-exception passive (MBEP)**
MBEP leaders wait for problems to arise and then they take corrective action (Avolio, 2011). The college also over-utilized this leadership style in comparison to the benchmark ideal frequency, however by only a small margin. Respondents indicate that they tend to be passive and avoid confronting problems when personal relationships are at risk. The importance of personal relationships, respect, and reciprocity on these small islands is reiterated throughout this chapter, and here we see the tension that creates for a respondent.

> *… at some point people say, "You should be firing those guys." But I'm not really good at dealing with the problems that some of my employees have. That goes all the way to the extreme where everybody's saying, "Man, what the hell are you doing?" And it comes to a point where it's too obvious then, "Okay, you're right." …you know, making decisions for, adverse decisions against employees is my weakness…I've taken some supervisory trainings and coaching, but I still think I have difficulty in that area… And, in some instances it gets to the point where they're [other followers] beginning to do the same things that those guys are doing, and that's when I know that I have to take action…It [taking action] makes me feel better because I know I have addressed the issue. … It is like a load that I have been holding onto, stressing me out because I have to talk to this guy…The human part of me sometimes takes me to the extreme to wait, and wait, and wait, until I think that it's the appropriate time… (Respondent 7).*

Despite many years of experience and training, taking adverse actions and dialoguing with staff about performance issues and deviations can be very stressful for leaders. In this small island context, the stress is greater when worried about community perceptions. Not much was directly revealed by respondents on how this leadership style might affect engagement or how respondents feel about other leaders who might rely too heavily on this leadership style. What we can see from this respondent's paraphrasing of his followers is a lacking sense of fairness. The followers have to point out to the leader it is past time to take action. And, though followers may empathize such adverse action is difficult to take, they are not likely to be pleased that other employees are able to deviate from expectations without immediate

consequences. A lacking sense of fairness can lead to diminished respect and thus diminished engagement.

## 9. Laissez-faire (LF)

The college scored only very slightly above the ideal frequency benchmark for LF leadership. For the most part, the college leaders were perceived to utilize LF leadership "never" to only "once in a while". Respondents share examples where leadership was absent. Decisions and actions were avoided by leaders.

> *… he [previous leader] didn't have too much timelines…It bothered me because we would be doing things later, two weeks later…campuses would complain about us not meeting the deadlines…initially I was bringing it up really kindly. It got to the point where, "Dude, man, it's embarrassing. Our office is a mess…But I didn't have the authority to just to move things… (Respondent 5).*

> *… timely decisions are very important…I think those are things we did not have before…otherwise, you know, a lot of times things just stay and nothing happens. And everybody kinda floats away, and nobody's leading the ship anymore… the leadership was not decisive. That was the biggest issue that I thought—there wasn't anybody there and everybody, each office, is making their own priority and decision…paddling…forward, but not together… (Respondent 7).*

And in some cases, by not being involved in a decision, this allowed the leaders an opportunity to place blame on the follower(s). The followers assume the risks of taking decisions in the absence of a leader who will.

> *… they're basically just letting me decide on their behalf most of the time…you question whether, "Are they helping me out…or just passing the responsibility to me to make that decision?" In fact, there's times when it happened, when a decision was questioned they looked up and said, "That's the one [pointing a finger]. You're the one," and that's the scary part...in critical times I think it's important that … when critical decisions are made, that they know exactly, and they are supporting it. Standing by the decisions (Respondent 7).*

Despite some examples of past LF leadership in the college, respondents evidence a shifting organizational culture where there is a movement away from LF leadership.

> *…I was explaining to the…consultant who…came here [the college] …he said, "Wow your facilities are so nice compared and contrasted with the government's." He just came from all the states. "That's because we [the college] have good leaders here and we established a different culture here than any other places" (Respondent 3).*

As this respondent indicated, there is now a "different culture" at the college and this is shared with a source of pride, reflecting engagement and dedication are enhanced when leaders are not LF.

## Follower Engagement

### 10. Vigor (VI)

Vigor was quantitatively assessed on the UWES with six question items that explored the respondents "high levels of energy and resilience, the willingness to invest effort, not being easily fatigued, and persistence in the face of difficulties" (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 5). The six question items can be found in Appendix 3. Interviews were coded for vigor and resulted in 14 references. Six out of eight respondents indicated they possess vigor; though they also indicated vigor might be reduced when facing certain work tasks that they find less enjoyable or challenging, when their support staff lack vigor, when there are difficulties with colleagues, and after a personal loss. Respondents also reflected honestly on the frequency of vigor, as most of us have days we do not energetically race out the door to work. No respondents indicated that they lacked vigor.

> *… there are days when I'm very enthusiastic…Depending on what the task is…responding to things that needs to be done right away, then I get up excited…I can't wait, you know, for coming to work. The things that I know…and I don't have a problem working with it…Things that makes me feel that I'm not really sure, and it's difficult, and it's stressing me, that's when you know…not as enthusiastic to come to work… (Respondent 7).*

Here we see the college being compared to other local work settings by a respondent. There is a clear appreciation for the dynamic, energetic environment the college offers. This respondent exhibits vigor, dedication, and thus engagement. Employees do not experience vigor and engagement in dull

work settings. This respondent respects the college for being a more vibrant workplace.

> *…when I come into work I feel energized and I feel happy coming here. Being able to visit other offices here in town and at national [government], it made me appreciate this office, because I've walked through some of the offices and it's very dull. And, the energy here is very, it's always moving you know, compared to other, the other workplaces (Respondent 6).*

## 11. Dedication (DE)

Dedication was quantitatively assessed on the UWES with five question items that asked respondents to determine the frequency with which they were, "deriving a sense of significance…feeling enthusiastic and…feeling inspired and challenged by" their work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, pp. 5-6). The five question items can be found in Appendix 3. Interviews were coded for dedication and 61 references resulted. This was the highest number of references for any given node (Figure 5.1). In previous responses, as with Respondent 6 under vigor, reference is made to the college being a more ideal work setting compared to other places of employment on the islands. Respondents indicate a strong source of pride in their work and for working at the college.

> *…my experience within the college has been very enriching, and positive and I've grown… (Respondent 1).*

Helping students and colleagues enhances feelings of dedication, especially when that work is recognized. The effects of recognition in relation to respect and engagement have been discussed. The respondents also relate that by helping others, their work has tangible meaning and purpose, enhancing their engagement.

> *… I get motivated to see my advisees who were successful…It's a rewarding feeling, and I get motivated in helping students…I feel good about it. I feel proud about it… (Respondent 1).*

> *That's always motivating for me, to see the potential new students… Makes me want to come to work for that (Respondent 2).*

> *…what motivates me is when I solve a problem for others… not just motivate me, but also make me satisfied in doing it (Respondent 8).*

Work that is challenging is fun and meaningful and enhances dedication.

> *… that was a challenge but it was fun work (Respondent 2).*

> *I knew some of the challenges and thought that I could really help with some of those challenges…I think I've had an effect… (Respondent 4).*

As discussed previously, rather than living abroad and earning higher wages, Micronesian respondents articulated a desire to give back to their islands. There is pride in their choice to live and work in Micronesia. This again ties into feelings of helping others, which builds dedication and engagement.

> *… there are days when I feel that, "Oh man, I'm not getting good pay" … I try to think positive every day…I think about the reason why I am here—to give back to the community. To serve and to help… I'm trying to sacrifice at the moment now, even though I'm not getting as much money… (Respondent 6).*

Respondents indicated a few factors that can reduce their levels of dedication including salary and organizational climate. Long-term college employees have reached the top of the pay scale for the area under which they are classified. The pay scale has not been adjusted since 2010, and those adjustments were made at the lower end of the pay scale, such that starting salaries were made higher. However, there were no adjustments to compensate for the cost of living increase for those at the top of their pay grade. Employee benefit costs such as life insurance and health insurance have increased, such that long-term employees take home less pay each year. Coupled with inflation, long-term employees feel reduced levels of dedication. Long-term employees do not feel respected for their service. Organizations also need to create a climate where employees feel control in their lives (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Respondent 1 indicates some employees have effectively "quit but stayed". The only thing keeping these employees from leaving is that at least college pay is higher than what most other local employers might offer.

> *… hearing from some of the staff they're disengaged. Some because they have been working for so long, they had already hit the ceiling, you know salary… the cost of living is rising so that also…the motivation is getting less…They are coming to work because they have to. You know most people they live from paycheck to paycheck…But then they cannot look anywhere because in the state government and the national government—they don't get paid well enough like at the college (Respondent 1).*

> *…If I know that there's a lot of unhappiness floating around out there, it's kinda hard to come into work and have to think about facing that all day long… (Respondent 2).*

Respondent 5 is learning the art of essentialism, and saying "no," as espoused by McKeown (2014). Respondent 5 is also recognizing the importance of developing followers into leaders. The college will need to develop leaders so that it is not left crippled each time a highly effective transactional leader vacates a position. Transactional leaders are high performing, but they do not focus on developing their staff as leaders.

> *… I am very enthusiastic about my job. Some people say that…I'm enthusiastic about my job because I lead people, and I say, "No." I am maybe one of those who is looking for a position that doesn't require leadership…in my community…if they asked me to lead a group or lead a project I would say, "Okay, I will lead." But nowadays, when they asked me I say, "Why don't we give it to the next guy?" Not because I don't want to lead … I'm just saying that everybody has the capacity to take part…I've been in situations where I'm assigned to lead, and then all the sudden I am responsible for everything (Respondent 5).*

Overusing your leadership talent can inhibit dedication. We all like to be recognized for our work, and earning opportunities based on that work can also feel wonderful. When one takes on too many responsibilities, at some threshold point one becomes overwhelmed and highly ineffective as a result. Micronesian college leaders are also going to be very active in their communities, adding even more leadership responsibilities in their after work hours. Learning to say, "no" or as McKeown (2014) cleverly titles a chapter of his text, "Escape: The perks of being unavailable," is an essential skill for talented leaders at this college and within Micronesia. If one exhibits leadership talent and willingness, they will find themselves repeatedly asked to lead many and multiple endeavors at both the college and within the

community. At some point employee work-life balance scales may tip and lead to an unhealthy state for the leader, including exhaustion and burn out, which may lead to disengagement.

### 12. Absorption (AB)

Absorption was quantitatively assessed on the UWES by six question items that asked respondents to indicate the frequency with which they were, "totally and happily immersed in" and "having difficulties detaching" from work "so that time passes quickly and one forgets everything else that is around" (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 6). The six question items can be found in Appendix 3. Interviews were coded for absorption and 9 references were obtained.

> *I don't look at the time. Time just flies. Honest, time just flies…Like the day is short (Respondent 8).*

Though employees might exhibit absorption, a wonderful aspect of Micronesian culture is the importance of family and is discussed further under the section on "familial support". Work does not ever supersede one's family. It is important to note that of the three dimensions of engagement, absorption was coded the least frequently.

To this point, I have further examined research questions one and two as to whether transformational leadership in my organization enhances employee engagement, and how perceived leadership enhances employee engagement in this Micronesian HE context. Results are summarized at the end of the chapter. In the next section, we examine to what extent and in what ways background, training, development, and experience of organizational leaders might contribute to leadership and ability to enhance employee engagement in my organization.

## Background, Training, Development, and Experiences of Organizational Leaders: Nine Unanticipated Categories for Leadership and Enhanced Employee Engagement

### 1. Influences of Parochial, Religious Education

On their educational pathways, five of the eight respondents attended independent (private) parochial (religious) elementary schools and/or high schools. These parochial schools offered the advantages of instruction in English by properly credentialed teachers as compared to state funded (public) schools whose teachers might have had less than two years of formal college education. A two-year associate degree in any major is supposed to be the minimum degree qualification for teaching certification, though this has not been strictly enforced in the past, due to a shortage of qualified teachers. However, one cannot claim a shortage of qualified teachers as the only reason for not enforcing degree and certification requirements. One respondent discussed, despite having a bachelor's degree, how she was unable to obtain employment as a teacher in a state-funded school but instead was able to obtain employment at the college.

> *It [working at the college] was kind of like, maybe an only choice… because I had applied to different agencies in Chuuk…I'd sent things to public health and even to the high schools saying that I'd be willing to be a high school teacher. And, nobody seemed interested in hiring me (Respondent 2).*

With rising, sufficient numbers of qualified teachers graduating from the college, unqualified teachers or poorly performing teachers were not replaced due to community, cultural pressure for retention. One might be curious as to why social pressure would not instead force improvements for educational quality.

> *We care more about the income, the money…because in the past the educators took pride in the achievement of the students. Now, I don't know why that is missing…it's maybe what they call taking ownership of the school, of their students, of their community. In the past they were really like that. They were proud of their students…Now, it seems like we lost that (Respondent 8).*

One must use caution when taking actions against others in these small island communities as personal relationships are paramount. Those responsible for action personally know the unqualified teachers and their respective families. Everyone in the community will know who took the decision to terminate a teacher's employment; there is no anonymity in such

action. That loss of salary would impact an entire family. If the teacher is an elder, from a prominent family, or someone with a cultural title or status, the risks for social consequences are greater (Hezel, 2013). Because these individuals are unqualified yet employed, the probability is high that they have, or are related to someone who has, status within the community. As discussed, Micronesian culture doesn't promote the use of positions of power for personal gain, but there is an expectation that power is used to benefit and assist others where possible, to build social capital and a duty for reciprocity (Hezel, 2013).

State educational leaders must go home to their small community each day. Rather than risking negative social consequences, leaders will prefer to overlook the teaching requirement shortfall and instead allow unqualified teachers to continue in their positions (Hezel, 2013). Traditional values emphasize preservation of harmonious relationships over task accomplishment (Spreitzer, Perttula, & Xin, 2005). The community is more likely to be upset that someone has been terminated than they are that an unqualified teacher is working at the state school. For example, in 2013, one island state, Chuuk, had merely 44% of its public school teachers certified with an associate degree (Department of Education, 2015). At the same time, the college experienced difficulty placing a recent graduate who earned a Bachelor's Degree in Elementary Education in a Chuuk state school for employment. Hezel (2013) refers to such "points of conflict" as "dilemmas of development" (p. VIII).

> *I think that's also the problem in the education system in the state, with the leadership, because leadership are involved in the education system. If there is somebody who is not doing the job but is related to a politician, it's difficult for them to fire that person because [pause]; and it's the family connection. And, yes we need to care about each other, but then if we all do that then the function that we want to do will not be successful and I think that that's what's defeating the education system now (Respondent 8).*

Expatriates have greater latitude in decision-making because they are not bound by the same cultural expectations and most have families and lives that extend outside the Micronesian islands.

*Being an expatriate…in some ways makes the job easier. Because we are not from here, we can make different decisions…and we don't have the cultural barriers, constraints that local people have (Respondent 4).*

Ideally, teachers also complete a third year of study to learn the skills necessary to be effective teachers and earn an advanced certificate. However, the state schools currently do not require this third year certificate for employment. Recent pressure from the US through JEMCO has forced changes, and in the case of Chuuk more significant reform of its state schools and school system. The necessary improvements are more likely to occur, because US Compact Funding, in the form of Education Sector Grant funds will be withheld otherwise, as per JEMCO Resolutions 2014-1 through 2014-5 (Appendix 6; Bussanich, Tellei, & Hezel, 2015, February 17-21). The Micronesian states receive Education Sector Grant funds to operate state departments of education and to pay for state funded public school operations. These funds can only be used to pay teacher salaries for those who are certified or on an approved professional development pathway, with adequate progress towards certification attainment. Teachers must be assessed with performance evaluations. Additionally, funds cannot be used for public schools that are not accredited, schools that fail to provide potable drinking water and sanitary toilets, or for personnel leave time exceeding 24 hours (three days) of annual leave and 80 hours (ten days) of sick leave. These higher expectations take effect in Fiscal Years 2016 and 2017 (Bussanich et al., 2015, February 17-21).

Because states depend on the Education Sector Grant funds to pay salaries and operate the school system, these reforms might come about more quickly and with higher probability of some success. If there is no money to offer unqualified teachers for salary, they will either finally obtain necessary qualifications or seek employment that does not require the degree and credential. Thus, typically, state education leaders can blame the US as the "bad guy" relieving themselves of the social tension and personal responsibility.

Parochial schools play an important role in leadership development. No fewer than four of the respondents attended Jesuit run Catholic boarding schools; either, Xavier High School in Chuuk or the now closed Ponape Agriculture and Trade School (PATS). Xavier High School's mission is, "to educate students to be competent, conscientious, and compassionate leaders whose lives are guided by the Christian call of service" (Xavier High School, 2015, July 31). Xavier High School has been operating since 1952 and its alumni profile page is a "who's who" of Micronesia with national presidents, congressmen, senators, state legislators, governors, ambassadors, and a plethora of successful regional professionals. And recently, Xavier can claim thirteen Gates Millennium Scholars (Xavier High School, 2015, July 31). Xavier High School, accredited through WASC, serves as a conduit for regional leaders, including college leaders, college board members, and other college employees. One respondent reflected positively on the leadership experiences offered by Xavier High School:

> … at Xavier there were all these…programs where you can serve… you do activities about teamwork and leadership, and you are mentored…I was always trying…pushing myself in these different areas of the school…those were my first leadership experiences…That school really pushed me…I even told myself I'm gonna send my kid to Xavier when they get to that age (Respondent 6).

Another respondent, who attended PATS, offered a comparison of students he later taught at the college and their level of performance compared to students who instead attended a state funded high school, referred to here as school X:

> …It was good back then because we were getting students from PATS, so they understood commitment, timelines, deadlines, and you know… But when we start including [school X] students with them, we saw a big gap between them and the students that were coming from PATS. Sometimes, requiring them to meet a certain deadline doesn't jive with some of the students coming from [school X] and other high schools…So, it got to a point where I realized maybe I was pushing them too hard… But I also had in my mind, why are these [PATS] students meeting it and these [school X] guys not? (Respondent 5).

In Micronesia, those who attend independent private schools will have an advantage over those who cannot afford this privilege. Until state-funded schools enforce their standards for accreditation and for teacher credentials and certification, those students they serve will be disadvantaged. State-funded schools also suffer from chronic teacher absenteeism (Hezel, 2013). Whether teachers in these state-funded schools are properly credentialed, if they do not feel compelled to regularly go to work, students have even less chance for success. Work absenteeism is not unique to state-funded schools, and impacts all regional employment contexts. This is often difficult for outsiders to comprehend. However, "It's simple…if you work you eat. If you don't work, you still eat" (John Mangefel 1990 cited in Johnson, 2015, p. 5).

> *… in the islands it's very relaxed… even though you don't work, you still have access to, you know, items or goods, that you could fish and do all kinds of stuff and live off family, eh? But having to transform into another situation where you are in the United States you have to learn to live by yourself…it was a challenge for me. I was lucky because I went to a parochial school… They kinda helped you out moving toward that kind of living situation (Respondent 3).*

Micronesians take care of family members offering food and shelter. "Family first and we all win" (Hezel, 2013, p. 48). Micronesians own family land upon which they need not pay rent or taxes. Food crops like taro, bread fruit, and coconuts are raised on the land, and the healthy coral reefs are full of free fish and other seafood. One need not work in order to survive in Micronesia. Work ethic is not equivalent to outsider expectations (Hezel, 2013). Few places on the planet offer such a stress-free life devoid of the struggle to survive so many others endure. One can step back and truly appreciate the quality of life offered by these islands; however, that is in constant tension with efforts for development.

> *…I was an island boy coming from a different life situation where you see things that are presented to you for free and then you take it and you live in a community where people help one another. And, therefore this time [living in the US] you have to stand up and to earn your own money in order to survive… (Respondent 3).*

Overall, the private, religious schools have higher proportions of employees and volunteers accustomed and held accountable to the 40-hour work week; and so those students get more time with faculty. Students also learn Western work ethic, responsibility, accountability, and experience a more structured environment. Such experiences increase chances for success and adaptability within a Western-based college system. Until standards are truly enforced, an obvious gap will persist between those students independently (privately) educated and those state (publicly) educated. Currently, all regional independent, private schools are operated by Western religious organizations, and thus these organizations play an important role towards educating future regional leaders.

## 2. Accessing US Higher Education

The college is one of the few employers on these islands where credentials necessary for a position are strictly enforced because the institution is held accountable to external quality control through US regional accreditation. Accreditation standards require appropriate degree credentials for positions, and degrees must be from an accredited US college or university. If a degree is obtained from a non-US accredited institution, the degree is subjected to a formal equivalent verification process (ACCJC, 2015). Because US citizens and citizens of the Freely Associated States (FAS) of Micronesia may qualify for US Federal Financial Aid to fund their higher education degrees, many seek US universities for tertiary education.

All respondents have had access to US HEIs with five earning a master's degree, one earning a bachelor's degree, one currently working on a bachelor's degree, and one with over 40 credits, all from US Universities. For three of those individuals, they were supported by the college's professional development program, which allows individuals the opportunity to pursue an advanced degree with college financial support. Additionally, a college educational leave policy allows the employee the opportunity to have a leave of absence for up to two years while receiving pay and benefits. In return, the employee is contractually obligated to the college for up to four years (double

the leave time taken). However, one participant noted the previous policy allowed only one year of educational leave.

Some respondents indicated their educational pathways were not preordained but the results of happenstance or circumstances.

> *I don't know how I got there [university]…somebody came and recruited. So I signed up…and got accepted so (Respondent 3).*

> *…"I fell into a manure pile and came out smelling like a rose" …I mean that's basically what happened. I was going through a divorce, I was losing my job, and then away I went (Respondent 4).*

> *… I told myself I wanted to pursue a masters but I didn't have a clue on what am I a going to study…One of the guys that was working there [university] just told me about the program for the masters and he said, "Maybe you'd be interested in doing this." And I said, "Why not?!"* (Respondent 6).

Prior to installation of an undersea fiber optic cable in 2010, slow internet speeds and the high cost for internet access did not reasonably allow for successful participation in online university programs. Attending university meant traveling at least 1,000 km to the nearest university, depending on one's island of residence. In other words, commuting was not optional. One had to be willing to relocate from one's home island. All five master's degrees were earned in traditional "bricks-and-mortar" programs. Two respondents earned their master's degree by taking advantage of the college's educational leave policy, but that also meant relocating and being absent from their positions at the college in order to pursue and complete the degree. Both respondents have also since received promotions that would not have been possible had they not earned their master's degree. All five respondents with master's degrees hold high-level administrative positions within the institution.

Today, improved telecommunications has reduced the barrier to higher education allowing access to online degree programs. You no longer necessarily need to relocate or take leave from your college position for up to two years. This new option is especially beneficial to the college, because

highly qualified individuals are not abundantly available to fill the shoes of a leader who is away pursuing their educational goals. One respondent is currently pursuing an online bachelor's degree from a US university and successful completion of that degree ensures qualifications are met for a promotion. The respondent is able to remain in post, remain with family, and benefit from leadership advancement opportunities. Between 2005 and 2014, 45 faculty and staff completed an online degree program thus strengthening institutional capacity. That said, there are benefits to individuals obtaining diverse experiences off their island of residence and outside of the college for broader perspectives on how HEIs operate, how they serve students, the student life experience, and for mentorship opportunities.

### 3. Mentoring

Experiences of respondents show that they have had strong, positive mentorship experiences when they were students.

> *She* [professor]*…made you believe in yourself, and you knew you could do it, even if it was hard…She was…encouraging and…made you feel good about yourself* (Respondent 2).

> *He really took the time to mentor me… to help me develop some of my skills…He was part friend, part boss, and I appreciated that… (Respondent 4).*

When I asked respondents about mentorship and coaching within the college there was an obvious gap, especially where promotions were accelerated rather than progressive. Few respondents felt they had someone within the college they could go to regularly for advice and guidance.

*…probably like many others—I am sure I'm not the only one—I feel like sometimes I'm just kinda winging it—developing as I go along, in reaction to the reality of the situations we get into (Respondent 4).*

For those who had more progressive promotions there was the presence of mentorship when they were on the lower rungs of the career ladder, but this traced back to only one college leader who is no longer employed with the institution. With accelerated promotion mentorship plateaus and diminishes.

*She [supervisor] made it a point to make sure that I learned leadership and how to deal with people and conflicts and she always included me in what she was doing… she taught me a lot about being a leader…Even though she may not have been the best one…That was a positive experience (Respondent 2).*

One respondent completed an off-island, advanced leadership training program, but since that program there has been a void for on-going mentorship, even if simply to receive advice on other excellent leadership texts and additional resources. Instead, this respondent relies on a subordinate for dialogue and debate.

*… so my book [required for the training] …I keep reading it…I try to keep reading parts of it and try to see where I can apply…I know I cannot apply all of it but there are some parts so I keep going back at it. So, that's the only thing I use now.*

*…sometimes I go and just sit down in his [subordinate's] office… and I just throw out a situation to him. And then we kind of analyze, argue on it…I learn from that… I pick his brain on things… (Respondent 8).*

Another respondent seeks mentorship in a peer rather than from a supervisor.

*I'll show it [work] to that person and ask what they think… we're close enough to, you know we draw…on a professional level… she was there to help and I seek advice sometimes and vice versa (Respondent 1).*

Even if they are not recipients of a strong mentorship relationship currently, respondents recognize the value of and promote mentorship within those they supervise.

*…I try to advise my own staff to try to be good mentors… I feel that a mentor is an invaluable asset to someone moving forward…that mentorship needs to happen early in a person's career because by the time I got my [degree] I was X-something years old and people don't look at you like you need a mentor; you're supposed to know what you're doing… (Respondent 4).*

*They [supervisees] said, I don't want to take risks [to accept employment elsewhere], I'm happy here. I get instruction from you, you help us figure things out, you're training us, you're promoting…you're trying your best to help us out (Respondent 7).*

Due to the mentorship gap for respondents within the college, some seek mentorship elsewhere.

> *…At the church, the pastor's wife, she's been a good role model for me… she's been always open-minded, very encouraging* (*Respondent 1).*

> *…it's not necessarily at [the college], but I also have… NGOs that I participate in…also in the church…I guess that there are good leadership there…and you also learn from the challenges they face… (Respondent 8).*

> *…I keep in touch with people I worked with in my previous positions… (Respondent 6).*

There are no other HEIs nearby where one might find an experienced colleague with whom to connect and perhaps meet for lunch or coffee and receive regular advice and guidance. There is, though, a recognition by respondents that mentorship and additional training are important and necessary to their growth as leaders. Respondents discussed off-island training opportunities, and a few respondents shared how beneficial the training was for them.

> *…that was money well spent (Respondent 2).*

> *…I learned a lot about leadership and management (Respondent 3).*

However, no respondents indicated that they formed mentorship bonds from these trainings, or that colleagues they met at these training events serve as on-going sources of guidance, information, coaching, or mentorship. Training workshops can be very expensive, as long distances often have to be traveled. Airfare is especially high as few carriers serve the region. The institution regularly spends $3500-$6500 USD to send an individual for a one-two day workshop. One would hope that those attending the trainings would return and share what has been learned. Unfortunately, there has not been a strong culture for sharing of information and skills within the college. Individuals are required to generate trip reports, but this is not strictly enforced in all departments. And hasty reports do not offer value to those other

employees who were unable to attend. There is a policy that requires employees must return and do a presentation on training received; but this policy applies to only a professional development fund, and not training funded through alternative sources. Therefore, few presentations are conducted. And, presentations do not necessarily equate to training and imparting of knowledge and skills.

Quite simply, information and skills learned have value. If you are the only member of the college or an office that has particular skills and knowledge, you have value and are relied upon. If you freely impart your knowledge and skills onto others, you risk no longer being essential. When I conducted training sessions across the college, I had the participants complete an evaluation of the training. Frequently appearing comments were similar to, "this is great, we need more of these kind of trainings," or "no one has ever done this type of training for us before." I felt it was my duty to impart my knowledge and skills, especially those gained through the expense of the college. Getting others to do likewise requires shifting an established organizational culture of guarding information. As Hezel (2013) notes, "information retains much of its traditional value as a prestige item, a private possession to be dispensed cautiously and in a measured way" (p. 73). Additionally, others may not be guarding information but instead lacking in the confidence that they have skills and expertise and should be leading in-house training sessions.

When the college relies on only one or two individuals to have a given skill set, the institution is at serious risk when those individuals leave (Pearce, Conger, & Locke, 2007). And, if those are employees who have performance or behavioral issues, the institution risks subjugation to these individuals, leading to decreased institutional effectiveness. The college leadership needs regular, on-going mentorship and needs to be engaged in mentoring those they lead. Guidance and support for seeking these mentorship options is needed.

Online training options are becoming increasingly more available and offer the benefit that more employees can be trained for far less money than sending one individual to an off-island training. This option might also circumvent overreliance on the unsupported idea that an individual sent off-island for training will return and conduct training sessions to pass on knowledge and skills. Experts can also be brought in to pass along skills to many more employees at the cost it takes to send one individual off island. Currently, this practice is being employed for leadership training, recognizing the need for individual capacity building to positively impact the most employees with the least financial cost. And, though there are benefits to these approaches, that does still leave a gap for the benefits to off-island training where one can learn how other institutions approach similar challenges and potentially form mentorship bonds and similar beneficial relationships with colleagues in the same field of expertise.

## 4. Accelerating Promotion

Because these islands are remote and the population is small, there is a limited pool of talented, experienced individuals with the requisite degree requirements for employment. Not all of those qualified individuals will choose to work for the college. There is also a limited pool of such individuals externally who are willing to relocate to these islands, to do so for the long term, and for the meager pay the college can offer. Certainly, highly qualified candidates daydream, briefly, entertaining a fantasy of life on a lush, remote tropical island. Few execute the transition from daydream to actuality. Fewer of those who do will have extensive higher education work experience.

> *…he [a family friend] said, "There's a position opening up at the college." And I was just this…grad student...So that's how I learned about this position, it wasn't something that I went out searching...in my life I feel like I never planned on things, usually things just slowly fall into place* (Respondent 6)*.*

> *…I graduated, and I came back [to Micronesia] to work in '82. By '83 I was already appointed as the supervisor or manager… And, that's my first role as a supervisor, taking lead of at least 22 people… were under*

*me at that time in our office. Five supervisors that I supervised…* (Respondent 7).

If you are present on the islands, have the necessary educational level, and especially if you are Micronesian, your chances for appointment and promotion are high. If you also exhibit potential, your chances for accelerated promotion up the ladder are higher. Accelerated promotion coupled with a dearth of mentorship and coaching higher up the rungs, can hinder the success of these leaders. Six of the eight respondents experienced accelerated promotions to administrative level positions. Five of the eight respondents indicated their positions with the college were the result of happenstance.

> *…I didn't really have to look a lot for them [jobs]…they were easy because people would ask for you to come and do work. So I've been following that path all throughout my life, not having to really search very hard for it. During those times there were not very many people* [Micronesians] *with higher education so, I was lucky to be one of those… to be offered, instead of for me to continue to look around* (Respondent 3).

As a reflexive aside, I also went from being highly effective to being overwhelmed. I shifted from a narrow focus to instead continuing my existing work plus managing three college offices that fell under my new department. Coupling this with my on-going doctoral work, I achieved burn out as well, which led me to formally articulate my intention to non-renew my contract. I did not feel that I could complete my dissertation on top of my work as a vice president, especially when I did not have the passion and energy I previously possessed for my work. The college offered me some educational leave time so that I could achieve my dissertation and return to my position. This experience is shared because it examples what can occur when the college finds someone who exhibits talent, rapidly promotes them, and overwhelms them through the reward of even more work for a job well done. One rapidly finds oneself on any number of special projects and special working groups to solve even more problems and accomplish even more work for the college.

The Peter Principle posits our, "final promotion is from a level of competence to a level of incompetence" and I often jest this is what has occurred to me through accelerated promotion—faculty to vice president over a span of merely three years (Peter & Hull, 2009, p. 16). However, even the Peter Principle suggests sufficient time is necessary for this to eventually occur. In a more typical context, there are plenty of highly educated, experienced individuals present with whom one must compete for promotion and opportunities. Presently, competition here is less, and for those who are highly educated, they often choose to live and work in the US where salaries are much higher. Some return because they want to give back to the islands.

> *For now, it's really about the service… It's not the money, it's the enriching part, it's more the skills, and the experience, and the service (Respondent 6).*

> *…I wanted to come and transfer my knowledge to Micronesians as much as I can (Respondent 7).*

By happenstance, I ended up working as the accreditation liaison officer (ALO), and few others at the college had accreditation knowledge or experience. A new institutional effectiveness and quality assurance (IEQA) department was developed, and I was appointed as vice president over that department. However, that was a substantial promotional leap, and I missed out on the benefits of growing as a leader by learning from mentors and a variety of supervisors and followers as I progressively made my way up the organizational hierarchy.

Thus, there is the advantage of opportunity for leadership positions, and one might achieve rapid acceleration up the ladder. The college is a place where local talent can be recruited and retained, helping to minimize national "brain drain" and offering a source of pride for service to the nation. However, accelerated rather than progressive promotion for those who are inexperienced leaders is not ideal because talent can be overused, overtasked, underprepared, and quickly overwhelmed. Further, the success of such leaders can be inhibited when they find themselves in positions for which

they have little to no experience, nor mentors or coaches to guide them to success. Younger leaders will be given the respect and deference of their position titles, but they may not receive full, cooperative support from their staff (passive resistance) adding another challenge for those young leaders experiencing accelerated promotion (Hezel, 2013).

> *…the biggest challenge I had was dealing with older people because I was like 22, 23…most of them are 50 some years or late 40s…it was hard for me to discipline them…they really don't believe in people that are coming out of education, you know they always say, "Man you went to school and this is what you can do?" [sarcasm]. And, so they really don't believe in what you learned in education and so eventually I worked up…I started earning that respect… (Respondent 7).*

## 5. Familial Support

For Micronesians, family membership and social identity are predominant to self-worth or self-esteem (Hezel, 2013). There is a firm expectation for one to yield individual freedom to the greater needs of the family. Without a place of respect within the family, you lose your source of security, and risk a life on a small island that would be insufferable (Hezel, 2013). One respondent explains, as the eldest son, he was expected to sacrifice personal freedom and the pursuit of his degree to instead care for his family. He also discusses his desire for his sons to prioritize education so that they might be successful.

> *… I actually planned to go to school, but…my dad got really sick. And, being the oldest in the family, my mom somewhat required me to come home… (Respondent 5).*

> *… I watch my kids get ready and go to school. I have all boys. I really worry about them because in our culture…men are expected to do stuff, establish something, become somebody…I'm not expecting them to become the next president but at least have something in life. And because I went through a lot of struggle, especially in my educational career—I made a mistake and now I'm paying for it…The best approach is to get all of the education out of the way early… (Respondent 5).*

Respondents also discuss the important roles family have played in their success through encouragement, support, and leadership role modeling. As discussed in chapter 2, positive home relationships can transfer to the work

place and enhance engagement through emotional contagion. Seven out of eight respondents referenced the importance of familial support to their self-esteem and educational and career success.

> *I would say their [parents] leadership role in encouraging me to finish my education, and they're always encouraging me to do the best I can in whatever I do (Respondent 1).*

> *…my parents both taught me to be the best that I could be…They were both pretty inspiring for me and they always encouraged me to do civic responsibilities (Respondent 2).*

A respondent refers to support she seeks from her siblings who are not residing on the same island. There is a need to guard information so that personal relationships are not negatively impacted. A great deal of trust is necessary, and some matters are considered "family business". One must always keep in mind, these are small islands where everyone is known and indiscretion can cause harm. It is prudent to carefully filter what is shared and to use caution with whom information is shared. Otherwise, as we joke in the islands, information is rapidly spread along what we term the "coconut wireless." A great deal of trust is necessary before someone would feel comfortable sharing challenges, and if they are family related challenges, the family might consider such candor a violation of family trust (Hezel, 2013).

> *… I have to communicate with my siblings…They're like my booster of energy. I use them as an outlet. I don't really depend on my family here and my colleagues. I have specific people in my life that help me. For me, it helps me because … they're like a person outside of my world, right now they're not in Pohnpei. I feel like when my issues go out there it stays out there. And, I don't want people to know here what I'm going through… (Respondent 6).*

Others might not understand why Micronesians have a necessity for silence and guarding information, and they might find this a barrier to effective leadership.

> *…There's an aspect of that, especially in the local culture, that they are not prone to share successes or problems… I find that very difficult because then I don't really know what's going on, nor do I have the*

*opportunity of sharing their successes or their problems. So, I don't like*
*barriers between myself and my staff (Respondent 4).*

The respondent also captured another important cultural feature and that is one where individuals are not to engage in self-aggrandizement. Sharing one's personal successes would be considered in poor taste. This is now discussed further under "respecting", below.

## 6. Respecting

Though respect was discussed under idealized influence attributes (IIA) as an important leadership behavior, here I focus on *respecting* in a Micronesian cultural context, which differs from Western culture. Micronesian lifestyle calls for respect and there is a hierarchy of respect for authority both within the family and within society. To avoid wrongdoing and "loss of face", one must offer deference when expected. Being respectful, and investing in human capital, is echoed here by one respondent who also emphasizes the primacy of reciprocity (Hezel, 2013).

> *In our culture… I'm taught that if I want the respect of my younger*
> *brothers and the other siblings, I have to respect them too. Because*
> *that then will reciprocate…I don't just force them, but I care for them,*
> *and so in return it's like they're supporting me up…It's a custom, but*
> *our custom (Respondent 8).*

Often outsiders fail to understand why students or colleagues sit quietly in the classroom or meetings when dialogue is expected. The need to guard information and take caution in offering opinions that might offend others is always at the forefront. The other reason for silence in such settings is to avoid calling attention to oneself (Hezel, 2013). Humility is valued and one avoids any appearance of aggrandizement. Those who are older, culturally higher ranking, or higher ranking within the organization are expected to be the ones speaking.

> *…in this culture it's different because they will say, "you're showing off"*
> *or "you're trying to be a this and this" (Respondent 3).*

> *Well, you need to respect people but I grew up in a family and*
> *sometimes in the past I wanted to talk back to my father when he says,*
> *"You have to speak up in meetings, you have to speak up in the*

*classroom". Because he taught me respect, and I wanted to say that to him, "But you taught me to respect and that's why I'm the person who doesn't want to say anything" (Respondent 8).*

*Another important characteristic is being humble… there are some people who boast about those things, and they make people feel inferior… Respect…If you think you're a know-it-all person, that won't help (Respondent 6).*

We have seen respect interwoven with familial support, as there is a family hierarchy that must be respected (Hezel, 2013). We have also seen respect interwoven with accelerated promotion, primarily for those who are young and rapidly promoted to high-level leadership positions, as deference is owed to elders and higher ranking members of the cultural community. This poses a dilemma for leaders who must adhere to traditions (again they must go home to their family and community each day) yet provide effective leadership. It is further challenging for young college leaders as they may not only be leading elders and high-ranking cultural leaders, but those individuals have a high probability to also be leaders in their own family. Do you confront your much older, culturally high-ranking uncle about his chronic tardiness for work?

*Maybe that's also my problem in leadership because I also run into the traditional, the custom, I respect older people and sometimes I cannot yell at older people even though…I'm trying my best, I'm trying my best, and sometimes I told them, "This is not [me], this is the position." Honestly, that's what I told them, "This is not [me], this is the position" (Respondent 8).*

Micronesian college leaders often have to face very tough decisions. It is often easy to know when a decision is in the best interest of the college, but that does not mean taking those decisions will come without social consequences. Respondent 3 is fully aware of employees who are not acting in the best interest of the college, and recognizes the need for accountability. At the same time, the leader also knows that sometimes you might be tempted to overlook infractions because this is a very small island world.

*I have my subordinates who usually do not know that I detect some of the things that are going on. It's not good…But as a Micronesian, I always try to live and work with them. They are not going to disappear and go…to another state… (Respondent 3).*

During this study, I observed a case of a leader who was suffering from some extreme behavioral changes. Regardless of the cause or causes of the change, it was clear that the individual could no longer be trusted in a position of authority. But because this is Micronesia, people were less worried about the college and more worried for the individual. Great lengths were taken by employees to hide problems and care for the individual. The individual had many years of service and the behavior was contrary to past years of experience. The majority of employees would rather see the college suffer a few losses than to see a respected member of the college community come to harm. Employees endearingly went to great lengths to see this leader did not lose face. And, though the institution was at risk if the individual followed through with articulated threats, we have to reflect, would you rather live and work in a world where people matter least or the most?

It does not matter to the community how obvious a decision is for the overall best interests of the college, or whether that decision is based on a seemingly justifiable rationale. The community is not focused on the best interests of the organization; it is focused on the best interests of its members at this time. And, who among us would like to be a pariah in our community? As an expatriate, I have the privilege of being able to operate around and outside this system to a much larger degree. I have a social group and family beyond the community in which I live here. I generally have the luxury to take the tough decisions without negative consequences to my social relationships or job and social opportunities for the members of my family (remember it is essential to build reciprocity). Most of my colleagues do not have this luxury of disregard, and thus respect, where it is culturally expected, eclipses all actions and decisions.

## 7. Self-Deprecating
As another form of respect, and to avoid appearances of being a braggart, Micronesians will inject self-deprecation. Self-deprecation is also utilized as a form of humor to make an otherwise tense situation one that can be navigated

with a smile and laughter. All eight respondents evidenced some form of self-deprecation when discussing themselves in the interviews.

> *…I didn't feel that I did much... I know I didn't do much of what is expected of that role but I tried…Looking back, I could do better. I know I've failed in performing to the best I can (Respondent 1).*

One certainly does not speak openly and negatively about others, but one does readily and humorously speak critically of oneself. And this ties in with humility and being humble, leadership characteristics noted as important by five of the respondents. Self-deprecation is a way to show you are humble and that you do not feel you are a "know-it-all." Self-deprecation is one way for a leader to pay respect, as well as earn respect.

## 8. Effective communications: Listening

When asked to describe attributes or characteristics of leaders who have had the greatest influence on them, the ability to communicate effectively, especially through active listening and genuinely trying to understand and consider alternative perspectives was most frequently referenced by respondents. Communication through body language and actions (say-do) was also frequently referenced.

*Figure 5.2.* Word cloud for the attributes or characteristics of leaders who had the greatest influence on respondents. Larger font size and thickness reflect attributes more frequently cited--position and color are irrelevant to anything but visual aesthetic.

> *They [ideal leaders] share information that needs to be shared, and it's always complete and accurate, and well organized so that there's not that many questions when it's shared. It's timely. It's frequent. Not just that they're sending information out, but they're also collecting information…When the person thinks they have all the right answers. They don't want to listen to those people that they are leading…If I don't feel that I can talk to that person, then I have difficulty wanting to follow that person. If I don't feel valued…it all kinda comes back to communication (Respondent 2).*

Communication of body language and actions is just as important for effective leaders as written and verbal communications. As discussed, Micronesians place high importance on showing respect. When people roll their eyes, show anger, shake a head negatively, pound a fist, cross arms, or exhibit similar negative body expressions, this is lacking in respect and that leader will be viewed negatively. One who exhibits such behavior would be in a position of embarrassment (Hezel, 2013). Micronesians do not express anger in an open, confrontational manner either verbally or non-verbally. All matters are addressed and discussed with the upmost civility and with calm voices. Once

again, these are small islands and there is no place for peaceful coexistence if confrontations are commonplace. Suppression, and sometimes displacement, of that anger occurs, and passive resistance and passive aggression are the often highly effective alternatives (Hezel, 2013).

> *… one of the important attributes for a good leader is communication…your expression whether it's good or bad, you are communicating something… the facial expression, that's the one I see in previous supervisors when things are not going the way expected, they just right away they shut themselves inside the office, you know, no communication, no nothing, and I don't want that. I don't like that (Respondent 1).*

Respondents feel that leaders should evidence active, effective listening by then following with understanding through tangible support and assistance. One is not merely placated or placated with promises. "Say-do" is an important part of effective leadership communications. Say-do is also referred to as behavioral integrity, and is essential for building trust, which Simons (1999) considers central to transformational leadership.

> *The human side of the job is very important because once they know that you're supporting them, they will exert effort to support you…My boss is listening to me…he knows my problem, and he's going to help me out (Respondent 7).*

Respondent 7 reminds us of the importance of reciprocity and respect. A leader earns respect by listening, understanding, and supporting, and in return staff offer respect and reciprocity.

## 9. Getting All Kinds of Things Done to You

> *You get all kinds of things done to you, I guess that's a way to say it…and for some reason faculty feel that they can be uncivil...I don't want to say that I get used to it, because it still bothers me. But, maybe not as much as it used to when I was new in the leadership role (Respondent 2).*

Though "thankless leadership" and "lacking civility of followers" were not ubiquitous codes, they were important to retain because they are in contrast to acceptable Micronesian cultural norms. In organizational meetings and

forms, the issue of civil discourse has been frequently raised. As discussed, the cultural norms require one to suppress open, public displays of anger and hostility. Quiet, persistent, passive resistance and passive aggression are the acceptable cultural responses to conflict, referred to by Hezel (2013) as "guerilla warfare, island-style" (p. 144). A shift towards dialogue and problem resolution that is lacking in civility is not ideal for any institution, and even more so for an island college. Once again, this category crosses over with that of respect. However, this category has not been subsumed under *respecting* because it highlights potential intercultural conflict. Civility and respect can enhance employee engagement, and lack thereof can result in loss of employee engagement (Beattie & Griffin, 2014; Collini, Guidroz, & Perez, 2015)

Table 5.1.

*Diversity of 360 total college employees in January 2015*

| Place of Origin | # Employees | Place of Origin | #Employees | Place of Origin | #Employees |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| FSM | 276 | India | 2 | American Samoa | 1 |
| Philippines | 37 | Canada | 2 | Japan | 1 |
| US | 25 | Marshalls | 1 | UK | 1 |
| Sri Lanka | 3 | Palau | 1 | Austria | 1 |
| Fiji | 3 | Saipan | 1 | Romania | 1 |
| Kiribati | 2 | Nauru | 1 | Mexico | 1 |

Though the context has four unique island states and additional populated outer islands, the nation lacks ethnic diversity in terms typically applied in western contexts (Table 5.1). At the college, over the last five years, 72-77% of the 360-384 collective employees are Micronesian or other Pacific islanders. The greatest percentage of expatriate employees were found among the faculty which may explain otherwise culturally unacceptable behavior within that group. By far the two largest expatriate groups were from the Philippines and the US with 37 and 25 employees respectively (Table 5.1). Additionally, there were approximately 5 employees from other western countries.

## Summary

In this chapter, through use of grounded theory methods, I have re-examined the three central research questions. Respect has evolved as a core category and essential leadership behavior for enhancing employee engagement within the college. Leaders who trust followers, practice humility, and are honest will find reciprocity of these behaviors from their employees and thus earn follower respect. Followers want to be recognized and rewarded and feel this is an essential way for a leader to pay respect. Followers feel leaders convey respect through effective communications. Effective communication involves active listening, understanding, civil discourse (civility), and say-do. Leaders also need to clearly articulate vision and goals for attainment.

The nature of leadership actions is also essential to earning follower respect, and by that, leaders need to be consistent, fair, and never arbitrary in their decision-making. Follower engagement is also increased when leaders provide a stimulating environment. Stimulation includes inspiration, motivation, and team building. Additionally, stimulation is offered when work is challenging, meaningful, purposeful, innovative, and creative. Dedication is the engagement dimension most supported by these leadership behaviors. Follower vigor is diminished often by factors least directly in the control of the leader such as personal loss, conflict with a colleague or colleagues, and unenjoyable work tasks.

Parochial (private) childhood education, access to US HEIs (a few of which were also parochial universities), family, and mentors were background factors that contributed to success of the eight leaders interviewed. Parochial education offered advantages that prepared leaders for success at university. Agreements with the US and US financial aid increased access for higher education.

Families provided essential support, encouragement, and leadership role modeling for these leaders, and mentors continued that support when these individuals attended university. Family can also require leaders to sacrifice personal freedom to the best interests of the family. This readiness for

personal sacrifice ties into the many ways one must show respect. Respect is given to family and members of one's community; and in exchange one builds up reciprocity in social currency. One must offer deference when expected, suppress anger, and show humility to earn respect as a leader. Effectively communicating, in particular through active listening, followed by understanding and support is likely to engage follower support. Being uncivil and disrespectful is likely to disengage followers and is contrary to local cultural norms. Families, parochial education, and mentors have also demonstrated and taught fundamental principles of respect, a key factor in the effectiveness of a leader and necessary to enhance employee engagement.

Expatriate leaders must gain an understanding of local culture and conduct themselves respectfully in order to engage employees. And, Micronesian college leaders have to be allowed some latitude and understanding for adhering to local cultural expectations when moving forward on decisions and taking actions likely to lead to community consequences for themselves. This is not to say all the college interests must be sacrificed, but one must be aware of the tensions faced when college needs are placed above those of community members. Additional steps might be necessary to mitigate social consequences. Leaders who lose community respect are not likely to hold respect within the college; and without respect, one is not going to readily engage followers.

Leaders who have taken advantage of happenstance opportunities have benefitted by earning advanced degrees and positions within the college. Those leaders who entered the college without an advanced degree have since had the opportunity to do so. The college professional development fund has supported advanced degrees, and improved development of telecommunications infrastructure has opened the way for increased access to higher education and other training opportunities for employees.

There are gaps in leadership training and development due to the remote island circumstances, and often also as a result of accelerated promotion. Accelerated promotion has been a factor for some participants and has

offered the opportunity to lead at higher levels within the college, but can also leave gaps in the "learning curve" especially when there is no mentor who can help minimize the curve. Mentors and coaches are scarce within the organization and especially for those who have rapidly risen to the top.

# Chapter 6. Discussion: Wisdom in the Basket

## Introduction

> *…some Micronesians are a little bit tough to see change quickly…You know, when there's a change very quick they said, "Slowdown." … When I was in Yap I tried to make some move on certain things…So one of the highly respected, traditional leaders called me out for lunch. And he said, "I called you out because I wanted to talk to you, there are so many things you are trying to change now. I think you need to slow down." So he offered me a betel nut, "you promise you're gonna slow down, right?" So I said, "Okay I'll slow down." Because I forgot that I was in Yap. In Yap things are usually a little bit slow, 'cause they preferred it that way. In Yap they wanted to make sure that all the things are exhausted before…that's why the **wisdom in the basket** thing is always appropriate for them, because they would chew on betel nut, and look at each other, and think first before they say the new line (Respondent 3).*

"Ba'a ea lawa'an u waay," is a Yapese saying that translates to, "there is wisdom in the basket." This phrase is somewhat equivalent to the English phrase, "chewing the cud". One slowly prepares a betel nut to chew, chews for a period of time, deliberates or ruminates on the best articulated response for the question or topic at hand, and then articulates a well reflected response.

Today we find numerous publications referring to the turbulent times HEIs face in this 21st century (Barnett, 2000; Knight, 2008). The capability of HEIs and their leaders to facilitate necessary, and sometimes rapid changes is essential. One can still look for wisdom in the basket, but slowing down and resisting changes to maintain *status quo* is not an option. Rapid changes for an HEI situated within island cultures which value the, "slowly, slowly" approach can pose tensions for the leader who must take the institution forward posthaste.

Increasing levels of governmental accountability and evolving accreditation standards requires increased organizational performance in the form of institutional effectiveness and for student achievement and learning. The

literature is not teeming with leadership models for HEIs (Pounder, 2001) nor is the literature replete with theories and models for Micronesian organizations. Transformational leadership is associated with those leaders who are effective at turbulent times and are capable of navigating an HEI through necessary development and changes (Basham, 2012). Additionally, transformational leadership has been established as an antecedent to work engagement (Bakker et al., 2014; Christian et al., 2011; Tims et al., 2011).

In this chapter, exploring transformational leadership and employee engagement in a Micronesian HEI, I look to the *wisdom in the basket* as I chew on both the quantitative and qualitative results and discuss the extent to which I achieved what I set out to do, in the context of the research questions and sub-questions introduced in chapter 1. Results are discussed in detail, highlighting where they confirm, challenge, or add to the existing literature.

## Underutilized Transformational Leadership

Examining the relationship between perceived transformational leadership and follower engagement, I also examine how followers perceive leadership styles in the organization, and how those leaders compare to MLQ benchmarks and norms. This research shows no single college leader examined meets the desired benchmark for all MLQ (full range leadership model) factors. Follower perceptions show the college falls below both benchmarks and norms for transformational leadership styles indicating underutilization of these styles. Thus, few college leaders are perceived as transformational leaders. However, Yukl (1999) points to the likelihood of situational variables influencing the level at which transformational leader behaviors are utilized. Hence, it is important to examine those situational variables here.

## The Five I's of Transformational Leadership
*Individualized Consideration*

Only two college leaders meet the benchmark and norm for individualized consideration (IC), which involves individualized mentoring and development of followers. Interviews substantiate these results and heighten concern by revealing mentorship for college leaders is minimal to non-existent, "*I don't really think I was prepared for a leadership role*" (Respondent 2). This is particularly relevant to those who have experienced accelerated promotions and for whom mentorship consequently plateaued and diminished. Because the larger administration is centralized on one main campus on one island, the leaders of four campuses, located on three different islands, have less access to mentorship opportunities because they are geographically isolated from the main campus. Some leaders instead rely on peers and followers for advice and support, and others seek mentorship and coaching outside the institution, and outside of HE, in general.

As the opportunities for higher paying jobs on a given island are minimal, and there is only one national college, loss of one's position at the college leaves few opportunities for similar work, unless people are willing to leave the country. Therefore, staff are likely to guard against redundancy. Moreover, lacking mentorship and coaching may be grounded in the cultural value that information is a personal possession that confers status. Information and skills have value. Readily passing on information and skills is perceived to reduce one's prestige and increase the risk of redundancy. Consequently, information is not readily dispensed, because it can instead be used as cultural and social capital (Bourdieu,1986; Hezel, 2013; Swartz, 1997).

Other examples of information guarding were observed in offices where individuals resisted cross-training. When only one individual can perform a particular skill, that individual maintains a sense of being essential. Consequently, cultural values towards information and skills, organizational habits, and fewer job options in an insular HE market result in leaders who are less likely to develop followers through individualized consideration. If college leaders are not currently developing their followers into leaders, individual

capacity building will need to be fostered through organized training programs. Because the college cannot rely on individuals who are sent off island for training to return and share what they have learned with their followers (Hezel, 2013; Johnson, 2015), training programs need to be delivered on the campuses to benefit more employees collectively, where possible. Over time, the organizational culture would ideally shift to that of a learning culture with leaders who value and demonstrate individualized consideration with increased frequency.

Interestingly, individualized consideration also involves building a sense of team and unity, and building human relationships, which is an integral part of island culture where harmonious relationships are essential. That importance was reflected in the qualitative data where individualized consideration was the most frequently coded reference (43) for leadership styles and the second most frequent code overall. Followers value leaders supporting, mentoring, encouraging, listening, and getting to know them on a more personal level. The importance of human relationships in Micronesian culture, and within the college, as expressed by participants, enhances concern for the perceived gap in individualized consideration leadership. College leaders are not building the human relationships that culture dictates as essential. An alternative explanation is that followers in this cultural context have higher expectations of leaders for frequency of individualized consideration behaviors. Interviews show followers disengage when leaders fail to consider, support, encourage, develop, and listen. Although traditional leadership is hierarchical, with respect due to the traditional leader, members of society have always been allowed the opportunity to offer input into decision-making, and there have always been checks against the authority of the traditional leader (Hezel, 2001). A mutual respect forms when employees experience individualized consideration leadership which engages the employee, and in particular increases dedication (DE).

> *The human side of the job is very important because once they [followers] know that you're supporting them, they will exert effort to support you* (Respondent 7).

Another explanation for lower individualized consideration results, is that those leaders who are at the executive level may have less opportunity for follower individualized consideration compared to those leaders at lower management levels (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). Executive leaders have less direct contact with the larger body of employees for whom they have accountability. Additionally, Longsworth (2010) found that a leader's perception of effective leadership behaviors varied with their hierarchical (tier) level within the organization. The types of support behaviors a follower needs from their leader are also contextual factors likely to influence individualized consideration. Thus, leaders' low levels of IC appear to be related to both a traditional and organizational culture to guard information and skills, and to a gap in mentorship exacerbated by geographic isolation and accelerated promotions. However, one area where this may not be the case is through building a sense of team and fostering human relationships.

*Intellectual Stimulation*

The college not only merely ranks in the 20th percentile for individualized consideration, but also for intellectual stimulation (IS), which is the opposite of what one would generally expect for leaders operating within an HE context. There are only four and five leaders (out of 18) exceeding the benchmark and norm for intellectual stimulation respectively. However, followers indicate they value challenging work and are, "*inspired by the leaders who are very creative…are innovative*" (Respondent 3). Interviews evidence follower dedication improves when they feel work is inspirational and challenging, but both their dedication and vigor (VI) decrease when leaders are confrontational and create a climate of fear for making mistakes. Why are so few leaders perceived to exhibit intellectual stimulation? Applying Hofstede's (1983) dimension of power distance, Micronesia is a high power distance culture. In the hierarchical, traditional culture, a person of lower societal rank does not openly question leadership, as that is viewed as disrespectful (Hezel, 2013). When solutions to problems do not fall within accepted, pre-approved parameters for operation, followers are uncomfortable taking initiative to utilize innovative and creative solutions. The leader must make additional efforts in

this cultural context to make followers feel empowered to experiment with new approaches, to feel comfortable when new approaches fail, and to not worry that they are being disrespectful by questioning *status quo* and taking initiative.

Often, followers know a problem exists, but will not express concerns for fear of being perceived as disrespectful, *"you [father] taught me to respect and that's why I'm the person who doesn't want to say anything"* (Respondent 8). Micronesians avoid conflicts and maintain harmony in relationships. Posing problems with constructive solutions to a leader may be perceived by others as rising above one's social station and being disrespectful to the leader. Even if the leader encourages this behavior, fears of negative peer perceptions may prevent the employee from exercising initiative or questioning processes. However, creating a positively analytical environment towards constructive, innovative problem solving, that requires challenging both policy and practice, is essential for the health of an HEI. Yet, such practice is in tension with local culture and shows limitations to externally applied Western models.

There are implications that institutions undergoing times of stress, instability, and change are more resilient with transformational leaders (Basham, 2012). The HE environment is undergoing a turbulent time (Barnett, 2000; Knight, 2008), and in particular the college is under pressure to meet increasing levels of accountability and to operate within increasingly stringent budget constraints. Fundamentally, the college must comply with externally applied US accreditation standards. The accrediting commission holds institutions equally accountable and does not make exceptions for compliance due to cultural and contextual differences. Thus, the college culture must evolve in order to meet Western imposed standards. Through training and development, college leaders and their followers will need support, understanding, and institutional latitude towards mitigating these genuine cultural tensions. These challenges are not insurmountable, cultures evolve over time, and respondents confirm the organizational culture is shifting, *"Because in the past we're tolerant. When there is a light off we just wait, 'Maybe they will come and fix it?'"* (Respondent 3). However today, "*we [the college] have*

*good leaders here and we established a different culture here than any other places" (Respondent 3).*

*Inspirational Motivation and Idealized Influence*

Performing only slightly better for both inspirational motivation (IM) and idealized influence behaviors (IIB), college leaders fall in the 30th percentile. Inspirational motivation and idealized influence behaviors benchmarks are met by eight and seven college leaders respectively, and eight and nine respectively meet the norms. Interviews show overlap between these two transformational factors around meaningfulness. Followers stated that they are motivated by work that is challenging, ethical, team building, benefitting others, serves the greater good, and has purpose towards those ends, as well as towards delivering on clearly articulated goals and vision. Thus, both inspirational motivation and idealized influence behaviors leadership styles lead to employee engagement and particularly dedication.

My results support Kahn's (1990) concept of psychological meaningfulness where one's physical, cognitive, and emotional energy invested leads to a positive return. These results are also similar to those of May et al. (2004) who found a strong relationship between meaningfulness and engagement (in employees of a US insurance company). However, with few college leaders perceived as exhibiting inspirational motivation and idealized influence behaviors, do followers self-motivate by creating and finding their own meaningfulness and setting their own goals? Do they look beyond their immediate supervisor to other leaders who might motivate them in this way? Alternatively, here transactional contingent reward (CR) is utilized with desired frequency, and meaningfulness overlaps as a component of contingent reward, where employees need validation from leaders through feedback that their work is appreciated and has value. Research shows contingent reward leaders also communicate expectations (Breevaart, Bakker, Hetland, Demerouti, Olsen, & Espevik, 2013). Perhaps what we are seeing here is that adequate transactional contingent reward supplements inspirational motivation and idealized influence behaviors factors to provide that meaningfulness, and thus to enhance follower engagement.

For idealized influence attributes (IIA), the college ranks in the 40th percentile with 27.8% (5 out of 18) of the leaders exceeding the norm. Interviews establish that trust, respect, considering the needs of others, and fairness are important attributes for followers, "*…they're [ideal leaders] going to be trustworthy, and honest, and interested in your welfare" (Respondent 4).*

We do find that trust extends to risk taking, and followers expect their leaders to share risks and minimize fear associated with risk taking. These are all mutual, reciprocal attributes, and they all build respect, and lead to increased follower dedication and engagement. *"Because if you don't respect others then you won't be able to accomplish a lot that you want"* (Respondent 6).

Overall, respect is paramount to the leader-follower relationship in this organization. Respect is reciprocal and is related to those things most important to engaging employees. Trusting, mentoring, encouraging, listening, supporting, understanding, and fostering individual relationships are essential leader behaviors, they are exhibited by say-do and through effective communications, and they are also all likely to be reciprocated by followers and to enhance work engagement. Additionally, for increased work engagement, followers need work that is challenging, meaningful, and purposeful, and followers look to innovative and creative leaders to enhance that meaningfulness and provide recognition. Fundamentally, employees want respectful and meaningful human relationships with their leaders and they want to be engaged in work that has meaning and is validated through recognition and rewards (further explored in transactional leadership).

Although the five I's of transformational leadership capture all of these components articulated by interview respondents as important for leadership and engagement, we begin to see model construct problems because various components of the five I's overlap with one another, and with components of transactional leadership, and this will be discussed further below. Interestingly, college leaders are generally not perceived to be transformational according to the MLQ, yet employees are rated as highly engaged through the UWES.

Thus, according to the models used, the importance of transformational leadership in this organizational context for enhancing employee engagement is not substantiated, with the exception of the importance of trust and respect associated with idealized influence attributes.

**Transactional and Laissez-Faire leadership**
According to the results, college leaders utilize transactional contingent reward (CR) with desired frequency, whereas management-by-exception active (MBEA) and passive-avoidant (management-by-exception passive (MBEP) and laissez-faire (LF)) leadership styles are over-utilized by college leaders. And, though there are some high risk contexts, such as firefighting, where lives are at risk, and both contingent reward and management-by-exception active might be viewed as the most positive leadership behaviors, an HEI context does not usually present such risk (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio, 2011).

As discussed, meaningfulness overlaps with contingent reward. The results for contingent reward being utilized with desired frequency are not surprising for an HE context, as academia has a long established rewards system for recognition, tenure, promotion, titles, and salaries (Pounder, 2001). Pounder (2001) notes the effective leader in HE will flexibly utilize both transactional and transformational leadership characteristics. Interviews show reciprocal trust and respect are lacking in some management-by-exception active (MBEA), management-by-exception passive (MBEP), and laissez-faire (LF) leader-follower relationships which result in diminished dedication and engagement. Disengagement occurs within the college when the MBEA leader is micromanaging and untrusting. Leaders have to demonstrate trust in their followers (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Breevaart et al. (2013) found that when follower autonomy is diminished, engagement is reduced. My study supports the findings of Breevaart et al. (2013) where micromanaging, or consistent monitoring, through MBEA, negatively affects autonomy and results in reduced engagement. MBEA is an important leadership behavior for this context, at this time, for shifting organizational culture to ensure

compliance with externally applied standards. MBEA can help ensure college units are in compliance, but this comes at the expense of trust, autonomy, and thus engagement. Instead, the contingent reward leader provides followers with clear directions and goals, but then also provides the valued latitude and trust in follower decisions for how and when to best perform those work tasks. Like transformational leadership, transactional contingent reward leadership is likely to enhance employee engagement, and seems to be more important in this Micronesian HEI.

Disengagement occurs in management-by-exception passive leader-follower relationships when the leader fails to correct performance issues of a given follower. Those followers holding themselves accountable to rules and expectations see their colleague is allowed to "get away with" unacceptable performance and failing to meet expectations, and thus they experience a sense of unfairness. When this situation is allowed to progress, other followers are less inclined to meet work expectations. Chances for disengagement also increase if the supervisor both fails to ensure expectations are met equally by all, and also fails to recognize the efforts of those who strive to meet expectations. Additionally, disengagement occurs when the laissez-faire "leader" fails to establish goals and leaves the follower to take their own direction and decisions, puts all risks on the follower, and blames the follower for failures, but takes credit for successes.

Overutilization of management-by-exception active and passive-avoidant (MBEP and LF) leadership styles can result from cultural tendencies to avoid conflicts and to worry about problems when they are actually problems (putting out fires rather than preventing them). Micronesians go to great lengths to avoid harming or upsetting anyone (Hezel, 2013). When an employee is not performing or not making the best choices, it is difficult for the college leader to have that corrective conversation. One respondent explains the approach taken is to blame performance improvement discussions on, "*the position*" of college leadership (Respondent 8), emphasizing the supervisory requirements of the position are different to those of the leader's role in the community. Interviews show procrastination about these

performance improvement conversations is frequent and causes leader stress. Unfortunately, when the leader fails to address these in a timely manner, that sense of unfairness builds among followers and can lead to disengagement. Rather than one follower potentially being upset about a performance conversation, the rest of the work unit may be upset over a perceived lack of fairness. Fundamentally, it is the leader's job to ensure employee performance and achievement of expectations. Thus, college leaders need training to minimize stress around these conversations and towards ensuring constructive dialogue and productive strategies for improving follower performance.

Additionally, the research interviews show younger leaders have cultural tensions when needing to correct older employees because age is to be respected. Relatives (and especially younger relatives) who might need to correct older, higher ranking relatives face social tension (Hezel, 2013). In these cases, college leaders procrastinate on necessary performance improvement discussions, often hoping the problems resolve themselves or that the institution can muddle on without intervention. The leader will face community judgement and comments about actions taken at the college that are counter to cultural expectations. Thus, training strategies will need to be developed that guide younger leaders and expatriate leaders on navigating the cultural context while also maintaining performance expectations. Additionally, followers should be involved in training that helps them understand the role of the leaders and the role of the followers towards mission delivery and institutional effectiveness.

Leaders who in the Micronesian culture are likely to be high ranking males in turn have greater latitude, and more so when those they supervise are relatives. Any directives such leaders give must be followed because social values require that follower respect. For the same reasons, such leaders who might not be taking the best choices are also the least likely to be questioned by followers, and are the least likely themselves to receive performance improvement discussions. Their lackluster leadership will tend to be accepted, and their followers might even shield them from blame and pick up any slack

to make them look effective. Such leaders might also be less aware of their shortcomings and necessity for improvement. In other words, some leaders may stagnate at the lower end of the full range leadership model because things get done (their units have high performance) despite their leadership style. It is worth briefly noting that traditional female leaders do also have power and respect, however the traditional means for female leadership is behind the scenes, rather than center stage (Hezel, 2013). And though that leadership is from behind the scenes, one should not assume it is less influential or effective. Although gender was not being taken into account in this study, this may need further investigation.

Additionally, though utilizing transformational leadership factors can create an environment that avoids the leader relying on corrective actions, as discussed, few college leaders have mentors or coaches from whom to actively learn and then apply these skills. Thus, overutilization of management-by-exception active and passive-avoidant behaviors results. The college should play an active role in bridging mentoring and coaching gaps to provide ongoing advice and guidance to its leaders.

**MLQ Outcomes of Leadership**
Results show the college falls well below benchmarks for all three outcomes of leadership with 70-80% of the norm population scoring higher. As expected, this study shows all three leadership outcomes highly positively intercorrelate (r ranging from .78 to .94, p ranging from ≤.001 to ≤.0001). Both the transformational leadership factors (the five I's) and contingent reward highly positively correlate with the leadership outcomes of extra effort (EE), effectiveness (EFF), and satisfaction with leadership (SAT) (r ranging from .74 to .95, p≤.0001). Management-by-exception active modestly positively correlates with effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership (r ranging from .50 to .56, p≤.05). With the exception of no correlation between management-by-exception active (MBEA) and extra effort (EE), all other factors of transformational leadership and active transactional leadership

positively correlate to the three leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction with leadership.

Similar results were obtained by Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995) and Lowe et al. (1996) who found positive correlations with transformational leadership factors and perceived leader effectiveness. And, though less in magnitude, they also found transactional contingent reward to be positively related to these outcomes. From a review of studies across four nations and various organizational settings, Bass (1990) reported followers perceived transformational leaders as more effective and satisfying than transactional leaders when rated by the MLQ. In contrast to published results, my study shows that transactional contingent reward (CR) is more strongly, positively correlated with extra effort (EE) than are any of the transformational factors. Lowe et al. (1996) note transactional leadership is integral to effective management. The effective leader will need to draw upon both transformational as well as transactional components. This result might be due to the fact that CR was the only ideal leadership style within which college leaders were perceived to meet the benchmark (Figures 4.3, 4.5, and Table 4.2).

Additionally, the relationship between MLQ factors and outcome measures are likely to be affected by contextual factors (Antonakis, et al., 2003). In this context, cultural leaders may or may not be effective or satisfying to followers; however, that factors less in this traditional society. Regardless of whether one is satisfied with a leader, or finds them ineffective, one must respect their position of authority. To do otherwise would be socially unacceptable. That applies to assigned leadership within the college, though expatriates and younger leaders might have less socially required respect, their position of authority will still be respected. When leaders are deemed ineffective and satisfaction is low, followers will at least offer the minimal level of respect required by cultural standards, and as the assigned position of authority requires. Though McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002) found follower satisfaction with leadership indirectly affected organizational performance,

Pounder (2001) posits follower satisfaction with leadership does not guarantee more effective performance.

Spreitzer et al. (2005) found a weaker relationship between transformational leadership and effectiveness in traditional cultures compared to less traditional cultures. They suggest that rather than merely focusing on whether or not transformational leadership applies equally across cultures, it might be more beneficial to examine when, how, and why transformational leadership works. Conger (1999) posits cultural variables are essential dimensions to context and because cultures have different values, beliefs, and means of expression, for example, leadership effectiveness and attributes of transformational leaders will vary across cultures.

In this Micronesian context, cultural and social capital remain the most important currency. Thus, it is not surprising that followers are more motivated to extend extra effort to those leaders who compensate such efforts. This reciprocity of exchanges is a building block of successful island relationships. This phenomenon is well explained by social exchange theory (Blau, 2008). Additional support is shown (Figure 4.14 and Table 4.15) where both management-by-exception passive (MBEP) and laissez-faire (LF) leadership moderately negatively correlate with extra effort (EE) (r ranging from -.64 to -.67, p≤.01). Investing in followers offers a positive return and failing to do so is not acceptable. Interviews do show trust, respect, and recognition are exchanges that inspire follower efforts. Additionally, these negative correlations of passive avoidant leadership styles (LF and MBEP) to outcomes of leadership (Figure 4.14) offer further support for Yukl's (1999) suggestion that management-by-exception passive does not belong within the transactional leadership construct.

Interviews indicated financial compensation for time invested in the college and cost of living adjustments are desired, but were not the most important exchanges for effort and satisfaction. Results indicate outcomes can be improved through transactions that cost little financially, and merely require developing relationships that foster trust, respect, and recognition. The most

important form of recognition is not financial, but rather formal acknowledgement of appreciation from the leader. At a Malaysian university, in a similar high power distance cultural context, Lo et al. (2010) also found reciprocal exchanges of trust as important to the leader-follower interaction.

Intellectual stimulation (IS) and idealized influence behaviors (IIB) were more positively correlated with satisfaction with leadership (SAT) and effectiveness (EFF) respectively. That said, the correlations between the five I's and the three outcomes (EE, EFF, SAT) were all highly or moderately positive (r ranging from .74 to .95, p≤ .001 and p≤ .0001). Because there are both high intercorrelations between the five I's and contingent reward, and because the five I's do not have strong differential relationships to the outcomes, Bycio et al. (1995) point to potential problems with the distinct construct, and the results of this study add further support to this argument. I expand on this argument in the next section.

**Reflections on the MLQ**
Although I did not seek to determine the validity of the MLQ construct, it is worthwhile pointing to results that might augment or diminish the MLQ construct validity, as these should be considered when interpreting these leadership data. Additionally, these are the first published MLQ results from a Micronesian HE context, and this section highlights potential problems with the MLQ construct as applied to this context.

Findings from my study shows all five factors of transformational leadership are highly positively intercorrelated (r ranging from .86 to .94, p≤.0001). High intercorrelations for the five transformational scales are also reported in the literature. Some argue these factors should be highly interrelated because the five I's are mutually reinforcing (Antonakis et al., 2003; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Others argue this implies the MLQ scales fail to measure unique constructs and thus construct validity is questionable (Bycio et al., 1995; Carless, 1998; Tejeda, Scandura, & Pillai, 2001; Yukl, 1999;). Antonakis et al. (2003) also note the five I's are supposed to be distinct constructs. I would agree that the

five I's should positively intercorrelate since they are all factors of transformational leadership. However, the five I's (four I's) construct, in general, is problematic.

I agree with Yukl (1999) who argues the five I's are ambiguous by including diverse components that make it difficult to succinctly define what leaders say and do to influence follower thinking and behavior. Yukl (1999) indicates further ambiguity exists because components of intellectual stimulation seemingly overlap with individualized consideration (IC) and inspirational motivation (IM), and likewise, components of idealized influence attributes (IIA) and idealized influence behaviors (IIB) overlap with inspirational motivation (IM).

Results of my study also show transactional contingent reward is highly positively intercorrelated with all five factors of transformational leadership as well as the overall five I's score (r ranging from .77 to .87, p ranging from ≤.001 to ≤.0001). Highly positive intercorrelations between these five factors indicate practical differentiation is difficult, and the strong correlation with contingent reward indicates differentiating transformational leadership from transactional contingent reward is difficult. This is in line with other studies which also found contingent reward to be positively correlated to all five I's (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Tejeda et al., 2001).

Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1999) argue the positive correlations between contingent reward and the five I's are not a surprising result, and that such results do not negate their claim that these are unique constructs. Rather, these factors often positively correlate because both represent active, constructive forms of leadership, leaders utilize varying amounts of both transformational and transactional leadership, and when leaders consistently honor agreements they establish trust, dependability, and consistency, thus contributing to elevated levels of trust and respect exampled by the transformational leader. Moreover, they suggest that transactional contingent reward may be the foundation upon which trust and developmental

expectations are built through a, "consistent honoring of contracts over time" (p. 458). In settings with rapid turnover, Bass et al. (2003) argue transactional leadership may offer a stable foundation, of both clarity and structure, from which transformational leadership can be built. This study shows it is difficult to differentiate between transactional contingent reward and transformational leadership within this cultural context.

Antonakis et al. (2003) advise correlations between leader behaviors may differ depending on the context. Transactional leadership may be more important in non-Western cultures compared to Western cultures. That is not to say that transformational leadership is not meaningful and applicable to all cultures, but rather enactment may vary across cultures (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) note transformational leaders are aware of the leadership options available and act to utilize the style most appropriate to the situation at hand. They also use constructive developmental theory to explain the development of a leader through stages from lower-order transactional, to interpersonal higher-order transactional, and finally institutional transformational leadership (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). However, this argument does little to clarify the transformational leadership construct and instead seems to point more towards contingency theories and essentialism where the leader determines the single best way to lead in a given context (Collinson, 2011).

In this specific HE context in which leadership was measured, transactional contingent reward is frequently required, thus frequently used, and consequently co-varies positively with the five I's. Tejeda et al. (2001) note that contingent reward (CR) leadership style may "lie at the interface between what individuals perceive as transformational and transactional, or that transformational leaders effectively and consistently employee CR" (p. 49).

Another possible interpretation is that there may exist lower-order and higher-order transaction exchanges occurring within contingent reward helping to explain problems associated with discriminant validity between transactional contingent reward and transformational leadership (Bass et al., 2003;

Antonakis et al., 2003). For example, Yukl (1999) explains, contingent reward may involve an impersonal exchange of a reward for good performance, but providing personal positive feedback and praise involves both transactional contingent reward and transformational leadership. Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) note transactions are not equivalent, and they refer to two levels of transactions or exchanges: high-quality (leader-follower interpersonal bond) and low quality (exchange of rights or goods).

Throughout the results of this study, exchanges, or reciprocity, for respect and the various components that build respect, such as trust and recognition, are evident. Can one separate the exchanges or transactions of contingent reward from those described within the five I's of the transformational leader? Is there a fine line that can be drawn between behaviors and actions that are transactional and transformational? Is more clarity achieved by differentiating high-quality from low-quality exchanges? Certainly, this study does not directly answer these questions, but points to the importance of these nuances and reveals complexity as we examine the rich tapestry generated from both the quantitative and qualitative results. Because of the ambiguity and overlapping nature of these leadership factors as currently conceptualized, the intercorrelated results are hardly surprising. These ambiguities need further exploration, but cannot be easily reduced in their complexity. From the practitioner leadership training design and application perspective, however, these ambiguities do pose significant challenges.

My study shows management-by-exception active (MBEA) moderately positively correlates with idealized influence behaviors (IIB) and the total Five I's score (r ranging from .62 to .65, p≤.01); and modestly positively correlates with inspirational motivation (IM) and intellectual stimulation (IS) (r =.56, p≤.05). Avolio et al. (1999) note one should expect a low positive or negative correlation of management-by-exception active with transformational and transactional leadership, however they do not elaborate on why.

Here, management-by-exception passive (MBEP) and laissez-faire (LF), both passive-avoidant leadership styles, highly positively correlate (r = .90,

p≤.0001). Both management-by-exception passive (MBEP) and laissez-faire (LF) modestly negatively correlate with contingent reward (CR) (r = -.48 and -.55 respectively, p≤.05). Because contingent reward requires the leader clarify expectations and then provide recognition when those expectations are met, it makes sense that the absence of leadership (laissez-faire) and merely reacting to problems (management-by-exception passive) would negatively correlate.

And, though there are negative correlations between both management-by-exception passive and laissez-faire styles with transformational factors, the only significant results are a modest negative correlation of laissez-faire (LF) with inspirational motivation (IM) (r = -.48, p≤.05); a moderate negative correlation of laissez-faire (LF) with idealized-influence attributes (IIA) (r = -.63, p≤ .01); and a modest negative correlation of management-by-exception passive (MBEP) with idealized influence attributes (IIA) (r = -.54, p≤ .05). Trust and respect are key components of idealized influence attributes and meaningfulness is key to inspirational motivation. Interviews substantiate that trust, respect, and meaningfulness are important to followers. Passive-avoidant leaders will not generate trust and respect, and will not be taking efforts to ensure work is meaningful for followers. Results of this study agree with those of Avolio et al. (1999) who note that it is expected that these passive-avoidant styles (MBEP and LF) should negatively correlate with transformational and transactional contingent reward scales. Tejeda et al. (2001) found both management-by-exception (active and passive) subscales and laissez-faire as negatively related to transformational leadership showing discriminant validity for those subscales.

Yukl (1999) suggests, management-by-exception passive (MBEP) leadership is reactionary behavior, and thus does not necessarily involve the exchange process, which is the foundation of transactional leadership, and thus its classification as such seems inappropriate. Following previous rationale provided by authors in support of the highly positive intercorrelations offering convergent validity for the five I's, it seems the highly positive intercorrelation between MBEP and laissez-faire leadership suggests that these are best

considered together as passive-avoidant leadership styles, rather than listing MBEP as a transactional leadership style

One does not have difficulty differentiating the aspects of the MLQ construct for LF, MBEP, and MBEA. However, I agree with Yukl (1999) that MBEP does not seem appropriately classified as transactional leadership and instead seems best listed as merely a passive-avoidant leadership style. There is difficulty differentiating CR from the five I's of transformational leadership, and there is further difficulty differentiating many of the components of the five I's from one another, making this construct problematic.

## Engagement and the UWES

How frequently do employees (followers) in my organization feel engaged and how does this compare to Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) norms? Engagement results show that for all dimensions of both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 scales, college employees feel significantly (p≤.0001) more frequently engaged compared to those employees in both the Dutch and *other languages* databases established by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004). Results also show no significant differences when using either the UWES-17 or UWES-9. Overall college aggregated employee work engagement scores are "high" for all dimensions on both the UWES-17 and UWES-9. Disaggregated, individual leader data shows 16 of the 18 leaders examined have followers who feel "high" to "very high" engagement. Though these engagement scores are significantly higher than other published results, Schaufeli et al. (2006) report managers and educators have higher engagement compared to blue-collar workers.

For both UWES scales, the mean college score for dedication was significantly higher than the mean score for both vigor and absorption. Interviews show employees are primarily engaged through both transformational (the five I's) and active transactional leadership styles (contingent reward and management-by-exception active) that specifically increase their levels of dedication more so than either vigor or absorption.

Frequency of interview codes are 61 dedication, 14 vigor, and 9 absorption. Interviews also show passive-avoidant leadership styles (management-by-exception passive and laissez-faire) are likely to disengage the employee and in particular the dimension of dedication.

These relationships between leadership styles and employee engagement were explored quantitatively through two hypotheses. Hypothesis one supports a correlation between transformational leadership and follower work engagement, as measured by the MLQ and UWES. Results show (Table 4.15) there is a modest positive correlation between dedication-17 and idealized influence attributes (IIA) (r =.49, p≤.05). Importantly, a similar result was not obtained between dedication-9 and idealized influence attributes (IIA). Moreover, there are no other significant correlations between transformational leadership factors and employee engagement (Table 4.15). Though there is support for hypothesis one, realistically it should be emphasized this is based on only one modest, positive correlation.

Hypothesis two supports a correlation between leadership style (or outcome) and follower work engagement, as measured by the MLQ and UWES. However, once again, results offer only a few modest correlations (Table 4.15). Results show there is a modest positive correlation between contingent reward (CR) and both dedication-9 and the total UWES-9 (r =.55 and .54, p≤.05). Leadership outcome extra effort (EE) modestly positively correlates with dedication-9 (r =.54, p≤.05). Laissez-faire (LF) leadership has a modest negative correlation with dedication-17 (r = -.49, p≤.05). Thus, the absence of leadership relates to less dedication, whereas idealized influence attributes (transformational) and contingent reward (transactional) leadership styles relate to higher dedication and engagement.

Regardless of leadership style, engagement scores are significantly high with most followers exhibiting "high" to "very high" levels of engagement. Thus, obtaining a highly significant correlation between transformational or other leadership styles and employee engagement was unlikely. Possible explanations include, the UWES engagement scale may not be the most ideal

for this culture and context, the UWES engagement conceptualization and tool itself may be problematic, or college employees truly are this highly engaged despite leadership style and outcomes of leadership. If leadership style is not the sole source for employee engagement, then the question of what other factors may be involved needs to be addressed? Differences between individual rights in Western versus Micronesian culture may help to explain why these results differ significantly from other contexts reported. Micronesian culture does not support individual rights as they are known in Western cultures, and the native languages do not have words to describe individual rights. Instead, the individual has only duties to the family and community rather than expectations for oneself. Micronesian society operates to achieve harmony by meeting the needs of others and reaching consensus (Hezel, 2001; Hezel, 2013).

In this context, engagement may not rely solely on the leader's style, but might be more dispersed, coming from lateral sources (peers) as well as subordinates. Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) posit engagement is contagious, and thus can spread across working teams. Pearce et al. (2007) note motivation might come from members of a team who are not in formal roles of authority. Thus, in a culture where individuals do not have a sense of entitlement and are used to performing duties for the collective good, in order to achieve goals derived by consensus within the community, engagement may come from all levels and not merely the leader. Alternatively, cultural aversion to displeasing others and disrupting harmony may have caused followers to more positively indicate their levels of engagement on the questionnaire. Survey respondents may not have wanted to offer the impression they were not happy with their positions. And, finally, in the context of self-reported data, it is not known whether followers may have been concerned that lower levels of engagement might reflect poorly on their personal performance.

So, does transformational leadership in my organization enhance employee engagement? There is only modest quantitative evidence to support this relationship. Transactional leadership, specifically contingent reward, more

highly, albeit still modestly, correlates to employee engagement. However, interviews revealed how both transformational and active transactional leadership styles might enhance employee engagement and more specifically dedication (chapter 5, anticipated categories 1-6). I have already discussed the importance of transactional leadership in this context, especially that of contingent reward. Irrespective of leadership style, employee engagement in this context is significantly higher than other published results. This may be due to traditional culture and lateral sources of engagement, and further exploration of these results would be valuable. And, if employees truly are this highly engaged, despite leadership, exploring the reasons why would offer beneficial insight.

**Reflections on the UWES: Is it valid for this context?**
As with the MLQ, it is beyond the scope of this study to determine the validity of the UWES construct and tool, however it is worthwhile to note the contributions this work has made to the literature by pointing to results that might augment or diminish the UWES construct validity. Such results can be considered in future studies. Additionally, these are the first published UWES results from a Micronesian HE context.

All three dimensions of engagement for both UWES scales moderately to highly positively correlate with the overall UWES score (UWES-17, r ranging from .69 to .78, p ranging from ≤.01 to ≤.001; UWES-9, r ranging from .66 to .86, p ranging from ≤.01 to ≤.0001). Breevaart et al. (2012) note the three engagement factors should intercorrelate with the overall engagement scores because engagement represents one general factor that consists of three dimensional factors (vigor, dedication, and absorption). Therefore, one can either examine the three factors independently, or combine them into a single measurement. However, they also caution information can be lost when combining the scores, if the researcher is not aware of contexts in which the outcome variables would be expected to differentially relate. Christian et al. (2011) argue highly positively intercorrelated results are common, and cause them to view engagement as a higher-order construct, and thus they reject

both this rationale and the use of multiple dimension measures for engagement. Yet, others found examination of the UWES-9 three dimensional factors (vigor, dedication, and absorption) offered a better fit to their Italian and Dutch data than the one factor (total engagement) score (Balducci, Fraccaroli, & Schaufeli 2010; Littman-Ovadia & Balducci, 2013). Because both contextual data and intercorrelation interpretations are variable, future work and application of the UWES in this context should begin with a more detailed examination of the psychometric properties of the various versions of the UWES applied to Micronesian samples.

Results show, vigor-17 does not intercorrelate with dedication-17 or absoprtion-17; however, dedication-17 and absorption-17 do modestly positively intercorrelate (r =.48, p≤.05). Dedication-9 has a moderate positive intercorrelation with vigor-9 (r =.62, p≤.01) and a modest positive intercorrelation with absorption-9 (r =.55, p≤.05). Vigor-9 does not intercorrelate with absorption-9. Because the UWES conceptualizes both vigor and dedication as opposites to burn out, but considers absorption to be a more distinct measure of engagement (Table 2.3), one might expect vigor and dedication to highly intercorrelate and for neither to highly intercorrelate with absorption. One might instead believe all three dimensions should intercorrelate because they are three dimensions of the same factor of engagement. Regardless of the interpretation, these data fit neither expectation fully.

College work engagement mean scores for the dimension of dedication were highest on both the UWES-17 and UWES-9 (Figure 4.11 and Table 4.11). Dedication-17 was significantly greater than vigor-17 which was in turn significantly greater than absorption-17. Dedication-9 was significantly greater than vigor-9 and absorption-9. Dedication was experienced more frequently by participants with absorption occurring the least frequently (DE→VI→AB). This is different to results obtained by Littman-Ovadia and Balducci (2013) whose context yielded vigor as the most frequently occurring and dedication as the least. However, when Littman et al. (2013) and Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006) compared manager and non-manager engagement scores,

they found managers reported higher levels of dedication and that educators also displayed high levels of dedication. My results support educators having high levels of dedication.

Schaufeli et al. (2006) also found educators and managers to display higher levels of vigor. And, the ranking from highest to lowest for Schaufeli et al. (2006) for educators was: VI→DE→AB and managers was: DE→VI→AB. Littman-Ovadia and Balducci (2013) and Schaufeli et al. (2006) suggest this might be because non-managers, compared to managers, have less access to job resources, which are known antecedents to work engagement.

Complicating interpretation is that this study's engagement scores includes a combination of both educators and managers/non-managers. That said, in this study, absorption is the least frequently experienced dimension of engagement, which is in agreement with published results for educators. Moreover, Sulaiman and Zahoni (2015) also found absorption to be the least frequently experienced dimension of engagement, and they refer to the importance of cooperation and team work in Malaysian culture, and emphasize engagement is somewhat individual in nature, and in particular the absorption dimension. Within this similar high power distance culture, where individual rights are less relevant, this may help to explain why absorption is lower than both dedication and vigor, and is also infrequently coded in interviews. Vigor is likely also not rated as frequently in this Micronesian HEI because vigor refers to energy levels, and between 73.1-92% of adults are considered to be overweight/obese, diabetes is among the nation's leading causes of death, and for both conditions fatigue is commonly experienced (Aitaoto & Ichiho, 2013; Park, Park, Quinn, & Fritschi, 2015). Thus, absorption may not be as relevant to Micronesian culture, and lower vigor may have less to do with job burnout, and more to do with non-communicable diseases associated with obesity and diabetes rates.

## Background, Training, Development, and Experience of Leaders: Contributions to Leadership and Engagement

Parochial (private) education, access to US higher education, family, and mentors are background factors that have contributed to the success of eight leaders interviewed. Parochial education offers advantages that ultimately prepares leaders for success within these islands and at university (discussed in chapter 5). Fundamentally, parochial education will remain a key factor in leader success, until and unless, the state funded schools raise and maintain their standards for teacher credentials, certification, work responsibility, and accountability, as well as for adequate facilities and educational resources.

Agreements with the US that allows access to US financial aid increases access to higher education for FSM citizens. However, this access depends on the Compact of Free Association with the US, and will be at risk during the renegotiation of the economic provisions of the Compact (current provisions expire in 2023). US financial aid may also be supplemented by FSM national scholarships for those who are FSM citizens. All leaders interviewed attended US HEIs. Additionally, in the last ten years, over 45 faculty and staff completed an online degree program. Improved development of telecommunications infrastructure has paved the way for increased access to HEIs and additional training opportunities. Institutional capacity may be strengthened by access to online degree and training programs, which also allows college employees the benefit of remaining in post, with their families, and to benefit from institutional advancement opportunities.

The institution also offers educational leave for those who may qualify and/or who may choose to instead pursue advanced degrees in a traditional, bricks-and-mortar setting. In some cases, financial support from professional development funds may also be accessed by employees. Professional development funds are a valuable resource, especially for those employees pursuing graduate degrees, as US financial aid only directly supports undergraduate degrees (offering only student loan options for graduate degrees). This professional development program is positive for both employees and the institution they serve. This study shows that when leaders

embraced happenstance opportunities they earned HE degrees and obtained positions at the college. Those leaders who entered the college without an advanced degree have since had the opportunity to do so. These leaders remain with the institution and this points to the importance of the institution investing in its human capital and the positive return on that investment.

Family plays an essential role in developing and encouraging leaders, but family can also require leaders to sacrifice personal freedom. Individual rights succumb to those that are in the best interests of the family, and this personal sacrifice represents a form of respect. Respect is given to family and to members of one's community; and in exchange one builds up reciprocity in social and cultural currency. Interviews show families, parochial education, and mentors have also demonstrated and taught fundamental principles of respect, a key factor in the effectiveness of a leader and necessary to enhance employee engagement. Leaders must offer deference when expected, suppresses anger, and shows humility to earn respect from followers. Effectively communicating, in particular through active listening, followed by understanding and support is likely to engage followers. Uncivil and disrespectful leaders are likely to disengage followers because such behavior is contrary to cultural norms and values.

> *… if my supervisor does not understand that I'm going through a rough time then the work might not be meeting the expectations because it might affect my performance. If the supervisor tries to understand, and we have a common understanding and expectation, then I will know that he or she understands and cares… (Respondent 1)*

Expatriate leaders must gain an understanding of local culture and conduct themselves respectfully in order to engage employees. And, Micronesian college leaders have to be allowed some latitude and understanding for adhering to local cultural expectations when moving forward on decisions and taking actions likely to lead to community consequences for themselves. College interests are not sacrificed, but the alert practitioner remains aware of the tensions faced when college needs are placed above those of community members. Additional steps are necessary to mitigate social consequences, and those steps vary within each of the island cultures. Leaders who lose

community respect are not likely to retain respect within the college; and without respect, leaders are not going to readily engage followers.

## Respect as a Core Category

Respect emerged as the core category for essential leadership behavior for enhancing follower engagement in this context. Fundamentally, leaders who trust followers, practice humility, and are honest will find reciprocity of these behaviors from their followers and earn their respect. Followers believe leaders convey respect through effective communications. Effective communications involve active listening, understanding, civil discourse (civility), and say-do. Leaders need to clearly articulate vision and goals for attainment, and then allow followers some latitude and autonomy in how those goals are achieved. When goals are thus achieved, followers desire recognition and reward for their efforts, and they feel this is an essential way for a leader to pay respect. The nature of leadership actions is also essential to earning follower respect. To that end, leaders should be consistent, fair, and never arbitrary in their decision-making.

We have seen that when leaders provide a stimulating work environment, follower engagement is enhanced. Stimulation includes inspiration, motivation, and team building. Additionally, stimulation is offered when work is challenging, meaningful, purposeful, innovative, and creative.  Dedication is the engagement dimension most supported by these leadership behaviors. Follower vigor is diminished often by factors least directly in the control of the leader such as personal loss, conflict with a colleague(s), looming drudgeries, and perhaps even obesity/diabetes.

# Chapter 7. Conclusions

## Implications for Future Research

In chapter 6, I pointed to possible future research, and here I summarize those implications. Because demographic data were not collected on participants, contextual differences could not be explored. A study where rich demographic data are collected on participants will allow disaggregation to explore potential significant contextual differences between age, gender, origin, campus location, time employed, position, and level within the institution that might further inform leadership strategies most likely to enhance engagement for those subpopulations.

Interviews with employees should further explore the reasons why high levels of employee engagement exist despite few college leaders being rated as demonstrating transformational leadership. It would be valuable to answer the questions: Where the leader provides little transformational inspirational motivation, does transactional contingent reward instead provide sufficient motivation and guidance? Do followers self-motivate by creating and finding their own meaningfulness and setting their own goals? Do followers look beyond their immediate supervisor to other leaders who might motivate them in this way? Is engagement contagious in this context? Can one separate the exchanges of contingent reward from those of the transformational leader? Are there differences in the quality of exchanges and is there a fine line drawn between those leaders who are identified as transactional versus those identified as transformational?

Further, with few leaders perceived as transformational leaders, or meeting the MLQ (full range leadership model) benchmarks, why do employees remain so highly engaged? If leadership is not the sole source for follower engagement, what other variables might be at play? This study has touched on some possibilities, such as lateral sources of engagement and cultural differences, but much closer examination is still required here.

Psychometric analyses of both the MLQ and UWES to further examine validity in the Micronesian and Micronesian HE context would be valuable. Is the UWES the most ideal engagement measure for this cultural and organizational context? Finally, more investigations that are not as heavily reliant on self-reported quantitative data, and that are supplemented in turn by observations and interviews would be ideal.

## Implications for Practice

Woven throughout this discussion are implications for institutional practice and I will now summarize those implications here. Though this study was not intended to be generalizable, many of the results are supported by the literature. Therefore, potential for broadened implications for higher education practice, as well as similarly related work settings, exists. In particular, I have discussed those leadership practices that have the potential to enhance follower engagement, and those that are likely to disengage followers. As those leadership practices are substantiated by the literature, which are derived from a variety of work settings, it is suggested that the following should be considered when developing leadership training and designing work environments.

### For the Institution

*Training College Leaders*

The college should train leaders to empower followers to experiment with new approaches, to feel comfortable when new approaches fail (failure provides valuable information), and to understand that questioning *status quo* and taking initiative is not disrespectful, but instead essential to strategic management, continuous improvement, and innovation. If leaders are not willing to trust followers through empowerment or to share risks, followers will learn to stop taking them, and institutional effectiveness will stagnate. College leaders also need training on how to utilize strategies that will minimize both procrastination and stress associated with conducting performance improvement conversations, and towards ensuring constructive dialogue and productive strategies for improving follower performance. The strategies must

be specifically designed for navigating the cultural island context and in consideration of the importance of island community relationships.

The college must recognize those tensions faced by Micronesian leaders and allow them some latitude and understanding for adhering to and navigating local cultural expectations when moving forward on decisions, and taking actions likely to lead to community consequences for themselves. Though the college interests cannot be sacrificed, neither can important human relationships that could result in loss of community respect and support. Similarly, expatriate leaders need training to understand the local culture, cultural tensions, and how to conduct themselves respectfully in order to engage employees. And, this training should incorporate the importance of reciprocity and social exchange theory.

*Training Access: Developing College Leaders and Future College Leaders*
The college should deliver training programs directly on the campuses to benefit more employees collectively, when possible, rather than sending 1-2 individuals off island for training, with the erroneous assumption they will return and share what they have learned with their colleagues. Additionally, the institution should continue to invest in the professional development program for employees to ensure they are minimally credentialed for the fields in which they work, and to encourage exceeding those minimal credentials. Ongoing investment in the college's human capital is one that yields a positive return on both institutional and individual capacity. Employees build the knowledge and skills they need in order to comply with quality assurance standards. And, the college should actively bridge the mentoring and coaching gap to ensure ongoing support, advice, and guidance for its leaders. Importantly, employees feel rewarded by these personal investments and are likely to be more engaged.

*Educational Access to Develop Leaders from all Social Classes*
The college should establish cross-sector partnerships with the state and national K-12 educational systems to align resources, curriculum, and efforts to ensure students develop the skills necessary to succeed in college, and to

either transfer to a four-year program, or obtain employment. And, before and during the renegotiation of the economic provisions of the Compact, advocate to JEMCO the importance of retaining Pell Grant access for the citizens of the Micronesian nations (Freely Associated States). Without Pell Grant eligibility, these developing nations are unlikely to be capable of maintaining their HEIs, and those from the lower classes would be unable to pay for HE at home, via distance education, or abroad.

## Strengths and Limitations of the Study

Many leadership and engagement studies rely upon Likert type scales, such as the MLQ and UWES. The quantitative phase of this study also uses cross-sectional, self-reported data captured through the administration of these Likert-type scales, which limits conclusions about causality and generates concern for method bias (May et al., 2004; Saks, 2006; Viljevac et al., 2012). However, a strength of this study is that the qualitative, second phase expands the leadership and engagement research well beyond survey measures resulting in a more rigorous, triangulated approach that includes observations and interviews. Moreover, I have been able to establish linkages where results are consistent with established research and theory.

The samples used in this study are not homogenous and thus variables such as gender, age, race, campus, and leadership level within the organization were not controlled. Studies in different national contexts have shown differences for engagement due to age (Balducci et al., 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2006), gender (Balducci et al., 2010; Littman-Ovadia & Balducci, 2013; Schaufeli et al., 2006), hierarchical level of the leader (Littman-Ovadia & Balducci, 2013), managers and non-managers (Schaufeli et al., 2006; Littman-Ovadia & Balducci, 2013), and-crucially in our case study-educators (Schaufeli et al., 2006; Littman-Ovadia & Balducci, 2013). Additionally, this study did not separate faculty versus staff perceptions of leaders. Choices for increased anonymity for insider research meant sacrificing additional contextual variables that may yield interesting results, once disaggregated that are important to consider when designing leadership training and work

environments to better engage employees. Not having these demographic data, and not having longitudinal data, is a limitation to this study (Antonakis et al., 2003).

It was not known how long raters (followers) had worked with their respective leader, and this may have influenced results. However, division chairs were eliminated from the leaders examined because the majority of leaders in those positions had only occupied them for a brief period of time, certainly not long enough for followers to have well established perceptions of those leaders. Additionally, relationships between peers were not a focus, but these may play a role in engagement that should be explored in future work. Further, though it is acknowledged leadership can occur at all levels within the organization, emergent leadership was not explored, and thus this study examined only assigned leaders as perceived by their assigned followers.

Definitions of leadership, transformational leadership, and engagement provided in academically grounded literature shows lacking univocality and consensus. The models used to measure transformational leadership and engagement are also variable. When consensus within the field of practice is so diverse, I pragmatically chose the constructs and models I felt best met the needs of this study. However, results show those models may not be valid for this culture and context. Additionally, definitions of the outcomes of leadership and engagement are also variable. For example, authors do not agree on how organizational effectiveness is defined and measured (Pounder, 2001). And, though a study might form a relationship between transformational leadership indicating it is an antecedent to employee engagement, how authors have defined and measured each of these may make drawing comparisons inappropriate for studies that have used alternative constructs.

Despite the limitations of this study, there is much of value to derive from an original work on a Micronesian higher education context not represented in the literature. This work is not intended to be generalizable beyond its bounded context, nor the snapshot in time from which these data were extracted. The institution itself has undergone much change in the few years

since the study began. However, this work will surely prove useful to the institution and to others intending to design and conduct leadership training within the general Micronesian context, Oceania, and maybe even beyond.

## Original Contributions of the Research

This study contributes to the literature on higher education leadership and employee engagement, and specifically attempts to fill a gap in the literature with regard to the uniquely bounded context of a Micronesian HEI. This study moves beyond the prevalent designs for examining transformational leadership and employee engagement that merely utilize Likert-style questionnaires, and does so by including a qualitative phase that corroborates, enriches, and validates the quantitative phase. This study has contributed to academic discussions on the potential problems with the MLQ and UWES constructs both broadly, and specifically, as applied to this Micronesian HEI. Both the MLQ and UWES are heavily used in academic research, but this study shows these constructs may not be ideal for measuring transformational leadership or engagement respectively.

Although research evidences the importance of transformational leadership for enhancing employee engagement, this study has not substantiated that importance, and has instead shown transactional contingent reward is more important in this cultural and institutional context, at this time. Furthermore, despite leadership that does not generally meet the expectations of the full range leadership model, college employees are highly engaged. Thus, this study shows other factors are contributing to employee engagement, and those factors require further exploration.

## Personal Reflections

I undertook this study with the intention of enhancing employee engagement so that the institution might proactively keep pace with evolving accreditation standards. Early results indicated that employees were already highly engaged, despite leadership. Employees were not failing to meet accreditation standards because they were disengaged, they were failing to

do work because they needed on-going support, training, and guidance. Employees were dedicated to meeting standards, but did not understand *what* to do, or *how* to do it. I spent the two years of this study demystifying the accreditation process through training for all college employees, and institutional leaders were provided on-going expert support (mentoring/coaching). The college was removed from probation and underwent another comprehensive self-evaluation cycle that resulted in reaffirmation of accreditation. The institution was commended for its understanding of the accreditation process, the quality of its accreditation report and evidence of compliance, and "*the dramatically increased engagement and participation of faculty, staff, administrators, and Board of Regents in improving institutional quality and student learning*" (ACCJC, 2016, March, p. 5, External Evaluation Report). Transformational leadership may not be necessary for engagement, and engagement itself is not an outcome.

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# Appendices

## Appendix 1: Online Use Agreement MLQ

## Appendix 2: Permission to use MLQ copyrighted material

# mind garden
www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

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

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

for his/her thesis research.

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

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

Sincerely,

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

**Five Sample Items from the MLQ:**

Fails to interfere until problems become serious ……….....0   1   2   3   4

Instils pride in me for being associated with him/her ……….0   1   2   3   4

Spends time teaching and coaching…………………………0   1   2   3   4

Gets me to look at problems from many different angles…..0   1   2   3   4

Leads a group that is effective………………….................0   1   2   3   4

# Appendix 3: Work & Well-being Survey (UWES)

English version

**Work & Well-being Survey (UWES) ©**

*The following 17 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, cross the '0' (zero) in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by crossing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.*

|  | Almost never | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very often | Always |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| Never | A few times a year or less | Once a month or less | A few times a month | Once a week | A few times a week | Every day |

1. _____  At my work, I feel bursting with energy* *(VI1)*
2. _____  I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose *(DE1)*
3. _____  Time flies when I'm working *(AB1)*
4. _____  At my job, I feel strong and vigorous *(VI2)**
5. _____  I am enthusiastic about my job *(DE2)**
6. _____  When I am working, I forget everything else around me *(AB2)*
7. _____  My job inspires me *(DE3)**
8. _____  When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work *(VI3)**
9. _____  I feel happy when I am working intensely *(AB3)**
10. _____  I am proud on the work that I do *(DE4)**
11. _____  I am immersed in my work *(AB4)**
12. _____  I can continue working for very long periods at a time *(VI4)*
13. _____  To me, my job is challenging *(DE5)*
14. _____  I get carried away when I'm working *(AB5)**
15. _____  At my job, I am very resilient, mentally *(VI5)*
16. _____  It is difficult to detach myself from my job *(AB6)*
17. _____  At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well *(VI6)*

\* Shortened version (UWES-9); VI= vigor; DE = dedication; AB = absorption

## Appendix 4: Brief Interview Guide

**Structured Interview Questions:**

The following were the only structured interview questions, and I always ended with question 11:


Thank participant, and note how privileged I am to have them share with me.


1. Could you describe your educational background?
2. Could you tell me about your work experiences?
3. Can you tell me about how you decided to work for the college?
    a. How many years have you been with the college?
4. When do you feel you first experienced leadership opportunities?
    a. As you look back on these experiences do any stand out in your mind?
5. Can you tell me about a typical day at work?
    a. How you feel about coming to work?
6. Can you tell me about a time when you were motivated or inspired about your work?
    a. What motivated/inspired you?
    b. Follow on with an exploration of opposite: Can you tell me about a time when you were frustrated about your work?
        i. What frustrated you
7. Could you describe the leaders who have had the greatest influence on you?
8. What do you feel are the strengths and weaknesses of leaders within the college?
9. What has prepared you for leadership, and what has left you underprepared for leadership?
10. After having these leadership experiences, what advice would you give to someone who has stepped into a leadership role?
11. Final question: Is there anything you would like to ask me?

Thank participant again.

**Prompts:**
- Do not use, "why."
- That's interesting could you tell me…how/what/when/about…?
- Mmmm/Ummm/Uh huh…
- Turn respondent's words into questions.
- Can you walk me through that?
- What feelings did you have?
- What was ___ like for you?

## Appendix 5: UWES-17 and UWES-9 Follower Work Engagement Scores for 18 College Leaders
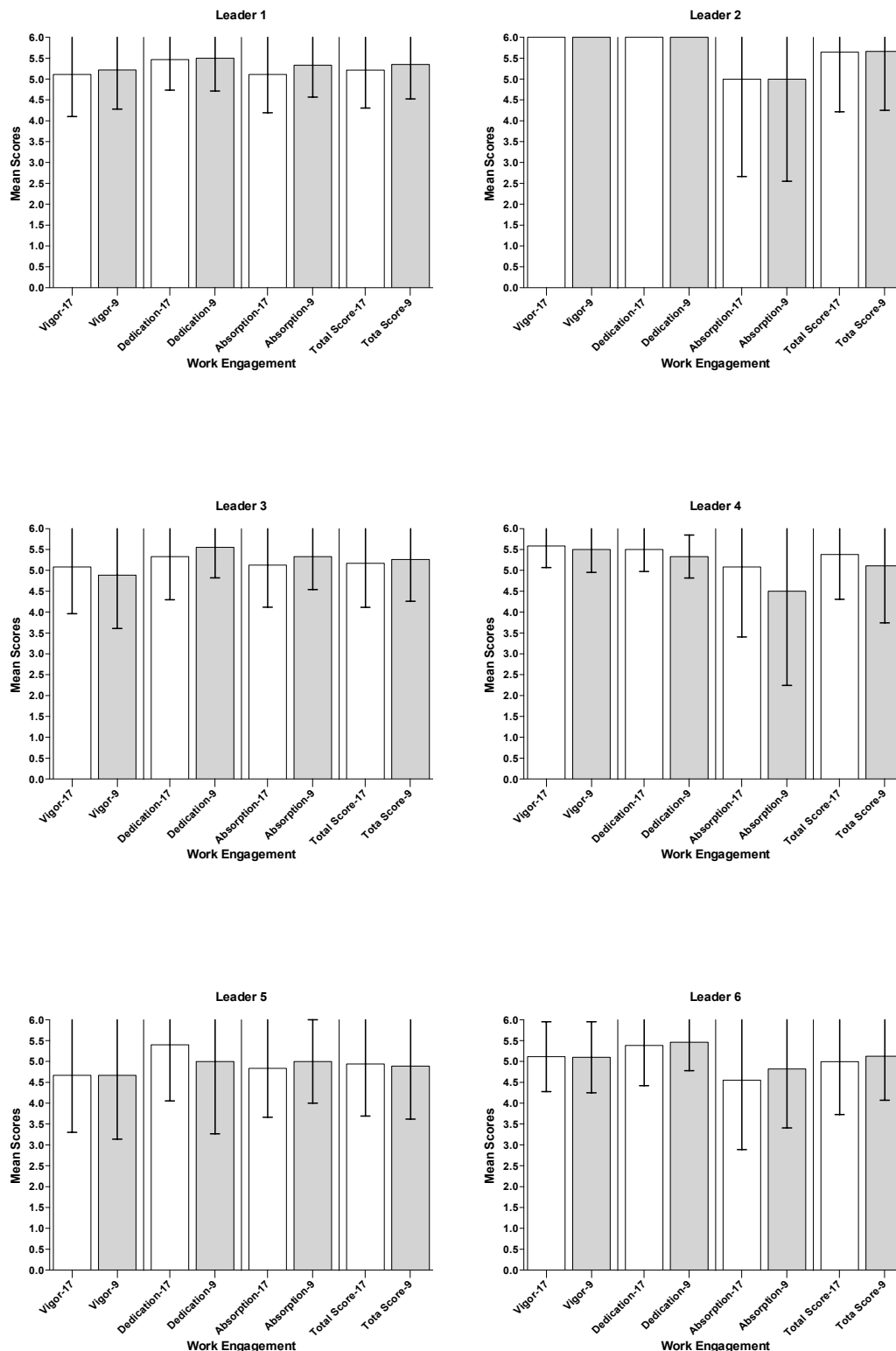


*Figure 4.12*.a. Mean follower engagement scores for the three dimensions of engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption; in addition to the total Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) scores, are presented for both the UWES-17 and UWES-9. All UWES work engagement results range between scores of 0-6 where 0 = never, 1 = almost never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often, and 6 = always. Error bars terminate at the maximum score of 6.0. Leaders 7-18 are presented in Figure 4.12.b and 4.12.c.
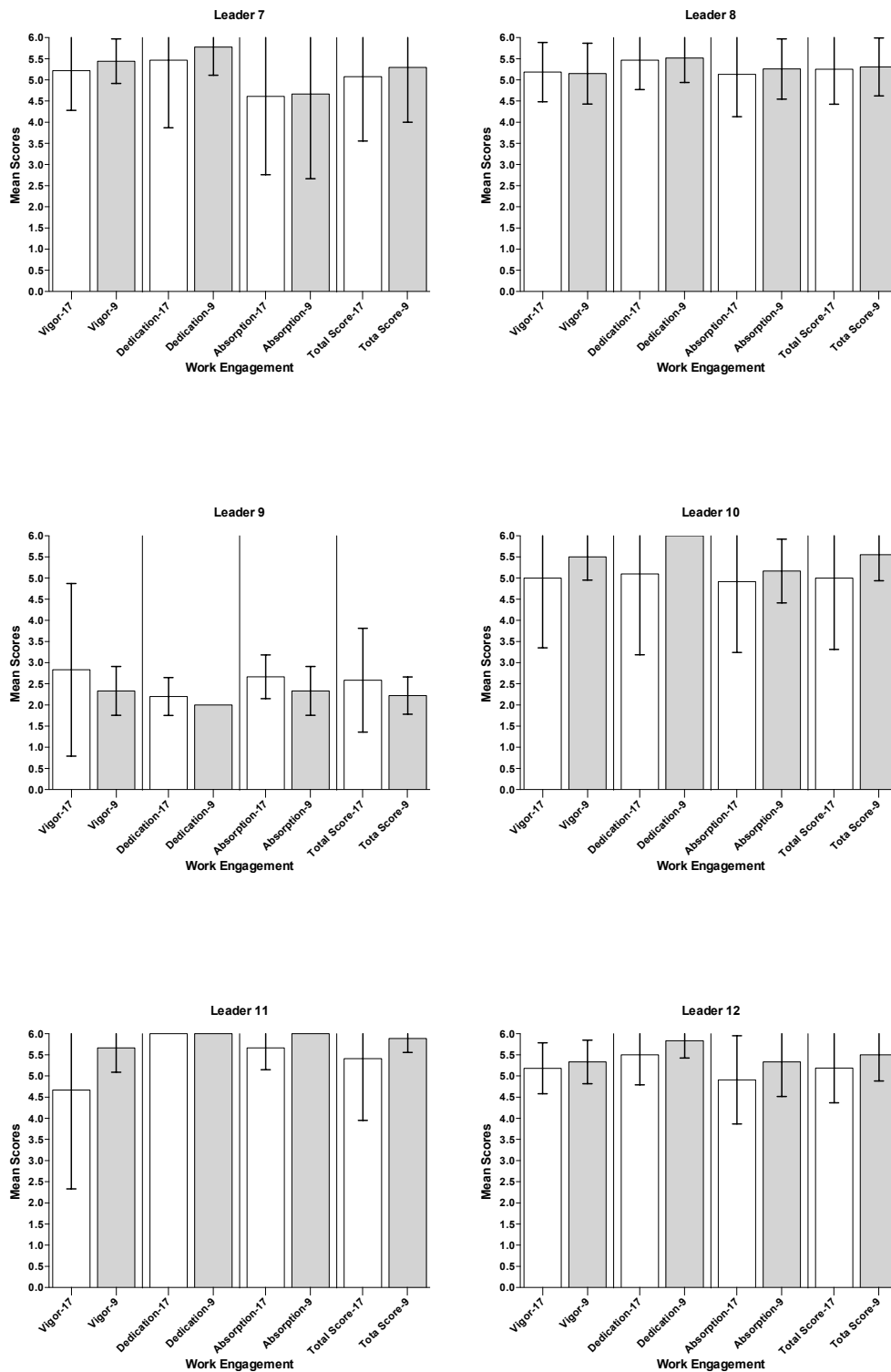
*Figure 4.12*.b. Mean follower engagement scores for the three dimensions of engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption; in addition to the total Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) scores, are presented for both the UWES-17 and UWES-9. All UWES work engagement results range between scores of 0-6 where 0 = never, 1 = almost never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often, and 6 = always. Error bars terminate at the maximum score of 6.0. Leaders 1-6 and 13-18 are presented in Figure 4.12.a and 4.12.c.
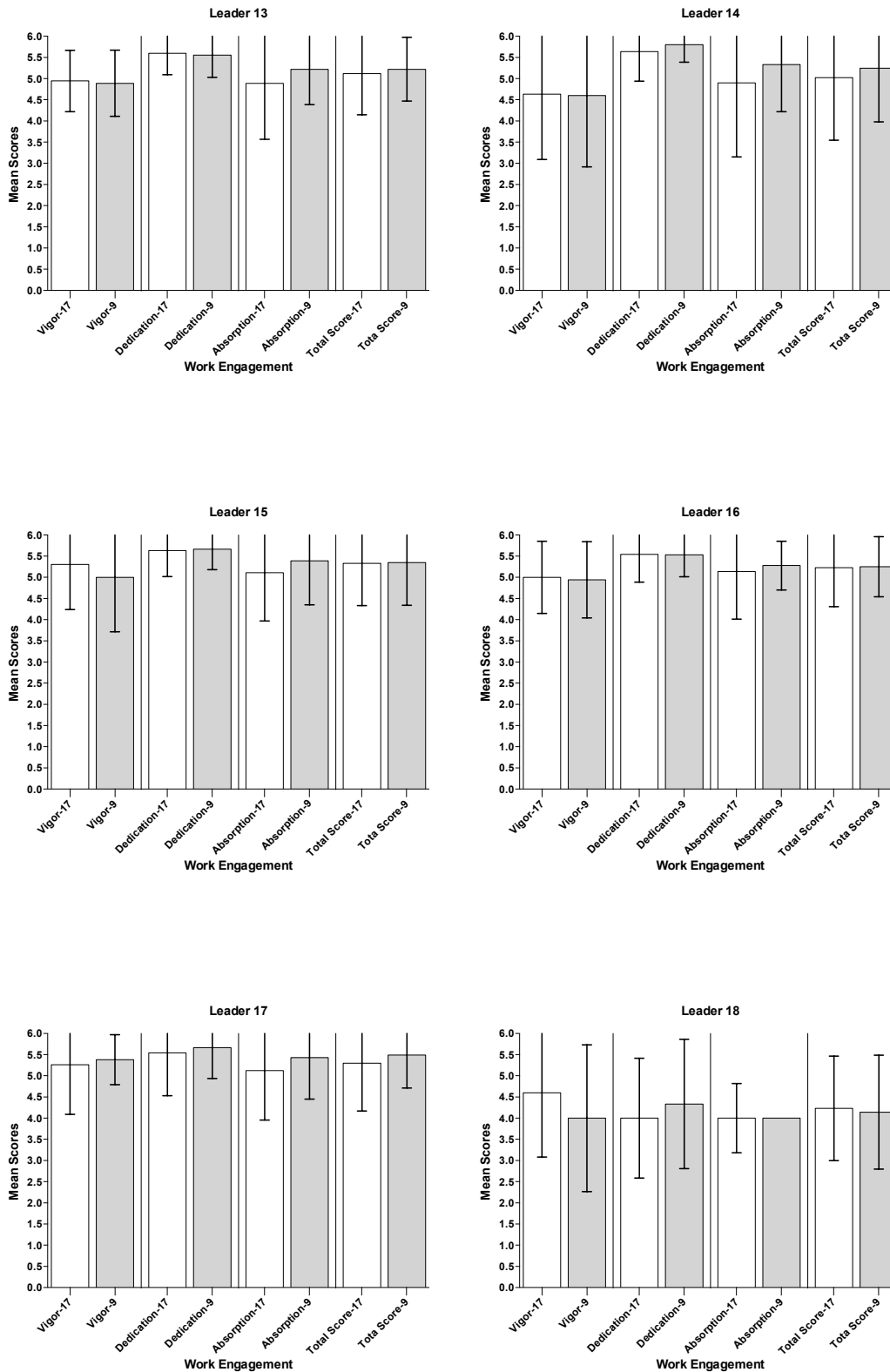
*Figure 4.12*.c. Mean follower engagement scores for the three dimensions of engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption; in addition to the total Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) scores, are presented for both the UWES-17 and UWES-9. All UWES work engagement results range between scores of 0-6 where 0 = never, 1 = almost never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often, and 6 = always. Error bars terminate at the maximum score of 6.0. Leaders 1-13 are presented in Figure 4.12.a and 4.12b.

# Appendix 6: JEMCO Adopted Resolutions

JEMCO ADOPTED RESOLUTIONS[1]
August 28, 2014 - Honolulu, Hawaii
September 18 and 25, 2014 – electronic voting

**Resolution JEMCO 2014-1 (Adopted August 28, 2014)  Use of Compact/SEG funds – Linkage to Accreditation Status**

JEMCO resolves, effective in Fiscal Year 2016, Compact Sector Grant and Supplemental Education Grant assistance may only be obligated for expenditure in support of schools that are accredited according to the FSM School Accreditation Policy or have completed an accreditation visit and are working toward full accreditation based on that same policy. Schools recommended for closure by the Secretary of Education may not be funded by Compact Sector Grant or Supplemental Education Grant assistance.

JEMCO further resolves, effective in Fiscal Year 2017, any school that fails the standards pertaining to potable drinking water and sanitary toilets will not receive Compact Sector Grant or Supplemental Education Grant assistance until it resolves this citation.

**Resolution JEMCO 2014-2 (Adopted August 28, 2014)**
**Personnel Leave Policies for Compact/SEG Supported Personnel**    JEMCO resolves, effective in Fiscal Year 2016, that Compact Sector Grant and Supplemental Education Grant assistance may not be used to compensate school-based personnel for more than 24 hours (3 days) of annual leave and 80 hours (10 days) of sick leave during the school year (5 days before school starts until 5 days after school finishes).

**Resolution JEMCO 2014-3-AMENDED (September 25, 2014)**
**Fiscal Year 2015 Sector Allocations**
JEMCO resolves that the amounts of Fiscal Year 2015 Compact of Free Association grant funding that were allocated by JEMCO through Resolution-2014-3 are now amended as follows and approved for use:

| | |
|---|---|
| $ 24,395,576 | Education |
| $ 20,111,540 | Health |
| $ 2,381,286 | Public Sector Capacity Building (added $12,075) |
| $ 1,988,599 | Private Sector Development |
| $ 1,520,544 | Environment (added $2,000) |
| $ 1,200,471 | Enhanced Reporting and Accountability |
| $ 51,598,016 | Total FY 2015 Sector Allocation (added $14,075) |

JEMCO further resolves that the following amounts of prior year unallocated Section 211 Compact of Free Association grant funding are approved for use:

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[1] Provided by Stephen Savage, Honolulu Field Office Manager, US Department of the Interior, 15 October 2015

$ 2,712,764  Education
$ 1,592,164  Health
$ 492,550   Public Sector Capacity Building
$ 172,000   Private Sector Development
$ 102,490   Environment
$ 470,000   Public Sector Infrastructure
$ 5,541,968  Total


**Resolution JEMCO 2014-4  (September 18, 2014)**
JEMCO allocates $356,233 of Section 211 Compact of Free Association assistance to the Health Sector to assist the Government of the FSM in its response to a measles outbreak in Chuuk State.


**Resolution JEMCO 2014-5 (September 25, 2014)**
**Chuuk Education Reform and FY15 Funding**
JEMCO resolves, that prior to drawdown of Fiscal Year 2015 Education Sector and Supplemental Education Grant assistance, Chuuk State must demonstrate the full implementation of the commitments mutually agreed upon by the Chuuk Board of Education and the Chuuk Advisory Group on Education Reform during its meetings on June 16-24, 2014:

- Full implementation of annual contracts as finalized in the School Board adopted personnel policies drafted by McREL
- Full implementation of central office realignment and selection of candidates for the new positions
- Continued implementation of the School Board adopted teacher/principal recruitment and training program

Notwithstanding the lack of full implementation of the above detailed commitments, grant assistance may be made available for scheduled drawdowns beginning on October 1, 2014, for a grace period sufficient to allow for the convening of a second High Level Meeting on Education Reform and a reasonable period thereafter to allow for full implementation of the above detailed commitments and to establish stronger mechanisms to ensure fulfillment of mutually agreed commitments to improve educational outcomes. Such grace period shall not extend beyond December 31, 2014.


**Resolution JEMCO 2014-6  (September 25, 2014)**


**Special Grant Terms and Conditions – FY 2016**
 JEMCO resolves that the following special grant terms and conditions apply to the Fiscal Year 2016 Education Sector Grant and Supplemental Education Grant:
· Compact Sector Grant and Supplemental Education Grant assistance may only be obligated for compensation of education department personnel who are employed pursuant to contracts that include performance evaluations.
· Drawdown of Fiscal Year 2016 Education Sector Assistance or Fiscal Year 2015 Supplemental Education Grant funds (made available on or about October 1, 2015) is not to occur until the Government of the FSM has certified to the U.S. Department

of the Interior's Office of Insular Affairs that it has fulfilled the terms of the preceding paragraph.