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Instructional Behavior and Its Impact on Student Engagement

Debra Joan Crumpton
Walden University

Walden University

College of Management and Technology

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Debra Joan Crumpton

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Review Committee
Dr. Dean Frost, Committee Chairperson,
Applied Management and Decision Sciences Faculty

Dr. Richard Schuttler, Committee Member,
Applied Management and Decision Sciences Faculty

Dr. Raghu Korrapati, University Reviewer
Applied Management and Decision Sciences Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2018

Abstract

by

Debra Joan Crumpton

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MBA, Golden Gate University

BA, University of Puget Sound

Dissertation Submitted in Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Leadership and Organizational Change

Walden University

August 2018

Abstract

The purpose of this quantitative study was to expand understanding of leadership behaviors and their influence on follower engagement. Researchers have shown that engagement is a predictor of retention and organizational performance. Leadership theory and the conceptual framework of worker engagement were the study's theoretical anchors. Despite a proliferation of leadership studies, engagement antecedents are largely unknown. The aim of this study was to narrow the gap in the literature by examining the extent to which there may be a relationship between college instructors' behaviors and student engagement. Although not traditionally regarded as frontline leaders, extant leadership literature affirmed college instructors' organizational position, role, and responsibilities as direct supervisors and students as their followers. The independent variables were instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning. Student engagement was the dependent variable. Correlation and regression analysis were applied to existing survey data collected in 2014 from students who were enrolled in a diverse, urban community college located in a major metropolitan city in the United States. The most prominent finding, that leadership behaviors had the strongest correlation to student engagement, contributed to the body of leadership knowledge by reaffirming leadership behaviors as a predictor of follower engagement. Given the increasing diversity of workers and followers, this study's findings have the potential to help leaders more effectively engage followers who are members of historically marginalized groups, thereby, helping to narrow equity gaps and advance social justice, particularly in higher education.

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Dedication

This body of work is dedicated to my mother. Tragically, her birth and upbringing in the segregated south and her years of hard labor in racially polarized New York in the 1940s denied her the dreams of her mind and heart. Each day, her abiding presence reminds me not to die with my music still inside of me. Because of my mother, I have the courage to sing my life song.

This work is also dedicated to my ancestors, those named and those who shall forever be nameless. I stand on their shoulders, and draw resolve from their sacrifices. Because of them, I am.

Acknowledgments

Gratitude overwhelms me. I am most humbled by the Divine Intelligence that sustains and guides me, and that bought me through this journey. All I had to do was remember that I am never alone.

I am grateful to my dissertation committee and offer special thanks to my committee chair, Dr. Dean Frost. His belief in me, and in my study, never faltered. His encouragement always arrived when I needed it most. Dr. Richard Schuttler's knowledge and experience enabled me to search in the right places and to dig deep to discover my scholarly voice. And, to my very first mentor, Dr. Charles Corley, thank you. You inspired me more than words can express.

I am grateful to my organization for enabling my study by allowing me to use its data. The soul of my efforts is anchored in advancing the dreams of the students that the organization, and organizations like it, serve. I am thankful to the Community College Leadership Program, College of Education, at the University of Texas at Austin for permitting me to use its survey instrument.

Along my doctoral journey I was shepherded by an army of family members, friends, colleagues, and acquaintances. They encouraged, inspired, prodded, cajoled, and prayed with me. I will be forever grateful to each of them. Dr. John Morales, thank you for the countless early morning coffee shop meetings.

To my life partner – I could not have done this without you. You held my hands, my heart, and my dreams. My sacrifices were your sacrifices, and you sacrificed without remorse or regret. I love you. We made it! Thank you.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Engagement is an organizational imperative that is dependent upon leaders and their ability to motivate and inspire followers. A desired organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), engagement has been linked to retention and organizational competitiveness (Choi, Tran, & Park, 2015; Radda, Majidadi, & Akano, 2015). Consequently, how followers interpret a leader's behaviors and respond to them are of keen importance (Mills, Fleck, & Kozikowski, 2013).

Organizations depend on leaders to behave in a manner that engages followers to perform at their highest level. Included in the management and leadership literature are studies that highlight the positive effects of follower-centric leadership behaviors (Stanislaw, Krzysztof, & Kamila, 2015). Employees perform their work tasks more effectively and work group conflict is minimized. As Chaurasia and Shukla (2013) reported, follower engagement is highest when leaders behave in a manner that demonstrates regard for followers' needs and aspirations. Such follower-centric leadership behaviors help workers adjust to and cope with stress, complexity, and uncertainty while contributing to organizational performance and organizational capacity building (Nicolaides & McCallum, 2013). Followers give more of their time, energy, and talents to their work and they demonstrate more care about their work group, their leader, and the organization (Simons, Leroy, Collewaert, & Masschelein, 2015). In the literature, engagement, a measure of followers' mental, physical, and emotional commitment to work tasks and to his or her organization, is synonymous with motivation (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2014).

Institutions of higher learning, like their business counterparts, require leadership efficacy. Traditionally, college instructors are not regarded as frontline leaders (DeZure, Shaw, & Rojewski, 2014). However, existing leadership research affirm their organizational position, role, and responsibilities as direct supervisors and students as their followers (Hofmeyer, Sheingold, Klopper, & Warland, 2015; Juntrasook, 2014; Warren, 2016). Instructors have the ability to influence students' behavior and attitude. The literature is sparse regarding instructor leadership behaviors; little is known about the relationship between instructors' leadership behaviors and student engagement (Gumus, Bellibas, Esen, & Gumus, 2018). Because a classroom is a social organization (Merwe, 2015), issues regarding leadership and organizational change are within the realm of management and leadership studies.

The paucity of leadership research in higher education suggests that instructor leadership may be undervalued. Importantly, the void may signal missed opportunities that would help improve retention and organizational performance (Juntrasook, Nairn, Bond, & Spronken-Smith, 2013). Building on previous research, this study addressed the gap in the management literature by expanding understanding of instructors as leaders.

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which there may be a relationship between instructors' leadership behaviors and student engagement. Consistent with extant literature, this study posited leadership behaviors as antecedents to leader-member relationships (Monzani, Ripoll, & Peiró, 2014). In this study, instructor-student relationships were a proxy for leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships.

This chapter includes background information about the problem that is addressed in the study. It also includes an overview of the theoretical framework for exploring the relationship between instructor leadership behaviors and student engagement. The study's significance, assumptions, delimitations, and scope are also discussed.

Background of the Problem

Global competition and changing demographics mandate organizational change and effective leadership. Disengaged followers, estimated to be as high as 80% of workers worldwide, are a direct threat to competitiveness and sustainability (Radda, Majidadi, & Akano, 2015). Disengagement has been associated with billions of dollars of lost productivity in the United States, the United Kingdom, and Japan (Mohammed, Fernando, & Caputi, 2013). Given that leaders are essential to worker engagement (Choi, Tran, & Park, 2015), America's need to improve its global competitiveness and economic wellbeing has led to focused attention on leaders' behaviors (Bester, Stander, & Van Zyl, 2015), follower engagement (Hudson, 2013), and institutions of higher learning (Seritanondh, 2013).

In the management literature, organizational efforts to improve follower engagement are the focus of worldwide study. Colleges and universities are not immune to follower disengagement nor are they immune to external forces and pressures that demand improved performance and accountability (McClenney, 2013; Ngo, 2015). Of the 48% of the nation's college students who begin their postsecondary studies at community colleges (Shapiro, Dundar, Yuan, Harrell, & Wakhungu, 2014), as much as

25% of first year students drop out by the fourth week of the first term. Of those who continue, 50% will not return for a second year.

Improved retention of America's college students is a national and economic imperative. As of 2018, more than 51% of Americans are marginally employable because 68% of all new U.S. jobs will require postsecondary credentials, which these Americans do not have (Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, 2016). Many demand positive change. Among the most demanding are business organizations who rely on a highly skilled, college educated workforce, taxpayers whose dollars support public colleges and universities, and legislators who are being held accountable by their constituent groups. In addition to relying on institutions of higher learning to provide potential and current workers the knowledge and credentials they need to be employable, business organization depend on colleges and universities to be places where students are organizationally socialized (Stone, Canedo, & Tzafrir, 2013).

High rates of attrition reflect significant losses to various entities. Students who drop out of college hinder their opportunities to substantial lifetime earnings, which are correlated with the attainment of postsecondary credentials (Klor de Alva & Schneider, 2013). In 2010, for example, the nation's taxpayers incurred a $4 billion loss when the cohort of 2004-2008 fulltime college students did not return after their first year of study (Carnevale, Smith, & Strohl, 2010). In California, the largest provider of higher education in the United States, almost $3 billion of state and local appropriated funds, as well as $240 million in state grants, were lost.

Given the potential loss of human talent and revenue, focusing scholarly attention on the retention of community college students was warranted. Researchers have shown that first year community college students who return for a second year and who subsequently transfer to a 4-year college or university are just as likely to complete a baccalaureate program as students who begin their postsecondary (i.e., education after high school) education at a 4-year college or university (Mansson, 2016). According to national data, after accounting for financial hardship and academic reasons, there is no explanation or research that provides a clear understanding as to why as many as 75 - 85% of community college students do not persist (Kena et al., 2015). Instructors' leadership behaviors in the classroom, and their effect on students, may be a contributing factor.

Confounding organizational efforts to improve retention may be the diversity of the community college student population. It is unmatched by both the business community and 4-year colleges and universities (Rodriguez, 2015). More than 51% of the students enrolled in community colleges are from underrepresented groups. A disproportionate number are nontraditional college students (Robinson, Byrd, Louis, & Bonner, 2013). This demographic includes adults who are 25 years of age or older, economically impoverished, immigrants, ethnic minorities, nonnative English speakers, first generation college students, military veterans, and disabled persons. Many are working adults who have dependent family members.

Diversity presents unique leadership challenges, particularly for leaders whose socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds may be significantly different from followers'

backgrounds. In higher education, most college instructors are members of historically dominant European-American groups that are socioeconomically and religiously homogenous (Fairlie, Hoffman, & Oreopoulos, 2014; Waddell, 2014). Most community college instructors are White and from a Judeo-Christian background. Their life experiences, perspectives, and norms differ from students of varying ethnic, racial, and socioeconomic backgrounds.

Fundamental differences in culture, ideology, and socioeconomics between leaders and followers present an organizational and leadership conundrum. Extant research identifies instructors as students' most influential organizational agent, even in higher education (Alexander, Karvonen, Ulrich, Davis, & Wade, 2012; Webber, Krylow, & Zhang, 2013). Community colleges' diverse student bodies, coupled with the relatively few postsecondary credentials awarded to individuals who are members of underrepresented groups (Aud et al., 2013), suggest that leader-centric behaviors may not effectively motivate students who are not members of the dominant ethnic group (Dimitrov, 2015). Researchers of culturally diverse organizations have shown that when leaders are properly prepared and professionally developed, they are perceived by all followers to be more effective.

The purpose of the study was to examine the extent to which there may be a relationship between instructors' leadership behaviors and student engagement. As leaders who are in direct and frequent contact with students, instructors shape classroom ethos and influence follower behavior (Suarez & Hernandez, 2012; Warren, 2016). Like a

direct supervisor's leader behaviors, which are predictive of worker engagement (Shu, 2015), instructors' leader behaviors in a classroom are predicative of student engagement.

Problem Statement

The general problem addressed by this study was the influence of leader behaviors on follower engagement. The specific problem addressed was the influence of instructors' follower-centric behaviors on student engagement. In this study I sought to determine if a relationship exists between instructors' leadership behaviors and student engagement. I examined specific dimensions of instructors' leadership behaviors that manifest in relationships and in group settings such as a college classroom.

The purpose was to understand how leadership affects group member task engagement. In this study classroom instructors were leaders, students in the classroom were group members, and learning tasks were the group's tasks. I aimed to generalize conclusions and understanding of engagement to organizations in general and management of task-performing groups. The theoretical framework was the LMX theory of leadership and concepts of employee engagement.

The need for the research study was, and remains, compelling and urgent. Colleges and universities must boost their organizational performance, which is dependent upon the performance and retention of their students. Almost 48% percent of college students begin postsecondary studies at a community college; disappointingly, only about 30% earn a postsecondary certificate, an associate's degree, or transfer to a 4-year college or university (Center for Community College Student Engagement, 2017).

As much as 25% of first year community college students drop out by the 4th week of the first term. Of those who continue, 50% will not return for a second year.

The high rate of attrition of community college students adversely affects the potential to increase the awarding of postsecondary degrees and certificates that are needed to narrow America's deficit of higher skilled workers. Although management literature affirms the efficacy of leadership behaviors and the predictive power of engagement as a driver of retention (Laschinger, Wong, & Grau, 2013; Zhang, Zhang, & Xie, 2015), little is known about the relationship between instructors' leadership behaviors and student engagement.

Students who, in 2014, were enrolled in a large, urban, diverse community college located in a major metropolitan city in California constituted the study's representative sample. The college serves more than 25,000 students. Existing survey research data were used for the study. The data were collected by the college using the Community College Student Report (CCSR). A sample of the CCSR is shown as Appendix A.

Nature of the Study

The study employed quantitative research methodology to examine the extent to which there may be a relationship between instructors' leadership behaviors and student engagement. The research design for the study was correlation and regression analysis. The purpose was to observe the association of the variables without interference. There were three independent variables: instructor behavior (IB), institutional support (IS), and depth of learning (DL). Student engagement (SE) was the dependent variable.

The study used existing survey data that is representative of the target population. The data were collected in 2014 from community college students whose classes were selected by stratified random sampling (Marti, 2009). This method of probability sampling ensured that each subgroup within the population was proportionally represented in the sample. The Community College Student Report (CCSR) was used to collect the data.

Research Questions & Hypotheses

The study was guided by the following research questions and their associated null and alternative hypotheses. Figure 1 illustrates the research model.

Research Question 1: To what extent does instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning, taken together, account for a significant amount of variance in student engagement ratings?

$H_0$1: Instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning, taken together, are not significantly predictive of variance in student engagement.

$H_1$1: Instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning, taken together, are significantly predictive of variance in student engagement.

Research Question 2: To what extent does instructor behavior predict student engagement when the effects of institutional support and depth of learning are held constant?

$H_0$2: Instructor behavior is a not significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of institutional support and depth of learning are held constant.

$H_1$2: Instructor behavior is a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of institutional support and depth of learning are held constant.

Research Question 3: To what extent does institutional support predict student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and depth of learning are held constant?

$H_0$3: Institutional support is not a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and depth of learning are held constant.

$H_1$3: Institutional support is a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and depth of learning are held constant.

Research Question 4: To what extent does depth of learning predict student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and institutional support are held constant?

$H_0$4: Depth of learning is not a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and institutional support are held constant.

$H_1$4: Depth of learning is a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and institutional support are held constant.

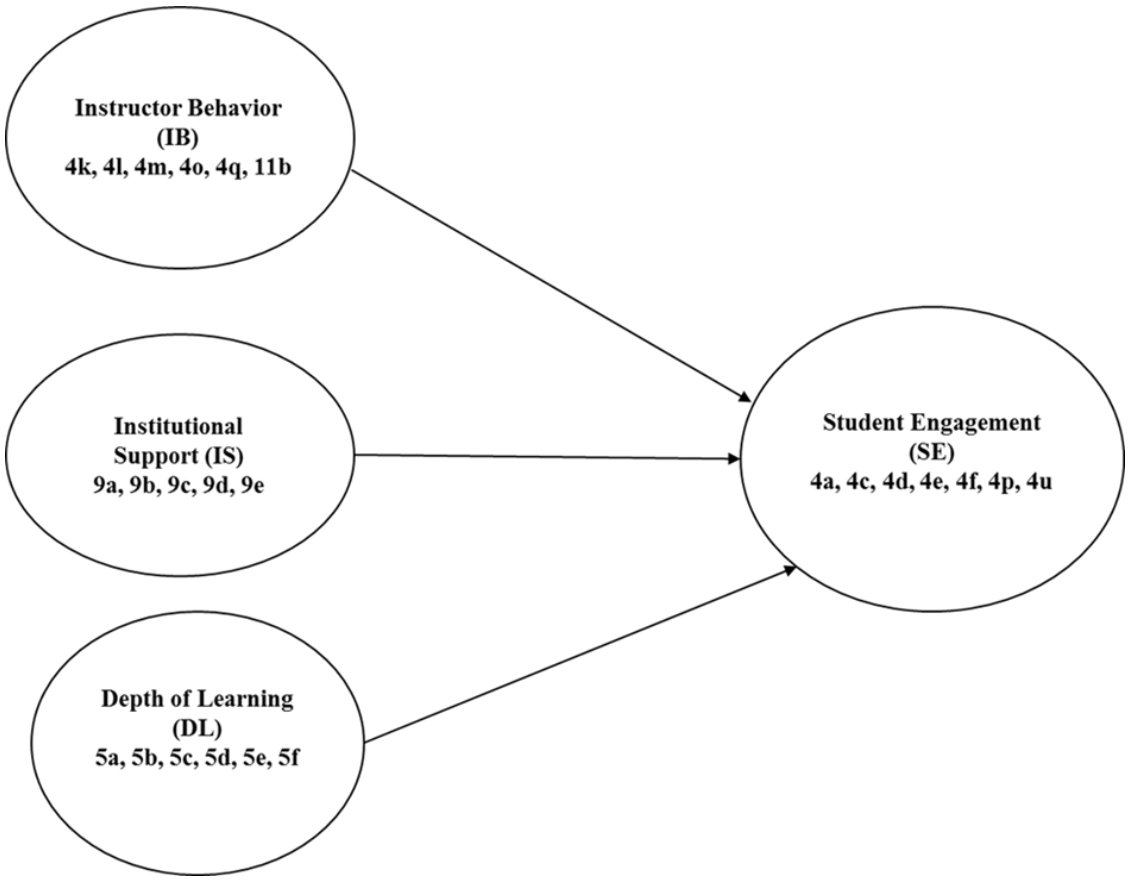

Figure 1. Conceptual model of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the correlation and regression study was to examine the extent to which there may be a relationship between instructors' leadership behaviors and student engagement. Extant research affirmed that engaged students are more likely to succeed academically and remain enrolled in college until they achieve their academic goals (Lawson & Lawson, 2013). The literature also showed that engagement is more important to students from historically underrepresented groups (Burke, 2014) than to traditional college students.

Analogous to work engagement in the business sector, student engagement is an area of considerable focus in higher education. In addition to contributing to the body of leadership literature by offering insights about leader behaviors, the intent of this study was to advance knowledge about leader behaviors and their association to follower engagement and retention. Like engaged workers who are enthusiastic, committed to performing well, and who care about their work unit and their organization (Ünal & Turgut, 2015), engaged college students are equally invested in performing well and achieving the desired outcome they and their organization share, which is to stay enrolled until a degree or certificate is conferred (Center for Community College Student Engagement, 2016). Moreover, the organizational performance and sustainability of institutions of higher learning are dependent upon students' active engagement.

Engagement is an impetus to creating desirable organizational outcomes. Consistent with the management literature that establishes a link between worker engagement and valued organizational outcomes that include increased productivity and lower turnover (Sarti, 2014), student engagement is an organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) that has been shown to be a decisive factor in improving student retention and performance in institutions of higher learning (Sun & Leithwood, 2015). Recommendations from this study may provide knowledge that will help college instructors become more effective leaders, particularly for socioeconomically disadvantaged students who comprise the majority of students at community colleges (Gilardi & Guglielmetti, 2011). The need for responsive and effective community college leadership will not abate. Increased admission selectivity and rising tuition at the nation's

4-year colleges and universities continue to make enrollment at community colleges attractive to non-traditional students (Carey, 2013). These challenges heighten the need for follower-centric instructor leadership.

Theoretical Framework

Leadership theory provides the theoretical anchor that supports instructors' behaviors as an independent variable. Engagement is theoretically supported by Kahn's (1990) seminal work that advanced perspectives regarding followers' investment in and commitment to an organization and its goals. Consistent with the leadership literature, engagement is a predictor of retention and both engagement and retention are dependent on leader behaviors (Choi, Tran, & Park, 2015; Radda, Majidadi, & Akano, 2015).

Leadership

Leadership is relational in nature. It is the ability to inspire and influence others to accomplish a desired aim (Gaiter, 2013). Organizational change and desirable OCBs such as motivation, commitment, engagement, and productivity depend on leadership (Gözükara, & Simsek, 2016). Postindustrial leadership theories and models operationalize leaders' behaviors as constructs that affect follower engagement.

In addition to affecting follower engagement, leadership behaviors shape leader-follower exchanges. According to Gooty and Yammarino (2016), a leader's behaviors are antecedents of leader-follower exchanges. The time and energy that leaders exert to share meaning, clarify tasks, offer feedback, and build relationships with followers significantly improves organizational outcomes. LMX theory maintains that leaders create unique relationships with followers and those relationships lead to reciprocating

behaviors (Casimir, Ng, Wang, & Ooi, 2012). Followers' perceptions of a leader's efficacy determine the quality of the leader-member relationship (Notgrass, 2014a). In this study, instructor-student relationships are a proxy for leader-member relationships.

Engagement

Engagement is an evolving construct whose strategic importance stretches throughout management and leadership literature. Kahn (1990) was the first organizational behaviorist to coin the term and study it as a desired OCB. He viewed engagement as workers' or followers' physical, mental, and emotional commitment to organizational tasks and to the organization itself. From Kahn's perspective, engagement is an expression of one's physiological, psychological, and emotional self. Other researchers have expanded Kahn's perspective, defining engagement as a positive state of mind or vigorous, dedicated energy (Holten & Brenner, 2015).

Given the extent to which engagement affects organizational productivity, it has become a subject of increasing scrutiny and study. It is estimated that American companies lose approximately $300 billion each year because workers are not engaged (Strom, Sear, & Kelly, 2014). Researchers have found a positive association between follower-centric leadership behaviors and follower engagement.

Definitions of Terms

The following terms are defined as they are used in this study.

Engagement: The mental, behavioral, cognitive vigor, dedication and commitment to tasks, a leader, and to an organization (Kusuma & Sukanya, 2013).

Leader-Member exchange theory (LMX): LMX posits that leaders develop individualized relationships with followers and that the quality of each relationship is measured on a continuum ranging from high to low (Furnes, Mykletun, Einarsen, & Glasø, 2015).

Non-traditional college students: Include adults who are 25 years of age or older, economically impoverished, immigrants, ethnic minorities, non-native English speakers, first generation college students, military veterans, and disabled persons (Gilardi & Guglielmetti, 2011). Nontraditional students are financially independent; many have dependent family members.

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB): A discretionary behavior that is beyond a follower or worker's job description and that cannot be coerced or contractually mandated, but is necessary if the follower, her work unit, and her organization are to perform beyond expectations (Gatti, Cortese, Tartari, & Ghislieri, 2014).

Persistence: In higher education, persistence is synonymous with retention; both refer to students' enrollment in a college or university until successful completion of a program of study (Kena et al., 2015).

Traditional college student: The traditional college student resides on the campus of a 4-year college or university, graduated from high school within two years of starting college, is 19-24 years of age, from a middle or upper class background, and financially dependent on his or her parents (Gilardi & Guglielmetti, 2011).

Scope of the Study

The scope of the study was limited to examination of the relationship between instructor behaviors in a community college classroom and student engagement. I used existing survey data that were collected in 2014 from a representative sample of community college students who were enrolled in a large, urban, diverse community college in a major metropolitan city in California. The CCSR was used to collect the data.

The study did not include review of institutional or structural characteristics (e.g., class size and student policies) and their effect on student engagement. The study did not include an examination of ecological factors such as students' family, social circle, religious affiliation, or peer-to-peer relationships. Students' precollege characteristics were not analyzed. Although student demographics (i.e., categorical variables such as age, race, and gender) are reflected in the descriptive statistics, analyses of these variables were not included in the study.

Assumptions of the Study

Improving organizational outcomes at institutions of higher learning will continue to be of strategic importance. By 2019, more than 8 million students will be enrolled in community colleges in the United States (Juszkiewicz, 2016). The need to adequately respond to legislative, policy, and community-based demands for improved organizational and student success will increase pressures to improve the performance of the nation's community colleges (Pera, 2013).

Limitations of the Study

The survey instrument, the CCSR, was not specifically developed for the study. The data that were used for the study were not collected by the researcher. The college that owns the data also collected the data.

The findings of the study may not be generalizable to other industries and different populations. Data were only collected from one community college, in one city in the United States. Data collection was limited to a single method.

Students' demographic factors such as age, gender, race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status were not be factored into the data analysis. Introducing demographic data into the analysis would have unnecessarily confounded both the analysis and the purpose of the study. The purpose of the study was to examine the extent to which there may be a relationship between instructors' leadership behaviors and student engagement.

Delimitations of the Study

The study was delimited by the exclusion of statistical analysis of mediating, moderating, and suppressing variables (e.g., age, gender, and ethnicity). While there is research that shows mediating, moderating, and suppressing effects of students' age, gender, and race or ethnicity on student engagement (Fairlie, Hoffman, & Oreopoulos, 2014), these characteristics are not germane to the research questions. Although interpretation of the findings of the study may be less precise, excluding potential confounding mediating and moderating variables from the analysis did not negate or detract from the stated purpose of the study. The purpose of the quantitative study was to

examine the extent to which there may be a relationship between instructors' leadership behaviors and student engagement.

Although the study focused on college instructors and students, there was no consideration or examination of gender differences among instructors or students. Furthermore, only student data collected during face-to-face classroom instruction were analyzed. Data that pertains to online instruction were not included in the study.

Significance of the Study

The study was significant because it had the potential to improve retention and performance in institutions of higher learning. Specifically, this study (a) offered insights and possible explanations about the association between leader behavior and followers' actions and their effect on organizational performance, (b) addressed previously identified gaps in the management and leadership literature by examining leader behaviors as an antecedent to follower motivation and leader-follower relationships, and (c) broadened the conceptualization of the leadership dynamic by expanding the role of classroom instructors in higher education.

Significance to Theory

The findings from the study contributed to the body of leadership and management literature and advanced understanding about leadership behavior. It has the potential to add information regarding the influence of leadership behaviors as a predictor of follower engagement, and, by extension, employee performance and retention. The study also contributed to the integration of leadership concepts, leadership behaviors, and LMX relationships, which are often examined independent of one another.

Significance to Practice

The study's findings provided a bifurcated lens that enables college instructors to view themselves as front-line leaders, and, thus, behave in a manner that more positively affects follower performance and organizational success. The findings may be of unique value for the college whose data were utilized in the study because the findings may inform institutional change and classroom praxis. There are recommended interventions that may improve retention.

Significance to Social Change

According to the extant leadership literature, engagement is uniquely important to individuals who are members of historically underrepresented groups (Patterson, 2013). The diversity of community college students is unprecedented in higher education (Klempin & Karp, 2018). As called out in Ashbaugh's study (2013a), almost no research exists to address the "quiet crisis in higher education…and our historic record of failure with a rapidly diversifying population" (p. 98).

Follower-centric leader behavior was the focus of this study. The literature affirms that such behavior hold the promise of enhancing social equality (Dinh, Lord, Gardner, Meuser, Liden, & Hu, 2014). Behaviors that center on the needs of followers promote more inclusive organizational cultures and create more equitable leader-follower exchanges (Cottrill, Lopez, & Hoffman, 2014; Jacobs, Beck, & Crowell, 2014). When Stewart-Banks, Kuofie, Hakim, and Branch (2015) investigated the influence of leadership behaviors on work performance, their findings affirmed the need for leaders to

be open-minded, approachable, communicative, and models of the behavior they want followers to emulate.

Because perceptions of equity affect retention, there is a growing expectation that equity be a forethought when developing organizational practices and interventions. Findings from Strom, Sears, and Kelly's (2014) investigation suggest that the quality of leader behaviors affects followers' perception of justice and fairness in a work environment. Given the increasing diversity of student populations in institutions of higher learning, this study's findings offers information and insights that have the potential to help classroom instructors more effectively engage students who are members of historically underrepresented or marginalized groups, thereby, helping to narrow the equity gap and advance social justice in higher education.

Conclusion

Despite its importance and predictive relationship to retention, student engagement is chronically anemic in the community colleges in the United States. Like their business counterparts, these institutions of higher learning depend on their front-line leaders, that is, their instructors, to effectively engage students (Dudley, Dudley, Liu, Hao, & Stallard, 2015). As frontline leaders, college instructors are the organization's primary agent responsible for motivating, supervising, guiding, and directing students (Hofmeyer, Sheingold, Klopper, & Warland, 2015; Juntrasook, 2014; Warren, 2016). Instructors also establish the norms of the shared social unit, the classroom.

Follower engagement is a predictor of retention. Management literature affirms engagement's positive association to retention, productivity, and organizational

performance (Dan-Shang & Chia-Chun, 2013). The purpose of the study was to examine the extent to which there may be a relationship between instructor behaviors and student engagement.

Improving the engagement of college students is fueled by an unprecedented workplace demand for college-educated individuals. In 2018, 68% of all new U.S. jobs require a post-secondary education. To be globally competitive, the nation must award more than 22 million post-secondary credentials (Pike, Hansen, & Childress, 2014). Given the chronic rate of attrition in higher education, achieving this goal requires a focus on effective instructor leader behaviors. However, little was known about the relationship between instructors' behaviors and student engagement (Nakajima, Dembo, & Mossler, 2012). This study's findings and recommendations from this study contributed to the existing body of leadership research by helping to narrow this gap of understanding.

Uniquely, the diversity of community college students is unprecedented in higher education. This study may offer insights that help instructors understand how their behaviors and interactions uniquely affect students from historically underrepresented groups. The study was informed by an exhaustive search of existing literature and research that is relevant to leadership, leader behavior, leader-member relationships, and follower engagement. A review of the literature is the focus of Chapter 2. The research methodology and research design are presented in Chapter 3.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In times of unprecedented change, leadership is uniquely important for organizational success. Organizations are dynamic, complex systems whose operations and productivity can be destabilized by unprecedented change in their internal and external environments (Törnblom, Stålne, & Kjellström, 2018). Given their ability to engage and influence followers, drive innovation, create desired outcomes, and foster organizational change, leaders are regarded as an organization's most influential asset (Colbry, Hurwitz, & Adair, 2014; de Klerk & Stander, 2014). Advanced technologies, global competition, and increasing workplace diversity have not only changed the requirements for leadership, they seem to be mandating a new leadership paradigm. Adserias, Charleston, & Jackson (2017) posit that leadership must be transformative. As described by Cenkci and Özçelik (2015) and supported by Pentareddy and Suganthi (2015), leaders' behaviors shape followers' work engagement and OCBs. Moreover, engagement is a predictor of retention (Barros, Costello, Beaman, & Westover, 2015).

In spite of its organizational desirability, engagement is a dynamic, challenging, chronically illusive organizational citizenship behavior. According to a 2012 Gallup survey that included 49,928 global work units and approximately 1.4 million employees, 87% of employees are disengaged (Sorenson, 2013). Feeling slightly more optimistic, 33% of American followers reported feeling engaged by their work, but only 21% feel motivated, a mere 15% feel inspired by their leader, and even fewer, 13%, find their leaders' communication effective (Beck & Harter, 2015). Disengaged employees are physically, emotionally, and cognitively detached from their work role and their

organization. Disengaged employees were associated with billions of dollars in lost productivity and high annual turnover (Popli & Rizi, 2015).

Despite the more than 10,000 studies and articles and more than 1,000 books that have been published on leadership (Ashbaugh, 2013b), an exhaustive search of the literature revealed a scarcity of research about how leaders' behaviors influence follower engagement (Lord & Dinh, 2014). Addressing this gap has the potential to help organizations improve retention and competitiveness. Given society's dependence on organizations to respond to emerging needs and demands, train the workforce, and socialize employees (Stone, Canedo, & Tzafrir, 2013), narrowing this gap of knowledge and understanding is both necessary and urgent. This study's purpose, which was to examine how instructors' leadership behaviors affect follower engagement, addressed this gap in the literature. The study's findings contributed to the leadership literature and has the potential to improve leadership efficacy, which, by extension, may improve retention.

An introduction to the study was provided in Chapter 1. The literature and previous research that guided the study are presented in this chapter. In this study, institutional support is a proxy for organizational culture, and depth of learning is a proxy for work tasks. The chapter includes a discussion of the relevant studies that informed the choices of instructors' leadership behaviors, institutional support, and depth of learning as the independent variables and follower engagement as the dependent variable. This study's independent variables were grounded in leadership and organizational theories. Follower engagement was conceptually supported by Kahn's (1990) seminal work that

advanced organizational perspectives regarding followers' investment in and commitment to an organization and its goals.

The Literature Search

The literature review was the result of an exhaustive process that included multi-disciplinary resource searches that were conducted electronically and manually. Various databases, public records, media sources, and websites were searched. The databases included EBSCO's Academic Search Premier, Business Source Complete, ProQuest, Science Direct, ABI/INFORM, Proquest Digital Dissertations, ERIC, Sage Publications, and Google Scholar. The National Center for Educational Statistics, the U.S. Census Bureau, and the Bureau of Labor Statistics were among the public agencies whose records contributed to the review. Valuable insights and information were provided by websites of professional and research organizations, such as the American Association of Community Colleges, the Association for the Study of Higher Education, the Pew Research Foundation, and the Kresge Foundation.

The most critical keywords and phrases used to accomplish the literature review were *leadership, leader behavior, leader-member exchange, follower engagement, employee engagement, worker engagement, student engagement, student-teacher relationship, community colleges, and college students.* The manual search focused on books, working papers, reference materials, and reference lists of influential journal articles. As shown on Table 1, the search process yielded a literature review of 271 references.

Table 1

Overview of Literature Search

Reference type	< 5 years old (2013 -2018)	>5 years old
Peer-reviewed journal articles	236	16
Research reports	10	5
Books	1	1
Popular articles or reports	2	0
Totals	249	22
Percentage	92%	8%

Theoretical Background

Leadership and organization theories provided the theoretical framework for this study. Theoretically, organizations and organizational structures are viewed as rational, social constructs that are necessary to get work done and achieve desired outcomes efficiently (Törnblom, 2018). Although not necessarily intended to be prescriptive, organizational theory offers sense-making schemas that enable leaders and followers to understand their respective places within an organization. As supported by Brazer and Kruse (2014), role clarity is further defined by asymmetrical power between layers of leadership and superiors and subordinates. In this way, theory outlines the dictates of organizational culture.

Organization theory, which informs understanding about institutional structure and institutional agents, has traditionally served as a reference point for decision-making

and resource allocation. Industrial era organizational structures are typified by bureaucratic, hierarchical command and control structures that focus on the needs of the institution (Törnblom, Stålne, & Kjellström, 2018). Structure influences how followers or subordinates are viewed, and how they are led.

Advancing technologies, emerging consumer demands, and the increasing diversity of employees and followers mandate that organizations adopt a perpetual regimen of constant change. Recent attention has focused on mechanistic, industrialized organizational structural pathologies that threaten organizations' profitability and sustainability (Laloux, 2014) and make them vulnerable to more nimble, employee-centered, customer-focused competitors. This is evident in the meteoric rise of postmodern organizations like Zappos, Google, Facebook, Netflix, and Amazon (Bernstein, Bunch, Canner, & Lee, 2016).

An organization's ways of working, of operating, is evident in its culture. The existing literature on organizational culture is extensive (Barbars, 2015; Huhtala, Tolvanen, Mauno, & Feldt, 2015; Kirovska, Kochovska, & Kiselicki, 2017; Rofcanin, Las Heras, & Bakker, 2017). Much of it is focused on organizational culture antecedents that include leaders' values and system of reward and punishment, followers' perceptions of community and fairness, and issues that pertain to power, control, and workload (Bamford, Wong, & Laschinger, 2013; Romans & Tobaben, 2016). Comprised of shared norms, values, practices, and assumptions, a number of studies have postulated that organizational culture is operationalized in leaders' patterns of behavior and mimicked by followers (Gutermann, Lehmann-Willenbrock, Boer, Born, & Voelpel, 2017).

Intimating an instructor's pattern of behavior, the culture within a college classroom establishes and maintains the classroom's social dynamics and is evident in patterns of behavior that are exhibited by students. The literature on organizational theory reveal that an organizational culture of trust and respect is permeated by leader behaviors that include feedback, clarification of expectations, recognition, and that promote high quality leader-follower exchanges (Huang, Wang, & Xie, 2014; Kerssen-Griep & Witt, 2015). By way of illustration, Yonjeong (2016) showed how these behaviors stimulate reciprocal feelings of trust and respect, while encouraging feelings of obligation from followers. Followers' positive feelings towards leaders tended to be extended to affective feelings about the organization (Stinglhamber et al., 2015), its mission, and the followers' role in helping the organization achieve its objectives. The more inclusive the organizational culture, the more engaged or motivated the followers.

Organizational productivity and innovation are fueled by the efforts of individual followers and their respective groups. Kusama and Sukanya's (2013) synthesis of engagement literature is particularly noteworthy because it calls attention to the importance of the direct supervisor, calling such leaders "a vital ingredient in the success of employee engagement" (p. 664). Leaders must inspire employees, communicate effectively with them, and provide both social and job resourcing support. The consequences of not effectively engaging employees can be sobering. The research indicated that employees who were effectively motivated by their leaders had a strong commitment to their organizations, and that commitment resulted in a 57% increase in discretional work efforts.

Furthermore, when leaders make the effort to fit work tasks to employees' skills, needs, and talents, performance is further enhanced. Mäkikangas, Aunola, Seppälä, and Hakanen's (2016) study of the relationship between work engagement and team performance affirmed that the higher the level of individual engagement, the higher the level of team performance. Kahn (1990) posited that how employees view their work and their work environment influence how they view themselves, and their experience of work. He surmised that if followers are challenged by their work and derive meaning from it, they will be engaged; that is, they identify with the role and the role-fit is congruent and satisfying. If, on the other hand, the work is ill-fitted to the employee's skill sets and talent, the employee will disengage by withdrawing their energies and commitment to both their tasks and the organization. Their efforts will be minimalistic.

Doing as little as possible, or performing their tasks robotically, disengaged employees deny organizations needed productivity. Followers' behavior and degree of emotional and cognitive investment are indicative of their dedication to work tasks, their leader, the organization, and their willingness to work with others (Truss, Shantz, Soane, Alfes, & Delbridge, 2013). Lee and Ok (2016) found that engaged employees are intrinsically motivated. They are enthusiastic, committed to achieving common goals, inspired to exceed expectations, and willing to exert the energy and effort required to excel. Importantly, Lee and Ok (2016) reinforced previous research that emphasized that it is the quality of the leader-follower relationship that is most directly associated with employee job satisfaction. Employees who enjoyed a mutually rewarding relationship

with their supervisors excelled at their work tasks and demonstrated an affective commitment to their job and to the organization.

In institutions of higher learning, students' work effort is measured by metrics that include time on task and quality of effort. The degree of engagement is reflected in students' willingness to commit to their work goals (Kahu & Nelson, 2018). Student engagement encompasses in-class activities and out-of-class activities. In class engagement includes behaviors such attending class, participating in a class discussion, asking questions, and being attentive (Kahu, Nelson, & Picton, 2017). Out-of-class engagement activities include contacting instructors via email or office visits, utilizing counseling services, meeting with tutors, or taking advantage of other resources that are designed to promote student learning and student success. In this study, depth of learning is a proxy for out-of-class engagement activities as activities that promote student success. Counseling and tutoring services and other organizational resources that are exist to promote student learning and student success are representative of the institutional support that was examined in this study. Based on the review of the leadership and organizational literature the following hypotheses (H) emerged:

$H_1$1: To what extent does instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning, taken together, account for a significant amount of variance in student engagement ratings?

$H_1$2: To what extent does instructor behavior predict student engagement when the effects of institutional support and depth of learning are held constant?

$H_1$3: To what extent does institutional support predict student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and depth of learning are held constant?

$H_1$4: To what extent does depth of learning predict student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and institutional support are held constant?

Engagement

Engagement is a relatively new construct whose definitions and methods of operationalization continue to evolve. Initially cast as a binary concept, Kahn's (1990) seminal work conceptually defined engagement and disengagement in organizational work roles and as expressions of self. Kahn expressed work engagement as behavioral, cognitive, and affective characteristics. Specifically, Kahn stated that engagement is "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performance" (p. 694). Followers were perceived to be either engaged or disengaged. Disengagement is a state of withdrawal, defined by Kahn (1990), as "the uncoupling of selves from work roles" (p. 694).

Its linkages to productivity, retention, workplace performance, and innovation endeared engagement to business academics and practitioners. The concept of engagement was further popularized in the 1980s by business tomes such as Collins (2001) business best-seller, which enthralled organizational leaders with the potential of achieving marketplace excellence by leveraging and harnessing employees' talent. Theorists began to examine the effect of engagement on measurable organizational constructs like job satisfaction (Gözükara & Simsek, 2016, Lee & Ok, 2016), job

performance (Popli & Rizvi, 2014), turnover (Radda, Majidadi, & Akano, 2015), affective commitment (Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013), motivation (Shu, 2015), retention (Strom, Sears, & Kelly's (2014) and profitability (Kumar & Pansari, 2015). Studying a myriad of for-profit and not-for-profit organizations worldwide, Kumar and Pansari (2015) examined engagement's predictive influence on task performance, productivity, retention, and profitability. In 30 business organizations in 75 countries, a 10-15% increase in profits was attributed to employee engagement.

The expanding body of leadership literature defines engagement as a malleable, multidimensional, broad concept that is persistent and pervasive. Coined by industry-specific terms that include employee engagement (Chaurasia & Shukla, 2013), follower engagement (Choi, Tran, & Park, 2015), organization engagement (Ünal & Turgut, 2015), and student engagement (Gunuc & Kuzu, 2015), engagement became and remains a highly valued organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Linking theory with practice, and attempting to close the gap between that which was scientifically known and that which is organizationally necessary, Meyer (2013) argued that there are drivers of engagement. In his view, the drivers are employee empowerment, work design, and leadership. Empowerment implies a sense of autonomy that employees gain from adequate training, support from their leaders, and proper resourcing. Job-specific tasks are only one component of work design. Included is the workplace environment, meaningful work that is well suited to employees' needs and talents, and an appreciable degree of interdependence that promotes employees' sense of belonging and affective commitment to the organization and its leaders. Meyer's (2013) work was important

because it expanded the concept and understanding of engagement and broadened its organizational importance.

Reshaped conceptual perspectives of engagement include followers' motivation, involvement, passion, enthusiasm, discretionary effort, and mental, physical, and affective energy. As Baron (2013) noted, engagement is situation and time dependent. Employees' satisfaction, motivation, and workplace commitment tend to ebb and flow. Furthermore, their levels of engagement may be different throughout the organization; employees engage differently with the various organizational entities. This insight was pivotal because it informed organizations that engagement is not a static behavior; follower engagement is dynamic and measurable. Maintaining it requires multilevel, multi-dimensional organizational strategies. Among the strategies highlighted were those that relate to organizational justice. If employees feel they are being treated unfairly, they will become disengaged from their work, their leader, and their organization. The organizational penalty for disengaged workers goes beyond productivity; in many cases, turnover, and its associated costs (e.g., recruiting and training) are inevitable consequences.

Engagement is a known antecedent to retention. As Ünal & Turgut (2015) pointed out, people work for and stay with organizations whose values align with their own. With a sample of 285 employees from different business sections, the researchers set out to measure organizational engagement. Their study confirmed that when there is value congruency employees work harder to help organizations achieve their goal. Values included safety, support, and fairness. This calls attention to the need for direct

supervisors to communicate organizational values effectively and work with their employees to help them realize the linkages between their personal values and the organization's.

Value congruency is uniquely important for new workers and followers who, in addition to being required to perform work tasks, are also being socialized to comply with organizational norms and expectations. Sun and Leithwood (2015) make this clear in their investigation of the employee-organization relationship. Anchoring their expanded concept of employee engagement on previous research, Sun and Leithwood highlight that the process of norming employees-organization relationships comports with the understanding that while each party works in a manner to benefit themselves, each party expects a reciprocal exchange. The more psychologically empowered employees felt, the more physical and mental energy they invested in their tasks. The key implication drawn from this is the realization that engagement has a psychological component that leaders cannot overlook.

With studies aimed at broadening understanding of follower engagement, researchers are complementing evolving conceptual perspectives with data-driven measurements that are expanding operationalization of the construct. Engagement can be either transactional or emotional, which, in some of the literature, is referred to as psychological engagement (Baron, 2013; Sun & Leithwood, 2015). Transactional engagement is based on a system of extrinsic rewards like pay and status. When followers are transactionally engaged, what is perceived as motivation may belie their focus on their personal interests and objectives. Followers' acceptance of a leader's

behaviors is short-lived, offered on a quid pro quo basis. This form of engagement may not be conducive to creating and maintaining high levels of individual and organizational performance.

Motivation increases engagement. Consistent with Kahn's (1990) seminal research, a direct supervisor's ability to engage workers, which is to cause workers to intrinsically care about their performance, is indicative of the leader's effectiveness (Gutermann, Lehmann-Willenbrock, Boer, Born, & Voelpel, 2017). Steger, Littman-Ovadia, Miller, Menger, and Rothmann opined (2013) that engaged followers are able to overcome difficulties and stay committed to their tasks.

The leader-follower relationship and its impact on worker engagement is an important measure of leadership efficacy. The literature establishes leadership as a driver of follower engagement (Meyer, 2013). While both leader-centric and follower-centric behaviors are predictors of follower engagement, higher levels of engagement were apparent when leaders' behaviors were follower-centric (Suk, Hanh, & Byung, 2015). These relational leader behaviors included openness, accessibility, availability, expressing concern, mentoring, listening, and paying attention to followers.

Organizational culture is an integral factor in follower engagement. Follower engagement is more likely to occur when leaders develop a work environment that is inclusive and respectful and that offers both a sense of autonomy and belonging (Quinlan, 2014). In community college classrooms, instructors' behavior create organizational culture, and, by extension, influence organizational outcomes. As a matter of classroom

praxis, instructors can involve followers in decision-making and show interest and consideration for their needs.

Regarding engagement as hard or soft extends insight about leader behaviors as an antecedent to engagement, and their operationalization of engagement. Creating and maintaining an organizational culture that honors individual contributions, and where followers feel valued and trusted, epitomizes soft engagement (Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013). When leaders set out to achieve goals by focusing solely on follower productivity, to the exclusion of the needs of followers, leaders' behaviors are termed as methods of hard engagement. When Jenkins and Delbridge (2013) contrasted and compared hard and soft engagement in an organizational setting, hard engagement proved unsuccessful. Followers were disconnected from the organization and its objectives.

Regardless of organizational setting, engagement is synergistically expressed by followers' actions and mental and emotional commitment to their tasks, leader, and organization. In workplace settings and in college classrooms, follower engagement is observable, measurable, and predictive of performance and retention (Ärlestig & Törnsen, 2014; Claxton, 2014). Follower engagement may be the defining difference between organizational success and failure.

Student Engagement

Few organizations face greater follower engagement challenges than America's 1,462 community colleges. Nationwide, community colleges enroll almost half, 6 million of the 13 million, higher education students (American Association of Community Colleges, 2017). Given that 51% of community college students belong to a minority or

historically underserved group, the level of diversity among the student population is unmatched in the for-profit arena.

Traditional, transactional methods of engagement, of motivating, of creating commitment to learning tasks, and prompting desired behaviors, have proved largely ineffective for promoting the level of work performance and affective commitment that is necessary to stem the steady tide of attrition. Studies show that 75 - 85% of community college students leave the organization before achieving their goals (Kena et al., 2015). Arresting attrition is more than an organizational imperative; society is dependent on community colleges to educate and credential future workers. In California, for example, which has the largest system of higher education, 80% of the state's firefighters, law enforcement officers, and emergency medical technicians, and 70% of the state's nurses were credentialed by a community college (California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office, 2013).

In community college classrooms, the concept of engagement has been conceptualized and operationalized as means to improve students' work performance and organizational success. Research affirmed student engagement's association to performance, retention, and persistence (Gunuc & Kuzu, 2015). A multidimensional construct, engagement is a measure of how students feel, behave, and act. Pivotal to this study is Kahu's (1990) conceptual framework of student engagement that recognizes "that student engagement is more than just an internal static state, this individual experience is embedded within the socio-cultural context and … influenced by characteristics of both the student and the institution" (p. 766).

Instructors' behaviors are catalysts to student performance, spurring them to become cognitively, behaviorally, and affectively engaged in the college experience. In a college setting, student engagement, inside and outside the classroom, is a desired organizational behavior (Faranda, 2015). When studying 286 graduate students, Myers, Goodboy, and members of COMM 600 (2014) discovered that humor, clarity, caring, immediacy, and confirmation were instructor leader behaviors that influenced how students felt about themselves, the subject matter, the instructor, and the institution. Student engagement was enhanced when all student voices were valued in the classroom and when students knew they matter (Milliken, Schipani, Bishara, & Prado, 2015). When instructors exhibited these behaviors, students indicated more willingness to continue their programs of study.

Students' willingness to engage is also influenced by a classroom's climate, structure, praxis, and protocol, all of which are determined by the instructor. Through their communication patterns and modelling behaviors, instructors instill a sense of shared mission, vision, and purpose (Warren, 2016). Through their management of classroom logistics and organization and distribution of work, instructors affect students' morale, work ethic, and sense of determination.

Instructors have the capacity to influence students to try harder. Flynn, James, Mathien, Mitchell, and Whalen (2017) identified the need for instructors to do more than simply impart knowledge. However, their research falls short. While stressing the need to be empowering, validating, collaborative, and relevant, they fail to recognize that the needed behaviors are leadership behaviors. This omission is critical because it obscures

the instructor as a leader, the institutional agent who is directly responsible for motivating, inspiring, and directing students toward the accomplishment of their individual goals and the institution's objectives.

Leadership

Scholarly debate about the essence of leadership is reflected in a mosaic of multi-thematic leadership theories and leadership approaches. As research about time-honored traditional approaches to leadership and leadership development continue (Dansereau, Seitz, Chiu, Shaughnessy, & Yammarino, 2013), new leadership models, styles, and approaches that purport to define post-industrial leadership emerged (Hui-Bing & Ping, 2014; Landis, Hill, & Harvey, 2014; Liden, Wayne, Chenwei, & Meuser, 2014; Nichols & Erakovich, 2013; Ozyilmaz & Cicek, 2015; Zehir, Akyuz, Eren, & Turhan, 2013; Zubair & Kamal, 2015). Traditional leadership models share theoretical space with purveyors of authentic (Bamford, Wong, & Laschinger, 2013) servant, holistic, distributed, ethical, informal, and implicit leadership theories (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014; Dionne et al., 2014).

More than 25 years of research revealed that leadership theories are, at their essence, either leader-centric or follower-centric. Regardless of centricity, all leaders require followers, and all leaders exercise behavior to facilitate exchanges with followers (Gaiter, 2013). Scholarly debate and cross-fertilization of varying leadership theories notwithstanding, dominant and emerging leadership theories coalesce at a common point of intersection: Leaders influence followers and affect change. Furthermore, leadership requires a place to be exercised, a social context.

Leadership, universally considered the omnipresent force that drives organizational and group performance, has historically been bounded by organizational norms that narrowly define where leadership resides and by whom it is enacted. Traditional leadership behaviors are leader-centric; its nexus is the leader, his or her needs and objectives (Thoroughgood & Sawyer, 2018). Viewed as a constellation of personal attributes, leadership was measured by and limited to the talents and abilities of a single individual. Positional, autocratic, and transactional in nature, traditional leadership theory was shaped by bureaucratic, hierarchical, top-down structures.

Leader-Centricity

America's age of industrialization focused researchers and practitioners on matters related to productivity and competitiveness. Leader-centricity reflects the earliest theoretical thoughts about leadership and remains dominant despite its myopic view of leadership (Reiley & Jacobs, 2016). In the early 19th century, when formal leadership studies began, leadership was purported to be trait and personality based (Dionne et al., 2014). Thoughts about leadership and its influence on organizations were coopted by Frederick Taylor's theoretical underpinnings of scientific management theory (Trujillo, 2014) and its suppositions that leaders were primarily managers responsible for ensuring that subordinates performed their work as efficiently as possible. The leadership trait paradigm, coupled with scientific management thinking, dominated leadership theory, organizational thinking, and organizational change models (Foley, 2015). As industrialized leaders focused their time and energies on managerial competencies and

processes to achieve organizational outcomes, theoretical boundaries between management and leadership seemed to blur.

Top-down, control and command, hierarchal organizations characterized the period of industrialization. Prevailing leadership philosophy established leaders as superiors and followers as subordinates (Chan, Huang, Snape, & Lam, 2013). Leadership was considered a regulatory function that controlled processes, outcomes, and people. Centralized authority and decision-making regarded followers as passive, dependent myrmidons whose obedience to the status quo and organizational rule-making were mandated by practice and protocol. Consequently, leader behaviors were largely task-oriented.

Human talent and potential were disregarded in favor of scientific time and motion studies. As primary decision-makers, leaders demanded loyalty and conformity to organizational norms (Blomme, Kodden, & Beasley-Suffolk, 2015; Cenkci & Özçelik, 2015). Leader-centric behaviors, typified by impersonal leader-follower relationships, controlled flows of information, and command and control rule-making, commoditized followers' needs and aspirations. From this vantage point, people were viewed as replaceable organizational components to be managed in rational, quantifiable ways that improved efficiency. With a focus on business outcomes, leaders relied on extrinsic motivation, their organizational authority and position, and coercive power to affect interactions with followers and to produce desired outcomes. Organizational rules, roles, and protocol established acceptable levels of follower behavior and maintained asymmetrical leadership-follower exchanges and relationships.

In organizations of higher education, leadership is regarded as something that college classroom instructors do outside of and beyond the boundaries of the classroom. Encumbered by industrial-age, hierarchal models of organizing and deeply rooted norms that define organizational praxis and norms, institutions of higher learning regard instructors primarily as knowledge workers (Malott, Hall, Sheely-Moore, Krell, & Cardaciotto, 2014). When instructors were viewed as leaders, their leadership was narrowly defined in managerial terms and restricted to organizational maintenance and an administrative decision-making role such as administrator, coordinator, or department chair (Timiyo, 2017).

While this limited leadership perspective is inconsistent with post-industrial leadership theory, it persists. Seldom are classroom instructors recognized and regarded as the front-line leaders that they are (Hofmeyer, Sheingold, Klopper, & Warland, 2015; Howell & Buck, 2012;). Instructors are closest to students and, by virtue of organizational position and power, have the greatest potential to influence students' behaviors and attitudes. Consistent with previous research (Huang & Yin, 2014), this study further illuminated the premise that instructors are leaders (Table 26).

Follower-Centricity

After the end of the Second World War, new knowledge about human behavior and human relations shifted theoretical thought from a focus on leadership traits to an exploration of leadership behavior. While theorists maintained that personality traits might be indicative of a leader, it became increasingly clear that traits alone offered no assurance of a leader's effectiveness (Bergman, Lornudd, Sjöberg, & Von Thiele

Schwarz, 2014). As knowledge evolved, so did ideas about what it meant to lead and how leaders are developed (Sakiru, D'Silva, Othman, DaudSilong, & Busayo, 2015). Ushered in by a quest to find the one best way to lead, the focus of leadership broadened to include leaders' interpersonal skills and patterns of behavior (Latham, 2013).

In the 1980s, theorists began to examine leadership introspectively. In addition to contextual contingencies that affected work performance and desired outcomes, followers' perceptions and needs expanded and, in some instances, re-conceptualized thoughts about leadership (Kerns & Corperformance, 2015). Leader-follower reciprocity gained momentum with Bass's introduction of transactional and transformational leadership theory.

Leadership was no longer viewed as a solo act. Leader centricity and its top-down mandates for establishing relationships with followers and getting work done became much more dynamic as researchers began to focus on leadership behaviors and relationships between leaders and followers (Clark & Waldron, 2016). Situations became a point of research consideration. Context affected leader behavior and dictated the need for new leadership competencies that included interpersonal skills (Marques, 2013).

As the focus on traits faded, research on leader behaviors and the development of leaders grew. Leadership theory evolved; leadership became a way of thinking, being, and acting (Ashbaugh, 2013a). As a quality of leadership behavior, being was defined as behavior that is authentic and engenders trust from followers (Azanza, Moriano, & Molero, 2013; Forsyth & Maranga, 2015). Routinely constructed and operationalized as charisma (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2011; Horn, Mathis, Robinson, & Randle, 2015), being is

evidenced in a leader's presence and energy. Given that as much as 93% of the communication between a leader and follower is nonverbal, being is a leadership component that influences followers' interpretation of a leader's efficacy.

Further spurned by the effects of global competition, top-down leadership models gave way to more inclusive models that affirmed the significance of behavior, context, and followers. In the latter part of the 20th century, traditional theoretical underpinnings that were rooted in rational, pragmatic thought accommodated a revised leadership paradigm that was relational and collaborative in nature (Pogan, 2015). No longer could organizations lead solely from the top; researchers advised that leadership must be infused and distributed throughout the organization (Liborius, 2014; Nica, 2013).

In addition to the reconfiguring influence of dynamic social conditions, which are often beyond the influence and control of the leader, leadership was viewed as a phenomenon that is socially constructed by the perceptions of followers. New leadership skills included the ability to empower followers (de Klerk & Stander, 2014), collaborate, share power, build teams, and exhibit emotional intelligence (Parrish, 2015; Zee, de Jong, & Koomen, 2016). Leadership morphed from the theoretical perception as a static, individually driven, top-down method of control to influence that is created by interaction between leaders and their followers. As leadership came to be viewed as relationship-dependent (Tee, Paulsen, & Ashkanasy, 2013) and context-driven, interest in followers' role in organizational performance and organizational change captured the interest of scholars and practitioners alike.

Follower-centric leadership perspectives emerged. With the awareness that, "Leaders operate through followers," (Lord & Dinh, 2014, p. 166) followers became agents of the leadership process and of leadership efficacy (Foley, 2015). The symbiotic relationship between leaders and followers increasingly cast leadership as an emergent trait prescribed by context and affected by the actions of followers.

Leaders' direct influence on followers' behaviors has been empirically linked to retention and organizations' sustainability. In their correlation and regression analyses, Bester, Stander, and Van Zyl (2015) found that leaders' follower-centric behaviors were both statistically and practically significant predictors of followers' sense of engagement and organizational loyalty. Further substantiating the study was a Gallup Poll that characterized engaged employees as the lifeblood of an organization (Sorenson, 2013).

Research outcomes broadened leadership efficacy, expanding it beyond the capabilities and skill sets of one individual. Leadership was defined less as a positional attribute associated with the capabilities and outcomes produced by an individual leader and more as a relationship that a leader has followers (Quinlan, 2014). Affective and emotional attributes and behaviors overshadowed and, in time, replaced personality traits as the defining markers of a leader. No longer viewed as a linear, formulaic, static function, leadership was harder to define and increasingly difficult to assess. Expanding organizational needs and complex global dynamics added to leadership's complexity. In this study, leadership is viewed from a relational perspective that casts it as an interdependent relationship between a leader and followers (O'Connell, 2014; Wood &

Dibben, 2015). Consistent with existing literature, this study presumed that the leader is the driver of followers' actions and the initiator of leader-follower exchanges.

Leadership Behaviors

Leadership behaviors are micro-processes that are driven by cognitions, emotions, and perceptions. Behaviors are used intentionally to influence the actions of followers (Michel & Tews, 2016). Categorically defined and situationally dependent, leadership behaviors encompass a wide range of skill-based competencies and interpersonal characteristics. A leader's interpersonal attributes include knowledge, communication patterns, approachability, decisiveness, helpfulness, supportiveness, immediacy, caring, compassion, courage, and understanding (Miller, Katt, Brown, & Sivo, 2014). Leadership behaviors can be task-oriented, relations-oriented, change-oriented, or externally focused behavior (Yukl, 2012).

Task-oriented leadership behaviors are aimed at ensuring that work is done efficiently and effectively to satisfy organizational demands, particularly regarding timeliness and prudent utilization of resources. Leaders use task-oriented behaviors, sometimes referred to as transactional behaviors, to clarify expectations and minimize ambiguity (Pytlak & Houser, 2014). Core elements of task behavior include monitoring, clarifying, planning, problem-solving, explaining, and checking. Expectations that are established and leader-follower interactions that develop are paramount to followers' motivation, self-efficacy, and their ability to cope with stress. With a clear understanding and respect for expectations, followers' sense of well-being and autonomy can encourage them to perform at levels that exceed expectations.

When leaders express confidence in followers, the leaders are exhibiting relations-oriented behavior. These behaviors, which include caring, encouraging, expressing confidence, recognizing, developing, consulting, empowering, and modeling, are also referred to follower-centric (Notgrass, 2014b). To build trust, establish quality interactions, and engender commitment, leaders rely on relations-oriented behaviors because they encourage followers to identify with and feel a part of their group and the organization (Rowold, Borgmann, & Diebig, 2015). Ideally, relations-oriented behaviors culminate in a leader-follower relationship that satisfies the needs of the leader, the follower, and the organization.

Leaders employ change-oriented behavior to facilitate followers' ability to innovate and adapt to change. Change-oriented behaviors include inspiring, encouraging, facilitating, envisioning, explaining, and describing (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). These behaviors are follower-centric because, although their genesis are the organization's desired outcomes, the behaviors focus on the individual needs of followers. Followers are inspired, motivated, encouraged, and made to feel safe and confident.

Functioning as team leader and chief advocate, a leader's external behavior focuses on meeting the needs of a collective, be it the group, team, or the organization. When necessary, leaders negotiate on behalf of their work unit or organization (Rowold, Borgmann, & Diebig, 2015). To support collective goals and activities and secure necessary resources, leaders are often required to coordinate with outside agencies, groups, or organizations. Effective use of external behaviors demands an appreciable

degree of organizational knowledge and discernment. Other core elements of external behavior include networking, representing, negotiating, advocating, coordinating, researching, and analyzing.

To identify the leadership qualities and behaviors that are considered universal and those that are more culturally predisposed, a study that included 62 countries was conducted. In 2012, the Global Leadership Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) study identified qualities and behaviors that all leaders need in order to produce tangible results in the global, postindustrial world (Forsyth & Maranga, 2015). Trustworthy, decisive, communicative, optimistic, empathetic, and encouraging were among the 22 universally desirable leadership behaviors revealed in the study.

Leader behavior, of and by itself, is insufficient to affect follower behavior. Follower interpretation of a leader's behavior is paramount to a leader's efficacy (Reiley & Jacobs, 2016). Intentionality is the cornerstone that determines the quality of a leader's interactions and the leader's relationship with followers (Thomas, Martin, Epitropaki, Guillaume, & Lee, 2013). Intentionality influences how followers interpret a leader's behavior. If followers interpret a leader's task behaviors as well meaning, they will likely perform their work efficiently and effectively. If, on the other hand, such behaviors are interpreted as micro-managing, odds are followers' work performance will not meet established or desired standards. Similarly, relations-oriented and change-oriented behaviors that are perceived as disingenuous will be met with some degree of resistance.

When leaders emotionally engage followers, followers' level of commitment to the job and the organization improves substantively. When a leader's pattern of behavior

aligns with and meets the needs of followers, the leader's efficacy also improves (Eldor & Vigoda-Gadot, 2017). More closely aligned with organizational values and objectives, emotionally engaged followers are more inclined to cooperation and collaborate with one another and with their leader. To develop and nurture emotionally engaged followers, work must be designed so that it is meaningful (Stanisław, Krzysztof, & Kamila, 2015), and leaders must employ behaviors that telegraph their emotional intelligence (Parrish, 2015).

Leader Behaviors in College Classrooms

Leading is inherent in teaching; both are complex, dynamic, cocreated relational processes that occur in a group setting. Research affirms college instructors as leaders and students as their followers (Tillapaugh & Haber-Curran, 2013; Warren, 2016). Because a classroom is a social organization (Seritanondh, 2013), issues regarding leadership and follower engagement are within the realm of management and leadership studies. However, few studies focus on instructor leadership higher education (Bierly & Smith, 2018). One of the largely unexplored areas concerns instructors' leadership behaviors in relationship to student engagement.

As the organizational agent who is closest to and in direct and frequent contact with students, instructors direct student actions and control the culture of the organization's most essential work units, its classrooms. In higher education, a classroom instructor's role and position are commensurate with the role and position of a direct line supervisor or line manager in a business organization (Kovjanic, Schuh, & Jonas, 2013; Struyve, Meredith, & Gielen, 2014). Importantly, classroom instructors are expected to

motivate students to accomplish individual and organizational goals (Öqvist & Malmström, 2018; Stoner, Pharm, & Fincham, 2012). In the college classroom setting, intrinsic motivation is synonymous with engagement (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2014).

Relying on leadership behaviors, instructors supervise, guide, coach, mentor, counsel, reward, punish, communicate expectations, establish performance standards, and direct student work efforts. Often serving as the organization's only sense-making agent for community college students, instructors guide students' understanding of the organization's norms, expectations, policies, and procedures (Wilson & Ryan, 2013). Because of their direct and frequent contact with students, instructors' leadership behaviors are more likely than the actions of other institutional agents or institutional services to affect student performance.

An instructor's leadership behaviors are implicit in and serve as the foundation of instructor-student interactions. Leader behaviors that are friendly and non-threatening encourage student participation and interaction (Komarraju, 2013). Participation has been shown to increase student performance and materially contribute to the effectiveness of the group (i.e., the class of students) and the organization (Frisby, Berger, Burchett, Herovic, & Strawser, 2014). Furthermore, students who participate are more likely to persist, improving the organization's retention rate.

College students who have been historically disenfranchised rely on instructors to guide and direct them on their academic journey. Community college students exhibit a high degree of engagement in their relationships with their instructors (Rui, Ying, Jianhong, & Rongmian, 2017). Organizational support is as necessary to the success of

community college students who are new to the college environment as it is to employees who are new to the workplace. Their conundrum is akin to the one experienced by many entry-level workers (Clark & Waldron, 2016). Often lacking the organizational acumen necessary to navigate through bureaucratic systems of higher education (Karp & Bork, 2012), many community college students depend on classroom instructors to do more than teach; they require them to lead (Hudson, 2013). Front-line leaders, in business organizations and at community colleges, help followers make their way through unfamiliar organizational systems, while guiding them to avoid or overcome obstacles that may impede their success.

The Ethics of Leadership

Importantly, leadership is not value-neutral. Research shows that when leaders conveyed, enforced, and modelled parameters of acceptable organizational behavior, leaders shaped ethical norms and workplace values (Hoffman & Lord, 2013; Huettermann, Doering, & Boerner, 2014). Although a discussion of moral or social justice issues (Casimir, Ng, Wang, & Ooi, 2012) are beyond the scope of this study, the leadership literature suggests that leaders are expected to exhibit behaviors that personify ethical leadership (Colbry, McLaughlin, Womack, & Gallagher, 2015; Panaccio, Henderson, Liden, Wayne, & Cao, 2015) and a sense of social justice (DeMatthews, 2016; Zembylas & Iasonos, 2016). As workplaces and followers' grow increasingly diverse, leaders must develop the skills, cultural competencies, and values to engage followers whose cultural background, socio-economic status, and needs may be differ from established norms.

Followers' cultural frame of reference, mental models, and schemas affect their perception of leaders. Cognitions of leadership characteristics and behaviors are thought to form in childhood (Epitropaki, Sy, Martin, Tram-Quon, & Topakas, 2013). Consequently, when an adult's historical frame of reference is prompted by a person whose behaviors cognitively align with a pre-existing mental prototype of who and what they conceive a leader to be, a cognitive match is made. In this way, people naturally classify individuals as either leaders or followers. Much of the contemporary research regarding leadership theories and leadership approaches are examining these socio-cognitive dimensions of human development and their effect on behavior.

In addition to motivating individuals and groups whose values may be diverse and not aligned with the organization's values, leaders must have a moral and ethical code that enables them to mitigate conflict and create a welcoming and inclusive work environment in diverse settings. Moral leaders believe in and embody multicultural values (Chin, Desormeaux, & Sawyer, 2016; Fallon, Cathcart, DeFouw, O'Keeffe, & Sugai, 2018). Ethical leaders behave with integrity, in a manner that is perceived to be fair and consistent. They show concern for followers and allow followers a sense of agency. These leaders are trusted; they keep their word and accept responsibility for their actions. If follower reciprocation is to be aligned with desired organizational citizenship behaviors, leader-follower exchanges must be founded on trust and mutual respect.

Ineffective or abusive leader behaviors can lead to follower misbehaviors that can prove destructive to organizational success. Follower misbehaviors, which include resistance, theft, fraud, sabotage, aggression, and absenteeism result in losses to morale,

trust, and productivity (Martins, 2018). When leaders manipulate, coerce, or intimidate followers, their behavior invites deviant follower behavior (Kaiser, LeBreton, & Hogan, 2015). The GLOBE study noted that the most undesirable leader behaviors include being antisocial, uncooperative, egocentric, and dictatorial. According to Gaddis and Foster (2015), destructive leader behavior is relatively widespread. They discovered that perhaps as many as 60% of leaders behaved in a manner that can be attributed to organizational malfeasance. Citing arrogance, volatility, and distrust as the most destructive leader behaviors, the authors discuss how these behaviors, coupled with dysfunctional interpersonal attributes like narcissism, can sabotage a leader's ability to build teams, solve problems, respond to changing and complex situations, and establish and maintain relationships with followers.

Although autocratic leadership can achieve desired productivity outcomes, leaders' demand for conformity, loyalty, and their lack of support, foster mistrust, fear, and anxiety among followers. Autocratic forms of leadership are negatively associated with follower engagement (Chan, Huang, Snape, & Lam, 2013). Leaders in China discovered that leader behaviors associated with its culturally normative patriarchal, authoritarian leadership models caused workers to not feel a commitment to or affinity for the leader or the organization (Shu, 2015). Only when the country's authoritarian leadership models included a blend of paternalistic benevolence, caring, and concern for workers did workers' perception about the leader and organization improve (Tang & Naumann, 2015). Ertureten, Cemalcilar, and Aycan(2013) associated hostile leader

behaviors such as workplace bullying with employee dissatisfaction, high turnover, and a lack of employee loyalty.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX)

A leader's behaviors influence interactions between the leader and her followers, and the relationship she develops with them. Research has shown that followers' intrinsic motivation, which drives work commitment and retention, is dependent upon the quality of the leader-follower relationship (Jiaxin, Lin, & Jun, 2014; Lee & Ok, 2016). Such relationships are articulated by a dynamic continuum that ranges from high to low quality (Tastan, 2014). LMX opines that leaders develop unique, individualized leader-follower relationships and the degree of engagement is determined by the follower's perceptions of the quality of the relationship (Chaurasia & Shukla, 2013). Because LMX embodies the premise that followers are not homogenous commodities, and that leaders treat each follower differently, the theory offers insights about leader behaviors and their influence on follower engagement (Matta, Scott, Koopman, & Conlon, 2015). In this way, LMX underscores the significance of a leader's behavior and its effect on followers' performance, attitude, and willingness to stay with an organization.

Embedded in LMX theory is the interdependence of the leader-follower relationship. Each needs the other to accomplish the organization's desired objective (Buch, Kuvaas, Dysvik, & Schyns, 2014). The more similar a leader's behavior is to followers' idealized notion of leadership, the higher the quality of the leader-follower relationships and the more engaged the follower.

Low quality leader-member exchanges adversely affect worker engagement. Research pertaining to autocratic, leader-centric leadership, demonstrated that when followers are not valued, trusted, and respected, the work culture is permeated by fear, apathy, suspicion, and withdrawal (Furunes, Mykletun, Einarsen, & Glasø, 2015; Pearce & Manz, 2014). Instead of exhibiting normalized feelings of affective reciprocity, cooperation, and dedication to common goals and objectives, followers exhibited negative affectivity toward the leader and the organization. Higher turnover, increased stress, and role conflict were common consequences.

The higher the quality of the leader-follower exchange or relationship, the more favorable the follower response to a leader's behavior. Followers are always at choice; they can accept or resist, support or sabotage a leader's actions (Ahmed, Khairuzzaman, & Mohamad, 2014). While a leader's goal is acceptance and support, achieving such an aim, particularly from a heterogeneous body of followers, requires skilled leadership.

Inequities, favoritism, and unequal distribution of resources may adversely affect leader-follower interactions and relationships. If leaders and followers are to develop and maintain high quality relationships, followers must perceive that leader as non-judgmental, meting out procedural and social justice equitably (Horan, Chory, Carton, Miller, & Raposo, 2013; Santamaria, 2014; Tang & Naumann, 2015). Researchers found that intergroup conflict and workplace mishaps are likely when followers perceive that leaders are treating some followers or a group of followers differentially. Such tensions can leech into all aspects of the work product adversely affecting the organization's success. This is one of the criticisms of Leader-Member Exchange theory, and a stalwart

reason for ensuring that all leaders develop cultural competencies (Patterson, 2013) that enable them to equitably engage followers, especially those who are ethnically, socio-economically, and culturally diverse.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory in Classroom Settings

Through behavior and interpersonal characteristics, leaders shape and, over time, influence the maturation of the leader-follower relationship. A follower's perception of a leader is subjectively and socially-constructed (Oc & Bashshur, 2013; Verlage, Rowold, & Schilling, 2012). The perception is made manifest by the leader's behaviors and the interactions that develop between the leader and the follower (Michel & Tews, 2016). Stoner, Pharm, and Fincham (2012) affirmed that instructors motivate students by employing leadership behaviors that are follower-centric. As Michel and Tews (2016) highlighted in their investigation of organizational citizenship behavior, a leader's behaviors are antecedents of the leader-follower relationship.

Functioning as coaches, mentors, guides, and advisors, in addition to subject matter experts, instructors have the opportunity to develop high quality relationships with students. Agarwal's (2014) research revealed that high-quality exchange relationships have distinguishing characteristics, and engagement may be a direct consequence of high-quality relationships. In high-quality leader-member relationships, mutual trust had been established by the leader's follower-centric interpersonal attributes that included honesty, consistency, and integrity. Support from the leader, along with effective feedback, gave employees a sense of belonging (Masika & Jones, 2016). Findings suggest that when the leader-follower exchange is high quality, followers are more likely to engage favorably.

The process of dynamic interaction between instructor and student is influenced by context and circumstance. Students' effort, learning experience, feelings about the organization, and sense of agency are influenced by instructors' leadership behaviors (Landis, Vick, & Novo, 2015). When students are engaged, their perceptions about their instructor are enhanced. Relational behaviors such as empathy and caring promote engagement and increase students' propensity to persist (i.e., to stay in school) and to achieve baccalaureate aspirations. This improves the organization's retention rate.

Availability is a leader behavior. It is associated with leaders who are role models, coaches, and mentors (Kacmar, Carlson, & Harris, 2013). When Komarraju, Musulkin, and Bhattacharya (2010) investigated the instructor-student relationship, approachability and respect were indicators of student success. When instructors are caring, encouraging, and offer personal attention, students feel they belong in college. As Gözükara and Simsek (2016) illuminated in their research, followers who are supported and inspired are more engaged with their work. They were more confident about their ability to succeed.

Students are motivated when they perceive instructors care about them. According to 75% of the group of 238 community college students who Deil-Amen (2011) interviewed, instructors who were caring, approachable, supportive, and encouraging influenced students' desire to persist and become part of the academic environment. Followers felt accepted and their confidence in their abilities and in their leader blossomed. Caring leaders inspired students to adopt behavior that was organizationally acceptable and that enhanced their success (Labrague, McEnroe-Petitte, Papathanasiou, Edet, & Arulappan, 2015). A lack of caring was likely to result in lower

rates of retention and students underperforming and developing attitudes that made them indifferent to the leader and to the institution.

Follower-centric leaders endeavor to develop sustainable and mutually rewarding relationships with followers. When instructors are supportive, encouraging, and trusting they are deemed helpful (Gerards, de Grip, & Baudewijns, 2018; Rodriguez-Keyes, Schneider, & Keenan, 2013). They behave as though they are morally motivated to help followers transcend their current circumstances. Students also perceive instructors to be helpful, available, and sympathetic when they develop nurturing relationships with students. These leader behaviors caused students to feel supported and valued (Kinsler, 2014). Suarez and Hernandez (2012) focused their correlation analysis study on two professors who exhibited helpful behaviors with the goal of creating meaning for students. The sample included postgraduate students in Portugal and undergraduate students in Spain. When interpreted, the data revealed active engagement of both sets of students. When students are engaged in ways that are meaningful and relevant, the probability that they will drop out of college before achieving their academic goals diminishes significantly.

A leader's sympathetic behavior is evidenced by personalized leader-follower interactions. In college, sympathetic leadership behaviors are denoted by positive, empathetic communication with students (Fairman & Mackenzie, 2015; Wilson & Ryan, 2013). Empathetic communication, for example, is evident when an instructor knows students' names, aspirations, and challenges, and when the instructor is emotionally and

mentally responsive to followers. In their research, Zephe, Leach, and Butler (2014) discovered that sympathetic instructors were a likely predictor of student engagement.

For community college students, particularly students who have been historically marginalized or disenfranchised in educational organizations, the classroom is uniquely important. Classrooms are the primary place where engagement occurs and the primary venue for creating relationships with instructors (Bassett, Snyder, Rogers, & Collins, 2013; Cottrill, Lopez, & Hoffman, 2014). Instructor-student interactions are normalized and expectations are socially constructed in classrooms. Because community college students commute to and from the college and most have employment and life obligations that limit their on-campus time and availability, classrooms are typically their only place of interaction with the organization, and their instructors are the only organizational agent with whom they have a relationship.

Asymmetrical power and authority are inherent consequences of instructors' role, responsibilities, and leadership position in the classroom. However, power differentials can be overcome by creating and maintaining an instructor-student relationship that is follower-centric (Frisby, Berger, Burchett, Herovic, & Strawser, 2014). In addition to creating a classroom culture that is punctuated by respect, trust, and honesty, instructors who display humor (Tremblay & Gibson, 2016), caring, immediacy, and supportive behaviors are able to establish a rapport (Slater, Veach, & Li, 2013) that honors students' needs and aspirations.

To achieve organizational goals, instructors and students must share common perceptions of expectations and goals. Zohar and Polachek's (2014) analysis of

interpersonal communications highlights the importance of role clarity to establish a high quality, mutually beneficial relationship. The socioemotional relationship that develops between instructor and student is dependent upon the degree of trust, respect, and sense of obligation between the instructor and the student.

Instructor-student relationships are precursors to student and organizational success. Micari and Pazos (2012) used correlation analysis to explore instructor-student interactions. The researchers inferred that undergraduates were more likely to do more academic work than was expected and to be more satisfied with the course and the instructor if the instructor was helpful and if the instructor had a developed an instructor-student relationship that students viewed as positive. Students who described instructors as accessible, approachable, helpful, and interested also shared that they were more satisfied with their college experience (Hartmann, Widner, & Carrick, 2013).

Leaders who are supportive and effective communicators tend to develop high quality relationships with followers, which enhances the followers' willingness to exceed expectations. Approachability and respect were shown to be indicators of student success when Komarraju, Musulkin, and Bhattacharya (2010) investigated the instructor-student relationship. Their study affirmed that student performance and retention are affected by the quality of instructor-student interactions. Research also showed that negative pre-college conditions such as feelings of inferiority, embarrassment, or intimidation can be mitigated by an instructor's leadership behaviors, if interactions with instructors are authentic and validating.

Interactions between leaders and workers suggest that high-quality relationships are instrumental to motivation. Wang, Chiang, Tsai, Lin, and Cheng (2013) found that benevolent, follower-centric leader behaviors foster positive engagement. Support and concern for followers' wellbeing stimulated followers' to reciprocate by working more diligently, and being more creative. Instructors also engage students by acknowledging their presence (Yumi & Young, 2017). Leader behaviors must evince a genuine regard and concern for followers and their needs.

Conclusion

Engagement is an organizational imperative that is influenced by leadership behaviors, and, most directly, by the behavior of the direct supervisor. Importantly, management literature establishes leadership behaviors as a predictor of follower engagement (Audenaert, Vanderstraeten, & Buyens, 2017). When effectively motivated and supported, engaged workers drive organizational competitiveness and sustainability (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014). Engaged followers are less likely to leave an organization prematurely. They also outperform expectations and commit their talents and time to the betterment of an organization, thereby improving individual and organizational performance.

Although much of the research regarding leader behaviors and follower engagement has been conducted in the business community, the effects of instructor leadership and follower (i.e., student) engagement in higher education have been substantiated by research. Instructors have the capacity to intrinsically motivate students, prompting them to become behaviorally, cognitively, and affectively engaged (Pounder,

2014). However, in higher education, there is a paucity of empirical evidence about how instructor behaviors influence student engagement. High rates of attrition of college student make the need to examine this phenomenon important.

As outlined in this chapter, the purpose of the study was to examine the extent to which there may be a relationship between instructor leadership behaviors and student engagement. The information provided in this chapter identified the theoretical links between leadership and engagement. Engagement was substantiated as a desired outcome and a precursor to retention. Studies that were discussed highlighted the positive association between leadership, engagement and retention, while creating a framework for examining the research questions. A review of the literature identified missing scholarship that could further knowledge about the effects of leadership and follower engagement.

The research study was designed to examine the extent to which there is a relationship between instructor leadership behaviors and student engagement. Knowledge from the study may potentially to improve instructor leadership, thereby, reducing student attrition. It may also help fill a gap in knowledge regarding predictors of student engagement.

Recommendations from this study may help college instructors become more effective classroom leaders and institutions of higher education improve their retention rates. Chapter 3 will provide details of the research methodology and research design. The result of the research inquiry will be presented in Chapter 4. Findings and recommendations will be offered in Chapter 5.

Chapter 3: Research Design & Methods

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine to what extent instructor behavior is related to and predictive of student engagement. A correlation and regression analysis design was employed to measure how instructor behaviors influence student engagement, which was assessed by survey data responses. I also examined how student engagement might be associated with institutional support and students' behaviors outside of the classroom, which, in this study, is referred to as depth of learning.

In Chapter 2 I provided a review of theoretical and scholarly literature on leader behavior and follower engagement. A review of the literature established college classrooms as social units, college instructors as leaders, and students as their followers. In addition to informing the study, the literature review supported the choice and operationalization of the study's independent variables and dependent variable. An introduction to the study was provided in Chapter 1. The first chapter also included the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the study's significance, and the research questions.

This chapter identifies the research design, methodology, and data analysis plan. Included in the chapter is a description of the data and data collection instrument, the means used to collect the data, the ethics of the study, and its data security. The data collection instrument's reliability and validity are also addressed.

Research Design

The design used for this study was a cross-sectional design for the retrospective analysis of student rated survey data collected at a local college using a national instrument. Survey responses from a single year's survey served as evidence of factors related to student engagement. The study's independent variables were instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning; student engagement was the dependent variable.

Data for the study were collected in 2014 by a community college's office of planning and research, under the auspices of the Center for Community College Survey of Student Engagement (CCSSE). The community college is located in an urban area; its student body is ethnically and socio-economically diverse. The college amassed more than 1,400 data records (i.e., student surveys) by employing a survey research instrument known as the Community College Student Report (CCSR). A sample of the CCSR is shown as Appendix A.

It was anticipated that this research strategy would advance leader-follower relationship knowledge that will be useful in improving the effects of leader-follower exchanges within classroom settings. Comparing the effects of institution support as well as the effect its instructors have on student engagement will be valuable information for classroom leadership training and instructional planning. The advantage of using the Community College Student Report (CCSR) was that data had been collected using peer-reviewed standardized administration techniques for measuring student experiences.

The data collection process was implemented by trained personnel and the process ensured a representative sample of the population. The disadvantage of this research strategy was the potential for influence of common method variance since all data were collected from the CCSR and all respondents are students. It also did not allow follow-up of students' experience.

Instrument Design

The Community College Student Report (CCSR) is a pencil and paper survey that is designed to assess student engagement at community colleges. Items on the survey instrument are rooted in theory and their reliability and validity have been assessed on multiple occasions (Barnett, 2011; Community College Survey of Student Engagement, 2010 & 2011; Mandarino & Mattern, 2010; Marti, 2009; McClenney & Marti, 2006). Community colleges rely on the results of the Community College Student Report (CCSR) to make decisions regarding retention and organizational effectiveness.

Populated by questions that include the quality of a student's interaction with instructors and institutional support, the Community College Student Report (CCSR) includes five constructs that are identified in the literature as measures of educational best practices. The constructs are: (a) student-instructor interaction, (b) active and collaborative learning, (c) student effort, (d) academic challenges, and (d) support for learners. Each construct is the aggregate of conceptually associated factors that have been empirically shown to contribute student retention and their academic performance (Center for Community Student Engagement, 2012). In addition to assessing student

engagement, instructors can use the data to assess their efficacy and, if needed, develop data-driven interventions.

Responses on the Community College Student Report (CCSR) are scored on a Likert-type scale. Consistent with extant research, the Community College Student Report (CCSR) asks students questions about behaviors related to learning. The CCSR consists of 38-items. There are 21 questions that collect anonymous demographic data and 17 questions that relate to the five constructs. There are no items on the CCSR that require students to disclose their identity and there is no personal information that would allow students' identity to be revealed.

Administration of the Instrument

The CCSR is administered under the auspices of the Community College Survey of Student Engagement (CCSSE). CCSSE (pronounced sessie) is part of the Community College Leadership Program, College of Education, at the University of Texas at Austin. CCSSE's focus is community college research.

The survey process is scripted and controlled by the Center for Community College Survey of Student Engagement's (CCCSE) guidebook. A standardized letter is provided to a participating college's representative who is designated to administer the survey. In addition to informing students, the letter also informs faculty about the survey's purpose and its guidelines. Students verify their acknowledgement by signature. When the surveys are completed and collected, they are mailed to CCCSE for analyses. Results are usually returned to the college in about 90 days.

Participation in the Center for Community College Survey of Student Engagement's (CCCSE) survey research is voluntary. Community colleges who participate do so as paid members of the CCSSE. Approximately 69% of the nation's community colleges are CCSSE members.

As outlined on CCSSE's website, membership fees are assessed in accordance with a college's enrollment. Colleges with an enrollment of 22,000 or more are considered extra-large; their enrollment fee is $14,150. For a publicly funded institution, this is a significant investment.

Approximately, 25,000 students are enrolled in the college whose data will be used for this study. The findings that result from this study have the potential to increase the return of this investment for the college. Absent this study, the data were largely an untapped reservoir of unique information.

Use of the Instrument

The Community College Student Report (CCSR) is administered annually, in the spring. As of 2014, the CCSR had been used at more than 800 community colleges to collect data from approximately 1,590,000 community college students. The colleges were in 48 states in the United States and the District of Columbia, three Canadian provinces, Bermuda, Micronesia, and the Northern Marianas.

To participate in the Community College Survey of Student Engagement's (CCSSE) survey research, colleges submit their master course files to CCSSE. The sampling unit is the classroom. Using a stratified random sampling cluster scheme, CCSSE selects the courses to be surveyed (Marti, 2009). This method of probability

sampling ensures that each subgroup within the population is proportionally represented in the sample. Sample characteristics are derived by aggregating and comparing the data that the college reported on its most recent Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) enrollment report.

Non-credit courses and online and hybrid classes are not included in the sample. Full-time students are, by definition, enrolled in more classes than part-time students (Juszkiewicz, 2016). To correct this inherent sampling bias, CCSSE assigns a weight, a statistical technique that allows for a proportional adjustment, so that enrollment data is more accurately represented based on an institution's enrollment characteristics.

During face-to-face class periods and under the direction of a trained administrator, using CCSSE scripted guidelines, students respond to inquiries about their behavioral practices in and out of the classroom. Respondents also provide information about instructor behaviors and the quality of their relationships with instructors and institutional support personnel.

The Evolution of the Instrument

The Community College Student Report (CCSR) is an adaptation of the College Student Report (CSR). The CSR was created in 1999. It is the survey instrument used by the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) to assess student experiences and student engagement at 4-year colleges and universities (McClenney, 2006). Because research was disproportionately conducted at 4-year colleges and universities, the Community College Student Report (CCSR) was created in 2001 to evaluate student experiences and engagement at 2-year colleges.

The Community College Student Report (CCSR) provides a means of hearing, capturing, and understanding students' experiences as expressed in their voice and through their experiential prism. Intentional in its design and cognizant of the importance of the instrument's psychometric qualities, particularly reliability and validity, two-thirds of the measurement items on the Community College Student Report (CCSR) are found on its predecessor, the College Student Report (CSR). Both survey instruments reflect the culmination of many years of theoretical student engagement research.

The Pew Charitable Trusts and the Lumina Foundation for Education provided the initial funding for the CCSR's development. Subsequent sponsors and financial support have come from the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, the Pew Forum on Undergraduate Learning, the Houston Endowment, Inc., and the MetLife Foundation.

Survey Research

Survey research has been employed since the early part of the 20th century. For organizational researchers, surveys continue to be a dominant mode of data collection (Handel, 2013). Surveys are the most common way of collecting data about college students. Data that have been collected using student engagement surveys evaluate learning and institutional effectiveness through a student-centered prism.

When used to collect quantitative data through closed-ended questions, self-reported information about respondents' beliefs, behaviors, and opinions can be obtained. Self-reported data are considered valid if the responses are thoughtful, if the respondents respond to questions they understand, and if they provide information they know

(Lundberg, 2014). To be useful for research, a data collection instrument must be both reliable and valid.

Reliability

The Community College Student Report (CCSR) is a nationally recognized survey instrument whose validity and reliability have been affirmed by multiple studies (Barnett, 2011; Community College Survey of Student Engagement, 2010 & 2011; Mandarino & Mattern, 2010; Marti, 2009; McClenney & Marti, 2006). CCSR validation research efforts began with funding from the Lumina Foundation. Three separate data sources provided data that was used for the initial validation research. The sources were the Florida Department of Education, the Achieving the Dream project, and Hispanic-serving institutions.

The data were provided from 512 of the nation's community colleges and 299,732 surveys that were administered in 2003, 2004, and 2005. Excluded from analysis were surveys that did not indicate students' enrollment status, surveys that had been returned incorrectly, and surveys that were completed by students who were less than eighteen years old. After the exclusions, the sample included 274,694 surveys.

Having the research and data analysis conducted by three different and independent entities enhanced objectivity and transparency of the validation process. Reliability was assessed "through multiple-group [confirmatory factor analysis] CFA models that test measurement variance across groups" (Marti, 2009, p. 14). The groups included those defined by sex, enrollment status, and the year the survey was administered. The analysis revealed no measurement variance across groups.

Five hundred eighty-two respondents provided the data appropriate for test-retest. "Test-retest reliability was assessed on respondents that took the survey more than once during the same administration year…showed a high degree of consistency" (Marti, 2009, 12). Reliability of test-retest revealed showed strong consistency. Active and collaborative learning was .73, student effort was .74, academic challenge was .77, student-faculty interaction was .73, and support for learners was .73. The lack of measurement variance demonstrated confidence in the constructs.

Validity

Validity is a measure of an instrument's meaningfulness; its ability to measure what it is intended to measure. Hierarchical linear models were used to conduct the validation study. It was based on a sample of more than 274,000 U.S. community college students who completed the CCSR in 2003, 2004, and 2005. Validity was assessed

> by regressing grade point average (GPA) on a putative construct postulated in the [models of best fit] MBF and [models of effective educational practices] MEEP, generally showing the anticipated relationship between [grade point average] GPA and the latent constructs. Results indicate that the CCSR is appropriate for use in a wide variety of populations as respondents are answering questions in a reliable manner and the results can be demonstrated to be effectively related to other relevant measures. (Marti, 2009, p. 14)

GPA was selected because, unlike other measures on the CCSR, it does not rely on student perception. Therefore, there can be no response bias. Furthermore, GPA is a commonly accepted measure of student and institutional performance.

Construct Validity

The Community College Student Report (CCSR) outlines five constructs that define student engagement for community college students. The constructs are: (a) instructor-student interaction, (b) active and collaborative learning, (c) student effort, (d) academic challenges, and (d) support for learners. Each has been empirically shown to contribute to student engagement, retention, and academic achievement (Community College Survey of Student Engagement, 2011).

Statistical analysis was applied to discern the relatedness, that is, the internal consistency, of the factors that comprise each of the five constructs. As a result of statistical analysis, the constructs have been empirically established as models of effective educational practices (MEEP). The models were established by a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which was first applied to reduce the latent constructs, deemed models of best fit (MBF), and subsequently used to determine the internal consistency between each item in the construct. As is common with quantitative social research, Cronbach's alpha, a measure of the internal consistency, was applied to validate each benchmark (Marti, 2009). The research determined that inter-item relatedness was generally strong. Active and collaborative learning was .67, student effort was .56, academic challenge was .80, student-faculty interaction was .67, and support for learners was .76. Analysis also revealed normal distributions and acceptable skewness and kurtosis values. After being further evaluated using the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and the Standardized Root Mean Residual (SRMR), each benchmark was affirmed as a model of effective educational practice (MEEP).

The results of this analysis were reviewed by CCSSE's Technical Advisory Panel, a group of survey research experts. Relying on the theoretical frameworks that undergirded the constructs and the results of the confirmatory factor analysis, the group extended the analysis to further ensure each benchmark's construct validity. Results revealed that the "five factor solution exhibited reasonable model fit (RMSEA=.060, SRMR=.062)" (Marti, 2009, p. 10).

Methodology

This study used a correlation regression analysis design to measure effects and uncertainty in existing quantitative survey raw data responses. The study employed descriptive and inferential statistics to support its findings and subsequent recommendations. Regression analysis does not predict causality. Causality cannot be assumed because there may be other variables that are affecting the results of the data analysis. However, the research design permitted objective discrimination of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

The method was chosen because it is suitable for predicting a linear relationship between independent variables and dependent variables when there is no intention to manipulate the variables. Statistical analyses indicated both the direction and strength of the association between the independent and dependent variables to determine if their associations were significant. A significant relationship is one that is not due to sampling error.

Given a predetermined statistical level of confidence, the direction and degree of the strength of the association between the variables further indicated the predictive

nature of the independent variable on the outcome or dependent variable. Guiding the design of the study was the hypothesis that there is a positive association between the independent variable, instructor behavior, and the dependent variable, student engagement. After testing for the assumptions of regression (normality, linearity, non-collinearity, homoscedasticity, and no evidence of auto-correlation), a test of internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha) was performed on predictor variables.

Pearson's Product-Moment correlation was the statistical test used to determine the strength of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. As in standard in the literature (Aguinis, Gottfred, & Culpepper, 2013), a standard of Cronbach's alpha .05, 95% confidence level, was applied. Using correlation analysis and inferential statistics, this study answered the four research questions that guided this study. Figure 2 illustrates the research model.

Research Question 1: Do instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning, taken together, account for a significant amount of variance in student engagement ratings?

Research Question 2: To what extent does instructor behavior predict student engagement when the effects of institutional support and depth of learning are held constant?

Research Question 3: To what extent does institutional support predict student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and depth of learning are held constant?

Research Question 4: To what extent does depth of learning predict student

engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and institutional support are held constant?

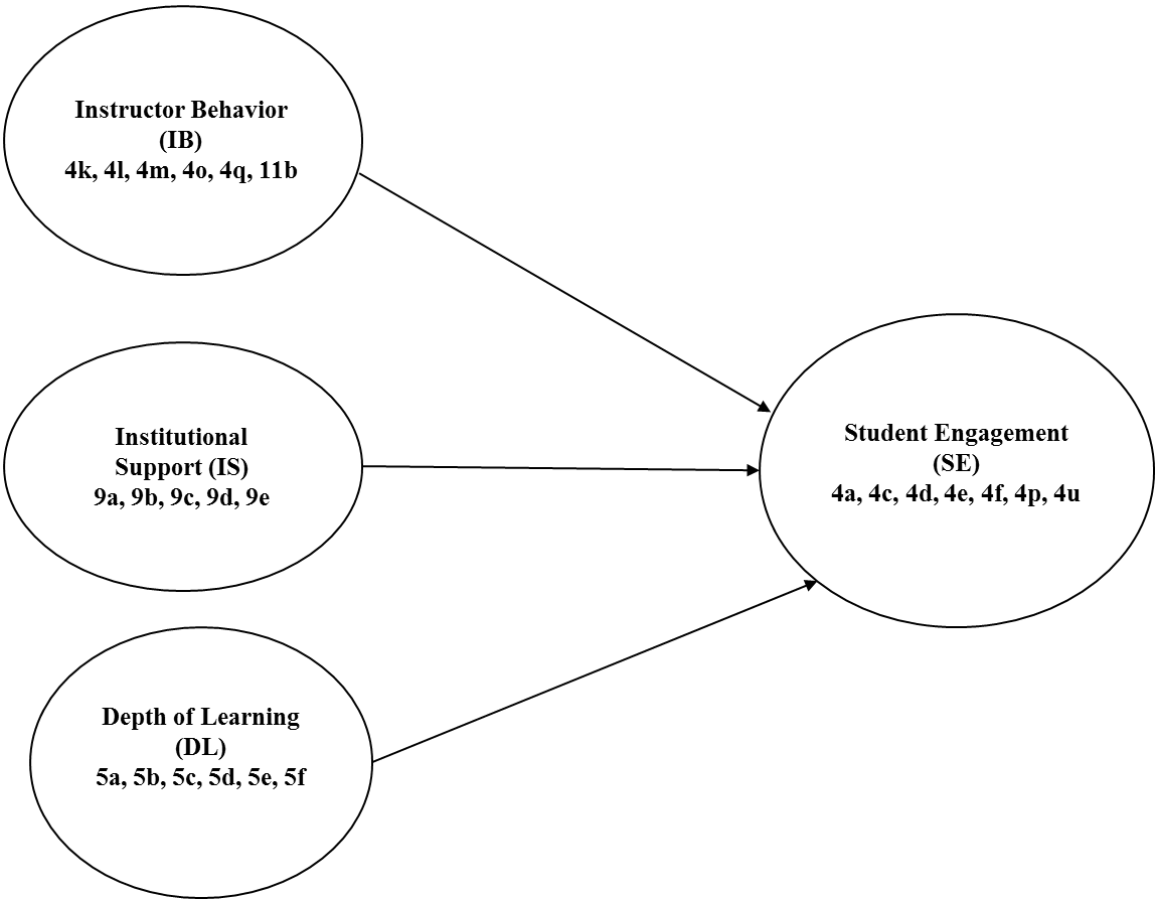

Figure 2. Conceptual model of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

Study Setting and Study Population Sample Frame

The population from which the study's sample was drawn comprised approximately 25,000 students who were enrolled in a diverse, urban community college located in a major metropolitan city in California. As one of the colleges in a four-college district, the college is the oldest and has the most diverse student population. Transfer-level, occupational, and career technical education courses are offered. Each semester is 16 weeks long. Throughout the semester, courses are offered in various modalities that

include traditional face-to-face settings, fully online, and as hybrids, which combines of a face-to-face setting and online. Face-to-face classes typically meet twice a week; each meeting lasts one hour and twenty minutes. Day and evening classes, along with occasional weekend classes are offered.

In 2014, when the data were collected, almost 15% of the students were first year students. The average age of the students was 27. Only about 7% of the students were considered transfer-ready, that is, ready to transfer to a 4-year college or university. Those students had completed at least 60 transferable units and their grade point average was at least a 2.0.

Women comprised 55.8% of the student population. Thirty-nine percent of the students were 25 years of age or older, and almost 70% were non-white. More than 60% of the students were either low income or had incomes that were below the poverty line. Sixty-seven percent of the students attended part-time and 51% were employed. Forty-two percent were first generation college students.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

To ensure the sample was representative of the colleges' morning, afternoon, and evening classes, class start time was the stratification variable. The size of the institution dictates the sample size. According to the Community College Student Survey of Engagement (CCSSE), the ideal sample size was calculated to be approximately 160% of a college's target sample size. This higher percentage allows for unusable surveys and for students, who for a myriad of reasons, may not take the survey. In addition to not being present when the survey is administered or refusing to complete the survey, a student's

survey was excluded from CCSSE's data analysis for one of the following reasons. A college's target sample size is usually taken to be 10% of its overall student population.

- The student did not indicate if he or she was enrolled full-time or part-time. This information is necessary because the results are weighted and analyzed by enrollment status.
- If a student reports his or her age as under 18, that student's survey is considered invalid.
- If a student indicates yes on item 3, "Have you taken this survey in another class this term?" or if the student failed to respond to this item, the student's survey is discarded.
- If a student responded "Very Often" or "Never" to all of the sub-items in item 4, that student's survey is considered invalid.
- The student did not answer all of the 21 sub-items on item 4 that asked the student, "In your experience at this college during the current school year, about how often have you done each of the following?"

Sample Size and Sampling Error

Sample size was computed using the college's spring enrollment. For example, if enrollment was estimated to be between 4,500 and 7,999, the target sample size would be 800 students. The weighted sample size would be 1,280 students (800 x 1.60).

The goal for the sample size for this study was 1,400 records (i.e., students). During CCSSE's data analysis, which occurred before results were provided to the

college, invalid and unusable data were excluded. Once the data sample for the study was obtained, descriptive statistics better identified the sample (Table 4).

To improve the accuracy of the survey findings, sampling error, also referred to as the error margin, was computed. The error margin is a measure that accounts for inaccuracies, discrepancies, or differences between the survey findings and the results that would have emerged if the population had been surveyed and provided valid responses. The formula used to compute the error margin assumed a 100% response rate. The formula to compute the error margin is: square root of [(N-n)/(N*n)], where N is the size of the population from which the sample is drawn and n is the size of the sample.

If, for example, descriptive statistics reveal that the adjusted population, N, is 8,715 students and the sample size, n, is 1,400, the error margin would be computed as follows: (square root of [(8715-1400)/(8715*1400)]. The error margin would be 0.02448552677 or 2.4%. The error margin allows for more accurate interpretation of results from data analysis. For example, rather than interpreting the result to say that 75% of the students perceived instructors to be available, helpful, and sympathetic, the results would be communicated by accounting for the 2.4% error margin. Assuming a $p<.05$, the inference would be there is a 95% confidence level that between 73% and 77% of the students perceived instructors to be available, helpful, and sympathetic.

Archival Data

Permission to use the CCSR was granted from its developer (Appendix B). A letter of agreement from the college that owns the data and the data use form were secured. They are shown as Appendices C and D, respectively. Before data analysis was

conducted, written approval was obtained from Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). The IRB's approval number is 09-26-17-0025245. The IRB review and approval process further ensured that participants' rights to privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity have been protected and that there will be minimum risk or harm to them and to the researcher.

Ethics of the Study

The potential value of the research study did not overshadow the dignity of and concern for research participants. Efforts were taken to ensure that participants were not harmed as a result of participating in the study. Harm can be incurred financially, emotionally, or physically.

The process of data collection did not pose any risks to the respondents. Informed consent was obtained before administering the surveys. Survey administrators from the college's office of Planning, Research, and Institutional Effectiveness explained the purpose of the survey and answered students' questions. Student participants were assured of confidentiality, privacy, and anonymity. None of the participants were forced or coerced into completing a survey. Participation was voluntary.

Students who were 18 years of age or younger were asked to not complete the survey. If, after the surveys were completed, item 29 on the CCSR showed that the survey had been completed by a student who was 18 years of age or younger, that student's survey was excluded from the data set.

Data that were provided for the study did not include participants' personal or identifying information. There are no items on the CCSR that required a student to

disclose his or her identity or any personal information that would allow the student's identity to be revealed. Item 38, which reads, please provide your student identification number…, is optional.

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Informed Consent

The process of data collection did not pose any risks to the respondents. Informed consent was obtained before administering the surveys. Reading the script that has been provided from the Community College Survey of Student Engagement (CCSSE), the administrator from the college's Office of Planning, Research, and Institutional Effectiveness explained the purpose of the survey and answered students' questions. Student participants were assured of confidentiality, privacy, and anonymity. None of the participants were forced or coerced into completing a survey. Participation was voluntary.

Students who were 18 years of age or younger were asked to not complete the survey. If, after the surveys were completed, item 29 on the CCSR showed that the survey had been completed by a student who was 18 years of age or younger, that student's survey was excluded from the data set. The data that was provided for the study did not include participants' personal or identifying information. There were no items on the CCSR that require a student to disclose his or her identity or any personal information that would allow the student's identity to be revealed. Item 38, which reads, "Please

provide your student identification number…," is an optional response for the respondent.

Data Collection

The survey research was conducted in 2014 during the college's 16-week spring semester. Under the auspices of the Center for Community College Survey of Student Engagement, a representative sample was collected by the community college's office of planning and research. Surveys were administered to students enrolled in credit courses.

Responses on the Community College Student Report (CCSR) were scored on a Likert-type scale. Information that personally identified a student, such as the student's name and identification number was not collected. However, general demographic information such as race or ethnicity, age, gender, marital status, and level of education were collected on the data instrument.

The Study's Variables

For this study, the unit of analysis was the student; each student's existing record of survey responses. The study had three independent variables and one dependent variable. Instructor Behavior (IB), Institutional Support (IS), and Depth of Learning (DL) were the independent variables. Student Engagement (SE) is the dependent variable. The study's variables, defined on Table 3, were substantiated by theoretical perspectives and a review of the literature as described in Chapter 2. To facilitate the statistical analyses, the variables were recoded numerically.

Table 2

Explanation of Study's Variables

Variable type	Variable explanation	Variable name	Response choices
Independent	Instructor Behavior	IB	Responses were captured on a 4-point Likert scale; yielded responses that ranged from very often to never; quality instructional rating responses were captured on a 7-point Likert scale. Responses ranged from high of 7, available, helpful, sympathetic; to a low of 1; unavailable, unhelpful, unsympathetic.
Independent	Institutional Support	IS	Responses were captured on a 4-point Likert scale; yielded responses that ranged from very often to very little
Independent	Depth of Learning	DL	Responses were captured on a 4-point Likert scale; yielded responses that ranged from very often to very little
Dependent	Student Engagement	SE	Responses were captured on a 4-point Likert scale, which yielded responses that ranged from very often to never.

Operationalization of the Independent Variables

Instructor Behavior (IB) was operationalized by sub-items in Question 4 that asked students, "In your experience at this college during the current school year, about how often have you done each of the following?" and Item 11b, which instructs students to, "Mark the number that best represents the quality of your relationships with instructors." Students choose from a seven point Likert-scaled single item. When using this rating to evaluate their instructors in total, students are asked to consider three traits: available, helpful, and sympathetic. A rating of seven represents the highest rating; one represents the lowest rating." The values from the items will be summed to produce the variable IB. The items are -

4k. Used e-mail to communicate with an instructor

4l. Discussed grades or assignments with an instructor

4m. Talked about career plans with an instructor or advisor

4o. Received prompt feedback (written or oral) from instructors on your performance

4q. Worked with instructors on activities other than coursework

11b. The quality of instructor-student relationship

Institutional Support (IS) was operationalized by five sub-items in Question 9 that asked students, "How much does this college emphasize each of the following?" The five sub-items are -

9a. Encouraging you to spend significant amounts of time studying

9b. Providing the support you need to help you succeed at this college

9c. Encouraging contact among student from different economic, social, and racial or ethnic backgrounds

9d. Helping you cope with non-academic responsibilities (work, family, etc.)

9e. Providing the support you need to thrive socially

The values from these survey items were summed to produce the variable, CS. Two of the Items located near the above items in the survey form, 9f and 9g, are excluded because they address external resources (i.e., financial support and computer technology) and are not conceptually related to Institutional Support (IS).

Depth of Learning (DL) was operationalized by Question 5 that asked students, "During the current school year, how much of your coursework at this college emphasized the following mental activities?" The six sub-items for this question are -

5a. Memorizing facts, ideas, or methods from your courses and readings so you can repeat them in pretty much the same form

5b. Analyzing the basic elements of an idea, experience or theory

5c. Synthesizing and organizing ideas, information, or experiences in new ways

5d. Making judgements about the value or soundness of information, arguments, or methods

5e. Applying theories or concepts to practical problems or in new situations

5f. Using information you have read or heard to perform a new skill

The values from these survey items were summed to produce the variable, DL.

Operationalization of the Dependent Variable

The dependent variable, Student Engagement (SE), was operationalized by the sub- items in Question 4 that are related to student engagement behavior in and outside of the classroom. The question asked students, "In your experience at this college during the current school year, about how often have you done each of the following?" The following ten survey items from question 4 will be summed to produce the construct, SE.

a. Asked question in class or contributed to class discussion

b. Made a class presentation

c. Prepared two or more drafts of a paper or assignments before turning it in

d. Worked on a paper or project that required integrating ideas or information from various sources
e. Come to class without completing readings or assignments (reverse coded)
f. Worked with other students on projects during class
g. Worked with classmates outside of class to prepare class assignments
p. Worked harder than you thought you could to meet an instructor's standards or expectations
r. Discussed ideas from your readings or classes with others outside of class (students, family members, coworkers, etc.)
u. Skipped class (reverse coded)

Data Analysis Plan

The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows (Version 21). The data were examined to ensure no data are missing and that all data have been entered correctly and within the given range. Showing minimum and maximum number of responses, frequency tables revealed potential errors that could have occurred as a result of missing values or keying errors.

The study was guided by the following research questions and their associated null and alternative hypotheses.

Research Question 1: To what extent does instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning, taken together, account for a significant amount of variance in student engagement ratings?

$H_0$1: Instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning, taken together, are not significantly predictive of variance in student engagement.

$H_1$1: Instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning, taken together, are significantly predictive of variance in student engagement.

Research Question 2: To what extent does instructor behavior predict student engagement when the effects of institutional support and depth of learning are held constant?

$H_0$2: Instructor behavior is a not significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of institutional support and depth of learning are held constant.

$H_1$2: Instructor behavior is a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of institutional support and depth of learning are held constant.

Research Question 3: To what extent does institutional support predict student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and depth of learning are held constant?

$H_0$3: Institutional support is not a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and depth of learning are held constant.

$H_1$3: Institutional support is a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and depth of learning are held constant.

Research Question 4: To what extent does depth of learning predict student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and institutional support are held constant?

$H_0$4: Depth of learning is not a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and institutional support are held constant.

$H_1$4: Depth of learning is a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and institutional support are held constant.

The study employed descriptive and inferential statistics, reliability coefficients (Cronbach alpha), and correlation coefficients. The codebook that was created by the Community College Survey of Student Engagement (CCSSE) and provided to the college was used to translate the variables and survey data into numerical datasets. Data analysis included descriptive statistics, reliability testing, and correlation analysis. In addition to characteristics of the sample, descriptive statistics provided the necessary details to affirm that the sample proportionally represents the population.

Regression analysis was utilized for data analysis. Prior to conducting regression analysis, univariate analysis was performed to check regression assumptions regarding normality, outliers, skewedness, kurtosis, non-collinearity, homoscedasticity, and linear relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable. Reliability analysis was performed on the survey items that are associated with the independent variables and the dependent variable. As listed below, four tests of internal consistency were conducted, one for each of the scales that comprise the study's variables.

- A test of internal consistency, Cronbach's Alpha, of the Leader Behavior construct; items 11b, 4k, 4l, 4m, 4n, 4o, and 4q.
- A test of internal consistency, Cronbach's Alpha, of the Student Engagement construct; items 4a, 4d, 4e, 4f, 4j, 4p, and 4u.

- A test of internal consistency, Cronbach's Alpha, of the Depth of Student Learning construct; items 5a,, 5b, 5c, 5d, 5e, and 5f.
- A test of internal consistency, Cronbach's Alpha, of the Institutional support construct; items 9a, 9b, 9c, 9d, and 9e.

The first research question was tested by the regression equation *F* test, which assessed the regression sum of squares. Because the result was significant, then regression coefficients were tested to determine the extent to which there was a relationship between each of the independent variables and, the dependent variable, student engagement (SE). The significance test was the regression coefficient between each independent variables and, the dependent variable, student engagement. A standard of an alpha error of less than 5%, or $p<.05$ was applied.

Regression coefficients resulted from analyses of research questions 2, 3, and 4. A correlation coefficient has a value in the range of -1 and +1. A coefficient of zero would have indicated that there was no relationship between an independent variable and the dependent variable, student engagement. A coefficient of -1 would have indicated that instructors' leader behaviors in the community college classroom have a perfect negative correlation with student engagement. A coefficient of +1 would have indicated that instructors' leader behaviors in the community college classroom were perfectly positively correlated with student engagement. The regression coefficients in this study assessed the linear relationship of the predictors while holding constant the effects of the other predictors. If, for example, the regression coefficient for Instructor Behavior (IB) is significant but the coefficients for Institutional Support and Depth of Learning are not

significant, that result would indicate that the model containing only Instructor Behavior is the most parsimonious or best at accounting for variance in the Student Engagement (SE) variable.

Threats to Validity

External Validity

As with any research study, the accuracy, credibility, and meaningfulness of the study was reflected in its validity. External validity refers to the researcher's ability to generalize the outcomes, that is, to apply them to other persons, at other places, at other times. The findings of the study may not be generalizable to other industries and different populations. Data collection was limited to a single method. Data were only collected from one community college, in one city in the United States.

Although the study relied on data collected from only one college, one location, at one period of time, stratified random sampling was used to select survey participants. This method of probability sampling ensured that each subgroup within the population was proportionally represented in the sample, thereby, significantly enhancing external validity. Consequently, when generalizations are inferred from the representative sample, it is reasonable to expect that any differences between the sample and the population are due solely to chance.

Internal Validity

Internal validity refers to the efficacy of the study's research design and its data. Specifically, internal validity enables trustworthy conclusions to be drawn about relationships between the data. The study did not seek to identify a causal relationship.

The purpose of the study was to determine to what extent there may be a relationship between instructor leadership behaviors and student engagement. Among the threats to internal validity were dynamic factors that influence human interaction.

Data Analysis Reporting

Detailed results of all statistical tests are reported in Chapter 4. Data analysis and its subsequent reporting are intended to further knowledge that may help community college instructors more effectively engage students, which, as supported by the literature, may improve retention. Descriptive statistics of the sample are provided in Chapter 4. The research study culminates in Chapter 5. In response to the research questions and the purpose of the study, Chapter 5 includes a summary of the research findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

The data analysis contributed empirically based knowledge about the effect of leadership behavior and follower engagement, to include instructor behaviors in the college classroom and student engagement. While the findings cannot be accepted as facts or with certainty, they can be appraised and statistically applied to a wider representative population. In addition to adding to the analysis of leadership at community colleges and how it affects community college students, data from the study and resulting inferences provide insights that relate to analytical strategies in existence for other types of college students.

Data Security

The data is password protected and was similarly safeguarded during data analysis. All tangible forms of the data (e.g., reports, charts, and summaries) are stored in

a fireproof locked container in the researcher's home office. The researcher is the only person who has access to the data and the locked container. This level of protection will continue for a minimum of five years.

In accordance with policies issued by the Institutional Review Board at Walden University, raw data will be kept secured for a period of five years. At the end of the fifth year, all information pertinent to the study will be destroyed. Raw data that has been digitally stored will be permanently deleted. Tangible forms of data will be shredded or incinerated.

Conclusion

This aim of this study was to examine the extent to which there is a relationship between instructor leader behaviors and student engagement. Leadership theory and extant research suggest that instructor leader behavior may be a predictor of student engagement. To support the study's findings and subsequent recommendations, a correlational and multiple regression analysis design was employed. The study's sample was taken from a population of college students who were enrolled in an urban, diverse community college in 2014.

The potential value of the research study did not overshadow the dignity of and concern for research participants. Efforts were taken to ensure that participants were not be harmed as a result of participating in the study. Harm can be incurred financially, emotionally, or physically.

This chapter included information about the research design, sample, and data collection instrument. Ethics, specifically informed consent, confidentiality, and privacy

were addressed. Data security provisions were outlined. Research findings and analysis of the data are presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Results

This chapter includes the research findings and analysis of the data. The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which there may be a relationship between instructors' leadership behaviors and student engagement. Self-reported quantitative data were used to answer research questions regarding student engagement.

To better understand and isolate the potential effect of instructors' leadership behaviors on student engagement, two additional organizational factors, institutional support and depth of learning, were analyzed. Depth of learning referred to student-initiated learning activities such as study habits and voluntary use of tutoring services. For this study, instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning were the independent variables and student engagement was the dependent variable. Institutional support (IS) was a proxy for organizational culture. Depth of learning (DL) was a proxy for followers' tasks and instructor behavior (IB) was a proxy for leader behaviors.

Data Collection

The Community College Student Report (CCSR), a pencil and paper survey created in 2001 to evaluate student experiences and engagement at 2-year colleges, was used to collect data. The CCSR provides a means of hearing, capturing, and understanding students' experiences as expressed in their voice and through their experiential prism. In spring 2014, under the auspices of the Center for Community College Survey of Student Engagement (CCSSE), a representative sample was collected by a participating community college's office of planning and research. The college is located in an urban area; its student body is ethnically and socio-economically diverse.

Student sample survey responses from a single year's survey served as the evidence for factors related to student engagement.

The Representative Sample

The representative sample consisted of 1,489 student records. Descriptive analysis of the data revealed there were 608 part-time students and 874 fulltime students (Table 3). For 82% of the students a high school diploma or equivalent was the highest academic credential earned. Sixty-seven percent of the students indicated this college was the first and only college they were or had attended. There were almost as many female students as male students. Although 26% of the students were between the ages of 25 and 64, approximately 70% of the students were between the ages of 18 and 24. The students were ethnically diverse; approximately 40% of the students were either Hispanic or African-American.

For 68% of the students, English is their native language. Eighty-two percent of the students were enrolled in daytime classes, and had earned fewer than 45 credits. Transfer to a 4-year college or university was the primary goal of 72% of the students.

Eighty-nine percent of the students were unmarried. More than half, 52%, indicated they care for dependents; 22% had dependent children living with them. While taking classes, 63% of the students worked for pay. Sixty-four percent spent 1-5 hours commuting to and from classes.

Table 3

Demographic Information About the Sample (N = 1486)

Participant characteristic	*n*	%
Gender		
Female	714	48.0
Male	747	50.3
Chose not to identify	25	1.7
Age Group		
18-19	359	24.2
20-21	377	25.4
22-24	285	19.2
25-29	186	12.5
30-39	138	9.3
40-49	60	4.0
50-64	43	2.9
65+	10	.7
Chose not to identify	28	1.9
Marital Status		
Married	145	10
Single	1318	88
Chose not to identify	26	2
Enrollment Status		
Full-time	874	41
Part-time	608	59
Race or Ethnicity		
American Indian or other Native American	25	1.7
Asian, Asian American or Pacific Islander	307	20.7
Native Hawaiian	6	4
Black or African American, Non-Hispanic	209	14.1
White, Non-Hispanic	388	26.1
Hispanic, Latino, Spanish	366	24.6
Other	117	7.9
Chose not to identify	68	4.6

For community college students the need to work, indicated on Figure 3, was significant. More than 900 students were likely to work and, as shown on Table 4, most students depend on their jobs, someone else's income, and grants and scholarships to help them pay tuition. Financial insecurity led 72% of the students to indicate that lack of

finances is either likely or very likely to cause them to withdraw from their classes or the college. Fifty-six percent of the students said that caring for persons who are dependent on them would cause them to withdraw from their classes or the college; 22% of the students have children living with them. Twenty-two percent report that their academic unpreparedness may prompt them to drop out.

Table 4

Tuition Payment Sources

Sources to pay tuition	% Students who depend on source
Personal income	70
Parent's or spouse's income	50
Employer	12
Grants and scholarships	53
Student loans	15
Public assistance	21

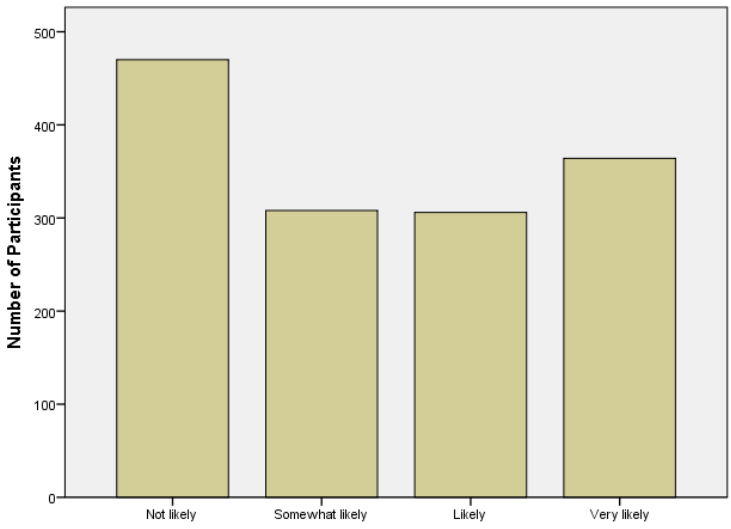

Figure 3. The likelihood of students to be employed.

Despite their financial vulnerabilities and dependencies, family obligations, logistical challenges, and concerns about academic preparedness, the students' enrollment supported their expressed intention to transfer to a 4-year college or university. Eighty-two percent of them attended daytime classes. Table 5 indicates that the majority of the students have just begun to accumulate the number of credits needed to transfer. However, their assessment of the college experience is generally very good (Table 6).

Table 5

Credits Earned at This College (N = 1489)

Total credits earned	*n*	%
None	153	10.3
1-14	467	31.4
15-29	301	20.2
30-44	230	15.4
45-60	149	10.0
Over 60	154	10.3
Declined to indicate	35	2.4

Table 6

Experience at This College (N = 1489)

How do you evaluate your experience at this college?	*n*	%
Poor	19	1.3
Fair	251	16.9
Good	804	54.0
Excellent	390	26.2
Declined to indicate	25	1.7

Assumption Testing

Inter-item correlation analysis was conducted to assess the reliability of the items that comprise the independent variables (IV) and the dependent variable (DV). The

reliability rating of the seven CCSR items that comprise the DV, Student Engagement (SE), was Cronbach's alpha (α) .514. The reliability rating of the five CCSR items that comprise the independent variables, Institutional Support (IS), was α = .798. The reliability rating of the six CCSR items that comprise the independent variable, Depth of Learning (DL), was α =.833. The reliability rating of the six CCSR items that comprise the independent variable, Instructor Behavior (IB), was α = .655.

The assumption of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were satisfied by a review of scatterplots. No extreme outliers were detected. An examination of the collinearity statistics (i.e., tolerance and variance inflation factor, VIF) alleviated any concerns about multicollinearity (Table 7). The tolerance values for each item was higher than .10 and the VIF values were lower than 10. Having determined that the data were normally distributed (Figure 4), and given the large sample size, Pearson's correlation analysis was conducted to determine the inferential statistics.

Table 7

Multicollinearity Analysis

	Collinearity statistics	
Model	Tolerance	VIF
IB & IS	.812	1.231
IS & DL	.836	1.196
IB & DL	.804	1.244

*Not*e: IB = Instructor Behavior; IS = Institutional Support, DL = Depth of Learning

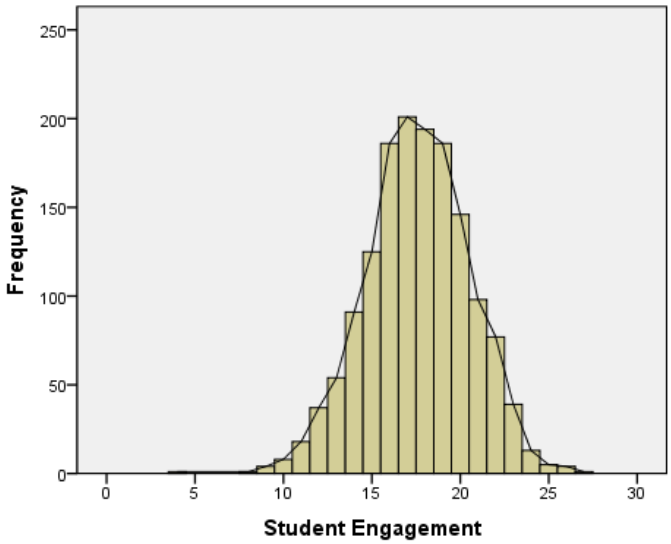

Figure 4. Distribution of DV, Student Engagement (*N* = 1,489)

Study Results

To answer the research questions, I conducted correlation, linear regression, and hierarchical multiple regression analyses. Hierarchical multiple regression (HMR) analysis was applied to discern the unique contribution of each independent variable (Aguinis, Gottfred, & Culpepper, 2013). Statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS, Version 21 with an established confidence level set at 95%.

Correlation and regression analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between student engagement and the three potential predictors, which were depth of learning, institutional support, and instructor behavior. The sample size for each of the predictors differed. The sample sizes were 1453, 1441, and 1489, respectively. Consequently, two different techniques, pair-wise and list-wise deletion methods, were used to calculate the correlation between each predictor and the dependent variable,

Student Engagement. There was no discernible difference in the results of the subsequent correlation and regression analyses.

Four research questions guided the analyses.

Research Question 1: To what extent does instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning, taken together, account for a significant amount of variance in student engagement ratings?

Research Question 2: To what extent does instructor behavior predict student engagement when the effects of institutional support and depth of learning are held constant?

Research Question 3: To what extent does institutional support predict student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and depth of learning are held constant?

Research Question 4: To what extent does depth of learning predict student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and institutional support are held constant?

Correlation & Regression Analyses

The relationship between student engagement, as measured by SE, and instructor behavior, as measured by IB, was investigated using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, a statistical technique commonly referred to as Pearson's *r*. The two variables positively correlated at $r = .50$, $p<.001$, $r^2 = .25$ (Table 8). Linear regression was employed to determine the predictive capacity of instructor behavior as it relates to student engagement.

As detailed on Table 9, the prediction was statistically significant. The predictive capacity of instructor behavior was moderately strong; 25% of the variability in student engagement was related to instructor behavior, $F(1, 1488) = 498.792$, $p < .01$ with a slope of .37 and a Y-intercept of 10.49 (Table 10). When predicting student engagement from instructor behavior, the error will be by 2.55 points (Table 11).

Table 8

Correlation, Instructor Behavior and Student Engagement

		Instructor behavior	Student engagement
Instructor Behavior	Pearson Correlation	1	.501**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	1489	1489

Note. **$p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed).

Table 9

ANOVA, Instructor Behavior and Student Engagement

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	3232.354	1	3232.354	498.792	.000*
Residual	9636.306	1487	6.480		
Total	12868.660	1488			

Note. * $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed).

Table 10

Coefficients, Instructor Behavior (IB) and Student Engagement (SE)

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	SE	10.487	.324		32.332	.000*
	IB	.370	.017	.501	22.334	.000

Note. * $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed).

Table 11

Regression Model, Instructor Behavior and Student Engagement

R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate
.501	.251	.251	2.546

The potential correlation between the independent variable, Institutional Support, and the dependent variable, Student Engagement, was analyzed using Pearson's *r*. As shown on Table 12, the two positively variables correlated at $r = .20$, $p < .05$, $r^2 = .04$. Linear regression was employed to determine the predictive ability of institutional support as it relates to student engagement.

As detailed on Table 13, the prediction was statistically significant. However, the predictive capacity of institutional support was weak; only 4% of the variability in student engagement was related to institutional support, $F(1,1439) = 62.415$, $p < .01$ with a slope of .17 and a Y-intercept of 15.40 (Table 14). When considering institutional support as a predictor of student engagement, the error will be by 2.85 points (Table 15).

Table 12

Correlation, Institutional Support and Student Engagement

		Institutional support	Student engagement
Institutional Support	Pearson correlation	1	.204*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	1441	1441

Note. * $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed).

Table 13

ANOVA, Institutional Support and Student Engagement

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	507.653	1	507.653	62.415	.000*
Residual	11704.032	1439	8.133		
Total	12211.685	1440			

Note. * $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed).

Table 14

Coefficients, Institutional Support (IS) and Student Engagement (SE)

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. error	Beta		
1	SE	15.399	.289		53.200	.000*
	IS	.169	.021	.204	7.900	.000

Note. * $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed).

Table 15

Regression Model, Institutional Support and Student Engagement

R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate
.204	.042	.041	2.852

The potential correlation between the independent variable, Depth of Learning, and the dependent variable, Student Engagement, was analyzed using Pearson's *r*. As shown on Table 16, the two variables positively correlated at $r = .40$, $p < .05$, $r^2 = .16$. Linear regression was employed to determine the predictive capacity of depth of learning as it relates to student engagement.

As shown on Table 17, the prediction was statistically significant. The predictive capacity of depth of learning was moderate; 16% of the variability in student engagement was related to depth of learning, $F(1,1451) = 275.934$, $p < .01$ with a slope of .29 and a Y-intercept of 12.52 (Table 18). When predicting student engagement from depth of learning, the error will be by 2.67 points (Table 19).

Table 16

Correlation, Depth of Learning and Student Engagement

		Depth of learning	Student engagement
Depth of learning	Pearson correlation	1	.400*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N		1453

Note. * $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed).

Table 17

ANOVA, Depth of Learning and Student Engagement

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	1961.232	1	1961.232	275.934	.000*
Residual	10313.162	1451	7.108		
Total	12274.394	1452			

Note. * $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed).

Table 18

Coefficients, Depth of Learning (DL) and Student Engagement (SE)

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	SE	12.524	.314		39.899	.000*
	DP	.293	.018	.400	716.611	.000

Note. * $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed).

Table 19

Regression Model, Depth of Learning, and Student Engagement

R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate
.400	.160	.159	2.666

Hierarchical Multiple Regression

The hypotheses for this study were tested using hierarchical multiple regression. The first research question asked to what extent does instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning, taken together, account for a significant amount of variance in student engagement ratings. To respond multiple linear regression was used. Scatterplots and the normal probability plots were reviewed to ensure assumptions of outliers, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity.

Table 20 provides the descriptive statics among variables. Responses were captured on a 4-point Likert-type scale (1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often, 4 = very often). Instructor behavior (IB) included quality instructional rating responses that were captured on a 7-point Likert scale. Responses ranged from high of seven (available, helpful, and sympathetic) to a low of one (unavailable, unhelpful, and unsympathetic).

According to the self-reported student engagement ratings, students considered themselves highly engaged. That is, in accordance with the literature, they considered themselves intrinsically motivated so as to be cognitively, behaviorally, and affectively engaged with the material, the college, and its agents (Chan and Wang, 2016). Students also reported that their depth of learning, which referred to self-initiated actions like study habits and use of tutorial services and other learning resources, to be relatively high. Interestingly, the students' were only moderately satisfied with both the institution and its instructors.

Table 20

Descriptives of the Dependent Variable (DV) and the Independent Variables (IV)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*
Student Engagement (DV)	1489	5.00	20.00	13.0368	3.50506
Depth of Learning (IV)	1453	6.00	24.00	17.3365	3.96372
Institutional Support (IV)	1441	5.00	20.00	13.0368	3.50506
Instructor Behavior (IV)	1489	0	31	19.17	3.983

Table 21 shows correlations among the study's variables. Of the three independent variables, the correlation between instructor behavior and student engagement is the strongest, 50%. There is a moderate correlation between depth of learning and student engagement, 40%. The correlation between institutional support and student engagement is relatively weak, 20%.

Table 21

Correlations of IVs and DV, Student Engagement

		SE	IB	IS	DP
Pearson Correlation	Student Engagement (SE)	—	.497	.200	.399*
	Instructor Behavior (IB)	.497	—	.433	.443
	Institutional Support (IS)	.200	.433	—	.405
	Depth of Learning (DL)	.399	.443	.405	—
Sig. (1-tailed)	SE	—	.000	.000	.000
	IB	.000	—	.000	.000
	IS	.000	.000	—	.000
	DP	.000	.000	.000	—

Note. * $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed).

The results of the regression indicated the three predictors explained some of the variance in student engagement. When considered together, instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning are statistically significant (Table 22). The statistical test provided significant evidence to reject the first null hypothesis ($H_0 1$), which stated that instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning, taken together, do not account for a significant amount of variance in student engagement. Consequently, the following alternative research hypothesis was accepted:

$H_1 1$: Instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning, taken together, account significantly predictive of variance in student engagement.

Combined, instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning are moderate predictors of student engagement, ($F(3,1407) = 193.103$, $p < .01$, r^2 of .29) with 29% overlap between the three predictors and the student engagement. In other words, 29% of the variability in student engagement could be explained by instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning. The error will be 2.45 points (Table 23). As

shown in Table 24, instructor behavior remained a relatively strong predictor (β = .32, p < .001) and depth of learning was a moderate predictor (β = .18, p < .001). Institutional support's contribution to student engagement was weak (β = .07, p < .001).

Table 22

ANOVA, IB, IS, and DP on Student Engagement

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	3480.436	1	1160.145	193.103	.000*
Residual	8453.136	1407	6.008		
Total	11933.572	1408			

Note. * p < 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 23

Regression Model - IB, IS, and DP on Student Engagement

R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate
.540	.292	.290	2.451

Table 24

Coefficients - IB, IS, and DP on Student Engagement

RQ#1	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
SE	9.348	.372		25.140	.000					
IB	.315	.020	.425	16.132	.000	.497	.395	.362	.727	1.376
IS	-.068	.021	-.082	-3.185	.001	.200	-.085	-.071	.756	1.323
DL	.179	.019	.244	9.400	.000	.399	.243	.243	.748	1.336

Notes. SE = Student Engagement, IB = Instructor Behavior, IS = Institutional Support, DL = Depth of Learning

To examine the unique contribution of each independent variable, and respond to research questions 2 – 4 and their respective hypotheses, hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed. The research questions required each of the three independent variables be held constant. Consequently, predictor variables were entered, in the regression equation, in sequential steps.

Research question #2 asked to what extent instructor behavior predicts student engagement when the effects of institutional support (IS) and depth of learning (DL) are held constant. To investigate, two steps were employed. In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression (HRM), two predictors, institutional support (IS) and depth of learning (DL), were entered. In the second step of the hierarchical multiple regression, instructor behavior (IB) was entered into the step 1 equation. The results are shown on Table 25 as Model 1 and 2, respectively.

Both models were statistically significant (Table 26). The statistical test provided significant evidence to reject the second null hypothesis ($H_0$2), which stated instructor behavior is not significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of institutional support and depth of learning are held constant. Consequently, the following alternative research hypothesis was accepted:

> $H_1$2: Instructor behavior is a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of institutional support and depth of learning are held constant.

In the first model, 16% of the variance in student engagement can be attributed to institutional support (IS) and depth of learning (DL), $F(2,1408) = 134.732$; $p < .001$ (Table 25). Model 2 shows that after entering instructor behavior (IB), the total variance

was 29%, $F(3, 1407) = 193.103$; $p < .001$ (Table 26). Instructor behavior explained an additional 13% of the variance (Table 25). As indicated on Table 27, instructor behavior remained a strong predictor ($\beta = .42$, $p < .001$).

Table 25

Research Question #2 HRM Models

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate	R square change	F change	df1	df2	Sig. F change
1	.401[a]	.161	.159	2.627	.161	134.732	2	1408	.000
2	.540[b]	.292	.290	2.451	.131	260.233	1	1407	.000

Notes. Predictors[a:] Institutional Support (IS) and Depth of Learning (DL); Predictors[b]: Institutional Support (IS), Depth of Learning (DL), and Instructor Behavior (IB)

Table 26

Research Question #2 – ANOVA: Significance of HRM Models

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1916.978	2	958.489	134.732	.000[a]
	Residual	10016.594	1408	7.114		
	Total	11933.572	1410			
2	Regression	3480.436	3	1160.145	193.103	.000[b]
	Residual	8453.136	1407	6.008		
	Total	11933.572	1410			

Notes. Model 1 predictors[a:] Institutional Support (IS) and Depth of Learning (DL); Model 2 predictors[b]: Institutional Support (IS), Depth of Learning (DL), and Instructor Behavior (IB)
$p < 0.01$ level

Table 27

Research Question #2 – Coefficients and Collinearity Statistics

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	SE	12.289	.353		34.847	.000					
	IS	.039	.022	.047	1.752	.080	.200	.047	.043	.836	1.196
	DL	.278	.020	.380	14.218	.000	.399	.354	.347	.836	1.196
2	SE	9.348	.372		25.140	.000					
	IS	-.068	.021	-.082	-3.185	.001	.200	-.085	-.071	.756	1.323
	DL	.179	.019	.244	9.400	.000	.399	.243	.211	.748	1.336
	IB	.315	.020	.425	16.132	.000	.497	.395	.362	.727	1.376

Note. SE = Student Engagement, IS = Institutional Support; DL = Depth of Learning; IB = Instructor Behavior

The third research question asked about institutional support's predictability of student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and depth of learning are held constant. To respond to the question, two steps were employed. In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, two predictors, instructor behavior (IB) and depth of learning (DL), were entered in the equation. In the second step of hierarchical multiple regression, institutional support (IS) was entered into the step 1 equation. The results are shown on Table 28 as Model 1 and 2, respectively.

Both models were statistically significant (Table 29). The statistical test provided significant evidence to reject the third null hypothesis ($H_0$3), which stated that institutional support is not a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and depth of learning are held constant. Consequently, the following alternative research hypothesis was accepted:

$H_1$3: Institutional support is a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and depth of learning are held constant.

In the first model, 29% of the variance in student engagement can be attributed to instructor (IB) and depth of learning (DL), $F(2,1408) = 282.745$; $p < .001$. Model 2 shows that after entering institutional support (IS), the total variance remained unchanged at 29%, $F(1, 1407) = 193.103$; $p < .001$ (Table 28). Institutional support did not account for any measurable difference in student engagement. Institutional support does not offer much explanation for the amount of variance, $\beta = .08$, $p < .001$, in student engagement (Table 30).

Table 28

Research Question #3 HRM Models

					Change statistics				
Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate	R square change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F change
1	.535[a]	.287	.286	2.459	.287	282.745	2	1408	.000*
2	.540[b]	.292	.290	2.451	.005	10.146	1	1407	.001*

Notes. Predictors[a:] Instructor Behavior (IB) and Depth of Learning (DL); Predictors[b]: Instructor Behavior (IB), Depth of Learning (DL), Institutional Support (IS)
*p<.001

Table 29

Research Question #3 – ANOVA: Significance of HRM Models

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3419.482	2	1709.741	282.745	.000[a]
	Residual	8514.090	1408	6.047		
	Total	11933.572	1410			
2	Regression	3480.436	3	1160.145	193.103	.000[b]
	Residual	8453.136	1407	6.008		
	Total	11933.572	1410			

Notes. Model 1 predictors[a:] Instructor Behavior (IB) and Depth of Learning (DL); Model 2 predictors[b]: Instructor Behavior (IB), Depth of Learning (DL), and Institutional Support (IS)
$p < 0.01$ level

Table 30

Research Question #3 – Coefficients and Collinearity Statistics

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	SE	9.104	.353		24.939	.000					
	IB	.296	.019	.399	15.877	.000	.497	.390	.357	.804	1.244
	DL	.163	.018	.222	8.846	.000	.399	.229	.199	.804	1.244
2	SE	9.348	.372		25.140	.000					
	IB	.315	.020	.425	16.132	.000	.497	.395	.362	.727	1.376
	DL	.179	.019	.244	9.400	.000	.399	.243	.211	.748	1.376
	IS	-.068	.021	-.082	-3.185	.001	.200	-.085	-.071	.756	1.323

Note. SE = Student Engagement, IS = Institutional Support; DL = Depth of Learning; IB = Instructor Behavior

The fourth research question asked to what extent depth of learning might predict student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and institutional support are held constant. To answer the research to the question, two steps were employed. In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, two predictors, instructor behavior (IB) and institutional support (IS), were entered into the regression equation. In the second step of hierarchical multiple regression, depth of learning (DL) was entered into the step 1 equation. The results are shown on Table 31 as Model 1 and 2, respectively.

Both models were statistically significant (Table 32). The statistical test provided significant evidence to reject the fourth null hypothesis ($H_0$4), which stated that depth of learning is not a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and institutional support are held constant. Consequently, the following alternative research hypothesis was accepted:

> $H_1$4: Depth of learning is a significant predictor of student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and institutional support are held constant.

In the first model, 25% of the variance in student engagement can be attributed to institutional support (IS) and instructor behavior (IB), $F(2,1408) = 231.131$; $p < .001$. Model 2 shows that after entering depth of learning (DL), the total variance explained by the model was 29%, $F(3,1407) = 193.103$; $p < .001$ (Table 31). The introduction of depth of learning explained additional 4% variance in student engagement, after controlling for institutional support and instructor behavior. Depth of learning offers a relatively moderate explanation of student engagement variance, $\beta = .244$, $p < .001$, in student engagement (Table 33).

Table 31

Research Question #4 HRM Models

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate	R square change	F change	df1	df2	Sig. F change
1	.497[a]	.247	.246	2.526	.247	231.131	2	1408	.000
2	.540[b]	.292	.290	2.451	.044	88.364	1	1407	.000

Notes. Predictors[a:] Instructor Behavior (IB) and Institutional Support (IS); Predictors[b]: Instructor Behavior (IB), Institutional Support (IS), Depth of Learning (DL)
$p < 0.01$ level

Table 32

Research Question #4 – ANOVA: Significance of HRM Models

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2949.553	2	1474.777	231.131	.000[b]
	Residual	8984.019	1408	6.381		
	Total	11933.572	1410			
2	Regression	3480.436	3	1160.145	193.103	.000[c]
	Residual	8453.136	1407	6.008		
	Total	11933.572	1410			

Notes. Predictors[a:] Instructor Behavior (IB) and Institutional Support (IS); Predictors[b]: Instructor Behavior (IB), Institutional Support (IS), Depth of Learning (DL)
$p < 0.01$ level

Table 33

Research Question #4 – Coefficients and Collinearity Statistics

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity ctatistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	SE	10.606	.353		29.660	.000					
	IB	.374	.019	.505	19.678	.000	.497	.464	.455	.812	1.231
	IS	-.015	.021	-.018	-.714	.475	.200	-.019	-.017	.812	1.231
2	SE	9.348	.372		25.140	.000					
	IB	.315	.020	.425	16.132	.000	.497	.395	.362	.727	1.376
	IS	-.068	.021	-.082	-3.185	.001	.200	-.085	-.071	.756	1.323
	DL	.179	.019	.244	9.400	.000	.399	.243	.211	.748	1.336

Note. SE = Student Engagement IB = Instructor behavior, IS = Institutional Support; DL = Depth of Learning

Summary

Correlation and regression analysis were used to examine the extent to which there may be a relationship between instructors' leadership behaviors and student engagement. To better understand the potential effect of instructors' leadership behaviors on student engagement, two additional organizational factors that were supported by the literature (Kahu & Nelson, 2018; Romans & Tobaben, 2016), institutional support and depth of learning, were also analyzed. The analysis resulted in a predictive model.

Institutional support, depth of learning, and instructor behavior were the three independent variables and the outcome variable was student engagement. Each independent variable was positively correlated to student engagement. As a result of regression analysis, it was learned that, in addition to explaining some of the variance in student engagement, each predictor was statistically significant.

The predictive capacity of instructor behavior was moderately strong; 25% of the variability in student engagement was related to instructor behavior (Table 10). The predictive capacity of institutional support was weak; only 4% of the variability in student engagement was related to institutional support (Table 14). The predictive capacity of depth of learning was moderate, 16% of the variability in student engagement is related to depth of learning (Table 18).

Statistical testing provided significant evidence provided evidence that when combined, instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning are moderate predictors of student engagement. They explain 29% of the variability in student engagement. To ascertain instructor behavior's individual contribution to the variability

in student engagement, hierarchical regression analysis was performed. Analysis revealed that 16% of the variance in student engagement can be attributed to institutional support and depth of learning (Table 25). When added to the statistical model, instructor behavior explained an additional 13% of the variance (Table 25). As indicated on Table 24, instructor behavior remained a strong predictor ($\beta = .42$, $p < .001$).

Chapter 5 includes a summary and interpretation of the key findings of the research study. The study's limitations are discussed. Recommendations for further study and implications for social change are offered.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This final chapter includes a summary of the key findings of the research study and an interpretation of the results in the context of the research questions. A discussion of the study's limitations, recommendations for further study, and implications for social change are also included in this chapter. The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which there may be a relationship between leadership behaviors and follower engagement.

Of primary interest was the effect that community college instructors' leadership behaviors may have on student engagement. The literature was unambiguous regarding linkages between leadership, engagement, and retention (Bonet & Walters, 2016; Buch, 2015; Chan & Wang, 2016; Lee, Idris, & Delfabbro, 2017): A leader's behaviors are an impetus to follower engagement and engagement is a catalyst for retention. Leader behaviors and follower engagement were examined within a group context. Specifically, community college classrooms provided the context for exploring predictive correlations and interactions between predictor and outcome variables (van der Merwe, 2015).

Despite considerable leadership literature about the relationship between leaders and engagement (Oc, 2018; Feng, Huang, & Zhang, 2016; Jin & McDonald, 2017), few empirical studies explore the potential relationship between instructor behavior and student engagement. The aim of this study was to help fill the gap in the leadership literature by focusing on instructor leadership behavior as an antecedent to student engagement. The specific aim of the study was to contribute to narrowing the gap in the leadership literature by providing insight, and, if possible, explanations as to why as

many as 75 - 85% of community college students become disengaged before achieving their goals and objectives (Kena et al., 2015). The findings of this study suggest that there is a statistically and practically significant relationship between instructor leadership behaviors and student engagement.

Interpretation of Findings

The study was theoretically anchored in leadership and organization theories that established instructors as leaders, students as followers (Hofmeyer, Sheingold, Klopper, & Warland, 2015; Juntrasook, 2014; Warren, 2016), and classrooms as social units (Merwe, 2015). In this study, there were three predictor variables, institutional support, depth of learning, and instructor behavior. The dependent variable was student engagement. Institutional support (IS) was a proxy for organizational culture. Depth of learning (DL) was a proxy for followers' tasks and instructor behavior (IB) was a proxy for leader behaviors.

To answer the research questions, correlation and regression analyses were conducted. There was a positive correlation between each predictor variable and the outcome variable (Table 21). Institutional support, depth of learning, and instructor behavior were positively associated with engagement (Michel & Tews, 2016; Nguyen, Cannata, & Miller, 2018). However, analyses showed that institutional support and depth of learning (r = .2 and r = .4, respectively) are not strongly correlated to engagement (Table 21). Consistent with extant literature (Horn, Mathis, Robinson, & Randle, 2015; Ruzek et al., 2016; Wang, 2016), leadership behaviors had the strongest correlation to student engagement, r = .50.

To evaluate each of four research questions' null hypotheses, multiple hierarchical regression was employed. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for the statistical analyses and the confidence level was set at 95%. The null hypotheses were rejected for statistical tests resulting in a p-value < .05.

The first question in this research was analyzed to determine the extent to which all three predictors, instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning, taken together account for variance in student engagement ratings. The second research question was analyzed to determine the extent to which instructor behavior might predict student engagement when the effects of institutional support and depth of learning are held constant. The third research question was analyzed to determine the extent to which institutional support might predict student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and depth of learning are held constant. The fourth research question was analyzed to determine the extent to which depth of learning might predict student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and institutional support are held constant. All three predictor variables were found to have a positive predictive relationship with student engagement. As a result of statistical analysis, each research questions' null hypothesis, $H_0$1 (Table 22), $H_0$2 (Table 26), $H_0$3 (Table 29), and $H_0$4 (Table 32), was rejected.

Research Question 1

To respond to the first research question, hierarchical multiple regression was employed to determine the extent to which all three predictors, instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning, taken together account for variance in student

engagement ratings. Using multiple regression analysis it was revealed that instructor behavior, institutional support, and depth of learning accounted for 29% of the variance in student engagement (Table 23). This finding is consistent with previous studies. Petrou, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2018) learned that when leaders use organizational resources to better align employees' talents and aspirations with organizational goals employees' individual job performance improves.

Research Question 2

Analysis of the second research question resulted in the most interesting finding. After accounting for the contribution that institutional support and depth of learning made to student engagement, subsequent analysis revealed the dominant influence of instructor behavior (Table 24). Instructor behavior added 13% of the variance in student engagement. The statistically significant relationship between instructors' leadership behaviors and student engagement was the most interesting finding because organizations of higher learning do not typically regard instructors as leaders (Zepke, 2014). This was a notable finding, and one that was consistent with existing research that seeks to identify organizational entities as predictors of engagement (Lee, Idris, & Delfabbro, 2017). This finding affirmed that, where student engagement is concerned, follower-centric leadership behaviors are more influential than organizational culture and employee tasks (Table 24). This effect is further substantiated in Table 30 where organizational support and depth of learning are shown to be relatively insignificant contributors to student engagement, β = .08 and β = .24, respectively. When the influence of these two organizational factors are compared to instructor behavior, it is clear that instructor

behavior had a far bigger impact in predicting follower (i.e., student) engagement, β = .43.

Comparison of the findings with those of other studies confirms the importance of the leader behavior and leader-follower relationships. Wood and Dibben's (2015) study highlighted leadership as a dynamic, relational activity or experience between leader and follower. This study's finding is also in agreement with those obtained by Silard (2018); follower-centric behaviors such as communicating openly, displaying appropriate emotions, and caring about followers, align follower's aspirations with organizational objectives. Consistent with extant literature (Rodriguez-Keyes, Schneider, and Keenan, 2013), this study's findings validate the understanding that follower-centric leadership behaviors are antecedents to high quality leader-member exchanges that are associated with employee engagement.

The study's finding that leadership behaviors influence workplace engagement, a desired organizational citizen behavior, supports previous research. Wang, Kim, and Milne (2017) found that engaged employees care about their organization and their leader, they demonstrate a discernible commitment to their work, and they are generally satisfied with their job or role. They demonstrate initiative, work effort, and the willingness to cooperate and collaborate with co-workers or other organizational agents. Intra-group conflict is minimized. Furthermore, engaged employees exhibit an affective commitment to the organization and its objectives and a positive mental and emotional disposition about one's work and work unit.

When leaders behave in a manner that is encouraging, supportive, and affirming, engagement is high. By exemplifying behaviors they want followers to emulate, leaders are able to make employees feel valued and valuable (du Plessis & Boshoff, 2018). Consequently, followers try harder and are less inclined to leave the organization; turnover is lessened.

Leadership behaviors are the arbiters of leadership relationships. The study's finding that instructors' leadership behaviors are as a statistical significant predictor of student engagement (Table 25) provide further support of the development of high quality instructor-student relationships. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory operationalizes leadership behaviors as differentiated relationships that leaders establish with followers (Wood & Dibben, 2015). The quality of an employee's work engagement is influenced by the quality of the leader-member exchange relationship. LMX relationships are characterized as economic or social. Differentiated relationships, either low or high quality, foster distinctly different group dynamics, organizational climate, and degrees of follower engagement.

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theorists maintain that it is a leader's assessment of followers' job performance and organizational contribution determine the quality of the leader-member relationships. Economic LMX (ELMX) relationships are low quality relationships (Chen, He, & Weng, 2018). These relationships tend to be transaction-based, short term, impersonal, and devoid of supervisory support. ELMX relationships do not promote employee engagement. Trust, loyalty, and a sense of belonging are almost nonexistent. Transactional leadership behaviors tend to foster an

organizational climate that is permeated by distrust, alienation, and lack of cooperation among and between employees. In such an environment, group dynamics and organizational productivity suffer. Employees are less likely to feel connected to the organization, the leader, or their tasks. The organizational climate may give rise to perceptions of inequity and social or procedural injustice (Sun, Chow, Chiu, & Pan, 2013). If, as this study and existing literature (Kim, Poulston, & Sankaran, 2017) suggest, followers are to be engaged and organizationally committed and high performance teams are to be created, leaders must exhibit follower-centric behaviors.

Follower engagement is a consequence of leader behaviors that are follower-centric. Behaviors such as trust, respect, and transparent communication, engender loyalty, intra-group cooperation, and foster social leader-member exchange (SLMX) relationships (Buch, 2015). The higher the quality of SLMX relationships, the greater the likelihood the leader and follower will enter into an implicit agreement that is mutually rewarding and that results in followers' commitment and loyalty to the organization and its goals.

This study underscored the importance of LMX theory and reinforced the need for improved instructor-student relationships. Although instructor behavior was predictive of student engagement, the findings suggest that its predictive power could be improved. Of a possible high of 31 points, the average rating for instructor behavior, as reported by followers (i.e., students), was only 19%.

Educational institutions tend to not regard instructors as leaders, despite their front-line roles and responsibilities. Their actions are predictive drivers of engagement

and retention (Laschinger, Wong, & Grau, 2013; Zhang, Zhang, & Xie, 2015). This study offers evidence of instructor leadership behavior. Instructors who exhibit follower-centric behaviors, that is, they are supportive, encouraging, and caring, prompt desired organizational behaviors in students. Follower-centric behaviors are particularly important in community college classrooms where student engagement is akin to the engagement of entry-level workers (Clark & Waldron, 2016).

This study's results highlight the need for community colleges to fund leadership development for instructors, particularly training in follower-centric leader behaviors. Community college students want to accomplish their goals. Like newcomers to the workplace (Zheng et al., 2016), community college students depend on instructors to be leaders (Wood & Newman, 2017). Commensurate with their front-line leadership responsibilities, instructors must stir students' intrinsic motivation, help them navigate through organizational bureaucracies, and provide whatever counsel may be necessary to help them achieve their goals. As reinforced by this study's findings, instructors are a college's most influential institutional agent. They affect student engagement.

Leadership is a dynamic, multi-faceted social phenomenon that is necessary to effect change in followers and in organizations. This study contributed to the literature by offering statistically significant information about leader behaviors and follower engagement. Because it focused on an under-researched entity, community colleges, the findings contributed a dimension of understanding that may better inform other researchers and help shape both the professional development for instructors and the allocation of resources.

Research Questions 3 and 4

The third research question was analyzed to determine the extent to which institutional support might predict student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and depth of learning are held constant. When institutional support's predictive effect on student engagement was analyzed, while holding instructor behavior and depth of learning constant, its effect was statistically significant (Table 28). However, there was no meaningful difference in the amount of variability in student engagement; it remained effectively unchanged at 29% (Table 28).

This was not surprising. As commuter students who typically have a myriad of life obligations that include the need to work (Figure 3), many community college students do not have the time to interact with or take advantage of institutional support services on a recurring. Many spend as much as 6 hours a day commuting. Instructors are the only institutional agents that are common to all students, and with whom they routinely interact.

Institutional support is further complicated by the breadth and depth of support services that community colleges students, many of whom are first generations students or from historically socio-economic disadvantaged groups require to be successful. Such support runs the gamut of needs, from academic advising to food and shelter insecurities (Klempin & Karp, 2018). Unlike traditional college students for whom campus living provides both a common experience and basic psychological needs, the lives of community college students are as diverse as they are (Table 3) and typically characterized by highly uncertain work-life conditions.

The fourth research question was analyzed to determine the extent to which depth of learning might predict student engagement when the effects of instructor behavior and institutional support are held constant.

Limitations of the Study

The most notable limitation of this study was the survey instrument, the Community College Student Report (CCSR). It was not specifically developed for the study. Furthermore, the data that will be used for the study were not collected by the researcher.

The findings of the study may not be generalizable to other industries and different populations. The sizable sample size invites some generalizing to other community colleges located in diverse, urban areas. However, data were only collected from one community college, in one city in the United States. Data collection was also limited to a single method. Data, which were self-reported, could have been influenced by bias or lapses in memory.

Another limitation of the study resulted from its quantitative nature, a non-experimental, cross-sectional, correlational design. Although the nature of the design provided empirical data, the design also limited to ability to draw more insightful explanations. The ability to complement quantitative research with explanatory qualitative data may have added understanding and extended knowledge about leadership behaviors and student engagement. It may have also extended the value of the findings. Also, longitudinal studies that track behavioral change over time may provide more value that can help institutional leaders think and plan more strategically.

The absence of instructors' voice and perspective are another limitation of the study. Only students' voices and perspectives are reflected in the data. Consequently, the findings are rather one-dimensional. It is also important to note that the nature of this study was not causal.

Recommendations

While this study's findings may contribute to knowledge about instructors' leadership behaviors and their effect on student engagement, further research regarding community college instructors is warranted. The statistical significance of instructor behavior as predictor of student engagement (Table 27, $\beta = .32$, $p<.001$), leads to a recommendation that professional development be provided to instructors to help them increase their capacity to develop and sustain high quality instructor and student relationships. Instructors' leadership efficacy depends on their ability to coach, mentor, care, and teach (Karp & Bork, 2012; Hudson, 2013; Rui, Ying, Jianhong, & Rongmian, 2017). Building on previous research (Lee, 2014), the findings show that a leader-follower relationship exists between instructor and student, and that the quality of that relationship affects follower (i.e., student) engagement. Leader-member exchange theory, as discussed in this study's literature review, highlights the importance of follower-centric behaviors that include nurturing, encouraging, knowing, and caring.

Of prime concern is the increasing socio-economic diversity of college students. Instructors need leadership and cultural competencies that will allow them to be effective when directing the energies of a diverse body of students (Klempin & Karp, 2018). As previous research demonstrated (DeMatthews, 2016; Zembylas & Iasonos, 2016),

culturally competent instructors in the college classroom increase their ability to successfully interact with and engage students from minority and other historically disadvantaged groups.

More information is needed about how instructors view their role in the classroom. A future study, specifically designed to assess instructors' leadership competencies and efficacy, is recommended. Such a study could build on Balwant, Birdi, Ute, and Topakas' (201) efforts to explore transformational instructor-leadership and student engagement, while referring to some of the more recent work that has been done to improve methods to measure student engagement (Gunuc & Kuzu, 2015; Kahu, 2013). A mixed study would broaden understanding of the empirical data, and allow the researcher to capture the tangential circumstances that would otherwise escape data collection. For example, qualitative data could be collected on instructor perceptions of their leadership role and how their perceptions align with the institution's mission.

Implications

Although this study may not be generalizable to other industries, its rather large sample size (i.e., 1,489) and the commonality of political, economic and social pressures experienced by community colleges (O'Neill & Nalbandian, 2018; Waiwaiole, Bohlig, & Massey, 2016), it is reasonable to offer conjecture about the applicability of the findings to other community colleges. Organizationally, community colleges confront complex, nuanced leadership challenges (American Association of Community Colleges, 2017). Scarce resources, competing political, economic, and social agendas, and bifurcated leadership tax their ability to respond to challenges effectively and timely. As outlined in

the literature review (Chapter 2), leadership can affect positive change. The findings in this study may offer some insights that would community college improve the leadership competencies of instructional faculty; thereby, improving the synergistic effectiveness of organizational leadership.

Drawing upon leadership theory and extant literature, this study reveals the value of viewing instructors as front-line leaders, who like their counterpart in for-profit organizations, influence follower behavior. Traditionally, educational institutions have narrowly defined leadership and leaders as the institution's administrative agents (Timiyo, 2017). This study showed the positive, strong relationship between instructor behaviors and student engagement (Table 25). Simply stated, instructors affect students' motivation. This was not surprising given the findings of Chan and Wang (2016) who also found that faculty interaction with student was a key to students' engagement. As predicted by Kim and Lundberg (2016), instructors' methods of interaction in and outside of the classroom, mode and style communication, classroom praxis in social setting, and the quality of the instructor-student relationship are influential components of an instructor's leadership behaviors. This study is an invitation to further explore the leadership capacity of these under-utilized, oft overlooked leaders. A more informed view of instructor leadership behaviors, coupled with and intentional focus to improve their competencies, may result in a significant return on investment.

Affecting social change, particularly when barriers to change have been bureaucratically and institutionally hardened by decades of norming practices and policies, requires a cacophony of voices, a multitude of strategies, and mounds of

patience. Regarding instructors as front-line leaders may require a paradigm shift (Johnson et al., 2014); a new way of thinking about and operationalizing leadership (Mango, 2018). Leadership thought at community colleges must expand to accommodate changing demographics, emerging needs, and contemporary workplace conditions. This study's has the possibility of prompting administrative leaders and instructors to think differently about instructors as leaders.

Each year millions of college students walk away from one of the nation's more than 1,400 community college campuses feeling disaffected and disengaged. Leading the pack are students from historically disadvantaged groups, first generation college students, low-income students, and veterans; the majority of these students attend a community college (Bonet & Walters, 2016). The finding from this research that demonstrates the predictiveness of instructor leadership behaviors on student engagement (Table 25) supports previous studies (Dimitrov, 2015; Horan, Chory, Carton, Miller, & Raposo, 2013; Santamaria, 2014; Tang & Naumann, 2015) that showcase the need for and value of culturally competent instructors. Research suggests that culturally competent instructors improve retention because they engage students effectively. Specially, they help students navigate bureaucratic obstacles, align their goals with the organization's objectives, and develop the mettle to stay committed to their goals (Chin, Desormeaux, & Sawyer, 2016); thus, improving retention.

Conclusion

The present study was designed to determine the effect of leader behavior on follower engagement. For organizations to achieve their goals and maintain their

sustainability, follower engagement is a necessary organizational behavior, and engagement is a catalyst for retention (Bonet & Walters, 2016). Given that a leader's behavior and leader-member relationships are antecedents to follower engagement (Buch, 2015), the specific aim of the study was to contribute to the leadership literature by providing insight, and, if possible, explanations to better understand how, in community colleges, instructor leadership behaviors might influence student engagement. Given that half of all college students are enrolled in a community college (Shapiro, Dundar, Yuan, Harrell, & Wakhungu, 2014) and as many as 75 - 85% of them become disengaged before achieving their goals and objectives (Kena et al., 2015), this study was particularly relevant.

Helping instructors develop effective follower-centric behaviors as discussed in this study may help improve instructors' leadership competency and ability to influence more students to stay in college and remain committed to their goals. It may encourage a conversation about the development of a new paradigm, one that is inclusive, malleable, and that has cultural competency, equity, and social justice at its core (Adserias, Charleston, & Jackson, 2017; Ching, 2018; Patterson, 2013). The costs of the students' exodus are staggering (Levin & García, 2018). In addition to the loss of millions of taxpayer dollars, these students are potentially forfeiting a lifetime of significant earnings. Research, however, shows that a 2-year credential is a boon to taxpayers (Fain, 2013). Charged with leading large, socio-economically diverse groups of followers and confronted with unprecedented pressures to affect positive, measurable change, instructors need to be developed to be effective front-line leaders. As providers of

workplace knowledge, skills, and credentials (Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, 2016) and places where organizational socialization occurs (Stone, Canedo, & Tzafrir, 2013), institutions of higher learning are uniquely important to societies.

Organizational change is seldom without challenges. Pervasive organizational woes punctuated by attrition, dismal organizational performance metrics, and similar pathologies stymie efforts to effect positive change (Laloux, 2014, Robinson, Nhat-Hoang, & VanderPal, 2017). If innovation and change are to occur, leaders must be effective and the top-down leadership model which is most common at community colleges must be disrupted (Kimberly & Bouchikhi, 2016; Wimpenny & Savin-Baden, 2013).

As organizational intrapreneurs within their respective organizations, instructors have the potential to break the isomorphic bureaucracy. As the finding of this study suggests, instructors can be effective leaders (Table 25); they can motivate, mentor, coach, and inspire followers to commit their time, talents and energy to work tasks and to organizational goals. Instructors routinely interact with students in an established social setting, and they have the power, authority, and responsibility to shape the behaviors of followers (Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2018). While the findings cannot be accepted as facts or with certainty, they can be appraised and statistically applied to a wider representative population. In addition to adding to the analysis of leadership at community colleges and how it affects community college students, data from the study and resulting inferences may provide insights that relate to analytical strategies in existence for other types of

college students. Like leaders in all organizations, instructors can be catalysts for engagement, organizational performance, and retention.

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Appendix A

The Community College Student Report (CCSR)

The Community College Student Report

Instructions: It is essential that you use a No. 2 pencil to complete this survey. Mark your answers as shown in the following example: ● Correct Mark ⊘ ⊗ ◒ ⊙ Incorrect Marks

1. Did you begin college at this college or elsewhere? ○ Started here ○ Started elsewhere

2. Thinking about this current academic term, how would you characterize your enrollment at this college? ○ Full-time ○ Less than full-time

3. Have you taken this survey in another class this term? ○ Yes ○ No

4. In your experiences at this college during the current school year, about how often have you done each of the following?	Very often	Often	Some-times	Never
a. Asked questions in class or contributed to class discussions	○	○	○	○
b. Made a class presentation	○	○	○	○
c. Prepared two or more drafts of a paper or assignment before turning it in	○	○	○	○
d. Worked on a paper or project that required integrating ideas or information from various sources	○	○	○	○
e. Come to class without completing readings or assignments	○	○	○	○
f. Worked with other students on projects during class	○	○	○	○
g. Worked with classmates outside of class to prepare class assignments	○	○	○	○
h. Tutored or taught other students (paid or voluntary)	○	○	○	○
i. Participated in a community-based project as a part of a regular course	○	○	○	○
j. Used the Internet or instant messaging to work on an assignment	○	○	○	○
k. Used e-mail to communicate with an instructor	○	○	○	○
l. Discussed grades or assignments with an instructor	○	○	○	○
m. Talked about career plans with an instructor or advisor	○	○	○	○
n. Discussed ideas from your readings or classes with instructors outside of class	○	○	○	○
o. Received prompt feedback (written or oral) from instructors on your performance	○	○	○	○
p. Worked harder than you thought you could to meet an instructor's standards or expectations	○	○	○	○
q. Worked with instructors on activities other than coursework	○	○	○	○
r. Discussed ideas from your readings or classes with others outside of class (students, family members, co-workers, etc.)	○	○	○	○
s. Had serious conversations with students of a different race or ethnicity other than your own	○	○	○	○
t. Had serious conversations with students who differ from you in terms of their religious beliefs, political opinions, or personal values	○	○	○	○
u. Skipped class	○	○	○	○

5. During the current school year, how much has your coursework at this college emphasized the following mental activities?	Very much	Quite a bit	Some	Very little
a. Memorizing facts, ideas, or methods from your courses and readings so you can repeat them in pretty much the same form	○	○	○	○
b. Analyzing the basic elements of an idea, experience, or theory	○	○	○	○
c. Synthesizing and organizing ideas, information, or experiences in new ways	○	○	○	○
d. Making judgments about the value or soundness of information, arguments, or methods	○	○	○	○
e. Applying theories or concepts to practical problems or in new situations	○	○	○	○
f. Using information you have read or heard to perform a new skill	○	○	○	○

PLEASE DO NOT MARK IN THIS AREA

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6. During the current school year, about how much reading and writing have you done at this college?

	None	1 to 4	5 to 10	11 to 20	More than 20
a. Number of assigned textbooks, manuals, books, or book-length packs of course readings	○	○	○	○	○
b. Number of books read on your own (not assigned) for personal enjoyment or academic enrichment	○	○	○	○	○
c. Number of written papers or reports of any length	○	○	○	○	○

7. Mark the response that best represents the extent to which your examinations during the current school year have challenged you to do your best work at this college.

Extremely challenging ⑦ ⑥ ⑤ ④ ③ ② ① Extremely easy

8. Which of the following have you done, are you doing, or do you plan to do while attending this college?

	I have done	I plan to do	I have not done nor plan to do
a. Internship, field experience, co-op experience, or clinical assignment	○	○	○
b. English as a second language course	○	○	○
c. Developmental/remedial reading course	○	○	○
d. Developmental/remedial writing course	○	○	○
e. Developmental/remedial math course	○	○	○
f. Study skills course	○	○	○
g. Honors course	○	○	○
h. College orientation program or course	○	○	○
i. Organized learning communities (linked courses/study groups led by faculty or counselors)	○	○	○

9. How much does this college emphasize each of the following?

	Very much	Quite a bit	Some	Very little
a. Encouraging you to spend significant amounts of time studying	○	○	○	○
b. Providing the support you need to help you succeed at this college	○	○	○	○
c. Encouraging contact among students from different economic, social, and racial or ethnic backgrounds	○	○	○	○
d. Helping you cope with your non-academic responsibilities (work, family, etc.)	○	○	○	○
e. Providing the support you need to thrive socially	○	○	○	○
f. Providing the financial support you need to afford your education	○	○	○	○
g. Using computers in academic work	○	○	○	○

10. About how many hours do you spend in a typical 7-day week doing each of the following?

	None	1 – 5	6 - 10	11 - 20	21 - 30	More than 30
a. Preparing for class (studying, reading, writing, rehearsing, doing homework, or other activities related to your program)	○	○	○	○	○	○
b. Working for pay	○	○	○	○	○	○
c. Participating in college-sponsored activities (organizations, campus publications, student government, intercollegiate or intramural sports, etc.)	○	○	○	○	○	○
d. Providing care for dependents living with you (parents, children, spouse, etc.)	○	○	○	○	○	○
e. Commuting to and from classes	○	○	○	○	○	○

11. Mark the number that best represents the quality of your relationships with people at this college.

Your relationship with:

a. Other Students

Friendly, supportive, sense of belonging ⑦ ⑥ ⑤ ④ ③ ② ① Unfriendly, unsupportive, sense of alienation

b. Instructors

Available, helpful, sympathetic ⑦ ⑥ ⑤ ④ ③ ② ① Unavailable, unhelpful, unsympathetic

c. Administrative Personnel & Offices

Helpful, considerate, flexible ⑦ ⑥ ⑤ ④ ③ ② ① Unhelpful, inconsiderate, rigid

12. How much has YOUR EXPERIENCE AT THIS COLLEGE contributed to your knowledge, skills, and personal development in the following areas?

	Very much	Quite a bit	Some	Very little
a. Acquiring a broad general education	○	○	○	○
b. Acquiring job or work-related knowledge and skills	○	○	○	○
c. Writing clearly and effectively	○	○	○	○
d. Speaking clearly and effectively	○	○	○	○
e. Thinking critically and analytically	○	○	○	○
f. Solving numerical problems	○	○	○	○
g. Using computing and information technology	○	○	○	○
h. Working effectively with others	○	○	○	○
i. Learning effectively on your own	○	○	○	○
j. Understanding yourself	○	○	○	○
k. Understanding people of other racial and ethnic backgrounds	○	○	○	○
l. Developing a personal code of values and ethics	○	○	○	○
m. Contributing to the welfare of your community	○	○	○	○
n. Developing clearer career goals	○	○	○	○
o. Gaining information about career opportunities	○	○	○	○

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13. This section has three parts. Please answer all three sections, indicating (1) HOW OFTEN you use the following services, (2) HOW SATISFIED you are with the services, and (3) HOW IMPORTANT the services are to you AT THIS COLLEGE.

	(1) Frequency of Use				(2) Satisfaction				(3) Importance		
	Often	Some-times	Rarely/ Never	Don't know/ N.A.	Very	Some-what	Not at all	N.A.	Very	Some-what	Not at all
a. Academic advising/planning	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
b. Career counseling	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
c. Job placement assistance	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
d. Peer or other tutoring	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
e. Skill labs (writing, math, etc.)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
f. Child care	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
g. Financial aid advising	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
h. Computer lab	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
i. Student organizations	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
j. Transfer credit assistance	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
k. Services to students with disabilities	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

14. How likely is it that the following issues would cause you to withdraw from class or from this college? *(Please respond to each item)*

	Very likely	Likely	Some-what likely	Not likely
a. Working full-time	○	○	○	○
b. Caring for dependents	○	○	○	○
c. Academically unprepared	○	○	○	○
d. Lack of finances	○	○	○	○
e. Transfer to a 4-year college or university	○	○	○	○

15. How supportive are your friends of your attending this college?

○ Extremely ○ Somewhat ○ Quite a bit ○ Not very

16. How supportive is your immediate family of your attending this college?

○ Extremely ○ Somewhat ○ Quite a bit ○ Not very

17. Indicate which of the following are your reasons/goals for attending this college. *(Please respond to each item)*

	Primary goal	Secondary goal	Not a goal
a. Complete a certificate program	○	○	○
b. Obtain an associate degree	○	○	○
c. Transfer to a 4-year college or university	○	○	○
d. Obtain or update job-related skills	○	○	○
e. Self-improvement/personal enjoyment	○	○	○
f. Change careers	○	○	○

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18. Indicate which of the following are sources you use to pay your tuition at this college? *(Please respond to each item)*

	Major source	Minor source	Not a source
a. My own income/savings	○	○	○
b. Parent or spouse/significant other's income/savings	○	○	○
c. Employer contributions	○	○	○
d. Grants and scholarships	○	○	○
e. Student loans (bank, etc.)	○	○	○
f. Public assistance	○	○	○

19. Since high school, which of the following types of schools have you attended other than the one you are now attending? *(Please mark all that apply)*

- ○ Proprietary (private) school or training program
- ○ Public vocational-technical school
- ○ Another community or technical college
- ○ 4-year college or university
- ○ None

20. When do you plan to take classes at this college again?

- ○ I will accomplish my goal(s) during this term and will not be returning
- ○ I have no current plan to return
- ○ Within the next 12 months
- ○ Uncertain

21. At this college, in what range is your overall college grade average?

- ○ A
- ○ A- to B+
- ○ B
- ○ B- to C+
- ○ C
- ○ C- or lower
- ○ Do not have a GPA at this school
- ○ Pass/fail classes only

22. When do you most frequently take classes at this college? *(Mark **one only**)*

- ○ Day classes (morning or afternoon)
- ○ Evening classes
- ○ Weekend classes

23. How many TOTAL credit hours have you earned at this college, not counting the courses you are currently taking this term?

- ○ None
- ○ 1-14 credits
- ○ 15-29 credits
- ○ 30-44 credits
- ○ 45-60 credits
- ○ Over 60 credits

24. **At what other types of institutions are you taking classes this term?** *(Please mark all that apply)*

- ○ None
- ○ High school
- ○ Vocational/technical school
- ○ Another community or technical college
- ○ 4-year college/university
- ○ Other

25. **How many classes are you *presently* taking at OTHER institutions?**

- ○ None
- ○ 1 class
- ○ 2 classes
- ○ 3 classes
- ○ 4 classes or more

26. **Would you recommend this college to a friend or family member?**

○ Yes ○ No

27. **How would you evaluate your entire educational experience at this college?**

- ○ Excellent
- ○ Good
- ○ Fair
- ○ Poor

28. **Do you have children who live with you?**

○ Yes ○ No

29. **Mark your age group.**

- ○ Under 18
- ○ 18 to 19
- ○ 20 to 21
- ○ 22 to 24
- ○ 25 to 29
- ○ 30 to 39
- ○ 40 to 49
- ○ 50 to 64
- ○ 65+

30. **Your sex:**

○ Male ○ Female

31. **Are you married?**

○ Yes ○ No

32. **Is English your native (first) language?**

○ Yes ○ No

33. Are you an international student or foreign national?

○ Yes ○ No

34. What is your racial identification? *(Mark **only one**)*

- ○ American Indian or other Native American
- ○ Asian, Asian American or Pacific Islander
- ○ Native Hawaiian
- ○ Black or African American, Non-Hispanic
- ○ White, Non-Hispanic
- ○ Hispanic, Latino, Spanish
- ○ Other

35. What is the highest academic credential you have earned?

- ○ None
- ○ High school diploma or GED
- ○ Vocational/technical certificate
- ○ Associate degree
- ○ Bachelor's degree
- ○ Master's/doctoral/professional degree

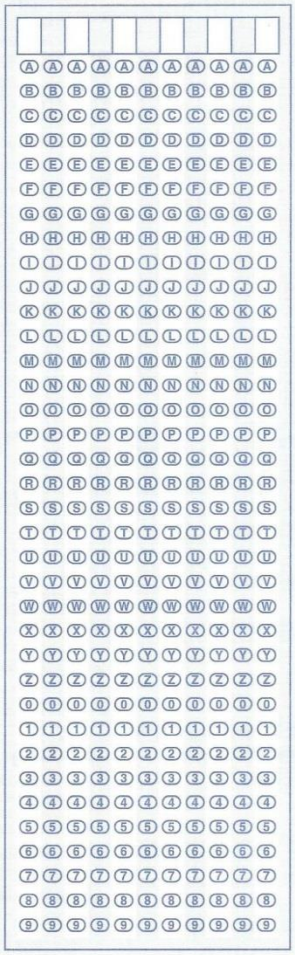
36. What is the highest level of education obtained by your:

	Father	Mother
a. Not a high school graduate	○	○
b. High school diploma or GED	○	○
c. Some college, did not complete degree	○	○
d. Associate degree	○	○
e. Bachelor's degree	○	○
f. Master's degree/1st professional	○	○
g. Doctorate degree	○	○
h. Unknown	○	○

37. Using the list provided, please fill in the bubbles that correspond to the code indicating your program or major. Using the first column, indicate the first number in the program code, using the second column, indicate the second number in the program code.

38. Please provide your student identification number by filling in the corresponding bubbles. For example, in the first column, indicate the first number or letter in your student ID number, and so forth. (OPTIONAL)

(Please begin here)



Additional Items (Please respond to these items if requested)

1.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
2.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
3.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
4.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
5.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
6.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
7.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
8.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
9.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
10.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
11.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
12.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
13.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
14.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
15.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
16.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
17.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
18.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
19.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ
20.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ

Your responses will remain confidential and individual responses will not be reported.

Thank you for sharing your views.

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