

Perception of Leadership Styles, Organizational Commitment and Burnout in Faculty of  
Colombian Universities

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NOHORA BOHÓRQUEZ

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APPROVAL PAGE

Perception of Leadership Styles, Organizational Commitment and Burnout in Faculty of  
Colombian Universities

By

NOHORA BOHÓRQUEZ

Approved by:



Chair: Leslie Curda, Ph.D.

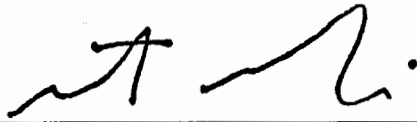
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Date

Member: Martin Craig, Ph.D.

Member: Nari Jeter, Ph.D.

Certified by:



School Dean: Peter Bemski, Ph.D.

9/8/16

Date

## Abstract

Burnout syndrome has been identified as a chronic response to work stress, which can be used to predict organizational and career withdrawal. University officials face negative consequences from turnover intentions by their faculty members, including high economic losses, loss of efficacy, and decrease of efficiency in the achievement of objectives and outcomes. Additionally, faculty members experiencing burnout syndrome showed low quality life, physical, and sociological effects. Burnout syndrome has been detected among Colombian faculty members. However, a lack of studies exists regarding the prevention of burnout syndrome. Variables including organizational commitment and leadership style have been related to burnout syndrome. While research is published regarding faculty organizational commitment and dean leadership styles within American and European universities and the effects on burnout syndrome, the body of knowledge existing for Colombian universities is limited. A need for research exists regarding the variables that prevent burnout syndrome to avoid possible risk and harm to the health of Colombian faculty. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to explore the direct and indirect effects that the variables of faculty perceptions of deans' leadership and organizational commitment to faculty have on burnout among Colombian university faculty members. For the proposed study, research was conducted to determine whether any relationship exists between the independent variables of leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire), the moderating variables for organizational commitment dimensions (affective, continuance, and normative), and the dependent variables of burnout syndrome indicators (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization). In addition, basic demographic variables,

including gender, age, and number of years teaching was collected. Participants in the study were adjunct faculty working in three universities of the city of Bogotá Colombia. This study used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X) to measure the leadership style of deans as perceived by the adjunct faculty, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) to measure the organizational commitment of adjunct faculty and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) to measure burnout syndrome of adjunct faculty. The data were analyzed using correlational analysis and bootstrapping techniques. Hypothesis 1 was tested using linear regression. Correlations between leadership styles, organizational commitment, and burnout dimensions were found. Hypotheses 2 through 4 were tested using bootstrapping techniques. First, the direct effect between leadership styles, organizational commitment dimensions, and burnout syndrome dimensions were examined. Secondly, the direct effects of organizational commitment on burnout syndrome were studied. Finally, the indirect effects of leadership styles on burnout syndrome were analyzed. The study results showed that transactional leadership, transformational leadership and laissez-faire had direct effect on the dimensions of organizational commitment and burnout dimensions. Also, some indirect effects of leadership styles on burnout dimensions were found. The present study results showed that transactional leadership was the most favorable leadership style in the higher education institutions setting because it fosters organizational commitment and reduces faculty's burnout. Future research could replicate the present study after university administrators begin hiring transactional leaders and instituting training policies that enhance transactional leadership style could be useful in determining if transactional leaders have the anticipated effect of increase organizational commitment

and decrease burnout occur. Future research could replicate the current study but deviate by examining program chair leadership styles versus dean leadership styles to determine the effect on organizational commitment and burnout syndrome of faculty members.

Future researchers could conduct qualitative research at other universities to determine if faculty members who are lead by deans using the laissez-faire leadership style can meet the desired outcomes, including student learning and achievement, involvement with the university, academic achievement, and enrollment.

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## Chapter 1: Introduction

Burnout syndrome is identified as the inability to adapt to work-related stress, causing physical and psychological effects that affect the professional life (Aldrete Rodriguez, Preciado Serrano, Franco Chavez, Pérez, & Aranda Beltran, 2008). Burnout syndrome decreases work efficacy and increases emotional detachment toward people to the point of ignoring their needs (Gonzales Portillo, Rivas Martin, Portela Daza, & Alfonso Martin, 2011). Professionals working in the health and educational sectors are at risk of developing burnout syndrome (Madathil, Heck, & Schuldberg, 2014; Mercado-Salgado & Gil-Monte, 2010) due to the excessive workload and responsibilities (Darrigrande Osorio & Durán Figueroa, 2012) that are often accompanied by high work efficacy in these professions. Work efficacy is defined as a high level of commitment and involvement with the job (Aldrete Rodriguez et al., 2008). Many university officials have adopted the capitalistic organizational model where, in addition to responding to the needs of their students, faculty also has to be concerned with profitability of their programs (Botero Alvarez, 2012). Currently, faculty members have this additional burden often along with meeting demands from parents and students (Darrigrande Osorio & Durán Figueroa, 2012) and performing research and administrative work (Botero Alvarez, 2012). Such demands have brought consequences to the physical and mental health of faculty, including burnout (Botero Alvarez, 2012).

In Colombia, globalization has brought on competition among universities, along with new and demanding roles for faculty (Botero Alvarez, 2012; Velásquez Arboleda & Bedoya Bedoya, 2010). Colombian faculty members have been affected by burnout syndrome in recent years (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Correa-Correa, 2012; Ferrel

Ortega, Pedraza, & Rubio, 2010; Gonzalez Portillo et al., 2011). They reportedly suffer from work-related stress and have shown a decrease in their attention to students' learning, quality education (Gonzalez Portillo et al., 2011), and quality of life (Terán Rosero & Botero Alvarez, 2011). Colombian university officials are affected by the increase in faculty turnover and absences because of burnout syndrome (Arquero Montano & Donoso Anes, 2013; Botero Alvarez, 2012; Moreno-Jimenez, Garrosa Hernandez, Rodriguez Carvajal; Martinez Gamarra et al., 2009; Terán Rosero & Botero Alvarez, 2011). In addition, burnout syndrome has had a negative social impact in Colombia because it has decreased the ethical and social responsibility criteria of faculty (Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011).

Organizational aspects influence burnout syndrome among employees (Silva Gutierrez & Flores, 2012). Burnout syndrome has been studied both as an antecedent of organizational commitment (Karakus, Ustuner, & Toprak, 2014) and as an outcome of organizational commitment (Nordin, 2012). Organizational commitment has been identified as a variable that decreases burnout syndrome and protects employees from it (Mercado-Salgado & Gil-Monte, 2010). Organizational commitment among faculty is necessary because it encourages faculty to remain with the organization and increases their effort to achieve the university's goals (Nagar, 2012; Yongzhan, 2014).

Perceptions of leadership also influence employee burnout (Babakus, Yavas, & Ashill, 2011; Shaugnessy & Moore, 2010). Lack of supervision is a risk factor identified for faculty burnout (Ferrel Ortega et al., 2010). Faculty members who lack support and recognition from their deans, yet are subject to high expectations, are at high risk of suffering from burnout syndrome (Ferrel Ortega et al., 2010). Leaders who communicate

with their subordinates to understand their needs and potential and motivate them while being role models reduce burnout in their subordinates (Babakus et al., 2011). Therefore, an active and effective leadership style can serve to protect subordinates from burnout syndrome (Madathil et al., 2014; Spence-Laschinger, Cummings, Wong, & Grau, 2014; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2010). Specifically, researchers have found that the transformational leadership style of deans has a positive relationship to organizational commitment (Ali, Atiq, & Abbas, 2011; Bushfra, Usman, & Naveed, 2011; Ismail, Mohamed, Sulaiman, Mohamad, & Yusuf, 2011). Despite the fact that burnout syndrome is of concern and organizational commitment and leadership style are important variables for consideration in combating it (Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011), there have been few empirical studies investigating these constructs and the effects each has on the other in the context of Colombia, where burnout is currently a problem.

## **Background**

Gil-Monte and Figueredo-Ferraz (2013) defined burnout syndrome as the feeling of failure and tiredness caused by excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources. Subsequently, Cárdenas Rodríguez, Méndez Hinojosa, and González Ramirez (2014) identified burnout syndrome among faculty members within Latin American institutions, including institutions within Colombia (Barbosa Ramirez, Muñoz Ortega, Rueda Villamizar, & Suárez Leiton, 2009; Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Correa-Correa, Muñoz-Zambrano, & Chaparro, 2010; Enríquez Villota & Garzón Velasquez, 2010; Ferrel Ortega et al., 2010; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011). Within modern institutions, faculty work is demanding, involving numerous hours of teaching,

managing, and planning (Cárdenas Rodríguez, Méndez Hinojosa, & González Ramirez, 2014; Correa-Correa et al., 2010). Cárdenas Rodríguez et al. (2014) found that lack of time, low income, and overwork were factors that influenced burnout syndrome. Additionally, Cárdenas Rodríguez et al. (2014) found that variables such as personality, sociodemographic attributes, and organizational environment influenced faculty burnout. Managers can offer a friendly environment that helps employees balance their family with their work role, making them feel more committed to the organization (Ashraf, Nadeem, Zaman, & Malik, 2011).

Outside of institutions of higher education, organizational commitment has been negatively related to burnout syndrome (Garland, Lambert, Hogan, Kim, & Kelly, 2014; Lambert, Kelley, & Hogan, 2012). However, the few studies that have been conducted within universities have shown a contradiction between organizational commitment as an antecedent or a consequence of burnout syndrome (Karakus et al., 2014; Mercado-Salgado & Gil-Monte, 2010; Nagar, 2012; Yongzhan, 2014). Further studies are needed to clarify the antecedent or consequence dilemma of burnout syndrome in higher education institutions. Gurses and Demiray (2009) defined organizational commitment as the feeling of loyalty toward the organization and the interest of employees toward the success of the organization. Organizational commitment by faculty members is important for university officials, as committed faculty members learn and teach more effectively, increase their professional practices, and have low turnover rates (Malik, Samina, Naeem, & Danish, 2010). University officials need faculty members who stay with the organization and who are actively involved with academic and research tasks (Gormley & Kennerly, 2010). Therefore, understanding the antecedents of

organizational commitment is important for the success of universities by increasing faculty retention (Gormley & Kennerly, 2010) and maintaining the economic resources invested in faculty training (Iqbal, Kokash, & Al-Oun, 2011).

Leadership styles within higher education institutions have been used to influence organizational commitment and have an indirect and significant effect on organizational commitment (Lee, 2013; Tahir, Abdullah, Ali, & Daud 2014). Moreover, a dean who uses a transformational leadership style can influence organizational commitment of faculty members (Saeed, Gelaidan, & Ahmad, 2013). Accordingly, transformational leaders can have an essential role in making employees part of an effective and committed team who achieve the organization's goals (Saeed et al., 2013). Leaders of successful organizations must have employees who appreciate and implement the organization's mission and strategy (Cordeiro, 2010). Within universities, deans and faculty members determine the success of the institution (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Cordeiro, 2010).

Deans share the university's vision and motivate faculty (Tahir, et al., 2014). Committed faculty members will put forth extra effort to increase the performance of the university as a whole (May-Chiun, Ramayan, Hii, & Songan, 2010)). Through their leadership style, deans have the ability to increase job satisfaction and productivity of faculty members (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Studies regarding the type of leadership used by university deans indicated that transformational leadership was the dominant style (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Jones & Rudd, 2008; Tahir, et al., 2014). May-Chiun, Ramayan, Hii, & Songan, (2010) defined transformational leadership as a leadership style in which leaders use their personal power and share their formalized power to motivate



their subordinates to achieve goals. However, more research in the area of transformational and transactional academic leadership and its relationship with organizational commitment and burnout of faculty is needed (Batch & Heyliger, 2014). Understanding how to prevent burnout syndrome will allow university officials to increase the quality of life and mental health of faculty members (Jimenez Figueroa, Jara Gutierrez, & Miranda Celis, 2012).

### **Statement of the Problem**

One of the health problems that faculty members face, based on work-related stress, is known as burnout syndrome (Botero Alvarez, 2012). The problem was that, in recent years, Colombian faculty members have been affected by burnout syndrome with a reportedly moderate to high presence of the syndrome (Correa-Correa, 2012; Ferrel Ortega et al., 2010; Gonzalez Portillo et al., 2011); however, existing researchers have failed to consider possible variables associated with faculty burnout, namely organizational commitment and deans' leadership styles, which have been examined in American and European universities (Jones & Rudd, 2008; Magaña Medina, Aguilar-Morales, & Sánchez-Escobedo, 2014; Moreno-Jimenez et al., 2009; Saeed et al., 2013). Specifically, researchers have not clearly identified variables or predictors that explain the high or low presence of burnout syndrome (Ferrel Ortega et al., 2010; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011) in Colombian faculty. Burnout syndrome negatively affects Colombian higher education institutions, as increased economic resources are spent replacing faculty members because of resulting illness and turnover (Botero Alvarez, 2012; Nagar, 2012; Terán Rosero & Botero Alvarez, 2011). The institutions also show a decrease in the quality of education based on low performance of faculty members

(Cárdenas Rodríguez et al., 2014). Without clarification of variables that contribute to burnout syndrome, academic leaders cannot effectively identify viable solutions for combating this growing problem.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was twofold: (1) to examine the relationships among the variables of faculty perception of deans' leadership, organizational commitment of faculty, and burnout among Colombian university faculty, and (2) to identify what, if any, direct and indirect effects the variables of faculty perception of deans' leadership and organizational commitment of faculty have on burnout among Colombian university faculty. Leadership is the direction of a group toward some goal or task accomplishment (Jones & Rudd, 2008). In the context of this study, perception of deans' leadership referred to faculty's identification of their deans with regard to transactional, laissez-faire, and transformational styles of leadership. Organizational commitment is the identification and involvement in an organization (Tahir et al., 2014). Within this study, organizational commitment included the components of affective, continuance, and normative. Burnout is a specific type of stress caused by an imbalance between job demands and the response capability of the workers (Nagar, 2012). Burnout is identified through the three dimensions of depersonalization, emotional exhaustion, and personal realization. Path analysis will be used to investigate the direct and indirect relationships among these variables (Smeenk, Teelken, Eisinga, & Doorewaard, 2009). Perception of deans' leadership served as the exogenous variable [variable whose change is explained by factors outside the model] (Lleras, 2005), burnout syndrome was the endogenous variable [variable whose change is explained by factors

within the model] (Lleras, 2005), and organizational commitment was the intervening endogenous variable [variable that is the cause and effect of other variables] (Lleras, 2005).

The population consisted of the 301 Colombian faculty employed by three universities located in the city of Bogotá, Colombia. The researcher conducted a G\*Power 3.1.9.2® analysis, using a “linear multiple regression: Fixed model, R<sup>2</sup> increase” procedure, to calculate the minimum sample size required.. An effect size f<sup>2</sup> of 0.15 and power value of 0.83 were selected (see Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, and Georg-Lang, 2009). The estimated minimum sample size using G\*Power 3.1.9.2® with a margin of error of 5%, a level of confidence of 95%, a population of 301 people, and a response of distribution of 50% (to obtain the largest sample size) was 170 participants. The data was gathered through the administration of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X), the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). Data was analyzed using multivariate regression techniques as prescribed by path analysis (I-Chao, 2013). The proposed study was founded on the theoretical frameworks of leadership style, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome. Findings from the study were used to expand the knowledge base regarding the identification of those variables that prevent or contribute to burnout syndrome among Colombian faculty. Prevention of burnout syndrome will benefit higher education institutions and Colombian society because, according to Castro and Araújo (2012), prevention of burnout decreases health diseases and work stress. Figure 1 depicts the hypothetical model for the relationship between dean’s leadership styles and faculty burnout levels as mediated by organization commitment by faculty. The coefficients’

weights from the bootstrapping analyses were used as the path coefficients in the model (see Figures 2-10).

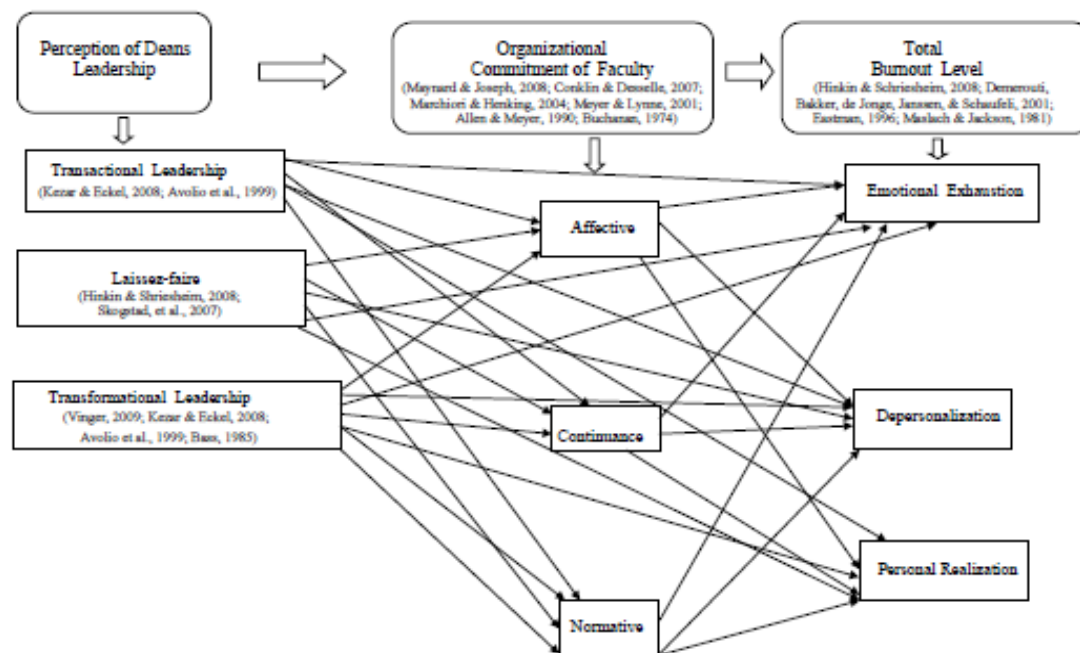


Figure 1. Hypothesized path analysis model.

## Theoretical Framework

The theories of organizational commitment, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, absence of leadership or laissez faire (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass, 1985), and burnout syndrome (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) provided the theoretical frameworks for the current study regarding perceived leadership and organizational commitment among faculty and its effect on burnout syndrome.

Organizational commitment is an attitudinal variable that measures the loyalty that employees feel towards the company for which they work (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988). Organizational commitment has three components— affective, continuance, and normative—that determines the reason why employees do or do not leave the organization for which they work (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Leaders influence their

subordinates through their leadership styles in order to achieve outcomes and improve effectiveness, group performance, and financial performance (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1985). Transactional leaders identify outcomes expected from subordinates and influence them with rewards or negative feedback to achieve goals (Avolio et al., 1999). Transformational leaders influence their subordinates by creating a high level of consciousness and appreciation of outcomes, emphasizing how they benefit the team or the organization (Bass, 1985). Leaders demonstrating laissez-faire show a strategy that could be interpreted as the absence of leadership (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). Burnout is the feeling of exhaustion that makes a person inoperative (Freudenberger, 1975). Burnout has the following three dimensions: (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) depersonalization, and (c) personal realization (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Emotional exhaustion is the feeling of being strained by work. Depersonalization is the impersonal response toward the recipients of one's work. Personal realization is the feeling of competence and achievement in work (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

**Transformational leadership.** Transformational leadership is a style that leaders use to motivate their subordinates to do more than expected, receive recognition for their outcomes, and perform for the sake of the team (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders influence employees through three dimensions, which are measured with the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ-5X) (Avolio et al., 1999; Avolio, Weichun, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Bass, 1985). The dimensions are (a) inspirational (charismatic) motivation, (b) individualized consideration, and (c) intellectual stimulation (Avolio et al., 1999).

Leaders who demonstrate the style of transformational leadership motivate their followers through emotion (inspirational motivation), attention to their personal needs

(individualized consideration), and abilities of problem-solving (intellectual stimulation) (Bass, 1985). Leaders who demonstrate inspirational motivation make their subordinates feel enthusiastic, proud, loyal, and faithful to the organization (Bass, 1985). Leaders who demonstrate individual consideration maintain a developmental and individualistic orientation toward their subordinates and treat them as individuals in a one-to-one relationship (Bass, 1985). Leaders who demonstrate intellectual stimulation enhance their subordinates` abilities of problem-solving and emphasize reasoning before action (Bass, 1985; Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987).

Dimensions of transformational leadership have other characteristics that differentiate them. Transformational leaders who show inspirational motivation become symbols of success and accomplishment for their subordinates because they show a lack of inner conflict, high self-determination, and self-confidence (Bass, 1985). In addition, transformational leaders who demonstrate inspiration arouse subordinates` feelings and motivate them to go beyond expectations in the attaining of goals (Bass, 1985).

Transformational leaders who demonstrate individual consideration evaluate the subordinate`s present and future potential in order to increase his or her responsibility (Bass, 1985). In addition, as the leader increases responsibilities and assigns challenging work, the personal development of subordinates increases (Bass, 1985).

Transformational leaders who have intellectual stimulation help subordinates to identify problems and arouse in them a new way of problem-solving based on knowledge, training, and experience (Bass, 1985). Such problem-solving abilities also emphasize logic, imagination, and quality (Bass, 1985).

Transformational leadership has been studied in the higher education environment. Transformational leadership is needed among university presidents in different phases of campus development (Kezar & Eckel, 2008). Campuses with early development need presidents who have individualized consideration and charisma when listening to their students and faculties' needs (Kezar & Eckel, 2008). On campuses in the middle of their development, leaders require presidents with inspirational motivation who help to create a unified goal and vision for the university (Kezar & Eckel, 2008). On campuses in their late phase, presidents with intellectual stimulation who foster innovative ideas for the institution are needed (Kezar & Eckel, 2008). However, transformational leadership is not unique to presidents, because middle managers (deans, heads of departments, and directors) show it as well (Vinger, 2009). Vinger (2009) found that 75% of 51 middle managers of a restructuring university showed high levels of transformational leadership. Leaders of higher education institutions exhibited transformational leadership often.

**Transactional leadership.** Transactional leadership is a leadership style in which leaders are focused on the outcomes that are expected from their subordinates and communicate to them the tasks that have to be performed to achieve a certain outcome (Bass, 1985). Transactional leaders have a special type of rewards policy, where subordinates' requests such as pay, recognition, and promotions are fulfilled when goals are achieved (Bass, 1985). A transactional leadership style can be ineffective when the leader fails to deliver rewards or may be abandoned when leaders understand that subordinates will perform when treated well and not only when they are rewarded (Bass, 1985).

Transactional leaders influence their subordinates through the two dimensions of contingent reward and management by exception (Bass, 1985). Leaders who focus on contingent reward provide rewards based on contracts and effort (Bass, 1985) or they provide negative feedback or disciplinary action when the goals are not met (Avolio et al., 1999). Leaders who demonstrate management by exception do not give any new directions when the goals are met (Avolio et al., 1999). In addition, leaders who focus on management by exception can be classified as active or passive (Bass, 1985). Leaders who show active management by exception show a corrective action when there is a deviation from rules and standards (Bass, 1985). Leaders who show passive management by exception only intervene when the standards are not met (Bass, 1985).

Transactional leadership has been studied in the higher education environment as well. Presidents of higher education institutions use a blend of contingent reward and management by exception (active and passive) depending on the circumstances (Kezar & Eckel, 2008). Transactional leadership style is particularly used when there is a great resistance to some issues, such as hiring people from diverse backgrounds and modifications of teaching or learning environments (Kezar & Eckel, 2008). Examples of transactional strategies are: (a) budget preparation, (b) offering rewards, (c) evaluation, (d) accreditation, and (e) funding (Kezar & Eckel, 2008). Some transactional strategies are used to attain precise goals. Accreditation and pressure from outside groups are used to create change (Kezar & Eckel, 2008). In addition, transactional leadership is used by middle managers (Vinger, 2009). Vinger (2009) found that 71% of 51 middle managers of a restructuring university showed high levels of transactional leadership. Leaders of



higher education institutions use transactional leadership style according to the circumstances of the university.

**Laissez-Faire.** Laissez-faire leadership style (absence of leadership) is present in leaders who avoid making decisions, avoid responsibility, and do not exert their authority (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). Leaders who show this type of leadership ignore problems and subordinates' needs (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). Absence of leadership makes subordinates feel dissatisfied with their leaders and perceive them as less effective (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008) because their leaders are not present or involved and do not provide feedback or rewards (Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007).

A laissez-faire leadership style can be classified as a destructive leadership behavior (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008; Skogstad et al., 2007). This type of leadership causes employees to be unclear regarding their roles (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008), and causes role conflict, role ambiguity, and conflicts with coworkers (Skogstad et al., 2007). These workplace stressors cause bullying that manifests in the form of harassing, offending, and excluding to the point where the workers' tasks are affected (Skogstad et al., 2007).

**Organizational commitment.** Employees have different attitudes toward their jobs. They can like them (satisfaction), feel absorbed or preoccupied with them (involvement), or feel attached to them (commitment) (Brooke et al., 1988). Employees committed to the organization exert the values of loyalty and duty and feel identified with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Weiner, 1982). Organizational commitment can be classified as either attitudinal, which is a psychological state, or behavioral, which

results from commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Attitudinal commitment implies that organizational commitment is a type of psychological state that ties the employee to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Behavioral commitment reflects personal sacrifice, persistence behaviors, and preoccupation toward the organization (Weiner, 1982).

Attitudinal commitment involves three themes or components that influence the employee's decision to remain with the organization: (a) affective, (b) continuance, and (c) normative (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Allen and Meyer (1990) measured the three components using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The affective component causes employees to feel emotionally attached to the organization and committed to it (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The continuance component is that employees feel committed toward the organization because they evaluate the cost of leaving the organization and decide to stay (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The normative component causes employees to commit to the organization because they feel the obligation to do so; this can be caused by personal beliefs (consistency with organizational mission, goals, policies, and style of operations) or personal moral standards (the rightness of being loyal to the organization) (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Weiner, 1982). Therefore, employees remain in the organization because they want to (affective commitment), need to (continuance component), or ought to (normative commitment).

The three components of organizational commitment affect the way employees behave in their work (Meyer & Lynne, 2001). Employees who show affective commitment will perform their jobs with their best ability and even go beyond what is asked of them. Employees who show continuance commitment will do what is asked of them but without adding any extra effort. Employees who show normative continuance

will perform tasks only if they see them as part of their duty. Consequently, the three mindsets of attitudinal commitment define employees' commitment profile and will have an effect on the way they perform their jobs (Meyer & Lynne, 2001). Attitudinal organizational commitment includes three dimensions that differentiate the state of attachment of the individual toward the organization: (a) compliance, (b) identification, and (c) internalization (Kelman, 1958). The compliance dimension causes individuals to adopt specific behaviors to gain specific rewards (Kelman, 1958). The identification dimension causes individuals to feel proud and respect the values of a group or organization without adopting them as their own (Kelman, 1958). The internalization dimension causes individuals to adopt the group's or organization's values as their own (Kelman, 1958). Therefore, the dimensions of attitudinal organizational commitment predict the congruence between individual and organizational values (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

Organizational commitment among managers can increase over time. Buchanan (1974) found that managers' organizational commitment increases as their careers progress, based on their personal experiences. Managers who are at stage one of their careers (first year) show role clarity, peer group cohesion, group attitudes toward the organization, expectation realization, reality shock, job challenge, and loyalty conflicts (Buchanan, 1974). Managers who are at stage two (second through fourth years) of their careers feel important, reinforce their self-image, are afraid of failure, and feel attached toward the organization's norms (Buchanan, 1974). Managers in stage three (five years or more) of their careers have organizational dependability (Buchanan, 1974). Managers who live through the three stages of their careers show more organizational commitment,

because commitment increases as time with the organization passes (Buchanan, 1974; Morrow & McElroy, 1987).

Presence, antecedents, and consequences of organizational commitment have been studied among faculty. In a sample of 1,121 health faculty, normative commitment, affective commitment, and continuance commitment were present (Marchiori & Henkin, 2004). Interestingly, part-time faculty showed more affective commitment than full-time faculty (Maynard & Joseph, 2008). The cause for such difference could be that for part-time faculty, teaching is secondary and they can abandon it at any time (Simo, Sallan, & Fernandez, 2009). Variables, such as reputation of the university, influence on institutional policy, and perceived administrative style of the institution predicted faculty commitment to the university (Fjortoft, 1993). Other variables such as influence on department policy, reputation of the institution, participation in department meetings, perceived administrative style of the department (Fjortoft, 1993), and faculty identity were predictors of department commitment (Smeenk et al., 2009). In addition, trust in the organization had a positive effect on the dimensions of affective commitment and normative commitment (Hodge & Ozag, 2007). Organizational commitment influences certain outcomes of faculty. For example, turnover intentions are negatively related to organizational commitment and chair department support (Conklin & Desselle, 2007).

**Burnout syndrome.** Worker job satisfaction can be influenced by the characteristics of a job (Lawler & Hackman, 1971) and by the meaningfulness of a job (Lawler & Hackman, 1969). Employees who feel committed and motivated regarding their jobs perceive their jobs as meaningful, believe they are accountable for their work, and have the ability to determine if the results of their performance are satisfactory

(Hackman, Oldham, Janson, & Purdy, 1975). Meaningful jobs are ones that require a variety of skills, are part of identifiable products or services, and have a significant impact on other people's lives (Hackman et al., 1975). Conversely, monotonous, boring, and noninvolving jobs are disliked by employees (Lawler & Hackman, 1971).

Burnout is defined as the feelings of exhaustion and fatigue that cause a person to be inoperative and sick and to manifest physical and behavioral symptoms (Freudenberger, 1975). Workers who suffer burnout feel irritated and frustrated (Freudenberger, 1975). Often, workers who experience burnout take risks to perform out of their routine to do something different from their usual tasks (Freudenberger, 1975). Some workers experiencing burnout can become users of tranquilizers and barbiturates (Freudenberger, 1975). Other manifestations of burnout include rigidity, stubbornness, resistance to change, and negativity that interfere with normal development of an organization (Freudenberger, 1975), causing an increase in employee absenteeism and turnover (Lawler & Hackman, 1971).

Researchers of burnout identified the following three dimensions of burnout: (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) depersonalization, and (c) low personal realization. Workers with emotional exhaustion feel tense, physiologically fatigued, and overwhelmed by their responsibilities (Jackson & Maslach, 1982). Employees with depersonalization treat people like objects and do not care about others (Jackson & Maslach, 1982). Workers who experience low personal realization feel they are negatively affecting the lives of their coworkers (Jackson & Maslach, 1982).

Some particular workers are more exposed and susceptible to burnout than others. Workers who are overcommitted and dedicated to responding to the needs of people may

feel that their emotional demands are overwhelming (Freudenberger, 1975). Other workers who feel burnout often are workers who replace their social lives with the work environment (Freudenberger, 1975). Finally, workers who need to be in control and who do not delegate within their jobs experience burnout in the process of their work (Freudenberger, 1975). A special form of burnout influences administrators and professionals (Freudenberger, 1975). Administrators experience burnout when they overwork by trying to accomplish too many things and do not delegate responsibilities (Freudenberger, 1975). Professionals feel burnout when they over-identify with the people with whom they are working and lose themselves in the process (Freudenberger, 1975).

Burnout syndrome has consequences that affect workers' families and productivity. Employees with burnout syndrome experience negative impacts on family life, which are manifested by increasing emotional distances from children and spouses and displays of anger at home (Jackson & Maslach, 1982). In addition, employees who experience burnout noted more of an intention to quit than workers who do not experience the syndrome (Jackson & Maslach, 1982). Nevertheless, some preventive measures can be enacted to prevent burnout. Group work (Freudenberger, 1975) and social support groups help by allowing workers to share experiences and create a sense of unity (Freudenberger, 1975; Thomas & Lankau, 2009). Additionally, work periods need to be limited to avoid overtime, and free time must be instituted to allow physical exercise and training program attendance (Freudenberger, 1975).

Additional models of burnout have been developed since the early research of Freudenberger (1975) and Jackson and Maslach (1982). One of the models was the

Conservation of Resources model (COR) of burnout. This model defined stress (Hobfoll, 1988) as a reaction to the environment where potential or actual losses of resources are involved. People can perceive a threat of losing resources, experience a loss of resources, or have a loss on the investment of resources. Resources are defined as anything valued by the individual (objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies) that has to be obtained (Hobfoll, 1988). According to the COR burnout model, the continuing loss or threat to resources leads to burnout (Hobfoll, 1988). The resource investment of time, energy, and lost opportunities, followed by a lack of resource gain, causes burnout (Hobfoll, 2001).

Another model proposed is the demand and control model of burnout developed by Demerouti, Bakker, de Jonge, Janssen, and Schaufeli (2001). The demand and control model proposed that burnout is the result of job demands and job resources. Job demands are those aspects of work that require effort and that are associated with psychological consequences such as burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources are characteristics that assist the achievement of work goals. Job demands predict the emotional component of burnout and job resources predict the depersonalization component of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Another dimension of burnout, identified as cynicism, was measured by Leiter and Schaufeli (1996). Cynicism represents emotional and intellectual distancing from work engagement. Employees develop cynicism to distance themselves from exhausting work demands. Cynicism reduces the energy an employee has to perform work and develop creative solutions for problems. Therefore, employees with cynicism have low professional efficacy (Leiter & Schaufeli, 1996). In further studies regarding burnout,

researchers expanded the subdimensions of burnout to personal burnout, client-related burnout, and work-related burnout (Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen, & Christensen, 2005; Shaughnessy & Moore, 2010). Personal burnout is the level of fatigue and exhaustion. Client-related burnout is the level of physical and psychological fatigue perceived by the employee related to working with clients (patients, students, children, inmates, etc.). Work-related burnout is the level of physical and psychological fatigue perceived by the employee related to his or her work (Kristensen et al., 2005; Shaughnessy & Moore, 2010).

Burnout has been identified among faculty (Eastman, 1996), deans (Mirvis, Graney, Ingram, Tang, & Kilpatrick, 2006), and university online instructors (Hogan & McKnight, 2007; McCann & Holt, 2009). Faculty seeks the time to balance teaching, community service, and research (Kellogg, 2006). When faculty are uncertain about meeting these demands, they are at risk of developing burnout syndrome (Kellogg, 2006) because they are unable to deal with stress and, therefore, become emotionally exhausted (Tumkaya, 2006). The prevalence of the syndrome has an impact on the productivity of faculty, because they become passive in the educational process (Eastman, 1996). One interesting fact related to burnout among faculty is that the dimension of depersonalization identified by Jackson and Maslach (1982) can be measured by taking into account two aspects: job-related and student-related (Iwanicki & Schwab, 1981).

The level of burnout in deans of medical schools was measured using the burnout phases developed by Golembiewski and Munzenrider (Mirvis et al., 2006). Burnout can have seven phases that determine its level. Phases one to three show a low presence of burnout. Phases four and five display an intermediate presence of burnout. Phases six



and seven indicate a high presence of burnout (Mirvis et al., 2006). In addition, strategies for preventing burnout in the higher education setting were identified. Good time management and attitudes that enhance life quality such as exercise, balanced diet, stress management, and positive relationships prevent burnout syndrome (Eastman, 1996). In addition, small class size (Rothmann & Barkhuizen, 2008), a cooperative spirit with coworkers and students (Eastman, 1996), and good working environment (Tumkaya, 2006) prevent burnout. Finally, social support from peers and family and optimism were negatively related to burnout (Otero Lopez, Santiago Marino, & Castro Bolano, 2008). To prevent faculty burnout, members must be regularly surveyed to administer an intervention and decrease mental or physical health problems (Zhong et al., 2009).

Through their leadership style, deans and other academic leaders can affect the level of organization commitment of their faculty (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Buchanan, 1974; Conklin & Desselle, 2007; Marchiori & Henkin, 2004; Maynard & Joseph, 2008; Meyer & Lynne, 2001;). Deans exhibiting laissez-faire styles of leadership (Hinkin & Shriesheim, 2008; Skogstad, et al., 2007) are apathetic, and this style creates an apathetic faculty and leads to a lack of commitment to the organization. Any relationship between laissez-faire leadership and elements of organizational commitment is hypothesized as negative. Deans who display transactional leadership are more likely to be critical of their faculty members (Avolio et al., 1999; Kezar & Eckel, 2008). This level of criticality breeds discontent among faculty and results in lower levels of organization commitment. Based on studies of leadership, the preferred style is transformational leadership (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1985; Kezar & Eckel, 2008; Vinger, 2009). Deans who lead their faculty in this manner are more likely to induce significantly higher levels

of belonging and organization commitment. From the models of burnout, faculty who are less committed to the organization are unhappy, become emotionally exhausted, drop out, and leave the university (Demerouti et al., 2008; Eastman, 1996; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). A lack of commitment to their organization, the university, will lead to higher levels of burnout. This is related to those deans who exhibit transactional and laissez-faire styles of leadership with their faculty.

### **Research Questions**

RQ1. What relationships, if any, exist among the variables of faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (i.e., transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire), organizational commitment (i.e., affective, continuance, and normative), and burnout syndrome (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization)?

RQ2. What direct effects, if any, do Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) have on the three components of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) and on burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization)?

RQ3. What direct effects, if any, does organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) have on burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization) among faculty in Colombian higher education institutions?

RQ4. What indirect effects, if any, do Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) have on the

three components of burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization)?

### **Hypotheses**

H1<sub>0</sub>. There are no significant relationships among the variables of perception of deans' leadership, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome.

H1<sub>a</sub>. There is a statistically significant relationship among at least one pair of the variables of perception of deans' leadership, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome.

H2<sub>0</sub>. There are no statistically significant direct effects of Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) on the three components of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) or burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization).

H2<sub>a</sub>. There is one or more statistically significant direct effects of Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) on the three components of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) or burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization).

H3<sub>0</sub>. There are no statistically significant direct effects of the level of Colombian university faculty's perception of the three components of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) on the three components of burnout syndrome.

H3<sub>a</sub>. There is one or more statistically significant direct effects of the level of Colombian university faculty's perception of the three components of organizational

commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) on the three components of burnout syndrome.

H4<sub>0</sub>. There are no statistically significant indirect effects of Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) on the three components of burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization).

H4<sub>a</sub>. There is one or more statistically significant indirect effects of Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) on the three components of burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization).

### **Nature of the Study**

The purpose of the proposed quantitative correlational study was to determine the direct and indirect effects that variables of faculty perception regarding dean leadership and organizational commitment by faculty have on burnout among Colombian universities' faculty members. A quantitative approach was used as variables were measured quantitatively and statistical methods used to examine the path analysis proposed among the variables were employed (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012). Correlational and regression designs are the most appropriate design because it can be used to provide evidence of a relationship between a set of independent predictors and one or more dependent variables (Thompson, Diamond, McWilliams, Snyder, & Snyder, 2005). Correlational studies are quantitative designs that use analytic methods such as multiple regression analysis (Thompson et al., 2005). Multiple and multivariate regression

analyses are used to explore the extent two or more independent variables relate to one or more dependent variables (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012).

The independent variables of leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) were measured using survey methodology. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5-X) was used. The MLQ-5X involves 45 items with answers along a 5-point Likert-type scale. The moderating variables for the organizational commitment dimensions (affective, continuance, and normative) were measured using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The OCQ is comprised of 24 items with answers along a 5-point Likert-type scale. Using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), dependent variables of burnout syndrome indicators (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization) were measured. The MBI is comprised of 22 items with answers along a 6-point Likert-type scale. Broad inquiry of the existing literature did not show existing studies in which researchers examined the possible relationships between dean leadership styles, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome among Colombian university faculty members (Barbosa Ramirez et al., 2009; Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Ferrel Ortega et al., 2010; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011).

### **Significance of the Study**

Leadership is an important part of university efficiency (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Iqbal et al., 2011). For university organizations to be successful, university leaders must contribute to excellence by guiding human capital to accomplish a shared vision (Sirat, Ahmad, & Azman, 2012). Organizational leaders strive continually to comprehend the factors that influence employee behaviors (Saeed et al., 2013). Research indicated that

transformational and transactional leadership styles could be used to influence faculty member organizational commitment (Saeed et al., 2013; Tahir et al., 2014). Although dean leadership styles have been associated with organizational commitment by faculty members, scant research has been conducted in Colombia regarding the subject.

Researchers have suggested further research regarding burnout syndrome among Colombian faculty with the eventual goal of prevention (Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011) and reducing propensity for burnout (Shepherd, Tashchian, & Ridnour, 2011). Burnout syndrome among faculty has been present in countries such as Colombia, México, Spain, and Chile (Barbosa Ramirez et al., 2009; Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Cárdenas Rodriguez et al., 2014; Darrigrande Osario & Durán Figueroa, 2012; Martinez Gamarra et al., 2009; Terán Rosero & Botero Alvarez, 2011). Adding to the body of knowledge with regard to Colombian universities in order to determine its presence across Latin American countries is necessary (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011). Studies regarding burnout syndrome among faculty, organizational commitment, and leadership style are important for Colombian university officials (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011) to increase faculty satisfaction and decrease turnover intentions (Nagar, 2012). Research involving faculty perception of deans' leadership and their relationship to organizational commitment and burnout is needed to improve the working conditions and quality of life for faculty (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Terán Rosero & Botero Alvarez, 2011) and avoid possible employee health problems in Colombia (Segura, 2014).

Therefore, this research may be used to contribute to a better understanding of the current burnout problem among Colombian faculty by adding to the understanding regarding the relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment by faculty members in Colombian institutions. Several studies have been conducted in Latin America and Colombia indicating the presence of burnout syndrome among faculty members (Barbosa Ramirez et al., 2009; Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Cárdenas Rodriguez et al., 2014; Correa-Correa et al., 2010; Enríquez Villota & Garzón Velasquez, 2010; Ferrel Ortega et al., 2010; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011). However, a deficiency gap exists in the research regarding prevention of burnout syndrome (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011). If this study can be used to find that one of the dimensions of organizational commitment is negatively related to burnout syndrome, Colombian academic directors may find a way to increase organizational commitment to prevent chronic faculty stress. Findings from this study may be used to seek change at the departmental level by educating academic administrators about effective leadership models that could be instituted as part of training programs (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014) and hiring policies (Tahir et al., 2014) to enhance organizational commitment by faculty members (Raja & Palanichamy, 2011). Additionally, this study could be used to create awareness regarding the influence of leadership styles in retention and turnover of faculty and organization viability (Gormley & Kennerly, 2010), possibly demonstrating favoring of a transformational leadership style to improve employee performance and university successes (Saeed et al., 2013).

The prevention of burnout syndrome is crucial for faculty members, because physical consequences (Correa-Correa et al., 2010), such as anxiety, depression, gastritis,

and headaches can be avoided (Jimenez Figueroa et al., 2012). Additionally, university officials who prevent burnout syndrome would have satisfied faculty members who are more productive, involved in goal achievements, and who are high quality instructors (Jimenez Figueroa et al., 2012). In conclusion, this research may add to the theories of leadership, knowledge of organizational commitment, and understanding of burnout syndrome by examining the relationships between the theories within Colombian universities. The results of the this research could be significant, because the data could be used to create a clear understanding of how leadership styles by university deans may influence organizational commitment and burnout syndrome among Colombian faculty members.

### **Definition of Key Terms**

**Active management by exception.** Active management by exception is when leaders deal with the problem of maintaining correct performance levels (Avolio et al., 1999).

**Affective commitment.** Affective commitment is the affective and emotional orientation toward the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

**Burnout syndrome.** Burnout syndrome is the emotional wear-out, depersonalization, and low personal and professional realization that professionals who interact directly with people show (Botero Alvarez, 2012).

**Contingent reward.** Contingent reward is a characteristic when leaders communicate to followers what is expected of them and what they will receive when they meet levels of performance (Avolio et al., 1999).



**Continuance commitment.** Continuance commitment is the recognition of costs associated with leaving the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

**Depersonalization.** Depersonalization is a dimension of the burnout syndrome whereby workers develop negative and cynical attitudes toward people (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

**Dimensions of transformational leadership.** These are the elements that form transformational leadership: (a) idealized influence, (b) individualized consideration, (c) inspirational motivation, and (d) intellectual stimulation (Avolio et al., 1999).

**Emotional exhaustion.** Emotional exhaustion is a dimension of the burnout syndrome whereby workers feel that they can't give any more of themselves at a psychological level (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

**Idealized influence.** Idealized influence is a characteristic of leaders whereby they model values and qualities that are replicated by followers (Avolio et al., 1999).

**Individualized consideration.** Individualized consideration is a characteristic of leaders whereby they understand the needs of followers and help them achieve their full potential (Avolio et al., 1999).

**Inspirational/charisma motivation.** Inspirational/charisma motivation is a characteristic of leaders whereby they provide followers with a clear and energizing sense of purpose (Avolio et al., 1999).

**Intellectual stimulation.** Intellectual stimulation is a characteristic of leaders whereby they question their followers about the ways of solving problems and methods of improving problem-solving (Avolio et al., 1999).

**Lack of personal realization.** Lack of personal realization is a dimension of the burnout syndrome wherein workers evaluate themselves and their work negatively (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

**Laissez-faire.** Laissez-faire is a hands-off strategy that could be interpreted as the absence of leadership (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008).

**Leadership.** Leadership is the way a leader influences his or her followers (Avolio et al., 1999).

**Normative commitment.** Normative commitment is the obligation to remain in the organization because of responsibility toward it (Allen & Meyer, 2001).

**Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X).** The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire is a survey used to measure transformational and transactional leadership style (Avolio et al., 1999).

**Organizational commitment.** Organizational commitment is a construct that reflects attachment to the goals and values of an organization in which a person is employed (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).

**Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ).** Organizational commitment questionnaire is a 15-item scale questionnaire used to assess the affective component of organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 2001; Mowday et al., 1979).

**Passive avoidant leadership.** Passive avoidant leadership occurs when leaders react after the problems become serious and avoid making decisions (Avolio et al., 1999).

**Transactional leadership.** Transactional leadership occurs when leaders reward predetermined behaviors and use corrective transactions to eliminate performance problems (Groves & LaRocca, 2011).

**Transformational leadership.** Transformational leadership is a leadership style whereby leaders develop and communicate a collective vision to seek the collective good of the team and organization (Groves & LaRocca, 2011).

### Summary

Health and education professional are at risk of developing burnout syndrome (Madathil, Heck, & Schuldberg, 2014; Mercado-Salgado & Gil-Monte, 2010). Burnout syndrome was identified among faculty members in Colombian universities (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Correa-Correa, 2012; Ferrel Ortega, Pedraza, & Rubio, 2010; Gonzalez Portillo et al., 2011), causing them health problems (Botero Alvarez, 2012) and low work efficiency (Gonzalez Portillo, 2011). Universities are also affected by burnout syndrome because they show an increase in faculty turnover and absences (Arquero Montano & Donoso Anes, 2013; Botero Alvarez, 2012; Moreno-Jimenez et al., 2009; Terán Rosero & Botero Alvarez, 2011). Leadership styles of deans and organizational commitment were identified as variables that are related to burnout syndrome (Babakus, Yavas, & Ashill, 2011; Karakus, Ustuner, & Toprak, 2014; Shaugnessy & Moore, 2010). Despite the fact that burnout syndrome is of concern and organizational commitment and leadership style are important variables for consideration in combating it (Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011), there have been few empirical studies investigating these constructs and the effects each has on the other in the context of Colombia, where burnout is currently a problem. Therefore, this quantitative correlational research study explored the relationship between perception of deans' leadership style, organizational commitment of faculty and burnout syndrome. The understanding of the prevention of burnout could help Colombian academic directors to find a way to increase

organizational commitment and create awareness related to leadership style to improve university success and employee performance (Saeed et al., 2013).

## Chapter 2: Literature Review

In this quantitative correlational study, the direct and indirect effects the variables of faculty perception of deans' leadership and organizational commitment of faculty have on burnout among Colombian university faculty were examined. The following literature review includes critical analysis and synthesis of relevant studies regarding burnout syndrome among faculty, antecedents of burnout syndrome, organizational commitment in higher education institutions, and deans' leadership and its relationship to organizational commitment. The most relevant literature was chosen from the peer review articles. The information of this literature review was organized by themes of (a) organizational commitment in higher education institutions, (b) dean's leadership and organizational commitment to higher education institutions, (c) burnout syndrome among faculty, and (d) burnout syndrome and organizational commitment in higher education institutions.

### Documentation

The journal articles for the literature review were obtained using online databases such as EBSCOhost Electronic Journal Service and redalyc.org (a network of the scientific journals of Latin America, the Caribbean, Spain, and Portugal). Key terms to search the literature included: (a) leadership in higher education, (b) deans' leadership, (c) organizational commitment in higher education, (d) burnout syndrome in higher education, (e) burnout syndrome among faculty, (f) burnout and leadership of faculty, and (g) burnout and organizational commitment in higher education institutions.

## **Organizational Commitment in Higher Education Institutions**

Organizational commitment is defined as the attachment to the organization, indicated as the place where employees feel identified, involved, and are members of a group (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Organizational commitment is important because it influences organizational outcomes such as turnover and performance (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). Organizational outcomes influence is particularly important in higher education institutions because high turnover rates affect the achievement of the goal of quality education (Yu, 2013). Additionally, the positive organizational commitment by faculty members at higher education institutions improves employee attitudes toward the job and improves performance and effectiveness (Baotham, 2011; Jing & Zhang, 2014; Maldonado-Radillo, Guillén Jimenez, & Carranza Prieto, 2012). Faculty member commitment to higher education institutions was explored in studies involving the presence of organizational commitment and other antecedents of organizational commitment. Other antecedents included personnel, role, structural, and job characteristics that were used to explain organizational commitment (Gormley, 2009).

In a portion of studies used to identify organization commitment among faculty members, researchers focused on Third World countries (Balay, 2012; Baotham, 2011; Barraza Macias, 2008; Khan, Shah, Hassan, Khan, & Khan, 2013; Lawrence, Ott, & Bell, 2012; Maldonado-Radillo et al., 2012; Zia & Tufal, 2011). Barraza Macias (2008) explored organizational commitment in Mexico. Barraza Macias (2008) polled 155 faculty members from the city of Canatlán, Mexico. The participants answered the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed in 1991 by Meyer and Allen (Barraza Macias, 2008). Results showed that 66% of faculty members felt

committed towards the organization (Barranza Macias, 2008). In addition, 78% of the sample had affective commitment (Barranza Macias, 2008). The researcher could have included more cities in Mexico to generalize the results. In another study, Lawrence, Ott, and Bell (2012) explored the organizational commitment of Pakistani faculty members. In their quantitative research, 4,550 faculty members answered the OCQ developed by Mowday et al. in 1982 to determine organizational commitment. The researchers found that 77% of the sample population members were committed to their university (Lawrence et al., 2012). However, the study was limited to the extent that the components of organizational commitment were not examined (Lawrence et al., 2012).

Researchers have also compared organizational commitment among private and public universities (Balay, 2012; Zia & Tufal, 2011). In a study used to compare the degree of organizational commitment of faculty at public and private universities in Pakistan, Zia and Tufal (2011) surveyed 90 faculty members from 12 private universities and 7 faculty members from public universities. In the study, Zia and Tufal (2011) used the OCQ developed by Allen and Meyer in 1991. Zia and Tufal (2011) found that 44 % of faculty members who worked in the public sector showed a high organizational commitment, while only 8% of faculty members working in the private sector showed a high organizational commitment. Yet, when other levels of commitment were examined, 40% of faculty members working in the public sector showed a medium organizational commitment, while 55% of faculty members who worked in the private sector showed a medium organizational commitment (Zia & Tufal, 2011). The research was limited in sample size and did not include universities from other regions (Zia & Tufal, 2011). It

was suggested that studies could be conducted in other countries to determine the generalization of the studies worldwide (Zia & Tufal, 2011).

Balay (2012) expanded Zia and Tufal's study, exploring the relationship between the perception of learning organizations and the degree of organizational commitment in private and public Turkish universities. Universities are considered learning organizations, because educators create new knowledge, share information, and use organizational knowledge to solve problems (Balay, 2012). Balay (2012) polled 172 faculty members with survey questions regarding learning organization dimensions developed by Watkins and Marsick in 1997 and the scale of organizational commitment developed by Balay in 2000 (Balay, 2012). Learning organizational perceptions of faculty members were higher for faculty working in a private university than for faculty working in a public university (Balay, 2012). Faculty members working at a public university had a higher degree of organizational commitment than faculty members working at a private university (Balay, 2012). Also, the learning organization dimension of team learning ( $\beta = -.353 = .000, p < .05$ ) and the learning organization dimension of shared systems ( $\beta = .281 = .000, p < .05$ ) were positively related to organizational commitment of faculty members (Balay, 2012). However, the study was limited in population, because the sample only comprised faculty members from two universities (Balay, 2012).

Maldonado-Radillo, Guillén Jimenez, and Carranza Prieto (2012) explored the presence of organizational commitment in public higher education institutions. Maldonado-Radillo et al. (2012) included a sample of 156 faculties and administrative employees of a Mexican public university. The participants answered the OCQ,



developed by Allen and Meyer in 1990, to determine the difference between organizational commitment of faculty members and administrative employees (Maldonado-Radillo et al., 2012). Faculty members were more committed ( $M = 73.76$ ,  $SD = 11.64$ ) than were administrative employees ( $M = 68.5$ ,  $SD = 10.9$ , Maldonado-Radillo et al., 2012). Study limitations included the nonprobabilistic nature of the sample and subsequent generalization of the results (Maldonado-Radillo et al., 2012). Balay (2012), Maldonado-Radillo et al., 2012, and Zia and Tufal (2011) all had similar conclusions regarding the presence of high organizational commitment between faculty members working in public institutions. However, Khan, Shah, ul Hassan, Khan, and Khan (2013) did not find any significant difference between organizational commitment of faculty members working in public and private institutions. Further research in other developing countries is needed to clarify differences of organizational commitment between faculty of private and public institutions.

A number of researchers have explored how structural characteristics of an organization (Gurses & Demiray, 2009), such as chairpersonship, designation, experience, salary, qualification (Khan et al., 2013), perceived organizational support (Baotham, 2011), and organizational climate (Gormley & Kennerly, 2010), affect organizational commitment. Khan et al. (2013) surveyed 328 Pakistani faculty members using the OCQ developed by Allen and Meyer in 1997 and a questionnaire used to examine the influence on organizational commitment of chairpersonship, designation, experience, salary, and qualification. The results showed that faculty members who had more years teaching showed more organizational commitment (Khan et al., 2013). Khan et al. (2013) found faculty members with one to five years of teaching experience had

less commitment ( $M = 4.7, SD = .82$ ) than faculty members with 30 years or more of teaching experience ( $M = 5.8, SD = .53$ ). As faculty members' designations within the institution increases, the organizational commitment increases. For example, Khan et al. (2013) found professors had more organizational commitment ( $M = 5.4, SD = .89$ ) than lecturers ( $M = 4.7, SD = .86$ ), meaning that organizational commitment increased as faculty members were promoted from lecturers to assistant professors, to associate professors, and to professors (Khan et al., 2013). Results by Khan et al. (2013) were consistent with findings by Iqbal, Kokash, and Al-Oun (2011). Iqbal et al. (2011) found that years of service were positively related to organizational commitment of faculty ( $\beta = .305, t = 2.698, p = .009$ ). However, in other research, Lawrence et al. (2012) received results opposite to those from Iqbal et al. (2011), because they found that years of employment were negatively related to organizational commitment ( $r = .028, p < .005$ ). Lawrence et al. (2012) did not differentiate between the different types of organizational commitment.

Another structural characteristic of the organization that affected organizational commitment was perceived organizational support. Baotham (2011) explored in a multicollinearity study the perceived organizational support as an antecedent of organizational commitment and its influence on job performance. Perceived organizational support (POS) is the degree that employees feel the organizational leaders are concerned about their well-being (Baotham, 2011). In Thailand, 213 employees of a university answered a questionnaire developed by Eisemberg in 1986 regarding POS, by Locke in 1976 regarding job satisfaction, and by Porter et al. in 1974 regarding organizational commitment (Baotham, 2011). Baotham (2011) found from the sample,

63.6% were employees and 36.4% were lecturers (Baotham, 2011) and POS, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment had a positive correlation with job performance ( $r = -0.294$ ,  $r = -0.641$ ,  $r = -0.409$ , respectively;  $p < .01$ ). Also, Baotham (2011) found that POS was positively related to organizational commitment ( $\beta = 0.253$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The study could be conducted in other universities to have more generalizable results.

Finally, Gormley and Kennerly (2010) examined the structural characteristic known as organizational climate and its influence on organizational commitment. A sample of 535 faculty nurses working at private and public universities completed the OCQ developed by Meyer and Allen in 1993, the OCQ developed by Borrevik in 1972, and the role and ambiguity questionnaire developed by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman in 1970 (Gormley & Kennerly, 2010). Role ambiguity is the lack of role clarity and expectations (Gormley & Kennerly, 2010). Role conflict is the contradiction between role expectations (Gormley & Kennerly, 2010). Gormley and Kennerly (2010) found that role ambiguity was negatively related to affective commitment ( $r = 0.527$ ,  $p \leq .05$ ) and continuance commitment ( $r = 0.301$ ,  $p \leq 0.05$ ). Additionally, Gormley and Kennerly (2010) found role conflict was negatively related to affective commitment ( $r = 0.421$ ;  $p \leq 0.05$ ) and continuance commitment ( $r = 0.340$ ,  $p \leq .05$ ). Gormley and Kennerly (2010) did not explore the reasons faculty member work balance did not influence work experience.

Two subgroups can be found among the personnel characteristics that influence organizational commitment: (a) demographic and (b) work factors (Gormley & Kennerly, 2009). Demographic characteristics such as levels of education affected organizational

commitment. Faculty members who held a postdoctoral degree had more organizational commitment ( $M = 5.3, SD = .07$ ) than their counterparts who had a master's degree ( $M = 4.6, DS = .83$ ) (Khan et al., 2013). The conclusions by Karakaya (2013) were consistent with the study by Khan et al. (2013), only regarding affective commitment.

Contradictory results were found by Karakaya (2013) regarding the other dimensions of organizational commitment, because he found that faculty members with doctorate studies had more affective commitment ( $M = 21, SD = 4.91$ ) than their counterparts who had a master's ( $M = 20.25, SD = 5.26$ ) and bachelor's degree ( $M = 19.33, SD = 6.32$ ).

Regarding continuance commitment, Karakaya (2013) found that faculty members with doctorate degrees ( $M = 15.52, SD = 4.7$ ) had less continuance commitment than did faculty members with bachelor's degrees ( $M = 20.66, SD = 4.92$ ). In addition, faculty members holding doctoral degrees had less normative commitment ( $M = 16.8, SD = 5.03$ ) (Karakaya, 2013). The conclusions by Karakaya (2013) were consistent with Iqbal et al. (2011) because they found a reverse correlation between highest degrees and faculty commitment ( $\beta = -.483, t = -2.507, p = .015$ ). Therefore, more studies are needed to clarify the relationship between organizational commitment of faculty and education status.

Demographic characteristics, such as gender and age, may also influence organizational commitment (Gurses & Demiray, 2009). Women showed a higher degree of commitment than men in similar circumstances, presumably because they are more eager to keep their jobs and have lower expectations than men (Farooq, Irfan, & Farooq, 2011; Fisher, Boyle, & Fulop, 2010; Tabbodi, 2009). However, Bayona-Saéz, Goñi-Legaz, and Madorrán-Garcia (2009) found that gender did not influence affective

commitment ( $r = -.5279, p \leq 10$ ). Additionally, Ashraf, Nadeem, Zaman and Malik (2011) found gender was not related to organizational commitment ( $r = -0.042, p < .005$ ).

Studies regarding the influence of age also showed contradictory results. In a study sampling 138 faculty members, Bayona-Saéz et al. (2009) found that age did not have a positive influence on affective commitment ( $r = 0.0381, p \leq 10$ ). Iqbal et al. (2011) surveyed 65 faculty members and found that age did not have an effect on organizational commitment ( $\beta = -.86, t = -.668, p = .507$ ). Nevertheless, Tabbodi (2009) Farooq, Irfan, and Farooq (2011), and Karakaya (2013) concluded that young employees showed more organizational commitment than their older counterparts did, because they wanted to be useful to the organization and keep their jobs. However, Carver, Candela, and Gutiérrez (2011) found that members of the Veteran generation (individuals born from 1925-1945) in nursing showed more affective commitment ( $M = 5.8, SD = 0.76$ ) and normative commitment ( $M = 4.77, SD = 1.19$ ) than did members of the Baby Boomer generation (born between 1946-1964) ( $M = 5.9, SD = 1.11; M = 4.48, SD = 1.26$ , respectively), and their Generation X counterparts (born between 1961-1980) ( $M = 5.17, SD = 0.99; M = 4.38, SD = 1.22$ , respectively).

Job characteristics, including faculty rank, job satisfaction, and salary, were examined regarding organizational commitment. Karakaya (2013) found that higher numbers of faculty members showed low organizational commitment in the dimensions of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment ( $M = 20.72, SD = 4.66; M = 18.94, SD = 4.10; M = 16.5; SD = 3.76$ , respectively). Additionally, Malik et al. (2010) researched 301 Pakistani faculty members at two Pakistani public universities. The participants answered a self-developed survey. Malik

et al. (2010) examined the influence of job satisfaction on organizational commitment in public universities. The researchers concluded that work satisfaction positively influenced organizational commitment ( $\beta = 0.1, t = 2.54, p < .005$  (Malik et al., 2010). The conclusions made by Malik et al. (2010) cannot be generalized, because the study involved public universities only. Further research should include both private and public universities. Salary was related to organizational commitment (Gormley, 2009). Faculty members who were satisfied with their pay showed more organizational commitment ( $\beta = 0.07, t = 2.34, p < .005$ , Malik et al., 2010). Additionally, salary increase was positively related to organizational commitment (Malik et al. 2010). Faculty members who earned less than \$70,000 annually were less committed ( $M = 5.42, SD = .89$ ) than members with an income above \$110,000 ( $M = 5.42, SD = .89$ , Khan et al., 2013). Faculty members who did not experience a salary increase experienced a low organizational commitment and were more likely to leave the institution (O'Meara, 2014). Commitment increased as salary, teaching experience, and educational background increased (O'Meara, 2014). Further studies in other countries, such as Colombia, are needed to generalize the findings of previous researchers.

Work experience and work environment are used to influence organizational commitment (Gormley, 2009). University officials have adopted private business sector characteristics known as managerialism, including (a) strategies, (b) department segregation, (c) private and performance management, (d) structures, (e) technology, (f) management, and (g) values (Smeenck et al., 2009). Smeenck et al. (2009) explored the relationship between managerialism and organizational commitment in the higher education environment. Employees associated with teaching, research, and support who

worked at universities in six European countries answered a questionnaire developed by Hood in 1995, measuring the perceived level of managerialism and answered a questionnaire used to measure the organizational commitment developed by Mowday et al. in 1979, Buchanan in 1974, Quinn and Staines in 1979, and Meyer and Allen in 1990 (Smeenk et al., 2009). These researchers found that department segregation was positively related to organizational commitment ( $\beta = 0.128, p = 0.00$ ), private management was positively related to normative commitment ( $\beta = 0.80, p = 0.04$ ), and performance management was positively related to continuance commitment ( $\beta = 0.076, p = 0.016$ , Smeenk et al., 2009). The study was only conducted in European universities; therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to American universities. Studies in American universities are needed to fill the gap regarding the impact of managerialism in organizational commitment.

Another work factor that influenced organizational commitment of faculty members is work-family conflict (Ashraf et al., 2011). Ashraf et al. (2011) surveyed 140 Pakistani faculty members, using the questionnaire of role organizational perceptions developed by Allen in 2001, to determine if work-family conflict such as excessive work demands affected organizational commitment. Ashraf et al. (2011) concluded that work-family conflict influenced organizational commitment of higher education faculties ( $r = .395, p < .01$ ). Finally, job experience characteristic (Gormley, 2009), such as organizational culture, was found to influence organizational commitment of faculty members. Shah, Jatoi, and Memon (2012) conducted a study involving Pakistani faculty members who worked at a public university to find the effect of organizational culture in organizational commitment. Organizational culture is defined as the set of mutual

assumptions and viewpoints within an organization (Shah, Jatoui, & Memon, 2012). The study was used to explore the following variables of organizational culture: innovation, risk taking, attention to detail, outcome orientation, people orientation, and team orientation (Shah et al., 2012). Faculty members of Sindh University answered a self-developed questionnaire (Shah et al., 2012). Shah et al. (2012) concluded attention to details was negatively related to affective commitment ( $r = -.604, p < .01$ ) and that innovation and risk taking were positively related to continuance commitment ( $r = -.607, p < .01$ ) and normative commitment ( $r = -.197, p < .005$ ).

Studies used to determine presence of organizational commitment in public and private education institutions are contradictory (Balay, 2012; Khan et al., 2013; Maldonado-Radillo et al., 2012; Zia & Tufal, 2011). Hence, further research is needed to clarify the private and public organizational commitment dilemma. In addition, research regarding variables that can be used to explain the high or low organizational commitment among faculty is needed in Colombia. Therefore, the proposed study will be used to examine the variable perception of deans' leadership as a predictor of organizational commitment and will use the OCQ to determine organizational commitment among Colombian faculty members working at private and public universities.

Results from studies regarding the influence of age, gender, and education status were inconclusive (Fisher et al., 2010; Tabbodi, 2009). According to some researchers, demographic variables such as gender increased organizational commitment (Fisher et al., 2010; Tabbodi, 2009). However, results of other studies regarding the effect of gender in organizational commitment showed no significant effect (Ashraf et al., 2011;



Bayona--Saéñz, Goñi-Legaz, & Madorrán-García, 2009). Concerning age and its influence on organizational commitment, Carver et al. (2011) explained that young faculty members were more committed than older faculty members. Nevertheless, in previous studies researchers found that older faculty members were more committed than young faculty members (Farooq et al., 2011; Iqbal et al., 2011; Tabbodi, 2009). Some researchers found that as the education status increased so did the organizational commitment of the faculty (Khan et al., 2013). However, Karakaya (2013) found that educational status did not have a direct relationship with organizational commitment. More research examining the effect of age, gender, and educational status on faculty member organizational commitment is needed to help explain the contradictions found in previous studies.

### **Dean's Leadership and Organizational Commitment to Higher Education Institutions**

Deans of higher education institutions hold a first-level position as supervisors, putting them between faculty and senior administrators (Sypawka, Mallet, & McFadden, 2010). Their academic and administrative roles include daily problem-solving, knowledge of changes in the educational world, maintenance of academic integrity, and counseling and advising students (Singh & Purohit, 2010). A dean's role includes recruiting high-quality faculty members, providing faculty preparation programs, and helping develop curriculum (Rowland, 2009). Deans possess knowledge about faculty members' jobs and observe their work to increase productivity and decrease staff turnover rates (Sypawka et al., 2010). Some important aspects of deans' jobs include leading the faculty members and programs, and complementing the leadership of the president, who works to achieve the organizational vision (Bradford, 2010). The future

of higher education institutions is dependent on effective leadership by deans (Sypawka et al., 2010). Deans need to use leadership to inspire faculty members to achieve their potential, realize organizational goals, and increase organizational commitment (Gormley & Kennerly, 2010; Sypawka et al., 2010). In limited research regarding leadership and the relationship to organizational commitment, researchers have focused on the educational sector in developing countries (Gormley & Kennerly, 2010; Sypawka et al., 2010).

Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, and Ishaque (2012) explored the leadership perception of academic and administrative employees in the Pakistani educational sector and the relationship to organizational commitment. In the research, 101 academic and administrative staff members responded to the MLQ developed by Avolio in 1997, and the OCQ developed by Mowday in 1979, to determine if transactional and transformational leadership were positively related to organizational commitment (Rehman et al., 2012). Data were analyzed using a Pearson correlation, standard deviations, and  $R$  to determine the correlation among variables. The transformational leadership style was more positively related to organizational commitment ( $R = .327$ ) than transactional leadership ( $R = .310$ ). However, no preference existed among managers between the transactional ( $M = 3.52, SD = .484$ ) and transformational ( $M = 3.5276, SD = .65737$ ) leadership styles. Finally, leadership styles indicated a significant proportion of variance in organizational commitment ( $R^2 = .177$ , Rehman et al., 2012). In conclusion, transformational and transactional leadership styles influenced organizational commitment in higher education institutions. Nevertheless, the study presented some limitations, because other factors such as work environment, competition, population, and

demographics were not included in the research (Rehman et al., 2012). Rehman et al. (2012) could have focused only on faculty members to be more comparable with researchers who explored mechanisms to improve faculty members' organizational commitments. Results regarding the preference of leadership among deans were contradictory with research by Jones and Rudd (2008) and Bateh and Heyliger (2014).

In their quantitative study regarding the leadership style of deans, Jones and Rudd (2008) explored the utilization of transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership as well as the elements of transactional and transformational leadership. At land grant universities, 56 college deans at agricultural and life sciences answered the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to assess leadership style. The researchers calculated means, N, and standard deviations to find the leadership style scores, which ranged from 0 to 4, where 0 = not used at all, 0-1 = used minimally, 1-2 = used once in a while, 2-3 = used fairly often, and 3-4 = used frequently (Jones & Rudd, 2008). Jones and Rudd (2008) calculated the means for transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership and obtained scores of 3.28, 2.24, and 1, respectively, showing that transformational leadership was the most used among deans despite gender or ethnicity. No relationship was found between leadership style and gender or ethnicity (Jones & Rudd, 2008). Transformational leadership is considered a desirable leadership style, because leaders using this style are more effective and successful (Bass, 1985). Further studies regarding additional factors that influence leadership style are needed to increase success and viability of programs (Jones & Rudd, 2008).

Confirming results obtained by Jones and Rudd (2008), Bateh and Heyliger (2014) explored perceived leadership styles of academic administrators as a predictor of job satisfaction in a state university of Florida. The correlational study had 104 participating faculty members who answered the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire developed by Bass, Avolio, Jung, and Benson in 2012, the Job Satisfaction Survey developed by Spector in 2011, and a demographic survey (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Bateh and Heyliger (2014) concluded that transformational leadership style was used by 79% of the academic leaders and that passive/avoidant leadership style was used by 12% of the academic leaders. Transformational leadership style had a positive relation with job satisfaction ( $\beta = 4.109$ ,  $SD = .968$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ;  $\beta = 2.552$ ,  $SE = .506$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , respectively) (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Interestingly, passive/avoidant leadership style was negatively correlated to job satisfaction ( $\beta = -2.310$ ,  $SD = .440$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). To make the results more generalizable, the researchers could have used more than one university. Additional research in the area of academic leadership and faculty was suggested to benefit academic institutions (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Additional research regarding leadership styles used by deans is needed to understand ambiguous results obtained by previous researchers.

Lo, Rmayah, and Cyril de Run (2010) explored the consequences of leadership in the higher education context. In the study, the influence of transformational leadership style on faculty members' personal goals, capacity beliefs, and context beliefs was explored (Lo, Rmayah, & Cyril de Run, 2010). The research was conducted among 458 lecturers who worked in a Malaysian university (Lo et al., 2010). The participants answered the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio in

2002 and an additional questionnaire developed by Ford in 1992. The researchers concluded that idealized influence and intellectual stimulation explained 28%, 34%, and 36% of the change of personal goals, capacity belief, and context belief, respectively (Lo et al., 2010). Lo et al. (2010) contributed to leadership framework because they identified other variables, which can be influenced by leadership.

Another study, completed in Pakistan, was conducted by Chughtai and Zafar (2006). In the study, 125 faculty members of Pakistani universities answered the OCQ to determine if selected personal characteristics including age, tenure, marital status, level of education, facets of job satisfaction, and the two dimensions of organizational justice (distributive justice and procedural justice) significantly showed variance in the organizational commitment of Pakistani university teachers (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). The participants responded to the OCQ developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter in 1982, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire short form developed by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist in 1967, the Distributive Justice Index developed by Price and Mueller in 1986, and the Procedural Justice Scale taken from previous research conducted by McFarlin and Sweeny in 1992 (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). For the purpose of the study, distributive justice was defined as the perception of fairness of the compensation of faculty and procedural justice was defined as the perception of the means that determined compensation (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). One of the limitations of the study was that researchers did not examine other organizational outcomes such as absenteeism and citizenship (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006).

The data were analyzed using multiple regression analysis with stepwise regression. The results showed organizational commitment was predicted by distributive

justice, trust in management, and procedural justice (Lawrence, Ott, & Bell, 2012). Furthermore, organizational commitment was negatively related to turnover intentions and positively related to satisfaction with the immediate supervisor (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). Chughtai and Zafar (2006) indicated that organizational commitment was positively related to faculty satisfaction with the immediate supervisor. The immediate boss often represents the organization to faculty members. Therefore, the immediate boss' attitudes and actions will be interpreted as the institutional leaders' attitudes and actions (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). Faculty member satisfaction increases with the immediate boss' care and support because he or she builds faculty member trust. The immediate boss' honest leadership, personal interest, and trust in faculty increased faculty member satisfaction (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). Additionally, the immediate supervisor was in charge of determining the work of faculty members. Enriching work that provides challenging, interesting, and motivating tasks will improve satisfaction (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). Finally, the immediate boss' decisions regarding training opportunities for faculty members will enhance faculty perception regarding care and support by organizational leaders (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). Leaders at higher education institutions should try to raise awareness among immediate supervisors regarding the importance of good leadership to increase faculty member organizational commitment (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006).

Thus, organizational commitment by faculty members can be explained partially by organizational justice, personal characteristics, and job satisfaction (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). Likewise, facets of job satisfaction including security, supervision, and training opportunities increased organizational commitment (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006).

Organizational justice was used to explain positive variance in organizational commitment. Additional research about other variables that can be used to influence the organizational commitment of faculty members is needed to develop higher levels of organizational commitment in higher education and decrease turnover of faculty members (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). Chughtai and Zafar (2006) and Rehman et al. (2012) explored the direct effect of deans' leadership on organizational commitment and concluded that deans with transformational leadership style influenced the organizational commitment of faculty members positively.

Like Chughtai and Zafar (2006) and Rehman et al., (2012), Othman, Mohammed, and D'Silva (2013) explored the relationship between leadership style of the immediate supervisor and organizational commitment. However, the study occurred among Nigerian public university lecturers. Data were collected among 181 university lecturers who were undergoing postgraduate studies in Malaysian universities. Participants answered the MLQ developed by Bass and Avolio in 1995 and the OCQ developed by Allen and Meyer in 1997 (Othman, Mohammed, & D'Silva, 2013). Several dimensions are included in transformational leadership, including (a) individual consideration, (b) intellectual stimulation, (c) inspiration motivation, and (d) idealized influence (Othman et al., 2013).

The transformational leadership dimension of individual consideration was positively correlated to organizational commitment ( $r = 0.503, p < .01$ ). The transformational leadership dimension of intellectual stimulation was positively correlated to organizational commitment ( $r = 0.516, p < .01$ ). The dimension of transformational leadership inspirational motivation was positively correlated to

organizational commitment ( $r = 0.537, p < .01$ , Othman et al., 2013). The dimension of transformational idealized influence behavior was positively correlated to organizational commitment ( $r = 0.431, p < .01$ ) and the dimension of transformational idealized influence attributed was positively correlated to organizational commitment ( $r = 0.560, p < .01$ ). Finally, 33.5% of the variation in organizational commitment was explained by transactional and transformational leadership style ( $R^2 = 33.5, F = 10.434, p = .000$ , Othman et al., 2013). The results showed that all dimensions of transformational leadership were correlated to organizational commitment. Othman et al. (2013) concluded that transformational and transactional leadership styles were positively related to organizational commitment among Nigerian public university lecturers. However, the study was limited, because researchers did not investigate the influence of leadership style on different dimensions of organizational commitment including affective, continuance, and normative (Othman et al., 2013).

Saeed, Gelaidan, and Ahmad (2013) conducted research regarding the relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment of faculty. The research was conducted in public universities in Yemen and had a sample of 105 faculties. The participants answered the OCQ (Allen & Meyer, 1990) and the MLQ (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). A multiple regression analysis was performed on the data, and Saeed et al. (2013) found that transformational and transactional leadership styles were positively related to affective commitment ( $\beta = 0.204, p = 0.028$ ;  $\beta = 0.429, p = 0.00$ , respectively). Saeed et al. (2013) concluded that transformational and transactional leadership styles were positively related to continuance commitment ( $\beta = .505, p = 0.000$ ;  $\beta = .301, p = 0.00$ , respectively) and that transactional leadership style was positively related to



normative commitment ( $\beta = 0.549, p = 0.00$ ). The study had a sample size limitation and the survey distribution could be done using longitudinal strategy (Saeed et al., 2013). Conclusions by Saeed et al. (2013) were consistent with Lawrence et al. (2011), who found that department leadership was related to organizational commitment ( $r = 0.189, p < .005$ ) and Malik et al. (2010) who established that faculty who were satisfied with their supervision showed more organizational commitment ( $\beta = 0.12, t = 2.04, p < .005$ ).

Tahir, Abdullah, Ali, and Daud (2014) investigated the relationship between department deans' and academics' organizational commitment in Malaysia. A sample of 430 academics who worked in a Malaysian public university answered the Leadership Practices Inventory developed by Kouzes and Posner in 1993 and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Porter, Steers, and Mowday in 1974 (Tahir et al., 2014). Descriptive analysis was performed on the data to predict whether department deans' behaviors of transformational leadership influenced academics' organizational commitment (Tahir et al., 2014). Transformation behaviors included (a) challenging the process, (b) inspiring a shared vision, (c) enabling others to act, (d) modeling the way, and (e) encouraging the heart (Tahir et al., 2014).

Challenging the process allows leaders to implement innovative strategies (Tahir et al., 2014). Inspiring a shared vision is used to enlist others in their dreams (Tahir et al., 2014). Enabling others to act is used to permit building team spirit and collaboration (Tahir et al., 2014). Modeling the way is used to create standards of excellence and set an example to follow (Tahir et al., 2014). Encouraging the heart is used to motivate sharing rewards for hard work (Tahir et al., 2014). Tahir et al. (2014) concluded that 55% of the variance of organizational commitment was explained by transformational

leadership ( $R^2 = 0.552$ ,  $F = 90.58$ ,  $p < .005$ ). The behaviors of transformational leaders encouraging the heart and enabling others to act are strongly correlated to organizational commitment ( $\beta = 0.32$ ,  $t = 5.23$ ;  $\beta = 0.30$ ,  $t = 4.36$ , respectively, Tahir et al., 2014). The behaviors of transformational leaders including challenging the process, inspiring the vision, and modeling the way had an influence on organizational commitment ( $\beta = 0.15$ ,  $t = 2.68$ ;  $\beta = 0.22$ ,  $t = 2.43$ ;  $\beta = 0.16$ ,  $t = 2.17$ , respectively, Tahir et al., 2014). The research was significant, because Tahir et al. (2014) confirmed previous studies regarding the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment of faculty members.

Tabbodi (2009) examined the relationship between deans' leadership styles and organizational commitment to higher education institutions. At the University of Mysore (India), 93 faculty members of humanity departments answered the Leadership Behavior Questionnaire developed by Fleishman in 1983 and the Faculty Commitment Questionnaire developed by Tabbodi (2009). Pearson's coefficients and two-way ANOVA were calculated. A positive correlation between deans' leadership styles and faculty member commitments was found ( $r = 0.284$ ,  $p = .006$ ). Tabbodi (2009) concluded that leadership behavior increased faculty member commitment to the organization. The conclusions were consistent with the results obtained by Chughtai and Zafar (2006), Othman et al., (2013), Rehman et al. (2012), Tahir et al. (2014), and Saeed et al. (2013). Even though there are studies regarding the leadership of deans and its relation to organizational commitment, no studies exist in developing countries of Latin America, particularly in Colombia. Moreover, further studies regarding antecedents and

consequences of organizational commitment were suggested to improve efficacy and performance of universities (Saeed et al., 2013).

Though some studies regarding the direct effect of deans' leadership on organizational commitment exist, other researchers addressed the mediating effect of other variables between the relationship among deans' leadership and organizational commitment. Yu (2013) conducted a quantitative study regarding mediators of the relationship between leadership and organizational commitment in higher education institutions. The study involved 675 deans and faculty members working in 68 Chinese universities answered the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire (TLQ) developed by Li and Shin in 2005, the Job Related Questionnaire proposed by Sheldon and Elliot, the OCQ developed by Meyer and Allen in 1996, and the scale of general self-efficacy developed by Shwarzer and Aristi in 1997 (Yu, 2013). Transformational leadership was related to goal-setting ( $r = 0.501, p < .01$ ), organizational commitment ( $r = 0.557, p < .01$ ), self-efficacy ( $r = 0.448, p < .01$ ), and goal self-concordance ( $r = .317, p < .01$ , Yu, 2013). In conclusion, transformational leadership influenced organizational commitments and their relationship is mediated by goal-setting. Goal-setting among faculty members was used to promote autonomous motivation, self-efficacy, and career achievement, helping transformational leaders to be more effective and increasing organizational commitment (Yu, 2013). The study could have used a longitudinal method to measure the variables across a period to determine if the variables changed over time. Moreover, further study regarding transformational leadership and organizational commitment at a group or organization level should occur to determine if they coexist with the individual level of transformational leadership and organizational

commitment (Yu, 2013). The study made by Yu (2013) represented a contribution to the body of knowledge because it was conducted in a developing country, unlike the other studies by Chughtai and Zafar (2006), Othman et al. (2013), Rehman et al. (2012), and Tabbodi (2009).

Nordin (2012) studied the mediator effect of emotional intelligence between the relationship of deans' leadership styles and organizational commitment of faculty members. At a Malaysian university, 357 faculty members answered the MLQ- 5X form developed by Bass and Avolio in 1995, the Three Components Model (TCM) developed by Allen and Meyer in 1991, and the Emotional Competencies Inventory (ECI) developed by Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee in 2000 (Nordin, 2012). Data were analyzed using multiple regressions. Emotional intelligence was positively, but moderately, related to organizational commitment ( $r = 0.353, p = .000$ ), and transformational and transactional leadership style was positively associated with organizational commitment ( $r = 0.419, p = .000; r = 0.410, p = .000$ , respectively). Nordin (2012) concluded that 22.7 % of the variance of organizational commitment was explained by leadership behaviors ( $R^2 = .227, p < .005$ ) and emotional intelligence did not moderate the relationship between leadership behavior and organizational commitment ( $R^2 = .227, F = 0.801, p = .372$ ). The researcher could have explored a wider range of employees with non-academic jobs within the organization (Nordin ,2012). Further studies with the same focus could benefit from a longitudinal research methodology to validate the organizational commitment framework (Nordin, 2012). In addition, Nordin (2012) could have used more than one university to generalize the results in the country.

Unlike Yu (2013) and Nordin (2012), who studied mediators of leadership and organizational commitment, I-Chao (2013) explored organizational commitment of faculty as a mediator between leadership style of faculty supervisors and organizational effectiveness. At a Taiwanese university, 203 lecturers answered the Leadership Style Questionnaire developed by House in 1971, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Mowday et al. in 1982 and the Organizational Effectiveness Questionnaire developed by Shen-yu in 2010 (I-Chao, 2013). Path coefficient of determination was performed on the data obtained and the results indicated that leadership style was related to organizational commitment of faculty ( $R^2 = .243, p < .001$ ) and organizational commitment was related to organizational effectiveness ( $R^2 = .261, p < .001$ , I-Chao, 2013). Therefore, organizational commitment was used to exert a mediator effect between leadership styles and organizational change. The study was limited regarding method sampling; other methods unlike random sampling were suggested (I-Chao, 2013).

Previous studies conducted by Chughtai and Zafar (2006), Othman et al., (2013), Rehman et al. (2012), Tabbodi (2009), Tahir et al. (2014), and Saeed et al. (2013) concluded that a direct positive relationship existed between deans' leadership styles and organizational commitment of faculty members. Even though Nordin (2012) explored emotional intelligence as a moderator between deans' leadership styles and organizational commitment of faculty members, no relationship was found, and the direct relationship among the variables was indirectly confirmed. However, Yu (2013) contradicted results found by other researchers. Yu (2013) found a positive mediating effect of goal-setting between deans' leadership styles and organizational commitment of

faculty members. Therefore, the current proposed study will be consistent with previous findings regarding the direct relationship between deans' leadership styles and organizational commitment of faculty members and will not take into account any mediator variables.

Performance of a higher education institution has a relationship with the commitment of its faculty members (Rehman et al., 2012). Leadership style influences organizational commitment in the educational sector (Rehman et al., 2012), because the faculty members' perceptions of their leaders' leadership styles influenced them directly (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006; Othman et al., 2013; Rehman et al., 2012). Transformational leaders, with their charisma, consideration for the faculty members' work, and personal development, set appropriate goals and directions for faculty members. Transformational leadership style is used to promote organizational commitment and help attain the university administrators' objectives and success (Yu, 2013). Despite conclusions by previous researchers that a direct relationship existed between deans' leadership styles and organizational commitment of faculty members, research is lacking regarding the effect of deans' leadership styles and organizational commitment of faculty members in Latin American countries, specifically in Colombia. Studies are needed to generalize the relationship between the variables in Colombia and allow Colombian higher education institutional leaders to be aware of how the leadership styles of deans can be used to influence organizational commitment and affect burnout syndrome of faculty members to improve the academic achievement of Colombian universities.

## **Burnout Syndrome among Faculty**

Contemporary higher education institutions are part of the supply and demand system, wherein education is commercialized to be profitable (Botero Alvarez, 2012). Therefore, faculty members become part of the human capital of the university and perform jobs beyond teaching, including management and research (Botero Alvarez, 2012). The increase of demands and responsibilities upon faculty members causes them physical, mental, and social problems (Botero Alvarez, 2012). Work stress for faculty members can have different origins. Urquidi Trevino and Rodriguez Jimenez (2010) studied three public Mexican universities to identify the sources of stress of faculty members. In the study, 271 active faculty members who did not perform administrative work answered a questionnaire developed by Urquidi Trevino and Rodriguez Jimenez (2010). The researchers found that work overload (42.5%), organizational environment (39.6%), lack of recognition (55.7%), and inadequate teaching conditions (25%) were stress factors for faculty members (Urquidi Trevino & Rodriguez Jimenez, 2010). Other antecedents of work stress involved work characteristics and low university organization (Correa-Correa et al., 2010).

Burnout syndrome is one of the mental problems related to stress in the work environment suffered by faculty members (Magaña Medina et al., 2014). Burnout syndrome is defined as the feeling of emotional exhaustion and cynicism experienced by individuals, leaving them unable to contribute to others (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Burnout has a negative effect on the quality of faculty members' teaching (Cárdenas Rodriguez et al., 2014), is detrimental to faculty member health (Magaña Medina et al., 2014), and affects family and personal relationships (Correa-Correa, 2012). Faculty with

burnout exhibit symptoms including fatigue, headaches, muscular pain, change in behavior, depression, impatience, anxiety, and difficulty controlling and expressing emotions (Cárdenas Rodríguez et al., 2014). Studies regarding the presence of burnout among faculty members have been conducted in Latin American countries.

Arquero Montano, Donoso Anes, Hassall, and Joyce (2006) surveyed 35 accounting faculty members from a university in Seville, Spain. Arquero Montano et al. (2006) used the MBI (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) to determine the presence of the three dimensions of burnout syndrome. Of the surveyed sample, 34% had high scores of emotional exhaustion, 42.9% had depersonalization, and 45.7% had low personal realization (Arquero Montano et al., 2006). Additionally, Arquero Montano et al. (2006) found the existence of a relationship between years of teaching and burnout, concluding that faculty members with more experience have less burnout ( $r = -.4, p = .000$ ). One of the findings by Arquero Montano et al. (2006) was that men have more depersonalization ( $t = 7.65, p = 0.026$ ) than their women counterparts ( $t = 4.11, p = 0.026$ ).

Expanding their previous study, Arquero Montano and Donoso Anes (2013) surveyed 192 accounting faculty members from 42 Spanish universities. Participants answered the MBI developed by Maslach and Jackson in 1997 to determine the presence of burnout syndrome (Arquero Montano & Donoso Anes, 2013). According to Arquero Montano and Donoso Anes (2013), burnout syndrome is more prevalent among researcher faculty members than faculty members who only teach. Arquero Montano and Donoso Anes (2013) found that emotional exhaustion was higher among research faculty members than among regular faculty members ( $M = 4.2; M = 17.5$ , respectively), personal realization was lower for research faculty members than regular faculty



members ( $M = 7.1$ ;  $M = 34.2$ , respectively), and depersonalization was slightly higher among research faculty members than among regular faculty members ( $M = 5.7$ ;  $M = 17.5$ , respectively). Burnout syndrome was present in 48% of faculty members whose jobs involved only research, compared to 16.2% of regular faculty members (Arquero Montano & Donoso Anes, 2013). Arquero Montano and Donoso Anes (2013) found women had higher scores of emotional exhaustion and personal realization ( $F = 8.65$ ,  $F = 9.47$ ;  $p < .01$ , respectively), a Ph.D. degree was related to emotional exhaustion and personal realization ( $F = 14.04$ ;  $F = 35.15$ ,  $p < .001$ , respectively), and research time was related to emotional exhaustion and personal realization ( $F = 3.69$ ,  $p < .1$ ;  $F = 37.35$ ,  $p < .001$ , respectively). Faculty members with burnout had high intention to quit ( $M = .30$ ) (Arquero Montano & Donoso Anes, 2013). The research was limited to the population of the sample. Future studies could include faculty members from other areas and countries.

Magaña Medina, Aguilar-Morales, and Sánchez-Escobedo et al. (2014) conducted a study in Mexico to detect burnout among faculty. Magaña Medina et al. (2014) surveyed 462 full-time Mexican academics who worked at a public university. Magaña Medina et al. (2014) used the MBI developed by Maslach and Jackson in 1981 to explore the presence of burnout syndrome among faculty members. The findings indicated that 21% of the academics surveyed reported signs of burnout and stress (Magaña Medina et al., 2014). However, the presence of burnout among researchers was low (Magaña Medina et al., 2014). Magaña Medina et al.'s (2014) findings were contradictory to the findings by Arquero Montano and Donoso Anes (2013), because they found that burnout presence was high among researchers. Therefore, future researchers should explore the prevalence of burnout among researchers compared to regular faculty members.

The research by Magaña Medina et al. (2014) had a second qualitative approach, where nine focus groups were organized to express perceptions of stress and its association with daily challenges. The researchers concluded that the main concerns among faculty members, related to work overload, were fatigue and lack of time to perform duties (Magaña Medina et al., 2014). Magaña Medina et al. (2014) had an interesting approach to burnout, because they complemented the quantitative method with aspects not addressed by the MBI instrument. Future researchers should investigate mechanisms to reduce stress and burnout among academics to prevent lack of efficiency and mental and physical diseases/issues in faculty members (Magaña Medina et al., 2014).

Like Magaña Medina et al. (2014), Cárdenas Rodríguez et al. (2014) found the setting in Mexican universities for their research regarding burnout. They surveyed 100 Mexican faculty members using the scale of perceived stress developed by Cohen et al. in 1983 and the Burnout Questionnaire developed by Moreno et al. in 2000 (Cárdenas Rodríguez et al., 2014). The authors found that 2% of the surveyed faculty members had burnout syndrome and 15.1% had perceived stress (Cárdenas Rodríguez et al., 2014). Cárdenas et al. (2014) found that burnout was negatively correlated to age, years of teaching, and years with the university ( $r = -0.264, p = .008$ ;  $r = -0.359, p = .001$ ;  $r = -0.227, p = .026$ , respectively). Faculty members who had administrative tasks experienced more burnout ( $Z = -1.906, p = 0.29$ ) (Cárdenas Rodríguez et al., 2014). The results regarding years of teaching and the negative relation with burnout syndrome were consistent with findings by Arquero Montano et al. (2006).

McCann and Holt (2009) explored the presence of burnout syndrome among 76 online educators who were surveyed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory for Educators developed by Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter in 1996. McCann and Holt (2009) found high personal realization ( $M = 40.6, SD = 5.6$ ) and low presence of emotional exhaustion ( $M = 10.2, SD = 7.1$ ) and depersonalization ( $M = 2.9, SD = 3.2$ ). However, contrary to the results of Arquero Montano et al. (2006), McCann and Holt (2009) found that there was no relationship between experience and the dimensions of emotional exhaustion ( $r = 0.19$ ), depersonalization ( $r = 0.24$ ), and personal realization ( $r = 0.03$ ). More studies regarding the relationship between years of teaching and burnout syndrome in faculty members are needed to clarify if the different results can be related to the online setting. McCann and Holt (2009) could have considered the different methods of online education to make the results more generalizable.

Studies regarding burnout syndrome among Colombian faculties exist (Bareño Silva, Berbesi Fernandez, & Montoya Zapata, 2008; Correa-Correa et al., 2010; Ferrel Ortega et al., 2010 ; Enriquez Villota & GarzónVelásquez , 2010; Gonzales et al., 2011). In these studies, researchers focused on the presence of burnout and the relationship of burnout to other variables. Bareño Silva, Berbesi Fernandez, and Montoya Zapata (2008) wanted to determine the presence of burnout in the city of Medellin, Colombia. Research was performed among 95 nursing faculties who answered the MBI (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) to determine the presence of burnout (Bareño Silva et al., 2008). Results showed that 49.5% had emotional exhaustion, 33.7% had depersonalization, and 56.8% had low personal realization (Bareño Silva et al., 2008). Bareño Silva et al. (2008) examined other variables related to burnout syndrome. For example, Bareño Silva et al. (2008)

found that low pay was related to emotional exhaustion ( $X^2 = 2.5, p = .000$ ), depersonalization ( $X^2 = 2.51, p = .007$ ), and low personal realization ( $X^2 = 2.61, p = .000$ ). In addition, it was shown that faculty members who experienced emotional exhaustion got sick more ( $X^2 = 2.39, p = .0005$ ) than those with depersonalization ( $X^2 = 1.7, p = 0.1$ ) and low personal realization ( $X^2 = 1.26, p = .22$ ) (Bareño Silva et al., 2008). Bareño Silva et al. (2008) contributed to the burnout theory framework because they studied the relationship between variables such salary and sickness, and faculty burnout. A similar study could be performed in other Colombian cities and universities to generalize the findings.

Expanding the geographical area of the research by Bareño Silva et al. (2008), Ferrel Ortega, Pedraza, and Rubio (2009) performed a study in the city of Santa Marta, Colombia. In a descriptive study, 225 faculty members from the Magdalena University in Colombia answered the MBI educational form developed by Maslach and Jackson in 1986 (Ferrel Ortega et al., 2009). The sample had 79% hourly faculty members, 16% full-time faculty members, and 5% occasional faculty members. Ferrel Ortega et al. (2009) found that 20% of hourly faculty members, 8% of full-time faculty members, and 9% of occasional faculty members experienced emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, 81% of hourly and full-time faculty members and 73% of occasional faculty members experienced low personal realization (Ferrel Ortega et al., 2009). Additionally, Ferrel Ortega et al. (2009) noted that burnout was related to years of teaching. Faculty members with 21 or more years of experience were considered to have high in levels of emotional exhaustion (13%), depersonalization (11%), and personal realization (18%), respectively.

Correa-Correa et al. (2010) conducted a quantitative and transversal study in the city of Popayan, Colombia. Two private universities participated in the study. Burnout syndrome of 44 faculty members was measured using the MBI (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Of the surveyed faculty members, 18% had average emotional exhaustion, 4% had average-high depersonalization, and 46% had low personal realization (Correa-Correa et al., 2010). To complement the study by Correa-Correa et al. (2010), Correa-Correa (2012) surveyed 233 faculty members who worked at a Colombian public university in Popayan. The participants answered the MBI (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) to determine the presence of burnout syndrome (Correa-Correa, 2012). Of the sampled faculty members, 1% had emotional exhaustion, 12% had depersonalization, and 3% had low personal realization (Correa-Correa, 2012). New studies in Colombia are needed to define the relationship between burnout syndrome and public or private universities.

Like Ferrel Ortega et al. (2010), other variables that influence burnout, including age and working hours, were explored by Correa-Correa et al. (2010) and Correa-Correa (2012). Correa-Correa et al. (2010) found faculty members who were between 20 and 40 years old and who worked in private universities had more depersonalization ( $X^2(N = 3) = 0.744, p < .05$ ) than those faculty members between 41 and 65 years old ( $X^2(N = 1) = 0.744, p < .05$ ). Faculty members who worked 48 hours or more per week had more depersonalization ( $X^2(N = 4) = 0.07, p < .05$ ) than those who worked less hours ( $X^2(N = 0) = 0.07, p < .05$ ) (Correa-Correa et al., 2010). Results from public universities were consistent with the study by Correa-Correa et al. (2010). Faculty members who were between 20 and 40 years old had more depersonalization ( $X^2(N = 10) = 0.751, p < .05$ ) than those who were between 41 and 65 years old ( $X^2(N = 19) = 0.751, p < .05$ ) (Correa-

Correa, 2012). Faculty members who worked 48 hours or more per week had more depersonalization ( $X^2(N = 19) = 0.016, p < .05$ ) than those who worked less hours ( $X^2(N = 10) = 0.016, p < .05$ ) (Correa-Correa, 2012). The researcher should have explored the other dimensions of burnout syndrome among faculty members. Further research regarding age and year of teaching in public and private Colombian universities is needed to determine the antecedents of burnout syndrome among faculties.

Gonzales Portillo, Rivas Martin, Portela Daza, and Alfonso Martin (2011) partially filled the gaps in the study by Ferrel Ortega et al. (2009), Correa-Correa et al. (2010) regarding the identification of other variables that influence burnout syndrome. Gonzales Portillo et al. (2011) focused on the identification of burnout among occasional faculty members. In the study by Gonzales Portillo et al. (2011), 22 occasional Colombian faculty members answered the MBI developed by Maslach and Jackson in 1981. Analysis of the data showed 14% of the sample had high burnout, 82% had medium burnout, and 5% had low burnout (Gonzales Portillo et al., 2011). However, Gonzales Portillo et al. (2011) used a small sample; therefore, additional investigation is needed to determine the relationship between the types of contracts (hourly, fulltime, or occasional) and burnout.

Rojas Botero and Grisales Romero (2011) conducted a further study with the goal to complement research by Ferrel Ortega et al. (2009) and Gonzales Portillo et al. (2011) and determined the presence of burnout syndrome and its relation with each contract type (hourly, full-time, or occasional). Rojas Botero and Grisales Romero (2011) conducted their research in Medellin, Colombia, with 89 faculty members answering the MBI developed by Maslach and Jackson in 1981. Unlike the study by Ferrel Ortega et al.

(2009), the sample was more homogeneous, consisting of 44% per hour faculty members, 34% full-time faculty members, and 24% occasional faculty members. The data collected showed an average score of 12.6 out of 54 possible points in the emotional exhaustion dimension, 1.4 out of 30 possible points in the depersonalization dimension, and 42.4 out of 48 possible points in the personal realization dimension (Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011).

Rojas Botero and Grisales Romero (2011) found that 19.1% of the sample participants were in the high range of burnout, and 49.4% were at risk of suffering burnout. According to the type of contract, full-time faculty members experienced the lowest personal realization levels (42.9%) and the highest emotional exhaustion levels (33.3%). Additionally, occasional faculty members (33.3%) had the highest score for depersonalization (Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011). The results were contradictory to the study by Ferrel Ortega et al. (2009), who found a lower presence of emotional exhaustion in full-time faculty members and a higher presence of low personal realization in occasional faculty members. Therefore, in Colombia, more studies are needed to identify the relationship between types of contracts and burnout.

Results by Escudero Macluff, Ortiz Garcia, & Delfin Beltran (2013) were contradictory to findings from Correa-Correa et al. (2010), Correa-Correa (2012), and Ferrel Ortega et al. (2009). Escudero Macluff et al. (2013) found, in a sample of 130 faculty members of the Veracruzana University in Mexico, that among faculty members who had 20 years or more of experience, only 6% reported a high level of emotional exhaustion, and 5% of depersonalization. Therefore, more studies regarding the relationship between years of teaching and burnout of faculties are needed to explain the

opposite results. One noted limitation of the study by Escudero Macluff et al. (2013) was that most of the sample was comprised of hourly faculty members. As a result, the sample should have been homogeneous to make the results more generalizable.

Burnout and its relationship to other variables, such as psychosocial factors and coping strategies, were studied among Colombian faculty members. Faculty members face psychosocial risk in their work (Silva Gutierrez & Flores, 2012). Caballero Dominguez et al. (2009) conducted a study involving 213 full-time faculty members, working in 9 different academic programs. Participating faculty members worked at Simon Bolivar University in Barranquilla, Colombia (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009). Caballero Dominguez et al. (2009) asked faculty participants to answer the psychosocial factor section of the Burnout Questionnaire for faculty members (CBPR) developed by Moreno, Garrosa, and Gonzalez in 2000 and the Questionnaire of Burnout Syndrome (QESQT) developed by Gil-Montes in 2003. The QESQT was used to measure the same dimensions of the MBI, but included the additional dimension of guilt toward negative job attitudes (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009). The CBPR assessed professional concerns such as cancelation of work contract, student aggression, and bad relationships with superiors and coworkers (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009). Additionally, the CBPR was used to determine the lack of professional recognition such as low salary, poor organizational recognition, and absence of support for personal or professional problems (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009).

An analysis of the data showed that 11.9% of faculty members experienced low personal realization and emotional exhaustion, while 10.9% of faculty members experienced depersonalization and guilt. When the QESQT total was added, 9.9% of the



surveyed faculty members presented high levels of burnout syndrome, and of that 9.9%, 2% had clinical manifestations of the syndrome such as cognitive loss (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009). Analysis of the data obtained by the CBPR regarding professional concerns showed that 23.8% of faculty members were worried about cancellation of their contracts, 23.8% felt harassed by their students, and 30.7% were affected by bad relationships with superiors and coworkers (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009).

When reviewing the lack of professional recognition, 25.7% of participants considered their salary low, 20.8% felt that they had no organizational recognition, and 30.7% felt they had no support for personal or professional problems (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009). Caballero Dominguez et al. (2009) concluded that professional concern was negatively related to personal realization ( $r = 0.3967, p > .01$ ) and positively related to emotional exhaustion ( $r = 0.333, p > .01$ ), depersonalization ( $r = 0.301, p > .01$ ), and guilt ( $r = 0.390, p > .01$ ). The lack of professional recognition was positively related to emotional exhaustion ( $r = 0.359, p > .01$ ), personal realization ( $r = 0.263, p > .01$ ), and depersonalization ( $r = 0.393, p > .01$ ) (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009). Further research is needed in the field of prevention to increase the quality of life for faculty members and increase the quality of education (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009).

Coping strategies for burnout syndrome were also identified among Colombian faculty members (Barbosa Ramirez et al., 2009). In a study conducted at a private university in Bogotá, Colombia, 30 faculty members answered the MBI developed by Maslach and Jackson in 1981 and the Multidimensional Scale of Coping Factors

developed by Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub in 1989 (Barbosa Ramirez et al., 2009). Barbosa Ramirez, Muñoz Ortega, Rueda Villamizar, and Suárez Leiton (2009) followed the proposal made by Ferrell et al. (2009) regarding future studies on alcohol and drugs as coping strategies for burnout. The categories of the coping factors included (a) active coping; (b) planning; (c) suppression of competing activities; (d) restraint coping; (e) seeking social support for instrumental or emotional reasons; (f) positive reinterpretation and growth; (g) acceptance; (h) turning to religion; (i) focus on and venting of emotions; (j) denial; and (k) behavioral, mental, or alcohol/drug disengagement (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). Active coping is the process to suppress or lessen a stressor (Carver et al., 1989). Planning is the process of thinking about the stressor and how to cope with it (Carver et al., 1989).

Suppression of competing activities indicates that the person focuses only on the stressor (Carver et al., 1989). Restrain coping is the process of waiting to act on the stressor (Carver et al., 1989). Seeking social or instrumental support is the process of seeking advice or moral support (Carver et al., 1989). Positive reinterpretation and growth are used to manage distress emotions rather than the stressor (Carver et al., 1989). Acceptance is the engagement in the attempt to deal with the situation (Carver et al., 1989). Turning to religion served as a source of emotional support (Carver et al., 1989). Focus on and venting of emotions expresses the feeling of distress (Carver et al., 1989). Denial is the refusal to believe in the existence of the stressor (Carver et al., 1989). Behavioral, mental, or alcohol-drug disengagement is the use of different tactics as distraction from thinking about a problem (Carver et al., 1989).

Analysis of the data showed a low presence of the dimensions of burnout, known as emotional exhaustion and depersonalization ( $M = 16.94$  and  $M = 8.53$ , respectively), and an average presence of personal realization ( $M = 25.64$ ; Barbosa Ramirez et al., 2009). Additionally, the coping factors most used by the surveyed faculty members included (a) personal development (12.21%), (b) active coping (11.43%), (c) planning (11.25%), and (d) positive reinterpretation and growth (10.93%). After the data were analyzed, emotional exhaustion was positively related to active coping ( $r = 0.3694$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and palliative measures ( $r = 0.3991$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Depersonalization was positively related to denial ( $r = 0.3706$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and behavioral disengagement ( $r = 0.3967$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Personal realization was positively related to behavioral disengagement ( $r = 0.4447$ ,  $p > .05$ ) (Barbosa Ramirez et al., 2009). Barbosa Ramirez et al. (2009) contradicted the studies of Caballero Dominguez et al. (2009), Ferrel Ortega et al. (2009), and Rojas Botero and Grisales Romero (2011), who found the presence of burnout syndrome existed among Colombian faculty members. One probable reason for the contradiction was that being part of an educational school is a protective measure against the syndrome because the faculty members see teaching as a personal accomplishment and have better coping strategies (Barbosa Ramirez et al., 2009).

Other researchers of burnout syndrome among faculty members examined the consequences such as turnover intentions, engagement, and teacher performance (Gamarra, Jimenez, and Puig, 2009). In a research study made in three Spanish universities, antecedents and consequences of burnout were studied (Gamarra et al., 2009). Work demands, conflicts, and work resources were identified as antecedents of burnout syndrome and subsequent turnover intentions were explored in a sample of 885

faculty members (Gamarra et al., 2009). The instruments used were the Psychosocial Demands Survey developed by Benavides, Ruiz, and Garcia in 2009, the Maslach Burnout Inventory developed by Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter in 1996, the Turnover Questionnaire developed by Galvez in 2007, and a Self-developed Questionnaire regarding interpersonal conflict (Gamarra et al., 2009). Results showed that gender ( $\beta = 0.15, p < .01$ ), work demands ( $\beta = 0.39, p < .001$ ), and conflict ( $\beta = 0.14, p < .001$ ) were positively related to emotional exhaustion (Gamarra et al., 2009). Also, age ( $\beta = -.12, p < .001$ ) and work resources ( $\beta = -.14, p < .001$ ) were negatively related to emotional exhaustion (Gamarra et al., 2009).

Work demands ( $\beta = 0.14, p < .001$ ) and conflict ( $\beta = 0.28, p < .001$ ) were positively related to depersonalization (Gamarra et al., 2009). Age ( $\beta = -.8, p < .05$ ) and work resources ( $\beta = -.24, p < .001$ ) were negatively related to depersonalization (Gamarra et al., 2009). Gamarra et al. (2009) concluded that emotional exhaustion and depersonalization were positively related to turnover intentions ( $\beta = .23; \beta = .20, p < .001$ , respectively) and work resources were negatively related to turnover intentions ( $\beta = -.27, p < .001$ ). The researchers added to the burnout theory, empirical evidence regarding the relationship between burnout, and turnover intentions of faculty (Gamarra et al., 2009). The study had limitations regarding the number of universities participating because Spanish universities are numerous.

Burnout syndrome has an effect on engagement (Kuster-Boluda, & Vila Lopez, 2012). Engagement was defined as the emotional state of commitment to the students' satisfaction and value added through teaching (Kuster-Boluda & Vila Lopez, 2012). In a Spanish university, 45 faculty members answered the MBI (Maslach & Jackson, 1981)

and Work Engagement Scale developed by Schaufeli and Bakker in 2003 to determine the relationship between burnout and engagement (Kuster-Boluda & Vila Lopez, 2012). Of the sample population, 77.8% had a low presence of emotional exhaustion and 84.4% had a low presence of cynicism (Kuster-Boluda & Vila Lopez, 2012). Burnout syndrome was found to be negatively related to engagement ( $\beta = -.64, p < .001$ ; Kuster-Boluda & Vila Lopez, 2012). The study had a limitation regarding the sample size because it should be larger to generalize the results.

Faculty performance is affected by burnout syndrome (Cárdenas Rodríguez, 2014). A quantitative correlation study was performed in a Mexican university to determine the relationship between burnout syndrome and teaching performance (Cardenas Rodriguez, 2014). The sample population was comprised of 59 faculty members who answered the Perceived Stress Scale developed by Cohen, Kamarak, and Memelstein in 1983, the Burnout Questionnaire of Faculty developed by Moreno, Garrosa, and Gonzalez in 2000, and a Self-developed Faculty Performance Evaluation (Cardenas Rodriguez et al., 2014). Cardenas Rodriguez et al. (2014) concluded that low personal realization was negatively related to teaching performance ( $r = -.446, p = .003$ ), lack of supervisor support, and poor organizational environment ( $r = -.361, p = .019$ ;  $r = .308, p = .047$ , respectively). The study could have included other universities of Mexico to have a larger sample in the study and make the results more generalizable.

The teaching profession in higher education institutions was identified as an occupation with a high risk of developing burnout syndrome (Enríquez Villota & Garzón Velasquez, 2010), because of long working hours, high dedication, and increasing organizational demands (Ferrel Ortega et al., 2009). Burnout has physiological and

physical effects that affect universities because of absenteeism and turnover (Terán Rosero & Botero Alvarez, 2011). Faculty members with burnout lose interest in fulfilling the students' needs (Kuster-Boluda & Vila Lopez, 2012) and decreases their teaching performance (Cárdenas Rodriguez et al., 2014). Mixed results were obtained regarding burnout presence among Colombian faculty. Bareño Silva et al. (2008), Caballero Dominguez et al. (2009), Correa-Correa et al. (2010), Ferrel Ortega et al. (2009), and Rojas Botero and Grisales Romero (2011) identified a low and high presence of the syndrome among Colombian faculty members, while Barbosa Ramirez et al. (2009) did not find the syndrome in the country.

Future research is needed to clarify the presence or absence of burnout in Colombian faculty members. Likewise, research in the area of prevention was suggested to reduce health problems in Colombia (Bareño Silva et al., 2008; Cárdenas Rodriguez et al., 2014; Ferrel Ortega et al., 2009; Silva Gutierrez & Flores, 2012; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011), decrease chronic stress and burnout (Correa-Correa et al., 2010; Magaña Medina et al., 2014), and increase the quality of Colombian higher education (Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011). Recommendations for future research are consistent with the proposed study regarding variables used to prevent burnout syndrome. Therefore, the relationship between the leadership style of deans, organizational commitment, and burnout will be explored.

### **Burnout Syndrome and Organizational Commitment in Higher Education**

Few studies regarding burnout and organizational commitment in higher education have been conducted in Second and Third World countries (Karakus et al., 2014; Mercado-Salgado & Gil-Monte, 2010; Nagar, 2012; Salehi & Gholtash, 2011;

Yongzhan, 2014). However, researchers of organizational commitment and its effect on burnout syndrome in higher education had two foci. Some researchers explored burnout as an antecedent of organizational commitment (Nagar, 2012; Salehi & Gholtash, 2011; Yongzhan, 2014), while others explored burnout syndrome resulting from organizational commitment (Mercado-Salgado & Gil-Monte, 2010). The researchers explored the influence of variables such as personal conflicts and organizational justice in burnout syndrome.

Nagar (2012) inquired about burnout as an antecedent of organizational commitment. Nagar (2012) researched the effect that burnout had on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Job satisfaction reflects the degree of happiness that an employee has with a job and the reaction that an employee has toward the work experience (Berry, 1997). A sample of 153 faculty members of the Jammu University in India answered the OCQ developed in 1993 by Meyer and Allen, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, and the MBI developed in 1986 by Maslach and Jackson (Nagar, 2012). The proposed model indicated that the three dimensions of burnout were related to job satisfaction and that job satisfaction was related to organizational commitment.

Using factor analysis, Nagar (2012) concluded that the direct path from depersonalization to job satisfaction was significant ( $\beta = .72, p < .05, t = 11.46$ ). Nagar (2012) found that the direct path from personal realization to job satisfaction was significant ( $\beta = .18, p < .05, t = 4.01$ ). Additionally, Nagar (2012) found that the direct path from emotional exhaustion to job satisfaction was significant ( $\beta = .15, p < .05, t = 2.70$ ). Additionally, Nagar (2012) found that the final direct path from job satisfaction to

organizational commitment was also significant ( $\beta = .33, p < .05$ ). Nagar (2012) established that increased depersonalization had a negative impact on satisfaction, high emotional exhaustion and low personal realization decreased job satisfaction, and high levels of job satisfaction increased organizational commitment. The study was limited regarding the sample size and the inclusion of only one university. Future researchers could include universities from the public and private sector (Nagar, 2012).

Salehi and Gholtash (2011) explored the relationship between job satisfaction, burnout, organizational commitment and organizational citizen behavior. The sample was comprised of 341 faculties that worked in the Islamic Azad University in Tehran (Salehi & Gholtash, 2011). Faculties answered the scale of organizational citizenship behavior developed by Podsakoff in 2000, the organizational commitment questionnaire developed by Meyer and Allen in 1991 and the burnout questionnaire developed by Maslach and Jackson in 1996 (Salehi & Gholtash, 2011). The authors found that organizational commitment was negatively related to job burnout ( $r = -0.57, p < .01$ ), job satisfaction was positively related to organizational commitment ( $r = 0.75, p < .01$ ) and burnout was negatively related to organizational citizenship behavior ( $r = -0.85, p < .01$ ) (Salehi & Gholtash, 2011).

Organizational justice is the perception made by the employee that what he or she receives and how he or she is treated in the organization is fair, equitable, and within moral and ethical standards (Cropanzano, Bowen, & Gilliland, 2007). Organizational justice has three dimensions: (a) distributive, (b) procedural, and (c) interactional (Bies & Moag, 1986; Levental, 1980). Distributive justice is the perception of fairness in a decision outcome (Levental, 1976). Procedural justice is the perception of fairness in a



decision-making process (Levental, 1976). Interactional justice is the interpersonal treatment that people receive during the decision-making process (Bies & Moag, 1986).

Perceiving a lack of investigation regarding the relationship between organizational justice, the affective component of organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome among faculty members, Yongzhan (2014) performed a cross-sectional study in five universities in the province of Henan, China. A sample of 435 faculty members answered the MBI, developed by Maslach in 1993, the organizational justice questionnaire, developed by Colquitt in 2001, and 6 items from the OCQ, developed by Meyer and Allen in 1997 (Yongzhan, 2014). Using the model, Yongzhan (2014) explored the direct and indirect relationship between the three dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional), affective commitment, and the three dimensions of burnout (emotional exhaustion, personal realization, and depersonalization). From the structural model, Yongzhan (2014) showed that interactional justice and procedural justice were positively related to affective commitment ( $\beta = .10, p < .001$ ;  $\beta = .41, p < .05$ ) and personal realization ( $\beta = .55, p < .001$ ). Yongzhan (2014) found that personal realization was positively related to affective commitment ( $\beta = .24, p < .00$ ). Finally, Yongzhan (2014) showed that interactional justice was negatively related to emotional exhaustion ( $\beta = -.59, p < .001$ ), and emotional exhaustion was negatively related to affective commitment ( $\beta = -.20, p < .05$ ). The author concluded that burnout has a mediating effect between organizational justice and affective commitment (Yongzhan, 2014).

Additionally, Yongzhan (2014) found that by reducing the level of emotional exhaustion and improving personal realization, affective commitment was increased.

One of the limitations of the study was that it did not include the other two dimensions of organizational commitment. Yongzhan's (2014) results were consistent with Nagar's (2012) results regarding the indirect effect that burnout has on organizational commitment. However, the studies had two different mediating variables (organizational justice and job satisfaction). More research is needed to allow the results to be generalized.

Bad interpersonal relationships with clients, coworkers, and supervisors are a predictor of burnout, because they cause psychological distress (Fujiwara, Tsukishima, Tsutsumi, Kawakami, & Kishi, 2003) and depersonalization (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). To expand previous research into the educational sector, Mercado-Salgado and Gil-Monte (2010) performed an investigation in Mexican universities and hospitals to explore the relationship between interpersonal conflict, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome. In the study by Mercado-Salgado and Gil-Monte (2010), 389 workers within the educational and health sector in Mexico responded to the burnout questionnaire developed by Gil-Monte in 2005, the interpersonal conflict questionnaire developed by the psychosocial unit of research in organizational behavior (UNIPSICO) of the Valencia Spain University, and the OCQ developed in 1990 by Meyer and Allen in 1990. Interpersonal conflicts were positively related to burnout syndrome ( $r = 0.482, p < .01$ ), and normative and affective commitments were negatively related to burnout syndrome ( $r = -0.237, p < .01$ ;  $r = -0.350, p < .01$ ), respectively.

When the variables organizational commitment and interpersonal conflict were combined, mixed results were obtained (Mercado-Salgado & Gil-Monte, 2010). Mercado-Salgado and Gil-Monte (2010) found that individuals with low perception of

interpersonal conflict had low burnout syndrome and increased organizational commitment ( $\beta = .306, \Delta R^2 = 0.11, p < .05$ ). Additionally, Mercado-Salgado and Gil-Monte (2010) noted that employees with high perception of interpersonal conflict had a high presence of burnout and decreased organizational commitment ( $\beta = -.329, \Delta R^2 = 0.59, p < .001$ ). Mercado-Salgado and Gil-Monte (2010) concluded that the dimension of affective commitment can prevent burnout syndrome, because the employee feels morally and emotionally attached to the organization. The study had a limitation regarding the sample population, which included different university employees. Future researchers should include only faculty members to evaluate the influence of organizational commitment on burnout syndrome.

In one interesting study, Karakus, Ustuner, and Toprak (2014) analyzed both points of view of burnout as an antecedent and outcome of organizational commitment. Karakus et al. (2014) investigated the interaction between organizational justice perceptions, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and burnout in educational supervisors. Educational supervisors work under the Ministry of Education in Turkey and oversee all educational institutions in the country (Karakus et al., 2014). Employee perception of organizational justice influences their work attitudes and their behaviors toward the organization (Karakus et al., 2014). A random sample of 350 education supervisors participated in the study and answered the organizational commitment scale developed in 2009 by Ustuner, the MBI developed in 1981 by Maslach, and the organizational justice scale developed in 1993 by Niehoff and Moorman (Karakus et al., 2014). Burnout was hypothesized as an antecedent of organizational commitment in the first model and as a consequence in the second (Karakus et al., 2014).

In the first model, organizational justice preceded burnout, burnout preceded job satisfaction, and job satisfaction preceded organizational commitment (Karakus et al., 2014). The model showed that organizational justice had a direct positive effect on job satisfaction ( $\beta = .30, p < .00$ ) and organizational commitment ( $\beta = .45, p < .00$ ) (Karakus et al., 2014). Organizational justice had a direct negative effect on burnout ( $\beta = -.17, p < .00$ ), burnout had a direct negative impact of job satisfaction ( $\beta = -.43, p < .00$ ), and job satisfaction had a direct positive effect on organizational commitment ( $\beta = .32, p < .00$ ) (Karakus et al., 2014). No significant relation was found between organizational commitment and burnout (Karakus et al., 2014).

In the second model, burnout was the consequence, while organizational justice, organizational commitment, and their relationship were mediated by job satisfaction. Organizational justice had a positive direct effect on job satisfaction ( $\beta = .37, p < .00$ ) and job satisfaction had a negative direct effect on burnout ( $\beta = -.48, p < .00$ ) (Karakus et al., 2014). Organizational justice was directly and positively related to organizational commitment ( $\beta = .46, p < .00$ ) and job satisfaction was directly and positively related to organizational commitment ( $\beta = .32, p < .00$ ) (Karakus et al., 2014). No significant direct relationship was found between organizational commitment and burnout, and organizational justice and burnout (Karakus et al., 2014). Karakus et al. (2014) concluded that in the first model, burnout mediated the relationship between organizational justice, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. In the second model, Karakus et al. (2014) concluded that burnout was the consequence of low job satisfaction and low organizational justice. In their study, Karakus et al. (2014) followed the same path as research by Yongzhan (2014), because both groups of researchers

explored the relationship between organizational justice, organizational commitment, and burnout.

There have been few empirical studies regarding organizational commitment and burnout in the educational sector. Scarce studies were found in Latin American countries and Colombia. Nevertheless, the studies by Mercado-Salgado and Gil-Monte (2010), Karakus et al. (2014), Nagar (2012), Salehi & Gholtash, (2011), and Yongzhan (2014) contributed to the empirical research regarding the relationship between organizational commitment and burnout. However, the relationship between organizational commitment and burnout in the educational context needs further research to clarify the antecedent or outcome dilemma (Karakus et al., 2014). The relationship between organizational commitment and burnout is inconclusive. While Mercado-Salgado and Gil-Monte (2012) concluded that low burnout is a consequence of high organizational commitment, Karakus et al. (2014), Nagar (2012), Salehi & Gholtash, (2011), and Yongzhan (2014) found that burnout is an antecedent of organizational commitment.

Nevertheless, future researchers should focus on such relationships because of the importance of preventing burnout syndrome among faculty members at higher education institutions. It has to be noted that burnout affects a person's decision to remain with an organization (Nagar, 2012). Absenteeism and high turnover have an elevated cost for institutions (Nagar, 2012). Additionally, future researchers can explore other antecedents of affective commitment (Yongzhan, 2014). Therefore, the proposed study will be used to explore deans' leadership as an antecedent of organizational commitment and organizational commitment as an antecedent of burnout syndrome.

## Summary

Researchers involved in organizational commitment of faculty have focused on the difference of organizational commitment in public and private universities (Balay, 2012; Khan et al, 2013; Maldonado-Radillo et al., 2012; Zia & Tufal, 2011). However, studies of the presence of organizational commitment between faculties working in public and private institutions have been inconclusive. Future researchers should explore such differences to clarify the difference between organizational commitment in public and private universities. Employment traits influence organizational commitment. Variables, such as salary, teaching experience, and educational background, have a positive effect on organizational commitment (Carver et al., 2011; Farooq et al., 2011; Fisher et al., 2010; Tabbodi, 2009). Nevertheless, the effect on organizational commitment of variables such as age and gender is unclear. Further research is needed to explain the influence of age and gender on organizational commitment.

Dean leadership is related to organizational commitment of faculty. A positive direct relationship between leadership style of deans and organizational commitment was found in several studies (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006; Nordin, 2012; Othman et al., 2013; Rehman et al., 2012; Tabbodi, 2009; Yu, 2013). However, no studies were located that determine the relationship between deans' leadership and organizational commitment of faculty in Latin American countries and more specifically in Colombia.

Burnout levels between research faculty and regular faculty members are different. However, contradictory results were obtained, and it could not be determined if the type of contract influences faculty burnout (Arquero Montano & Donoso Anes, 2013; Magaña Medina et al. 2014). Also, years of teaching and type of contract (hourly,

fulltime, or occasional) influenced burnout syndrome (Escudero Macluff et al., 2013; Ferrel Ortega et al., 2009; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011). Nevertheless, such influence remained unclear, and more research is needed to clarify whether faculty with more years of teaching or with a particular type of contract are at risk of developing the syndrome. The presence of burnout syndrome among Colombian faculty members was explored with mixed results (Barbosa Ramirez et al., 2009; Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Ferrel Ortega et al., 2009; Rojas & Grisales, 2011). Studies are needed to determine the presence or absence of burnout in Colombian faculty. Such research is important, because burnout has an effect on turnover intentions, faculty engagement and teaching performance (Cérdenas Rodríguez et al., 2012; Kuster-Boluda & Vila Lopez, 2012; Gamarra et al., 2009;).

The relationship between burnout and organizational commitment in faculty is unclear. Mercado-Salgado and Gil-Monte (2010) concluded that organizational commitment is an antecedent of burnout. Yet, Karakus et al. (2014), Yongzhan (2014), Nagar (2012) and Salehi and Gholtash (2011) concluded that burnout is an antecedent of organizational commitment. Some researchers even suggested that organizational justice, job satisfaction, and interpersonal conflict mediate the relationship between the two variables (Mercado-Salgado & Gil-Monte, 2010; Yongzhan, 2014). Further studies regarding the antecedent or outcome predicament are needed to clarify the issue.

### Chapter 3: Research Method

One of the health problems that faculty members face, based on work-related stress, is known as burnout syndrome (Botero Alvarez, 2012). In the last six years, Colombian faculty members have been affected by burnout syndrome, with a reportedly moderate to high presence of the syndrome (Correa-Correa, 2012; Ferrel Ortega et al., 2010; Gonzalez Portillo et al., 2011); however, existing researchers failed to consider possible variables associated with faculty burnout, namely organizational commitment and deans' leadership styles that have been explored in American and European universities (Saeed et al., 2013; Jones & Rudd, 2008; Magaña Medina et al., 2014; Moreno-Jimenez et al., 2009). Therefore, researchers have not clearly identified variables or predictors that explain the high or low presence of burnout syndrome (Ferrel Ortega et al., 2010; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011) in Colombian faculty.

Burnout syndrome negatively affects Colombian higher education institutions, as increased economic resources are spent replacing faculty members because of resulting illness and turnover (Botero Alvarez, 2012; Nagar, 2012; Terán Rosero & Botero Alvarez, 2011). The institutions also show a decrease in the quality of education based on low performance of faculty members (Cárdenas Rodriguez et al., 2014). Researchers have suggested further research regarding burnout syndrome among Colombian faculty with the eventual goal of prevention (Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011) and reducing propensity for burnout (Shepherd et al., 2011). Burnout syndrome among faculty has been present in countries such as Colombia, México, Spain, and Chile (Barbosa Ramirez et al., 2009; Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Cárdenas Rodriguez et



al., 2014; Darrigrande Osario & Durán Figueroa, 2012; Gamarra et al., 2009; Terán Rosero & Botero Alvarez, 2011).

Adding to the body of knowledge with regard to Colombian universities in order to determine its presence across Latin American countries is necessary (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011). Studies regarding burnout syndrome among faculty, organizational commitment, and leadership style are important for Colombian university officials (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011) to increase faculty satisfaction and decrease turnover intentions (Nagar, 2012). Research involving faculty perception of deans' leadership and their relationship to organizational commitment and burnout is needed to improve the working conditions and quality of life of faculty (Caballero Dominguez et al., 2009; Terán Rosero & Botero Alvarez, 2011) and avoid possible employee health problems in Colombia (Segura, 2014).

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was twofold: (1) to examine the relationships among the variables of faculty perception of deans' leadership, organizational commitment of faculty, and burnout among Colombian university faculty, and (2) to identify what, if any, direct and indirect effects the variables of faculty perception of deans' leadership and organizational commitment of faculty have on burnout among Colombian university faculty. Path analysis was used to investigate the direct and indirect relationships among these variables (Smeenck et al., 2009). Perception of deans' leadership was the exogenous variable [variable whose change is explained by other factors] (Lleras, 2005), while burnout syndrome was the endogenous variable [variable whose variation is explained by other variables] (Lleras, 2005), and

organizational commitment was the intervening endogenous variable [variable that is the cause and effect of other variables] (Lleras, 2005).

The population for the proposed quantitative correlational study was faculties that teach at the university level in the city of Bogotá, Colombia. The population included the 301 faculty members currently employed by three universities located in the city of Bogotá, Colombia. Researchers must be cognizant of issues of the parameters of statistical power and effect size when initially proposing research before collecting data. The estimated minimum sample size for the proposed research using G\*Power 3.1.9.2<sup>®</sup> with a margin of error of 5%, a level of confidence of 95%, a population of 301 people and a response of distribution of 50% (to obtain the largest sample size) was 170 participants.

The data were gathered through the administration of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X), the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). Data were analyzed using correlation and regression techniques as prescribed by path analysis (Smeenk et al., 2009). The proposed study was founded on the theoretical frameworks of leadership style, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome. Findings from the study expanded the knowledge base regarding the identification of those variables that prevent or contribute to burnout syndrome among Colombian faculty. Prevention of burnout syndrome will benefit higher education institutions and Colombian society because, according to Castro and Araújo (2012), prevention of burnout decreases health diseases and work stress.

In the proposed study, the following research questions and hypotheses were examined:

RQ1. What relationships, if any, exist among the variables of faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (i.e., transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire), organizational commitment (i.e., affective, continuance, and normative), and burnout syndrome (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization)?

H<sub>0</sub>1. There are no significant relationships among the variables of perception of deans' leadership, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome.

H<sub>a</sub>1. There is a statistically significant relationship among at least one pair of the variables of perception of deans' leadership, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome.

RQ2. What direct effects, if any, do Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) have on the three components of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) and on burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization)?

H<sub>0</sub>2. There are no statistically significant direct effects of Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) on the three components of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) or burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization).

H<sub>a</sub>2. There is one or more statistically significant direct effects of Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) on the three components of organizational commitment (affective,

continuance, and normative) or burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization).

RQ3. What direct effects, if any, does organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) have on burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization) among faculty in Colombian higher education institutions?

H<sub>0</sub>3. There are no statistically significant direct effects of the level of Colombian university faculty's perception of the three components of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) on the three components of burnout syndrome.

H<sub>a</sub>3. There is one or more statistically significant direct effects of the level of Colombian university faculty's perception of the three components of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) on the three components of burnout syndrome.

RQ4. What indirect effects, if any, do Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) have on the three components of burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization)?

H<sub>0</sub>4. There are no statistically significant indirect effects of Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) on the three components of burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization).

H<sub>a</sub>4. There are one or more statistically significant indirect effects of Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and

laissez-faire) on the three components of burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization).

### **Research Methods and Design**

This study used a quantitative correlational design to explore the relationship between faculty perception of the dean's leadership style, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome among Colombian university faculty. A correlational design is the most appropriate design because it provides evidence of a relationship between a set of independent predictors and dependent variables (Thompson et al., 2005). Correlational studies are quantitative designs where analytic methods such as multiple and multivariate regression analyses are used (Thompson et al., 2005). A multivariate statistical analysis technique known as path analysis was used to investigate the direct and indirect relationships among these variables (Smeenck et al., 2009). Therefore, using the general linear model procedure, this research used the path analysis technique to link the independent variables of leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) to the moderating variables for organizational commitment dimensions (affective, continuance, and normative) and then to the dependent variables of burnout syndrome indicators (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization). The coefficients' weights from the bootstrapping analyses were used as the path coefficients in the model.

Path analysis partitions the correlation between variables into direct and indirect effects, thus aligning the research questions and hypotheses to the statistical method (Leiter, Day, & Price, 2015; Moynihan, Pandey, & Wright, 2011; Nielsen & Daniels, 2012; Olobatuyi, 2006; Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Streiner, 2005). The use of path

analysis allowed investigating the relationship between leadership style of deans and their effect on organizational commitment of faculty, and then explored the relationship of level of faculty commitment to the university to burnout syndrome indicators. A path analysis does not imply causation but relationships. Since organization commitment mediates the relationship between perception of dean leadership and faculty burnout, Hayes' PROCESS for mediation/moderation was used and it required application to multiple regressions. The Hayes Process add-on is available for IBM SPSS multiple regression procedures.

The study was significant because it developed a path analysis model and then tested that model on variables not yet analyzed in this manner, and this research was one of the initial attempts to link burnout, organizational commitment, and leadership style among university faculty. Nagar (2012) examined “three factors of burnout as potential antecedents of 153 university teachers' job satisfaction and the effect of increased job satisfaction on commitment among employees toward their organization” (p. 56); however, this was at an American university and did not include leadership style. An extensive review of the literature did not reveal existing research that examined the possible relationship between dean's leadership style, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome of faculty.

### **Population**

The population for the proposed quantitative correlational study was faculties that teach at the university level in the city of Bogotá, Colombia. The sample was drawn from all faculty members employed by three universities located in the city of Bogotá, Colombia. All universities were accredited higher education institutions involving seven

schools and more than 3,000 students. Approximately 301 faculty members work in the schools of management, accounting, philosophy, history, and linguistics. Each university has a dean who interacts with faculty members directly. Participant faculty evaluated their perception of leadership style of five deans who work at the universities that are part of the study. The participant faculty was asked to complete an informed consent form. The form contained all information regarding the study, including voluntary participation and the assurance of anonymity and confidentiality.

### **Sample**

The estimated minimum sample size, using G\*Power 3.1.9.2<sup>®</sup> with a margin of error of 5% and a level of confidence of 95%, was 170 participants. The dean of each school within the participant universities was contacted to ask for permission to engage faculty in the study. In addition, the target universities' Institutional Review Board (IRB) or equivalent was asked for permission prior to conducting the research. Prior to data collection Northcentral University's IRB provided approval to conduct the study.

Realizing that return rates with two waves of contacts using a "tailored design" can be as much as 75% for Internet surveys with email and postal contacts (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014, pp. 35-37), the sample used was a census of the population of the 301 faculty members, and each person received an invitation to volunteer for the study to obtain the 170 participants. Such invitation was sent directly by the participant sites. Previous research suggested that response rates were improved by increasing financial incentives (Perez, Nie, Arden, Radhu, & Ritvo, 2013); hence, faculty participating in the proposed study entered in a drawing to win one of twenty \$25 bookstore gift cards. The data collection started with one week on difference between the

three participant sites. An initial email inviting them to participate was sent to the faculty members the first day of data collection. Individuals volunteering to participate in the study were provided a login for the online survey as well as an informed consent letter and form in Spanish. Three instruments (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, and Maslach Burnout Inventory) were placed online and made available for one month to faculty voluntarily participating in the research.

After one week (on day seven of data collection for each of the sites), a second email was sent to all faculty reminding them of the importance of their response and asking that they complete the instruments. On day 30, a final follow-up email was sent to all participants thanking them for their participation and informing any who have not completed the survey that they have a few more days to submit the survey. Data from the completed surveys were imported into excel to score the variables. Then the variables were exported to the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM SPSS<sup>®</sup>) statistical analysis software on the researcher's computer. IBM SPSS<sup>®</sup> was used because Hayes PROCESS for mediation/moderation with multiple regressions was available. AMOS is another module that SPSS has and it can be used only for one purpose, but it is expensive and not a normal part of Advanced Statistics package for graduate students. AMOS is used for structural equation models (SEM). The researcher did not attempt to prove causality in the path analysis. The total sample size obtained for the study was 192 participants.



## Materials/Instruments

Faculty participants were asked to complete survey instruments that were used to measure the variables of this study. Some participants did not have sufficient time to be involved in an interview, making a qualitative design infeasible. Faculty members who were solicited to participate in the proposed study were asked to complete three survey instruments: (a) the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X (MLQ-5X) (see Appendix B), (b) the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (see Appendix C), and (c) the Maslach Burnout Inventory for human services (MBI) (see Appendix D). A demographic survey was used with the surveys (see Appendix A). The participants were asked to disclose the following information gender, age, highest degree achieved, and number of courses taught. The official version of the MLQ-5X and MBI in Spanish were used in the proposed study. Additionally, NCU IRB allowed the researcher to translate the OCQ into Spanish because she was a native speaker.

**Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ).** Bass (1985) developed the MLQ when he surveyed 40 senior executives of industrial organizations to determine the characteristics of a transformational leader. He created a 73-item behavioral questionnaire that was used to survey 176 U.S. senior Army officers and identified three characteristics of transformational leadership. The characteristics were charismatic leadership, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation (Bass, 1985). In addition, Bass (1985) investigated transactional leadership and identified two factors: (a) contingent reward, and (b) management by exception.

The MLQ was refined by Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1999) into the MLQ form 5X by dividing the management by exception dimension into management by exception

active and passive and adding passive avoidant leadership. Factor analysis was completed to select items that exhibited the best convergent and discriminant validity from an 80-item pool to create the MLQ-5X. The MLQ was administered to 3,786 respondents in 14 samples to evaluate their leaders (Avolio et al., 1999). Nine samples were administered with the original instrument, and the remaining five were administered using the new form 5X. The samples were taken from business firms, oil platforms, a nursing school, a government research agency, U.S. Army officers, and undergraduates (Avolio et al., 1999).

The MLQ-5X is an instrument has 45 questions that use a Likert-type scale with response sets that have a numerical value: not at all = 0, once in a while = 1, sometimes = 2, fairly often = 3, frequently if not always = 4 (Tremblay, 2010). The transformational leadership scale consists of 20 interval Likert-style questions that measure the five dimensions of transformational leadership (Avolio et al., 1999). The transactional leadership scale consists of 12 interval Likert-style questions that measure the three dimensions of transactional leadership (Avolio et al., 1999). Laissez-faire leadership is measured with four Likert-type questions (Avolio et al., 1999). Research suggests a leader can have traces of both transactional and transformational leadership (Den Hartog, Van Muijen & Koopman, 1997). The instrument is easy to administer without supervision, and with the help of clear instructions, it takes less than 30 minutes to complete. Therefore, the MLQ-5X is ideal for online administration. The MLQ -5X is a property tool and permission for use will be obtained.

Three models of the MLQ-5X were elaborated and tested on a sample of 1,706 people (Avolio et al., 1999). Confirmatory analysis (CFA) was used to test the

psychometric property of the instrument. Models 1 and 2 showed a goodness to fit index (GFI) of 0.89 and 0.87, respectively, and a target coefficient of 0.90 and 0.92, respectively. Model 3 showed a GFI of 0.89 and a target coefficient of 0.93 (Avolio et al., 1999). Model 3 showed better discriminant validity, because it exceeded the minimum cutoff recommended by March and Hocevar (Avolio et al., 1999). Model 3 included 36 items, its internal consistency equaled 0.70, and the reliability of its scales ranged from 0.63 to 0.92 (Avolio et al., 1999). Avolio et al. (1999) calculated the Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficient and found a high reliability of the dimensions of leadership with 0.92 (charismatic leadership), 0.83 (intellectual stimulation), 0.79 (individualized consideration), 0.80 (contingent reward), 0.63 (management by exception) and 0.84 (passive avoidant). In a later study, Tremblay (2010) calculated the Cronbach  $\alpha$  coefficient of 0.83 and 0.70 for transformational and transactional leadership in the MLQ- 5 X. The MLQ- 5X will be used in the proposed study.

**Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ).** Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) initially developed the OCQ. In their study, they identified 15 items that covered the main aspects of the measurement of organizational commitment and structured them in a questionnaire administered to 2,563 employees who performed different jobs in nine organizations (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). Allen and Meyer (1990) refined the OCQ developed by Mowday et al. (1979). Allen and Meyer (1990) developed a scale for the measurement of three aspects of organizational commitment— affective, continuance, and normative—and tested them in two studies with different samples. The purpose of the first study was to develop measures of commitment with a 51-item questionnaire answered by 256 full-time, nonunionized employees in two

manufacturing firms and a university. The second study used the scale of the first study to measure commitment of 337 employees of a retail department store, a hospital, and a university library. Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations of all measures of the scale were calculated (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The OCQ developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) has been a widely used and accepted instrument to measure organizational commitment (Bayona-Saénz et al., 2009; Cerit, 2010; Farooq et al., 2011; Maldonado-Radillo et al., 2012; Zia & Tufal, 2011). The OCQ measures the acceptance of the organization's goals and values, the effort made on behalf of the organization, and the desire to remain with the organization (Cerit, 2010). The OCQ has 24 items that use a response set with a five-point Likert-type scale with the following labels: strongly disagree=1, disagree=2, unsure=3, agree=4, and strongly agree=5 (Chen et al., 2010). Previous researchers examined the three components of organizational commitment: (a) affective, (b) normative, and (c) continuance with the OCQ (Bayona-Saénz et al., 2009; Cerit, 2010; Farooq, 2011; Maldonado-Radillo et al., 2012; Zia & Tufal, 2011). The instrument is easy to administer without supervision, and with the help of clear instructions, it takes less than 20 minutes to complete. Therefore, the OCQ is ideal for online administration. The OCQ does not need permission for use.

Mowday et al. (1979) validated the instrument by calculating means, standard deviations, internal consistency, test-retest reliability, convergent validity, discriminant validity, predictive validity, and normative measures. Internal consistency was calculated using coefficient  $\alpha$ , item analysis, and factor analysis. The coefficient  $\alpha$  of attitude measures ranged from 0.82 to 0.93, which is favorable. The item analysis had a median of 0.64, which indicated that the 15 items of the OCQ instrument were homogeneous, and

each item had a positive correlation with the total score of the OCQ (Mowday et al., 1979). Test-retest reliability was determined by calculating  $r$  for the samples of psychiatric technicians, which were 0.53, 0.63, and 0.75 over two-, three-, and four-month periods, respectively; for the management trainees,  $r$  was equal to 0.72 over a period of two months and 0.62 for a period of three months.

Convergent validity was tested by comparing the OCQ scores with the scores on the organizational attachment questionnaire (OAQ), another instrument measuring similar affective responses. Convergent validity was calculated across six samples using the OAQ and a median of 0.70 was obtained across all samples (Mowday et al., 1979). Then, the relationship between the OCQ and supervisor ratings of commitment was calculated using the restriction of range formula and the OCQ correlated at  $r = 0.60$ . Finally, Mowday et al. (1979) used four studies to calculate the correlation between commitment and energy on behalf of the organization, obtaining correlations ranging from 0.35 to 0.45.

Evidence of discriminant validity was established by comparing the OCQ measure to other attitudes, such as job involvement, career satisfaction, and job satisfaction; the percentage of common variance between organizational commitment and other measures did not exceed 50%. Generally, measures were less than 25%, indicating that they were higher than what is desirable to demonstrate discriminant validity conclusively (Mowday et al., 1979). Predictive validity was examined by five studies investigating the correlations between organizational commitment, turnover, absenteeism, and performance. A study that measured actual reenlistment among part-time military personnel proved that the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover

was negative and strengthened over time (Mowday et al., 1979). In addition, organizational commitment was negatively related to absenteeism and positively related to performance (Mowday et al., 1979).

The validity of the OCQ was tested by performing confirmatory factor analysis. Affective commitment items, continuance commitment items, and normative commitment items accounted for 58.8, 25.8, and 15.4 per cent of the total variance (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Goodness to fit (GTF) score was 0.946, comparative fit index (CFI) score was 0.927, and root mean square residual (RMSR) score was 0.017 (Ho, 2012). Researchers concluded that GFI were suitable if they were larger than 0.9, RMSR less than 0.05, and CFI larger than 0.9 (Ho, 2012). Therefore, the survey was valid at an acceptable level.

Mowday et al. (1979) attempted to provide an indication of how an employee scored on the OCQ in comparison with other employees. To test the norms, the authors used a percentile conversion for raw scores of the OCQ for males and females, with  $N$  equal to 978 for males and 1,530 for females. Mowday et al. (1979) concluded that the OCQ had internal consistency and test-retest reliability and was homogeneous and stable over short periods. Commitment was found to be correlated moderately with the measures of career satisfaction, job satisfaction, and satisfaction with the work environment (Mowday et al., 1979).

Allen and Meyer (1990) performed a canonical correlation analysis producing three canonical roots (continuance, normative, and affective) that had correlations of 0.81, 0.56, and 0.58, respectively. The correlation between the affective commitment and continuance commitment was small ( $r = 0.01$ ), and the correlation between affective and

normative commitment was more significant ( $r = 0.48$ ) than the correlation between normative and continuance commitment ( $r = 0.16$ ) (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The authors concluded that the three components of organizational commitment were different constructs with distinct correlations that can be measured reliably with the affective, continuance, and normative scales included in the OCQ. In addition, the reliability of the OCQ was tested calculating the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, which showed a score of 0.87 for affective commitment items, 0.75 for continuance commitment items, and 0.79 for normative commitment items (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the questionnaire was 0.91 (Cerit 2010). Therefore, the survey was reliable at an acceptable level.

**Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI).** To measure the aspects of burnout syndrome in the human services, the MBI was developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981). A preliminary 47-item form of the MBI was administered to 605 participants who worked in the service and health care sector. The resulting data was analyzed using principal factoring with interaction and varimax rotation (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The original items were reduced to 22 and divided into subscales that measured emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization. Each of the subscales measured the level of intensity and frequency. The frequency scale ranged from 1 (few times a year or less) to 6 (every day). The intensity scales ranged from 1 (very mild, barely noticeable) to 7 (major, very strong). The instrument is easy to administer without supervision, and with the help of clear instructions, it takes less than 20 minutes to complete. Therefore, the MBI is ideal for online administration. The MBI is a property tool and permission for use will be obtained.

The evidence of convergent validity of the MBI was shown by calculating scores from a person who knew the coworker and rated the behavioral ratings. People who had emotional exhaustion ( $r = 0.41, p > 0.01$ ) and depersonalization ( $r = 0.5, p > 0.01$ ) were rated by their coworkers as emotionally drained and physically fatigued (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). In addition, MBI scores were correlated with job characteristics that contributed to burnout. Forty-three people who worked in direct contact with patients were surveyed and reported high levels of emotional exhaustion ( $r = 0.30, p < .03$ ). In addition, 91 social services and mental health workers answered the job diagnosis survey (JDS) developed by Hackman and Oldman in 1974 (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). High scores on the dimension of feedback from job dimension were correlated with lower scores on emotional exhaustion ( $r = -0.38, p < .001$ ) and on depersonalization ( $r = -0.38, p < .001$ ) and high scores on personal realization ( $r = 0.29, p < .01$ ).

Finally, MBI scores were correlated with measures of burnout outcomes. One hundred and eighty nurses, social services, and mental health workers answered the JDS to measure growth satisfaction. Growth satisfaction was negatively correlated to emotional exhaustion ( $r = -0.26, p < .001$ ) and depersonalization ( $r = -0.39, p < .001$ ) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Barbosa Ramirez et al. (2009), in their research regarding the presence of burnout syndrome among Colombian faculty, used the 22-item scale. However, there is some research where the whole scale was not used but items that measured the subscales were selected for measurement. For example, Moreno-Jimenez, Garrosa-Hernandez, Rodriguez-Carvajal, Martinez-Gamarra, and Ferrer-Puig (2009) measured the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization among faculty from Spain using only five elements from each of the subscales.



A sample of 420 responded to the 16-item questionnaire, and the Cronbach  $\alpha$  coefficient was calculated at 0.83 (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Such a coefficient was coherent with a further study made by Spence-Laschinger, Cummings, Wong, and Grau (2014), who calculated the Cronbach  $\alpha$  coefficient for the MBI of 0.82. The relationship between personal realization and emotional exhaustion was low:  $r = -0.17$  (frequency) and  $r = -0.05$  (intensity). As well, the relationship between personal realization and depersonalization was  $r = -0.28$  (frequency) and  $r = -0.22$  (intensity) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). In conclusion, the subscales proved to be independent of each other.

### **Operational Definition of Variables**

The variables that were used in the study are perception of dean's leadership, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome. The perception of dean's leadership dimensions were the exogenous variables [a variable whose change is explained by other factors] (Lleras, 2005), burnout syndrome dimensions was the endogenous variables [a variable whose variation is explained by other variables] (Lleras, 2005), and organizational commitment dimensions was the intervening endogenous variables [a variable that is the cause and effect of other variables] (Lleras, 2005).

**Transformational leadership.** Transformational leadership is measured on an interval scale calculated from 20 Likert-style questions that measure the five dimensions of transformational leadership, including (a) intellectual stimulation, (b) idealized influence (attributed), (c) idealized influence (behavior), (d) inspirational motivation, and (e) individual consideration (Avolio et al., 1999). The dimensions of transformational leadership are measured in the MLQ-5X as follows: (a) idealized influence (attributed) (four questions), (b) idealized influence (behavior) (four questions), (c) inspirational

motivation (four questions), (d) intellectual stimulation (four questions), and (e) individual consideration (four questions) (Avolio et al., 1999). The questions use a Likert-type scale with response sets coded as 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, 4 = frequently, if not always (Tremblay, 2010). The responses of the 20 questions are averaged for a possible score from 0 to 4 for the variable. The higher the score, the higher transformational leadership is represented. Data obtained using Likert scales can justifiably be classified as interval (Knapp, 1990). Prior research on transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership has treated Likert-scale items as interval data (Avolio et al., 1999; Ismail et al., 2011; Jones & Rudd, 2008; Nordin, 2012; Othman, Kabeer, & Lawrence, 2013; Rehman et al., 2012; Saeed, Galaiden, & Ahmad, 2013).

**Transactional leadership.** Transactional leadership is measured on an interval scale using 12 Likert-style questions that measure the three dimensions of transactional leadership: (a) contingent reward, (b) passive management-by-exception, and (c) active management-by-exception (Avolio et al., 1999). The dimensions of transactional leadership are measured in the MLQ-5X as follows: contingent reward (four questions), and management by exception active and passive (four questions each) (Avolio et al., 1999). The questions use a Likert type-scale with response sets that have a numerical value: 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, 4 = frequently if not always (Tremblay, 2010). The responses of the 12 questions are averaged for a possible score from 0 to 4 for the variable. The higher the score, the higher the transactional leadership representation.

**Laissez-faire Leadership.** Laissez-faire leadership is measured on an interval scale with four Likert-type questions (Avolio et al., 1999). The questions use a Likert type-scale with response sets that have a numerical value: 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, 4 = frequently, if not always (Tremblay, 2010). The responses of the four questions are averaged for a possible range from 0 to 4. The higher the score, the higher the laissez-faire leadership representation.

**Affective commitment.** The OCQ measures affective commitment on an interval scale with eight questions. The scores from the eight questions are averaged for a possible range from 1 to 5 (Allen & Meyer, 1990). In the affective commitment scale are four reverse key questions, wherein the label strongly disagree indicates a high affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Therefore, these items were reverse-scored prior to averaging (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The questions use a response set with a 5-point Likert scale with the following labels: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = unsure, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree (Chen & Indartono, 2011). A high score indicates a high level of affective commitment (Maldonado-Radillo et al., 2012). Prior research on affective, continuance, and normative commitment leadership has treated these Likert-like scale items as interval data (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006; Gormley & Kennerly, 2010; Ismail et al., 2011; Khan et al., 2013; Saeed et al., 2013; Yongzhan, 2014).

**Continuance commitment.** The OCQ measures continuance commitment on an interval scale with eight questions. The scores from the eight questions are averaged for a possible range from 1 to 5 (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The questions use a response set with a 5-point Likert scale with the following labels: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = unsure, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree (Chen & Indartono, 2011). In the

continuance commitment scale are two reverse key questions wherein the label strongly disagree indicates a high continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Therefore, these items were reverse-scored prior to averaging (Allen & Meyer, 1990). A high score indicates a high level of continuance commitment (Maldonado-Radillo et al., 2012).

**Normative commitment.** The OCQ measures normative commitment on an interval scale with eight questions. The scores from these eight questions are averaged for a possible range from 1 to 5 (Allen & Meyer, 1990). In the normative commitment scale are three reverse key questions wherein the label strongly disagree indicates a high continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Therefore, these items were reverse-scored prior to averaging (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The questions use a response set with a 5-point Likert scale with the following labels: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = unsure, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree (Chen & Indartono, 2011). A high score indicates a high level of normative commitment (Maldonado-Radillo et al., 2012).

**Emotional exhaustion.** The MBI measures emotional exhaustion on an interval scale with nine questions. The scores from these nine questions are added for a possible range from 0 to 54 (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The questions have a 7-point Likert scale as follows: 6 = *every day*, 5 = *a few times a week*, 4 = *once a week*, 3 = *a few times a month*, 2 = *once a month or less*, 1 = *a few times a year*, 0 = *never* (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The participant has low emotional exhaustion if the score is between 0 and 16, moderate emotional exhaustion if the score is between 17 and 26, and high emotional exhaustion if the score is over 27 (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Data obtained using Likert scales can justifiably be classified as interval (Knapp, 1990). Prior research on emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization has treated Likert scale items as

interval data (Arquero Montano & Donoso Anes, 2013; Barbosa Ramirez et al., 2009; Escudero Macluff et al., 2013; Ferrel Ortega et al., 2010; Gonzales Portillo et al., 2011; Karakus et al., 2014; Magaña Medina et al., 2014; Nagar, 2012; Nordin, 2012; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero 2011).

**Depersonalization.** The MBI measures depersonalization on an interval scale with five questions. The scores from the 5 questions are added for a possible range from 0 to 30 (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The questions have a 7-point Likert scale as follows: 6 = every day, 5 = a few times a week, 4 = once a week, 3 = a few times a month, 2 = once a month or less, 1 = a few times a year, and 0 = never (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The participant has low depersonalization if the score is between 0 and 8, moderate depersonalization if the score is between 9 and 13, and high depersonalization if the score is over 14 (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

**Personal realization.** The MBI measures personal realization on an interval scale with eight questions. The scores from these 8 questions are added for a possible range from 0 to 48 (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The questions have a 7-point Likert scale as follows: 6 = *every day*, 5 = *a few times a week*, 4 = *once a week*, 3 = *a few times a month*, 2 = *once a month or less*, 1 = *a few times a year*, and 0 = *never* (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The participant has low personal realization if the score is between 0 and 30, moderate personal realization if the score is between 31 and 36, and high personal realization if the score is over 37 (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

### **Data Collection, Processing and Analysis**

The aim of this study was to investigate whether any relationship exists between the exogenous variables of leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-

faire) (Avolio et al., 1999), the intervening endogenous variables for organizational commitment dimensions (affective, continuance, and normative) (Allen & Meyer, 1990), and the endogenous variables of burnout syndrome indicators (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). In addition, basic demographic variables, including gender, age and number of years with the university, were collected, frequency tables prepared, and descriptive statistics (mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis) provided for continuous variables.

### **Data Collection**

A census of the population of the 301 faculty members were solicited for data collection. To achieve internal validity, a set of weighting factors were developed and incorporated into the statistical analysis of the data so the results accommodate the sampling method (Wall, 2015). The study population included 301 faculty members at three universities located in the city of Bogotá, Colombia. A census of all faculty in the three Bogotá universities was used to obtain the sample (Wall, 2015). Data collection began with the permission from the target universities that participated in the study. The Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Northcentral University and the IRB of the participating institutions or equivalent approved data collection prior to conducting the proposed study. Faculty was contacted through their email addresses directly by the three universities to protect their identity and personal data. An initial email with an invitation to participate was sent on day one of data collection. The email contained the consent form, an explanation of the purpose of the proposed study, an explanation of the risks and benefits of participating in the study, and a link to an online SurveyMonkey®. On SurveyMonkey® the participant found the MLQ-5X, OCQ, and MBI.

The instruments MLQ-5X, MBI, and OCQ have been widely used in previous studies. The MLQ-5X is used to determine the perceptions of faculty regarding deans' leadership (Othman et al., 2013; Rehman et al., 2013). The OCQ is used to explain the level of faculty members' organizational commitment (Othman et al., 2013; Rehman et al., 2013). In addition, demographic characteristics for gender, age and time of teaching, were measured to describe the participants in the sample (Bayona-Saenz et al., 2009; Gonzalez Portillo et al., 2011; Lawrence et al., 2012).

On day seven of data collection, using the Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2014) tailored design method, a reminder email was sent by the participant sites to all faculty who have not responded. The importance of their response was highlighted in the email and the fact that since only three universities in all of Colombia were being surveyed, the nonrespondents were carefully reminded that their responses might represent the views of many other faculty who were not being surveyed. On day 26, an email was sent to all faculty thanking them for participating and informing any nonrespondents that there was time for them to respond. The study closed after four weeks when the minimum sample size was met.

### **Data Processing**

The data were collected through SurveyMonkey®. Confidentiality was guaranteed. Using SurveyMonkey®, identification of participant in the research was protected. SurveyMonkey® coded the survey responses and the option to identify IP addresses of respondents was toggled to the “off” position. The \*.xls data file created by SurveyMonkey® was exported into the excel office package for scoring and then exported into the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM SPSS)® software for

analysis. The data were stored in a password-protected personal computer where only the researcher had access.

The responses to the MLQ-5X, the OCQ, and the MBI were presented as a numerically-coded Likert-type scale in columns in the data set. Missing data in the data set were coded as -1, and any cases with missing data were excluded from any analysis. Total average scores for transformational, transactional, and laissez faire responses have a possible range from 0 to 4. The higher the score, the higher the representation of the leadership style (Avolio et al., 1999). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment have a possible total average score from 1 to 5. A high score indicates a high level of each type of commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Emotional exhaustion has a possible total score from 0 to 54. The participant has low emotional exhaustion if the total score is between 0 and 16, moderate emotional exhaustion if the total score is between 17 and 26, and high emotional exhaustion if the total score is over 27 (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Depersonalization has a possible total score from 0 to 30. The participant has low depersonalization if the total score is between 0 and 8, moderate depersonalization if the total score is between 9 and 13, and high depersonalization if the total score is over 14 (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Personal realization has a possible total score from 0 to 48. The participant has low personal realization if the total score is between 0 and 30, moderate personal realization if the total score is between 31 and 36, and high personal realization if the score totals over 37 (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The average rating for the burnout syndrome dimensions was calculated because Maslach and Jackson (1981) recommended it. IBM SPSS<sup>®</sup> was used to create all statistical tests including the multiple regression models.



## Data Analysis

Demographic data that were measured as continuous variables (designated as “scale” by IBM SPSS®) were analyzed using descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations), and for ordinal and nominal demographic variables only frequency tables were produced. IBM SPSS® was programmed to output descriptive statistics, such as means and standard deviations, to describe each of the exogenous variables (perception of dean’s leadership), intervening endogenous variables (organizational commitment variables), and endogenous variables (burnout syndrome variables). Correlational analyses were run for all variables to answer the first research question.

There are several assumptions that must be met for the multivariate regression analyses with the three dimensions of burnout as the dependent variables. First, the dependent variables must be normally distributed. Q-Q plots are generated to check visually for normality, as are producing the Shapiro-Wilk’s test of normality of all dependent variables (Field, 2013). The next assumption is one of linearity between the independent and dependent variables. There are both graphical and statistical methods for evaluating linearity. Graphical methods include the examination of scatterplots, often overlaid with a trend line (Field, 2013). While commonly recommended, this strategy is difficult to implement.

Statistical methods include diagnostic hypothesis tests for linearity, a rule of thumb that says a relationship is linear if the difference between the linear correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) and the nonlinear correlation coefficient ( $\eta$ ) is small, and examining patterns of correlation coefficients (Field, 2013). The strategy for determining whether a relationship is linear was based on the significance tests for the Pearson  $r$  correlation

coefficient. When a relationship is not linear, one or both variables can be transformed to achieve a relationship that is linear (Field, 2013). Four common transformations to induce linearity are (a) the logarithmic transformation, (b) the square root transformation, (c) the inverse transformation, and (d) the square transformation.

Next is the assumption of multicollinearity between independent variables. Multicollinearity between independent variables increases standard errors and creates unreliable assessments of the relative importance of the independent variables. IBM SPSS® reports several tests for multicollinearity including a "Collinearity Diagnostics" table that includes values for the tolerance levels and the variance inflation factor (VIF), which is the reciprocal of tolerance. If tolerance is less than 0.2, then there is a problem with multicollinearity and VIF values greater than 4.0 suggest similar issues. "Condition indices over 30 mean serious collinearity and an index in excess of 15.0 denotes possible problems with collinearity" (Garson, 2014, p. 331).

Finally, there is the assumption of homoscedasticity. Homoscedasticity refers to the assumption that that the dependent variable exhibits similar amounts of variance across the range of values for an independent variable. Levene's statistical test of homogeneity of variance for the dependent variable can be used, and box plots are graphical methods (Field, 2013).

The three instruments that were used in the study have shown validity and reliability in previous studies. Validity allows determining if an instrument measures what it was designed to measure (Field, 2013). The MLQ-5X validity was demonstrated by Avolio et al. (1999) and later by Tremblay (2010). The OCQ validly was demonstrated by Mowday et al. (1979) and later by Allen & Meyer (1990), Cerit (2010)

and Ho (2012). The MBI validity was demonstrated by Maslach and Jackson (1981) and later by Spence-Laschinger et al. (2014). Discriminant validity was evaluated calculating the intercorrelation between subscales of each instrument. If the values are small to moderate, the dimensions of each instrument are different from each other (Field, 2013). Then, an R matrix was generated to perform factor analysis to correlate each of the dimensions of the three instruments. Bootstrapping techniques were implemented because of the non-normality of parameters and incidences of outliers in regression residuals of the sample. As outlined in Hayes (2013), bootstrapping makes all the standard assumptions of OLS regression, including normality and homoscedasticity of the errors in estimation. Bootstrapping allows for correction of these violations of the standard regression model and it produces more accurate conclusions (Field, 2013). Bootstrapping techniques were used to find each link in the model in Figure 1 (Hayes, 2011).

Baugh (2002) cautioned, “As the winds of change continue to shape responsible research practice, it is hoped that researchers will give more thoughtful consideration to the influence that measurement error variance exerts on effect sizes” (p. 261). Effect size is affected by the “reliability of the measurement on which it is based. According to classical measurement theory, any measure of a particular outcome may be considered to consist of the 'true' underlying value, together with a component of error” (Coe, 2002, n.p.). The amount of variation in measured scores for a particular sample (i.e., its standard deviation) depended on both the variation in underlying scores and the amount of error in their measurement. All three instruments were proven and have respectable reliabilities; thus, the effect sizes of the analyses will not be overestimated. If the model is well-fitted, there should be no pattern to the residuals plotted against the fitted values.

If the variance of the residuals is non-constant, then the residual variance is said to be heteroscedastic. SPSS® allows for checking for homoscedasticity. In SPSS®, the scatterplot procedure in regression is used to plot \*zresid (standardized residuals) by \*pred (the predicted values).

The coefficients weights for the predictor variables after bootstrapping in each regression model that were statistically significant ( $\alpha < .05$ ) became the coefficients in the path analysis model (see Figure 1). The statistical procedures were consistent with previous studies regarding perception of deans' leadership and organizational commitment of faculty (Ahmed, Mohammad, & Islam, 2013; Othman et al., 2013; Rehman et al., 2013; Tabbodi, 2009; Yu, 2013) and presence of burnout syndrome in Colombian faculty (Barbosa Ramirez et al., 2009; Correa-Correa, 2012; Gonzalez Portillo et al., 2011; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011). Multiple linear regressions were performed to answer RQ1. The output in SPSS can be detailed as follows: the first table was produced by the descriptive option, and the second table gave details of the correlation between each pair of variables. Strong correlations between the criterion and the predictor variables are not wanted (Coe, 2002). The third table displayed the predictor variables and the method used. All predictor variables are entered simultaneously when the enter method is selected (Coe, 2002).

The model summary table was generated. The  $R^2$  value yields the percentage of the variance in the dependent variables (criterion) produced by the predictor variables (independent variables). In addition, ANOVA, which assesses the overall significance of the model, was calculated. If  $p < 0.05$ , the model is significant. The coefficients table was presented next. The standardized beta coefficients give a measure of the contribution

of each variable to the model. A large value indicates that a unit change in this predictor variable has a large effect on the criterion variable. The advantage of the beta values is that they remove all units from the variables and allow a one-to-one comparison using standardized coefficients. These standardized coefficients are preferred as path coefficients because of this fact.

The *t* and Sig (*p*) values give a rough indication of the effect of each predictor variable: a large absolute *t* value and small *p* value suggest that a predictor variable is having a large impact on the criterion variable. After performing bootstrapping techniques, the coefficient values that were statistically significant became the path coefficients and be displayed in the path model in Figures 2 to 10.

In addition, the output in SPSS can be detailed as follows: the first table showed the direct effect of leadership styles to the organizational commitment dimensions. The second table showed the direct effect of organizational commitment to the dimensions of burnout syndrome. The third table showed the direct effect of leadership styles to the dimensions of burnout syndrome. The fourth table showed the indirect effect of leadership styles to the dimensions of burnout syndrome. In addition, the ratio of indirect effect was shown on the output and the kappa-squared.

Therefore, based on path analysis, the research questions were analyzed and hypotheses tested at the 0.01 level of significance. The first model using bootstrapping regression for RQ2 used dean's leadership style as the independent variables and the components of organizational commitment as the dependent variables. If there was a significant *p* value ( $p < .01$ ) between deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) and the three components of organizational

commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) and burnout syndrome (emotional discomfort, depersonalization, and personal realization), the null hypotheses was rejected and alternate hypothesis accepted that there was a statistically significant relationship.

The second model using bootstrapping regression for RQ3 was based on burnout syndrome dimensions as the dependent variables and organization commitment components as the independent variable. If there was a statistically significant  $p$  value ( $p < .01$ ) between any of the three components of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) and dimensions of burnout syndrome (emotional discomfort, depersonalization, and personal realization), the second null hypotheses was rejected and alternate hypothesis accepted that there was a statistically significant relationship.

The fourth research question specified the influence of a moderating variable, organizational commitment, on the effect of Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) on the three components of burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization). The regression model was constructed to predict the three components of faculty burnout based on his or her dean's perceived leadership style as moderated by the faculty member's organizational commitment. The predictor variables were considered continuous in the current research (Knapp, 1990). The PROCESS procedure by Hayes (n.d.) was added to IBM SPSS® to conduct the moderator analysis as part of multiple regression. Prior to the analysis, the moderator (organizational commitment) and independent variable (dean's perceived leadership style) were mean-centered. This procedure produces an initial table of model statistics ( $R$ ,  $R^2$ , Mean Square Error,  $F$  test value with degrees of freedom and significance level  $p$ ). The coefficients ( $b$  and  $\beta$ ) for

each variable (dean's perceived leadership style, organizational commitment, interaction effect of dean's perceived leadership style \* organizational commitment, and the model constant), as well as the standard error, t value with level of significance was calculated with an upper and lower 95% confidence levels. A covariance matrix was provided regarding the regression parameter estimates. The conditional effects of the dean's perceived leadership style on the attitudes toward faculty burnout base on different values of the moderator organizational commitment was generated. For each of these values of the organizational commitment moderator, the standard error, effect size, t-test value and level of significance p, and 95% CI were included. Values for quantitative moderators are the mean and  $\pm 1SD$  from the mean, while values for dichotomous moderators are the two values of the moderator. PROCESS yielded a table of data for visualizing the conditional effect of each measure of dean's perceived leadership style on faculty burnout (Hayes, 2013). Hayes and Agler (2014) were used to guide the development of a model for moderation when there are multiple independent variables as predictors of the dependent variable.

### **Assumptions**

This study had several assumptions. The first assumption was that participating faculty members responded to the survey invitations and their responses to the MLQ-5X, OCQ, and MBI was honest and accurate. The second assumption was that the participants were able to identify the leadership style of their deans, their own organizational commitments, and traces of burnout syndrome. The third assumption was that the MLQ-5X, OCQ, and MBI were be valid and reliable instruments in the higher education environment.

## Limitations

One limitation was that the participating faculty members could feel their confidentiality was not assured and could fear retaliation from their deans because of their responses. Therefore, the information given to the researcher by the participants was completely confidential, and no information regarding particular results was provided. Another limitation was that unknown variables not identified in the proposed study could affect the findings and conclusions. The study was limited by the time required to complete the dissertation and the cost to administer the survey. The last limitation was unintentional researcher bias. The researcher exercised impartiality when interpreting the data and did not use information obtained to formulate preconceptions (Bardford, 1994). Because this study was quantitative and not qualitative, the problem of unintentional bias was minimized because of the lack of subjective judgment in discussing the findings of quantitative analyses (Creswell, 2015). In addition, since the sample of faculty is a census, there was no bias from administering the instrument to any particular gender, age, disability, ethnicity, occupation, physical characteristics, or religion (Williams & Colomb, 2003). Using the proven Dillman et al. (2014) tailored design approach for Internet surveys, nonresponse bias was minimized using multiple contacts with respondents and nonrespondents to increase response rate.

A faulty scale could have resulted in instrument bias and invalidate the entire design; however, as documented previously, the three instruments used in this research have been validated and have established reliability in numerous recent studies. There was no experimental related bias since an experimental design is not being used.



Negative results were as important as positive results, and both were reported in the findings section of the dissertation, thereby negating any reporting bias.

### **Delimitations**

Several delimitations existed in this study. Data collected was limited to three universities located in Bogotá, Colombia. Based on this, results were generalized only to other universities located in Bogotá, Colombia. A second delimitation was the assumption that the participating faculty members represented the particular target population. The third delimitation was, despite the fact that the MLQ-5X, OCQ, and MBI are valid and reliable instruments, the usage of other instruments could result in different conclusions.

### **Ethical Assurances**

This study had the approval of Northcentral University's IRB and the IRBs or equivalent of the target universities. Only after approvals were obtained the sample of faculty members was contacted to participate in the study. Ethical issues existed regarding the research participants, including the collection of information and confidentiality (Kumar, 2011). Collection of information was used to avoid bias by selecting the participating faculty randomly. Additionally, to maintain participant confidentiality, coding will be assigned to participants by SurveyMonkey® and no personal information besides demographic data was gathered from participants. Participants were able to withdraw from the survey without reprisal.

Researcher ethics needed to be considered. Issues such as bias, incorrect reporting, or inappropriate use of the information (Kumar, 2011) were avoided in the proposed study to ensure ethical behaviour. This study results must be considered

objective in the findings, reporting, and use of the information obtained. The data from SurveyMonkey<sup>®</sup> and from the IBM SPSS<sup>®</sup> software was stored on a password-protected desktop computer. Only the researcher had access to the password. The data was backed up on a USB storage device, which was locked in a safe having a combination known only by the researcher. The data from SurveyMonkey<sup>®</sup> was password protected; only the researcher knew the password. All data regarding the study was transferred onto a CD, locked in a safe, and will be destroyed after seven years by shredding. Finally, this study could be affected by method bias (Burton-Jones, 2009). Method bias involves self-reported questionnaires for which the participants guess the hypothesis (Burton-Jones, 2009). To avoid method bias, the questionnaire items were randomized (Burton-Jones, 2009).

### **Summary**

This research aimed to determine those significant variables that significantly predict faculty burnout syndrome among faculty at universities in Colombia. A quantitative correlational research design guided the study to determine the relationship among perceived leadership style, organizational commitment, and faculty burnout syndrome. The MLQ-5X, OCQ, and MBI instruments were administered to collect the data. Path analysis using MR beta weights from bootstrapping techniques were calculated to explain the relationship among the proposed variables. The study sample included faculty of three universities located in the city of Bogotá, Colombia.

## Chapter 4: Findings

The purpose of the current quantitative correlational study was twofold. The first purpose was to examine relationships among the variables of faculty members' perceptions of deans' leadership, organizational commitment of faculty members, and burnout among members of Colombian university faculty. The second purpose was to identify what, if any, direct and indirect effects the variables of faculty perception of deans' leadership and organizational commitment of faculty members have on burnout among members of Colombian university faculty. Prevention of burnout syndrome could benefit Colombian university leaders because burnout has been linked to turnover intentions that decrease efficacy and efficiency at universities (Arquero Montano & Donoso Anes, 2013; Botero Alvarez, 2012; Moreno-Jimenez, Garrosa Hernandez, Rodriguez Carvajal; Martinez Gamarra et al., 2009; Terán Rosero & Botero Alvarez, 2011).

Perceptions of deans' leadership styles, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome were measured with three validated and reliable survey instruments including the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ-5X; see Appendix B); the organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ; see Appendix C); and the Maslach burnout inventory (MBI; see Appendix D). This chapter includes descriptive analysis for demographic and other variables. Additionally, assumptions for normality, linearity, multicollinearity, homoscedasticity, and discriminant validity of the data were tested. A multiple regression analysis was performed to test the null hypothesis for Research Question 1. Bootstrapping was performed to test the null hypothesis for Research Questions 2 through 4 because the dependent variables were not normally distributed. Additionally,

path analysis for the relationship between variables is presented. A summary of the results concludes the chapter.

## Results

The current research began with an email invitation sent to 301 adjunct and full-time faculty members at three Colombian universities. The invitation contained a link to an electronic survey on SurveyMonkey<sup>®</sup>. Of the 301 faculty members in the sample, 246 faculty members returned the survey. Eight participants declined the informed consent form and 46 faculty members did not answer all questions across all instruments, the MLQ-5X, OCQ, and MBI. After excluding the missing data, the final sample size for the study was 192 faculty members, a response rate of 63.7%. The resulting 192 surveys provided the targeted sample size ( $N=170$ ) needed to test each hypothesis with a margin of error of 5% and a level of confidence of 95%.

Each response on each questionnaire had a numeric value assigned according to the scoring key. The results from SurveyMonkey<sup>®</sup> were downloaded to an Excel<sup>®</sup> spreadsheet. Data were organized in the spreadsheet based on the type of instrument used. Excel<sup>®</sup> was used to calculate the average and total scores for each of the instruments according to the scoring key. Hence, from the total of 81 questions, 9 variables were obtained and uploaded to IBM SPSS<sup>®</sup> for analysis.

**Demographics.** Participant demographics of gender, age, and tenure are shown in Table 1. Among the participants, 7 of every 10 faculty member participants were men ( $n=134$ ; 70%) and 3 of 10 were women ( $n=58$ ; 30%). Participants were somewhat evenly distributed between two age grouping with 82 individuals (43%) between the ages of 21 to 41 and 94 individuals (49%) between the ages of 41 to 60 years old. Sixteen

participants (8%) were 61 years or older. Of the 192 participants, the majority had between 1 and 10 years of experience with 46 participants (24 %) reporting up to 5 years of teaching experience, and 52 participants (27%) reporting between 6 and 10 years of teaching experience. Additionally, 36 participants (19%) had between 11 and 15 years of teaching experience, 20 participants (10%) had between 16 and 20 years of teaching experience, and 38 participants (20%) had 21 years or more years of teaching experience. See Appendix A for the demographic survey questions.

Table 1

*Frequency Data for Demographic Variables Gender, Age Group, and Years of Teaching*

Variable	<i>N</i>	<i>n</i>	%
Gender	192		
Male		134	70%
Female		58	30%
Age group (years)	192		
21-40		82	43%
41-60		94	49%
61 or more		16	8%
Years of teaching	192		
0-5		46	24%
6-10		52	27%
11-15		36	19%
16-20		20	10%
21 or more		38	20%

**Descriptive statistics for study variables.** Table 2 shows descriptive statistics for the exogenous variables of leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire (Avolio et al., 1999). Transactional leadership ( $M=2.5482$ ,  $SD=0.77246$ ), transformational leadership ( $M=2.6380$ ,  $SD=0.86608$ ), and laissez-faire ( $M=2.6068$ ,

$SD=0.97162$ ) showed little difference in mean perception levels between the three deans' leadership styles.

Table 2

*Descriptive Statistics for Leadership Styles*

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness
Transactional Leadership	192	0.08	4.00	2.5482	0.77246	-0.883
Transformational leadership	192	0.25	4.00	2.6380	0.86608	-0.755
Laissez-Faire	192	0.00	4.00	2.6068	0.97162	-.0875

Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics for the intervening endogenous variables of organizational commitment dimensions. The score for dimensions of organizational commitment ranged from 1 to 5. Affective commitment ( $M=3.9454$ ,  $SD=0.67196$ ) had a higher average score than continuance commitment ( $M=3.2426$ ,  $SD=0.72181$ ) and normative commitment ( $M=3.5558$ ,  $SD=0.55989$ ).

Table 3

*Descriptive Statistics for Dimensions of Organizational Commitment*

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness
Affective commitment	192	1.38	4.88	3.9454	0.67196	-1.079
Continuance commitment	192	1.13	4.63	3.2426	0.72181	-0.611
Normative commitment	192	1.50	4.88	3.5558	0.55989	-0.784

In Table 4, descriptive statistics are provided for the endogenous variables that Maslach and Jackson (1981) described as burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization). The three dimensions of burnout syndrome ranged from a score of 0 to 6. The mean levels of personal realization ( $M=4.3373$ ,  $SD=0.9945$ ) were greater than those for emotional exhaustion ( $M=1.7485$ ,  $SD=1.04199$ ) and depersonalization ( $M= 1.1771$ ,  $SD=0.89226$ ).

Table 4

*Descriptive Statistics for Dimensions of Burnout Syndrome*

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness
Emotional Exhaustion	192	0.00	5.22	1.7485	1.04199	0.716
Depersonalization	192	0.00	4.60	1.1771	0.89226	0.888
Personal realization	192	1.75	6.00	4.3373	0.99450	-0.519

**Normality and internal consistency of study variables.** To test the normal distribution of the sample data, Q-Q plots were constructed for the residuals of the intervening endogenous variables (organizational commitment variables) and endogenous variables (burnout syndrome variables) (see Appendix E). The Shapiro-Wilk test was performed on the intervening endogenous variables (organizational commitment variables) and endogenous variables (burnout syndrome variables). While Table 5 shows that the study variables were not distributed normally, Ghasemi and Zahediasl (2012) asserted that the violation of normality assumption is not a grave concern with samples of 30 or more people.

Table 5

*Normality for Dimensions of Organizational Commitment and Burnout Syndrome*

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Affective commitment	0.921	192	0.000
Continuance commitment	0.966	192	0.000
Normative commitment	0.957	192	0.000
Emotional Exhaustion	0.963	192	0.000
Depersonalization	0.933	192	0.000
Personal Realization	0.968	192	0.000

Internal consistency of the current study variables were estimated by Cronbach's coefficient alpha, which yielded reliability coefficient of 0.81 for transactional leadership, 0.94 for transformational leadership, 0.70 for laissez-faire, 0.88 for affective commitment, 0.81 for continuance commitment, 0.74 for normative commitment, 0.88 for emotional exhaustion, 0.84 for personal realization and 0.71 for depersonalization. The reliability coefficients were consistent with those obtained by Allen and Meyer (1990), Avolio et al. (1999) and Maslach and Jackson (1981). Therefore, the measurement of the variables was reliable at an acceptable level.

**Linearity, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity of study variables.** To determine the linearity between study variables and homoscedasticity, scatterplots of residuals were used (Osborne & Waters, 2002). A visual analysis indicated the relationships between the variables were linear in nature and that the test of homoscedasticity was met (See Appendix F).



To test the multicollinearity of the exogenous variables (perception of dean's leadership), a multiple regression was performed. As shown in Table 6, multicollinearity was not a concern with all VIFs less than four (Field, 2013).

Table 6

*Multiple Regressions for Perception of Dean's Leadership.*

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)		
Transactional Leadership	0.426	2.347
Transformational Leadership	0.475	2.104
Laissez-faire	0.822	1.216

The homogeneity of variance of the study variables was tested using Levene's test. Table 7 shows that the assumptions of homogeneity are tenable (Field, 2013). The study variables met the linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity and homogeneity assumptions.

Table 7

*Test of Homogeneity of Variances of Organizational Commitment Dimensions and Burnout Syndrome*

	Levene Statistic			Sig.
		<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	
Affective Commitment	1.430	1	190	0.233
Continuance Commitment	0.003	1	190	0.958
Normative Commitment	1.436	1	190	0.232
Emotional Exhaustion	6.597	1	190	0.011
Depersonalization	4.421	1	190	0.125
Personal Realization	4.157	1	190	0.314

**Discriminant validity.** Discriminant validity was evaluated by calculating the intercorrelations between subscales of the three instruments. The *R* matrix was generated to correlate each of the dimensions of the MLQ, OCQ, and MBI (see Table 8). When the correlations between constructs are not equal to one, there is an indication that the constructs are different from each other (Gatignon, 2003). In the current study, correlations were all small to moderate and, therefore, discriminant validity is indicated. When scanning the correlation matrix shown in Table 8 it was noted that no coefficient great than 0.9 existed, which indicated no problem with the multicollinearity of the data (Field, 2013). Additionally, the determinant of the correlation matrix was 0.027, which is greater than the necessary value of 0.00001 (Field, 2013).

**RQ1.** The first research question was: What relationships, if any, exist among the variables of faculty's perception of their dean's leadership style (i.e., transactional,

transformational, and laissez-faire), organizational commitment (i.e., affective, continuance, and normative), and burnout syndrome (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization)? To test the null hypothesis, Pearson correlation coefficients were generated to identify any significant relationships. Table 8 provides the complete correlation matrix. Transactional leadership was significantly, positively correlated with affective commitment ( $r=0.231$ ), normative commitment ( $r=.384$ ), and continuance commitment ( $r=-0.159$ ). Additionally, transactional leadership was significantly negatively correlated to depersonalization ( $r=-0.155$ ), emotional exhaustion ( $r=-0.216$ ), and personal realization ( $r=-0.189$ ). Transformational leadership, although weak, was significantly, positively correlated to continuance commitment ( $r=0.162$ ), affective commitment ( $r=0.177$ ), and normative commitment ( $r=-0.350$ ). Additionally, transformational leadership was significantly negatively correlated to emotional exhaustion ( $r=-0.300$ ), depersonalization ( $r=-0.246$ ), and personal realization ( $r=-0.224$ ). Laissez-faire was significantly positively correlated to affective commitment ( $r=0.159$ ), continuance commitment ( $r=0.152$ ), and normative commitment ( $r=0.195$ ). Laissez-faire was also negatively correlated to emotional exhaustion ( $r=-0.172$ ) and depersonalization ( $r=-0.127$ ). These relationships were weak but significant at the  $p < 0.05$  level.

Significant and negative correlations were discovered between normative commitment and personal realization ( $r=-0.061$ ), and moderately and negatively correlated to emotional exhaustion ( $r=-0.530$ ), and depersonalization ( $r=-0.546$ ) (see Table 8). Continuance commitment was significantly negatively correlated to emotional exhaustion ( $r=-0.150$ ), depersonalization ( $r=-.331$ ), and personal realization ( $r=-0.219$ ).

Affective commitment was moderately and negatively correlated to emotional exhaustion ( $r=-0.543$ ), and depersonalization ( $r=-0.542$ ).

Table 8

*R Matrix for all the Study Variables*

Correlation	Depersonalization	Personal realization	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Laissez-faire
Emotional Exhaustion	.779**	-.049	-.543**	-.150*	-.530**	-.216**	-.300**	-.172**
Depersonalization		.080	-.542**	-.331**	-.546**	-.155*	-.246**	-.127*
Personal realization			.083	-.219**	-.061	-.189**	-.224**	-.024
Affective Commitment				.240**	.698**	.231**	.177*	.159*
Continuance Commitment					.285**	.159*	.162*	.152*
Normative Commitment						.384**	.350**	.195**
Transactional Leadership							.694	.323
Transformational Leadership								.030

a. Determinant=0.027

\*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**RQ2, RQ3, and RQ4.** The second, third and fourth research questions were:

- What direct effects, if any, do Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) have on the three components of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) and on burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization)?.

- What direct effect, if any, does organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) have on burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization) among faculty in Colombian higher education institutions?
- What indirect effects, if any, do Colombian faculty's perception of their deans' leadership styles (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) have on the three components of burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization)?

To answer these questions, the PROCESS procedure was used to perform the mediation analysis with bootstrapping to calculate the standard errors and confidence intervals (Hayes, 2013) in order to examine the direct effects of each of the dimensions of leadership on the dimensions of organization commitment and burnout syndrome, the direct effects of the dimensions of organization commitment on the dimensions of burnout syndrome, and the indirect effects of the dimensions of leadership on the dimensions of burnout syndrome. Unstandardized indirect effects were computed for each 5,000 bootstrapped samples with a 95% confidence interval. In addition,  $\kappa^2$  was not used as the effect size for mediation because its magnitude could decrease if the mediation effect increases. The problem of  $\kappa^2$  relates to the calculation of the maximum possible values of the indirect effect and the maximum possible indirect effect is infinity, so the definition of  $\kappa^2$  would not be correct mathematically. Therefore, the traditional mediation effect size measure  $P_M$  (the ratio of the indirect effect to the total effect) was reported because the models for the mediation analyses were considered basic according to Hayes' templates (Template Model #1; Hayes, 2013).

Table 9 presents the results for all direct effects of leadership style on the organizational commitment dimensions. A statistically significant direct effect existed between transactional leadership and affective commitment [ $F(1,190)=8.10, p=0.0049, R^2=0.05, b=0.20$ ] and normative commitment [ $F(1,190)=20.00, p<0.01, R^2=0.15, b=0.28$ ]. However, no significant direct effects existed between transactional leadership and continuance commitment.

Table 9

*Direct Effect of Leadership Style on Organizational Commitment Dimensions*

		<i>F</i>	<i>b</i>	$R^2$	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Transactional Leadership	Affective Commitment	8.10	0.20	0.05	2.85	0.0049
	Normative Commitment	20.00	0.28	0.15	4.47	0.0000
	Continuance Commitment	2.94	0.15	0.03	1.71	0.0879
Transformational Leadership	Affective Commitment	4.60	0.14	0.03	2.14	0.0331
	Normative Commitment	17.00	0.23	0.12	4.12	0.0001
	Continuance Commitment	3.33	0.14	0.03	1.82	0.0694
Laissez-faire	Affective Commitment	5.35	0.11	0.03	2.31	0.0218
	Normative Commitment	6.21	0.11	0.04	2.49	0.0136
	Continuance Commitment	4.15	0.11	0.02	2.04	0.0431

The analyses showed a significant effect also existed between transformational leadership and normative commitment [ $F(1,190)=17.00, p=0.0001, R^2=0.12, b=0.23$ ] and affective commitment [ $F(1,190)=4.60, p=0.033, R^2=0.0, b=0.14$ ]. A significant direct effect existed between laissez-faire and affective commitment [ $F(1,190)=5.35, p=0.0218,$

$R^2=0.03, b=0.11$ ], continuance commitment [ $F(1,190)=4.15, p=0.0431, R^2=0.02, b=0.11$ ], and normative commitment [ $F(1,190)=6.21, p=0.0136, R^2=0.04, b=0.11$ ].

Table 10 presents the results for all direct effects of leadership style on burnout syndrome dimensions. Statistically significant negative direct effects were discovered between transactional leadership and emotional exhaustion [ $F(1,190)=12.38, p=0.0005, R^2=0.05, b=-0.29$ ], personal realization [ $F(1,190)=11.70, p=0.0008, R^2=0.04, b=-0.24$ ], and depersonalization [ $F(1,190)=5.97, p=0.0155, R^2=0.02, b=-0.18$ ]. Significant and negative direct effects also existed between transformational leadership and emotional exhaustion [ $F(1,190)=20.40, p<0.01, R^2=0.09, b=-0.36$ ], personal realization [ $F(1,190)=13.65, p=0.0003, R^2=0.05, b=-0.25$ ], and depersonalization [ $F(1,190)=13.43, p=0.0003, R^2=0.06, b=-0.25$ ]. A statistically significant, negative direct effect existed between laissez-faire and emotional exhaustion [ $F(1,190)=6.14, p=0.0141, R^2=0.03, b=-0.18$ ]; however, no statistically significant effect existed between laissez-faire and personal realization and between laissez-faire and depersonalization.

Table 10

*Direct Effect of Leadership Style on Burnout Dimensions*

		<i>F</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Transactional Leadership	Emotional Exhaustion	12.38	-0.29	0.05	-3.52	0.0005
	Personal Realization	11.69	-0.24	0.04	-3.42	0.0008
	Depersonalization	5.97	-0.18	0.02	-2.44	0.0155
Transformational Leadership	Emotional Exhaustion	20.40	-0.36	0.90	-4.52	0.0000
	Personal Realization	13.65	-0.25	0.05	-3.70	0.0003
	Depersonalization	13.44	-0.25	0.06	-3.67	0.0003
Laissez-faire	Emotional Exhaustion	6.14	-0.18	0.03	-2.48	0.0141
	Personal Realization	0.12	-0.02	0.0006	-0.34	0.7317
	Depersonalization	3.50	-0.12	0.02	-1.87	0.0631



Figure 2 illustrates all significant paths of the direct relationships between a transactional leadership style and organizational commitment and burnout dimensions.

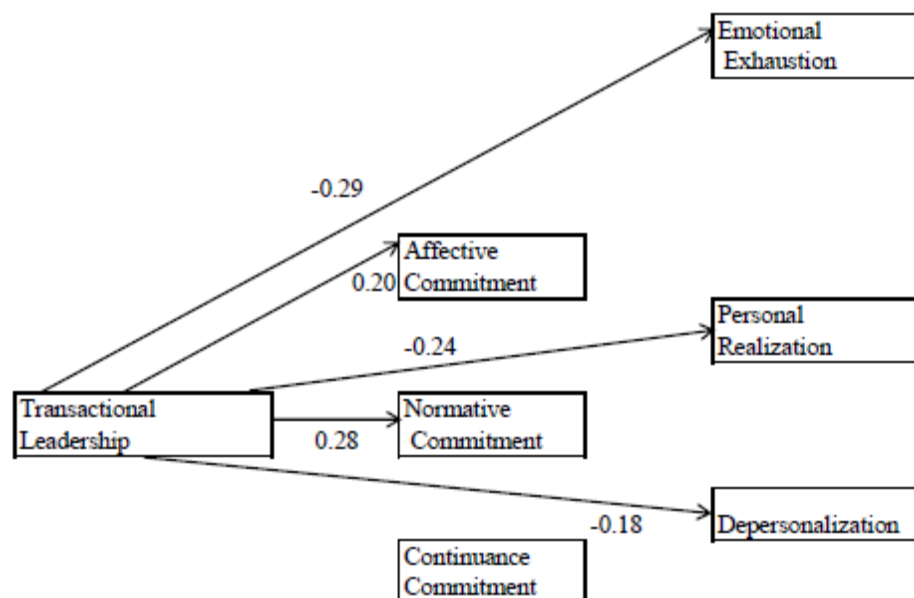


Figure 2. Direct relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment and between transactional leadership and burnout dimensions

Figure 3 illustrates all significant paths of the direct relationships between a transformational leadership style and organizational commitment and burnout dimensions.

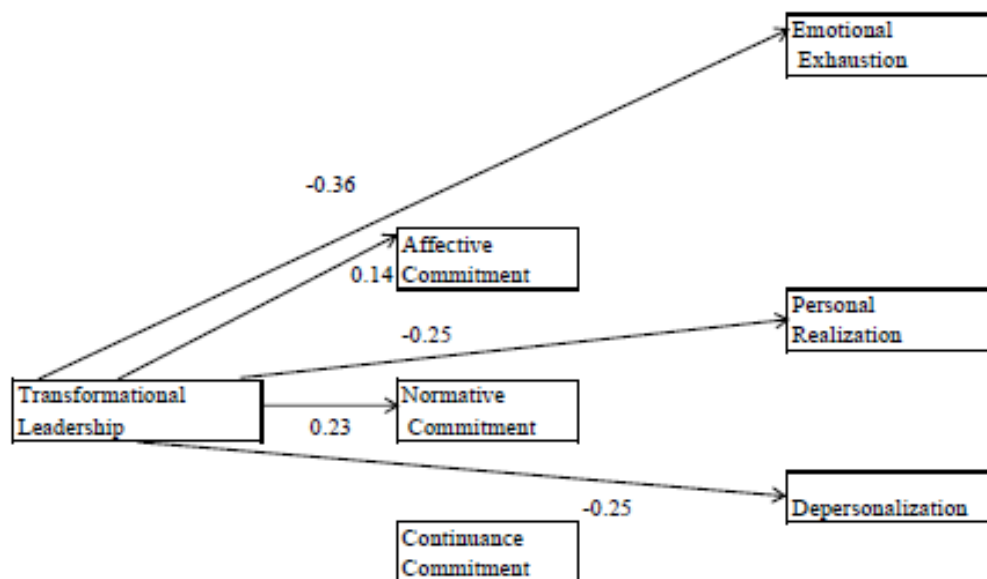


Figure 3. Direct relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment and between transformational leadership and burnout dimensions

Figure 4 illustrates all significant paths of the direct relationships between a laissez-faire leadership style and organizational commitment and burnout dimensions.

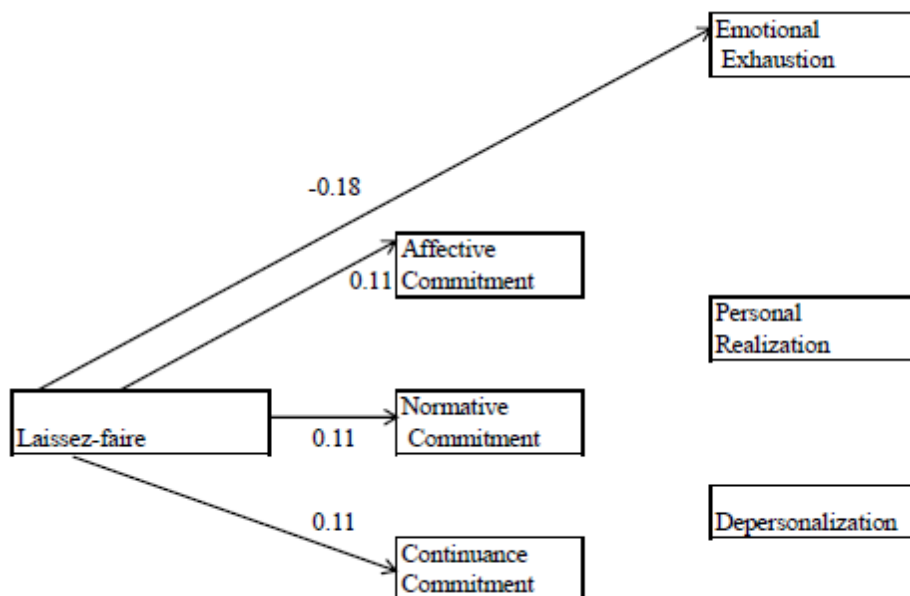


Figure 4. Direct relationship between laissez-faire and organizational commitment and between laissez-faire and burnout dimensions

Leadership style is considered a multicategorical variable because it has two experimental conditions such as organizational commitment dimensions and burnout dimensions (Hayes & Preacher, 2014). Therefore, leadership style affects organizational commitment, and this effect then propagates causally to burnout syndrome dimensions (Hayes & Preacher, 2014) resulting in different effects depending on the leadership style used in the model. Table 11 presents the results for the direct effects of organizational commitment dimensions on burnout syndrome dimensions with transactional leadership as the exogenous variable. With transactional leadership as an exogenous variable, there were statistically significant, negative, direct effects from affective commitment to emotional exhaustion [ $F(1, 190) = 21.52, p < 0.01, R^2 = 0.31, b = -0.81$ ] and to

depersonalization [ $F(1, 190) = 22.34, p < 0.01, R^2 = 0.29, b = -0.71$ ], and a statistically significant, positive effect to personal realization [ $F(1, 190) = 8.03, p = 0.0297, R^2 = 0.05, b = 0.20$ ]. Statistically significant negative direct effects existed from normative commitment to emotional exhaustion [ $F(1, 190) = 20.00, p < 0.01, R^2 = 0.28, b = -0.98$ ] and depersonalization [ $F(1, 190) = 22.77, p < 0.01, R^2 = 0.30, b = -0.91$ ]. However, no significant effects existed between normative commitment and personal realization. Statistically significant, negative, direct effects existed from continuance commitment to depersonalization [ $F(1, 190) = 13.05, p < 0.01, R^2 = 0.12, b = -0.39$ ] and to personal realization [ $F(1, 190) = 10.20, p = 0.020, R^2 = 0.07, b = -0.27$ ]. However, no significant direct effects existed between continuance commitment and emotional exhaustion.

Table 11

*Direct Effect of Organizational Commitment on Burnout Syndrome Dimensions with Transactional Leadership as the Exogenous Variable*

		<i>F</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	
Transactional Leadership	Affective Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	21.52	-0.81	0.30	-5.39	0.0000
		Personal Realization	8.03	0.20	0.05	2.19	0.0297
		Depersonalization	22.34	-0.71	0.29	-6.39	0.0000
	Normative Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	0.79	-0.98	0.28	-5.49	.0000
		Personal Realization	5.90	0.02	0.04	0.21	0.8371
		Depersonalization	22.77	-0.91	0.30	-6.58	.0000
	Continuance Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	8.40	-0.17	0.06	-1.71	0.0887
		Personal Realization	10.20	-0.27	0.07	-3.13	0.0020
		Depersonalization	13.05	-0.39	0.12	-4.53	0.0000

Table 12 presents the results for the direct effects of organizational commitment dimensions on burnout syndrome dimensions with transformational leadership as the exogenous variable. With transformational leadership as an exogenous variable, there were statistically significant negative direct effects from affective commitment to emotional exhaustion [ $F(1,190)=30.18, p<0.01, R^2=0.34, b=-0.78$ ] and to depersonalization [ $F(1,190)=24.40, p<0.01, R^2=0.32, b=-0.68$ ], and a statistically significant, positive, direct effect to personal realization [ $F(1,190)=9.14, p=0.0427, R^2=0.07, b=0.19$ ]. There were statistically significant negative direct effects from normative commitment to emotional exhaustion [ $F(1,190)=25.51, p=0.0000, R^2=0.130, b=-0.90$ ] and depersonalization [ $F(1,190)=20.93, p<0.01, R^2=0.30, b=-.84$ ]. No significant effect existed between normative commitment and personal realization. There were statistically significant negative direct effects from continuance commitment to depersonalization [ $F(1,190)=15.11, p<0.01, R^2=0.15, b=-0.37$ ] and to personal realization [ $F(1,190)=10.90; p=0.0023, R^2=0.08, b=-0.26$ ]. No significant effect existed between continuance commitment and emotional exhaustion.

Table 12

*Direct Effect of Organizational Commitment on Burnout Syndrome Dimensions with Transformational Leadership as the Exogenous Variable*

		<i>F</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	
Transformational Leadership	Affective Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	30.18	-0.78	0.34	-5.47	0.0000
		Personal Realization	9.14	0.19	0.07	2.04	0.0427
		Depersonalization	24.41	-0.68	0.32	-6.49	0.0000
	Normative Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	25.50	-0.90	0.30	-5.30	0.0000
		Personal Realization	6.83	0.03	0.05	0.29	0.7746
		Depersonalization	20.93	-0.84	0.30	-6.19	0.0000
	Continuance Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	11.36	-0.15	0.10	-1.49	0.1390
		Personal Realization	10.89	-0.26	0.08	-3.09	0.0023
		Depersonalization	15.11	-0.37	0.15	-4.27	0.0000

Table 13 presents the results for the direct effects of organizational commitment dimensions on burnout syndrome dimensions with laissez-faire as the exogenous variable. With laissez-faire as an exogenous variable, there were statistically significant negative direct effects between affective commitment and emotional exhaustion [ $F(1,190)=17.05, p<0.01, R^2=0.30, b=-0.82$ ] and depersonalization [ $F(1,190)=22.34, p<0.01, R^2=0.29$ ][ $b=-.71, t(190)=-6.59, p<0.01$ ]. No significant effects existed between affective commitment and personal realization. There were also statistically significant negative direct effects between continuance commitment and depersonalization [ $F(1,190)=13.28, p<0.01, R^2=0.12, b=-0.39$ ] as well as personal realization [ $F(1,190)=6.16, p=0.0007, R^2=0.05, b=-0.30$ ]. No significant effects existed between

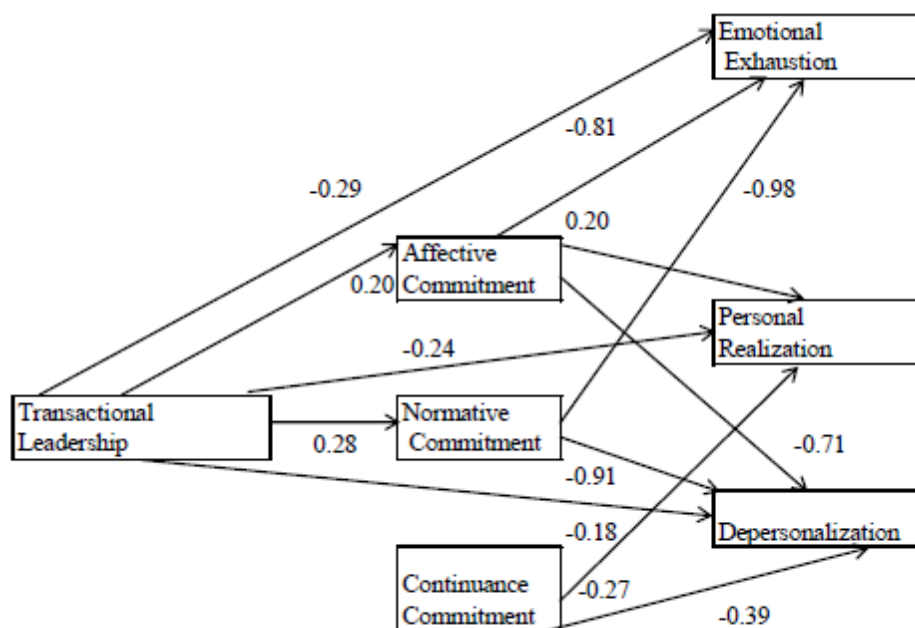
continuance commitment and emotional exhaustion. Statistically significant negative direct effects existed between normative commitment and emotional exhaustion [ $F(1,190)=19.47, p<0.01, R^2=0.29, b=-0.96$ ] and depersonalization [ $F(1,190)=21.54, p<0.01, R^2=0.30, b=-0.86$ ]. No significant effects existed between normative commitment and personal realization.

Table 13

*Direct Effect of Organizational Commitment and Burnout Syndrome Dimensions with Laissez-faire as the Exogenous Variable*

		<i>F</i>	<i>b</i>	$R^2$	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	
Laissez-Faire	Affective Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	17.05	-0.82	0.30	-5.75	0.0000
		Personal Realization	1.05	0.13	0.008	1.42	0.1567
		Depersonalization	22.35	-0.71	0.29	-6.58	0.0000
	Normative Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	19.47	-0.96	0.29	-6.14	0.0000
		Personal Realization	0.51	-0.10	0.003	-0.94	0.3502
		Depersonalization	21.54	-0.86	0.30	-6.39	0.0000
	Continuance Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	5.60	-0.18	0.05	-.1.83	0.0688
		Personal Realization	6.16	-0.30	0.05	-3.46	0.0007
		Depersonalization	13.28	-0.39	0.12	-4.59	0.0000

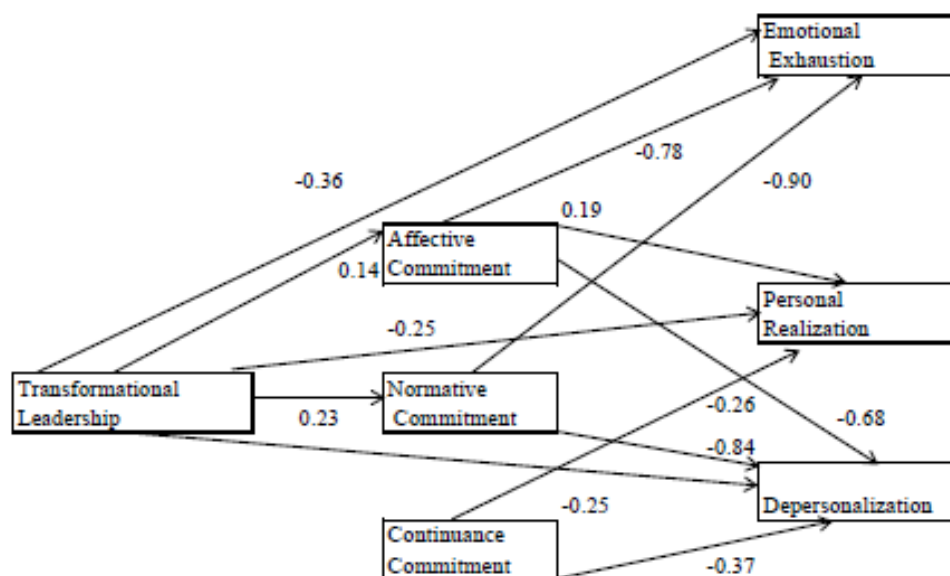
Figure 5 illustrates all the significant paths of the direct relationship between a transactional leadership style and organizational commitment and burnout dimensions; and between organizational commitment and burnout syndrome dimensions with transactional leadership style as the exogenous variable.



*Figure 5.* Direct relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment; between transactional leadership and burnout dimensions; and between organizational commitment and burnout dimensions



Figure 6 illustrates all the significant paths of the direct relationship between a transformational leadership style and organizational commitment and burnout dimensions; and between organizational commitment and burnout syndrome dimensions with transformational leadership style as the exogenous variable.



*Figure 6.* Direct relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment; between transformational leadership and burnout dimensions; and between organizational commitment and burnout dimensions

Figure 7 illustrates all the significant paths of the direct relationship between a laissez-faire leadership style and organizational commitment and burnout dimensions; and between organizational commitment and burnout syndrome dimensions with laissez-faire leadership style as the exogenous variable.

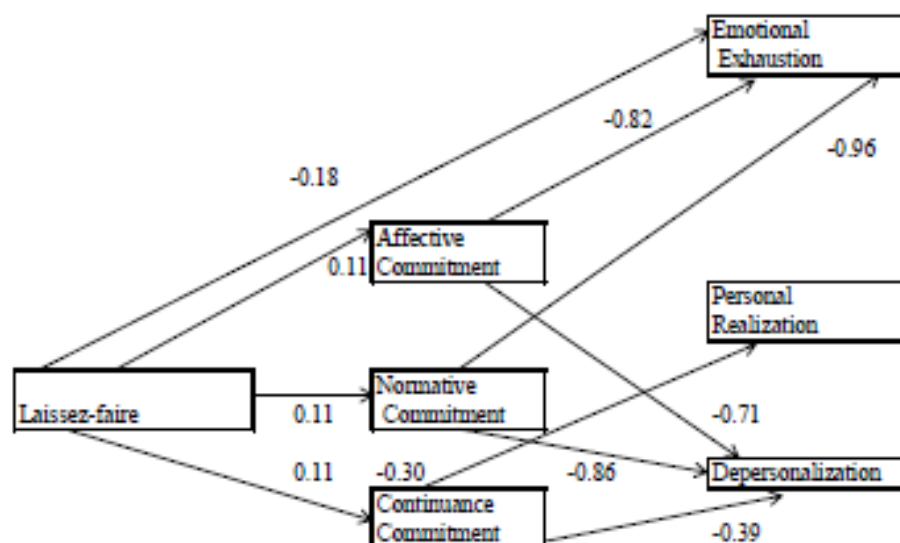


Figure 7. Direct relationship between laissez-faire and organizational commitment; between laissez-faire and burnout dimensions; and between organizational commitment and burnout dimensions

The relationship between transactional leadership style by the deans and the components of faculty burnout was mediated by organizational commitment toward the organization. Table 14 presents the results for all indirect effects of transactional leadership on the burnout syndrome dimensions through organizational commitment dimensions toward the organization. The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transactional leadership on depersonalization was -0.14, and the 95% confidence interval was [0.00, 0.00]. There was no statistically significant indirect effect of transactional

leadership style by the deans on the depersonalization component of faculty burnout through affective commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.14$ ,  $CI= [0.000, 0.000]$ . The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transactional leadership on personal realization was 0.04, and the 95% confidence interval was  $[0.0073, 0.1009]$ , which did not include zero. Therefore, there was a statistically significant indirect effect of transactional leadership style by the deans on the personal realization component of faculty burnout through affective commitment toward the organization,  $ab=0.04$ ,  $CI=[0.0073, 0.1009]$ . The mediator affective commitment could account for about 16% of the total effect,  $P_M=0.164(p=-0.24, z=1.67)$ . The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transactional leadership on emotional exhaustion was -0.16, and the 95% confidence interval was  $[-0.2957,-0.0613]$ , which did not include zero. Therefore, there was a statistically significant indirect effect of transactional leadership style by the deans on the emotional exhaustion component of faculty burnout through affective commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.16$ ,  $CI=[-0.2957,-0.0613]$ . The mediator affective commitment could account for over one-half (55.82%) of the total effect,  $P_M=0.5582 (p=-0.29, z=-2.48)$ .

The significance of the indirect effect of transactional leadership on the burnout syndrome dimensions through normative commitment toward the organization was tested using bootstrapping procedures. The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transactional leadership on depersonalization was -0.25, and the 95% confidence interval was  $(-0.3873, -0.1511)$ , which did not include zero, indicating there was a statistically significant indirect effect of the deans' use of a transactional leadership style on the depersonalization component of faculty burnout through normative commitment toward

the organization [  $ab=-0.25$ ,  $CI=-0.3873, -0.1511$ ]. The mediator normative commitment could account for less than one-fourth (22.5%) of the total effect,  $K^2=0.225$ . Thus,  $K^2$  was a preferred method for effect size based on the amount of error in *PM*. The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transactional leadership on personal realization was 0.0068, and the 95% confidence interval was [-0.0633, 0.0749], which did not include zero. Therefore, a statistically significant indirect effect of the deans' use of transactional leadership style on the personal realization component of faculty burnout through normative commitment existed toward the organization  $ab=0.0068$ ,  $CI=[-0.0633, 0.0749]$ . The mediator normative commitment could account for about 2.78% of the total effect,  $P_M=0.0278$  ( $b=-0.24$ ,  $z=-0.20$ ). The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transactional leadership on emotional exhaustion was -0.27, and the 95% confidence interval was [-0.4301,-0.1568], which did not include zero. Therefore, there was a statistically significant indirect effect of the deans' use of transactional leadership style on the emotional exhaustion component of faculty burnout through normative commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.27$ ,  $CI[-0.4301,-0.1568]$ . The mediator normative commitment could account for almost the total effect (93.49%),  $P_M=0.9349$  ( $b=-0.29$ ,  $z=-3.43$ ).

The significance of the indirect effect of transactional leadership on the burnout syndrome dimensions through continuance commitment toward the organization was tested using bootstrapping procedures. The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transactional leadership on emotional exhaustion was -0.03, and the 95% confidence interval was [-.1239, 0.00]. No statistically significant indirect effect of the deans' use of transactional leadership style on the emotional exhaustion component of faculty burnout

through continuance commitment toward the organization existed,  $ab=-0.03$ ,  $CI=[-.1239, 0.00]$ . The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transactional leadership on depersonalization was  $-0.06$ , and the 95% confidence interval was  $[-.1925, 0.00]$ . No statistically significant existed with indirect effect of the deans' use of transactional leadership style on the depersonalization component of faculty burnout through continuance commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.06$ ,  $CI=[-.1925, 0.00]$ . The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transactional leadership on personal realization was  $-0.04$ , and the 95% confidence interval was  $[0.00, 0.00]$ . No statistically significant indirect effect existed of the deans' use of transactional leadership style on the personal realization component of faculty burnout through continuance commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.04$ ,  $CI=[0.00, 0.00]$ .

Table 14

*Indirect Effect of Transactional Leadership on Burnout Syndrome Dimensions*

			<i>F</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Transactional Leadership	Affective Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	21.52	-0.81	0.30	-5.39	0.0000
		Personal Realization	8.03	-0.28	0.05	-3.85	0.0002
		Depersonalization	22.35	-0.04	0.29	-0.48	0.6335
	Normative Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	21.83	-.002	0.28	-0.23	0.8176
		Personal Realization	5.90	-0.25	0.04	-2.97	0.0034
		Depersonalization	22.77	0.07	0.30	0.88	0.3826
	Continuance Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	8.40	-0.17	0.06	-1.71	0.0887
		Personal Realization	10.20	-0.27	0.07	-3.13	0.0020
		Depersonalization	13.05	-0.39	0.12	-4.53	0.0000

The relationship between transformational leadership style by the deans and the components of faculty burnout was mediated by mediated by organizational commitment toward the organization. Table 15 presents the results for all effect of transformational leadership on the burnout syndrome dimensions through organizational commitment dimensions toward the organization. The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transformational leadership on emotional exhaustion was -0.10, and the 95% confidence interval was [-0.2686, 0.00]. No statistically significant indirect effect of the deans' use of transformational leadership style on the emotional exhaustion component of faculty burnout through affective commitment toward the organization existed,  $ab=-0.10$ ,  $CI=[-0.2686, 0.00]$ . The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transformational leadership on personal realization was 0.0258, and the 95% confidence interval was [0.00, 0.1299]. There was no statistically significant indirect effect of the deans' use of transformational leadership style on the personal realization component of faculty burnout through affective commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.0258$ ,  $CI=[0.00, 0.1299]$ . The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transformational leadership on depersonalization was -0.09, and the 95% confidence interval was [-0.2591, 0.00]; thus, no statistically significant indirect effect existed of the deans' use of transformational leadership style on the depersonalization component of faculty burnout through affective commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.09$ ,  $CI=[-0.2591, 0.00]$ .

The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transformational leadership on emotional exhaustion was -0.0204, and the 95% confidence interval was [-0.0725, 0.0017], which did not include zero. Therefore, a statistically significant indirect effect existed of the deans' use of transformational leadership style on the emotional exhaustion

component of faculty burnout through continuance commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.0204$ ,  $CI=[-0.0725,0.0017]$ . The mediator affective commitment could account for almost the total effect (5.65%),  $P_M=0.0565$  ( $b= -0.36$ ,  $z=-1.51$ ). The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect of transformational leadership on personal realization effect was -0.035, and the 95% confidence interval was  $[-0.00, -0.0226]$ . No statistically significant indirect effect existed of the deans' use of transformational leadership style on the personal realization component of faculty burnout through affective commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.035$ ,  $CI= [-0.00, -0.0226]$ . The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transformational leadership on depersonalization was -0.05, and the 95% confidence interval was  $[-0.00, -0.0357]$ . There was no statistically significant indirect effect of the deans' use of transformational leadership style on the depersonalization component of faculty burnout through affective commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.05$ ,  $CI= [-0.00, -0.0357]$ .

The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transformational leadership on emotional exhaustion was -0.20, and the 95% confidence interval was  $[-.3942, 0.00]$ . No statistically significant indirect effect existed of the deans' use of transformational leadership style on the emotional exhaustion component of faculty burnout through normative commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.20$ ,  $CI=[-.3942, 0.00]$ . The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transformational leadership on personal realization was -0.007, and the 95% confidence interval was  $[-0.00751,-0.1291]$ , which did not include zero. Therefore, a statistically significant indirect effect existed of the deans' use of transformational leadership style on the personal realization component of faculty burnout through normative commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.27$ ,  $CI[-$

0.00751,-0.1291]. The mediator normative commitment could account for almost the total effect (3.05%),  $P_M=0.0305$  ( $b=-0.36$ ,  $z=-3.21$ ). The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of transformational leadership on depersonalization was -0.19, and the 95% confidence interval was [-.3516, 0.00]. No statistically significant indirect effect existed of the deans' use of transformational leadership style on the depersonalization component of faculty burnout through normative commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.19$ ,  $CI=[-.3516, 0.00]$ .

Table 15

*Indirect Effect of Transformational Leadership on Burnout Syndrome Dimensions*

			<i>F</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Transformational Leadership	Affective Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	30.18	-0.25	0.34	-3.58	0.0004
		Personal Realization	9.14	-0.28	0.66	-4.07	0.0001
		Depersonalization	24.40	0.16	0.32	-2.56	0.0113
	Normative Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	25.50	-0.16	0.30	-2.04	0.0429
		Personal Realization	6.83	-0.26	0.05	-3.36	0.0009
		Depersonalization	20.93	-0.06	0.30	-0.97	0.3353
	Continuance Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	11.37	-0.34	0.10	-4.27	0.0000
		Personal Realization	10.90	-0.22	0.08	-3.16	0.0018
		Depersonalization	15.11	-0.20	0.15	-2.37	0.0034

The relationship between laissez-faire by the deans and the components of faculty burnout was mediated by mediated by organizational commitment toward the organization. Table 16 presents the results for all indirect effects for laissez-faire on the burnout syndrome dimensions through organizational commitment dimensions toward the organization. The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of laissez-faire on



emotional exhaustion was -0.0904, and the 95% confidence interval was [-0.2416, 0.00]. No statistically significant indirect effect existed of laissez-faire by the deans on the emotional exhaustion component of faculty burnout through affective commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.03904$ ,  $CI=[-0.2416, 0.00]$ . The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of laissez-faire on personal realization was 0.0146, and the 95% confidence interval was [-0.0025, 0.0508], which did not include zero. Therefore, there was a statistically significant indirect effect of laissez-faire by the deans on the personal realization component of faculty burnout through affective commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.0146$ ,  $CI=[-0.0025, 0.0508]$ . The mediator affective commitment could account for almost the total effect (59.43%),  $P_M=0.5943$  ( $b=-0.02$ ,  $z=1.14$ ). The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of laissez-faire and depersonalization was -0.0783, and the 95% confidence interval was [0.00, -.0589]. No statistically significant indirect effect of laissez-faire by the deans on the depersonalization component of faculty burnout through affective commitment toward the organization existed,  $ab=-0.0783$ ,  $CI=[0.00, -.0589]$ .

The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of laissez-faire on emotional exhaustion was -0.0207, and the 95% confidence interval was [-0.0792, 0.00]. There was no statistically significant indirect effect of laissez-faire by the deans on the emotional exhaustion component of faculty burnout through continuance commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.0207$ ,  $CI=[-0.0792, 0.00]$ . The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of laissez-faire on continuance commitment was -0.0445, and the 95% confidence interval was [-0.1164, 0.00]. No statistically significant indirect effect of laissez-faire by the deans on the depersonalization component of faculty burnout through continuance

commitment toward the organization existed,  $ab=-0.0445$ ,  $CI= [-0.1164, 0.00]$ . The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of laissez-faire on personal realization was  $-0.0342$ , and the 95% confidence interval was  $[-0.1301, 0.00]$ . There was no statistically significant indirect effect of laissez-faire by the deans on the personal realization component of faculty burnout through continuance commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.0342$ ,  $CI= [-0.1301, 0.00]$ .

The significance of the indirect effect was tested using bootstrapping procedures. The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of laissez-faire on emotional exhaustion was  $-0.1079$ , and the 95% confidence interval was  $[-0.2109, -0.0258]$ , which did not include zero. Therefore, a statistically significant indirect effect of the deans' use of laissez-faire style on the emotional exhaustion component of faculty burnout through normative commitment toward the organization existed,  $ab=-0.1079$ ,  $CI=[-0.2109, -0.0258]$ . The mediator normative commitment could account for less than one-tenth (10.82%) of the total effect,  $K^2=0.1082$  ( $b=-0.18$ ,  $z=-2.28$ ). Thus,  $K^2$  was a preferred method for effect size due to the amount of error in  $P_M$ . The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of laissez-faire on depersonalization was  $-0.10$ , and the 95% confidence interval was  $[-0.1929, -0.0205]$ , which did not include zero. Therefore, there was a statistically significant indirect effect of the deans' use of laissez-faire on the depersonalization component of faculty burnout through normative commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.10$ ,  $CI=[-0.1929, -0.0205]$ . The mediator normative commitment could account for almost the total effect (83.16%),  $P_M=0.8316$  ( $b=-0.12$ ,  $z=-2.30$ ). The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect of laissez-faire on personal realization was  $-0.0117$ , and the 95% confidence interval was  $[0.00, 0.00]$ . There was no statistically

significant indirect effect of laissez-faire by the deans on the personal realization component of faculty burnout through normative commitment toward the organization,  $ab=-0.0117$ ,  $CI= [-0.00, 0.00]$ .

Table 16 *Indirect Effect Laissez-faire on Burnout Syndrome Dimensions*

			<i>F</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Laissez-faire	Affective Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	17.04	-0.94	0.30	-1.34	0.1811
		Personal Realization	1.05	-0.04	0.008	-0.54	0.5927
		Depersonalization	5.35	-0.04	0.29	-0.67	0.5038
	Normative Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	19.46	-0.08	0.29	-1.14	-0.0761
		Personal Realization	0.51	-0.01	0.003	-0.18	0.8612
		Depersonalization	6.21	-0.02	0.30	-0.35	0.7275
	Continuance Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	5.60	-0.16	0.05	-2.12	0.0356
		Personal Realization	6.16	0.01	0.05	0.14	0.8923
		Depersonalization	13.28	-0.07	0.12	-1.16	0.2457

Figure 8 illustrates the complete path analysis model with all the significant paths of the direct relationship between transactional leadership style and organizational commitment and burnout dimensions and between organizational commitment and burnout syndrome dimensions with transactional leadership style as the exogenous variable. Also, it shows the indirect effect of transactional leadership style on the burnout syndrome dimensions through organizational commitment dimensions toward the organization as mediator variables.

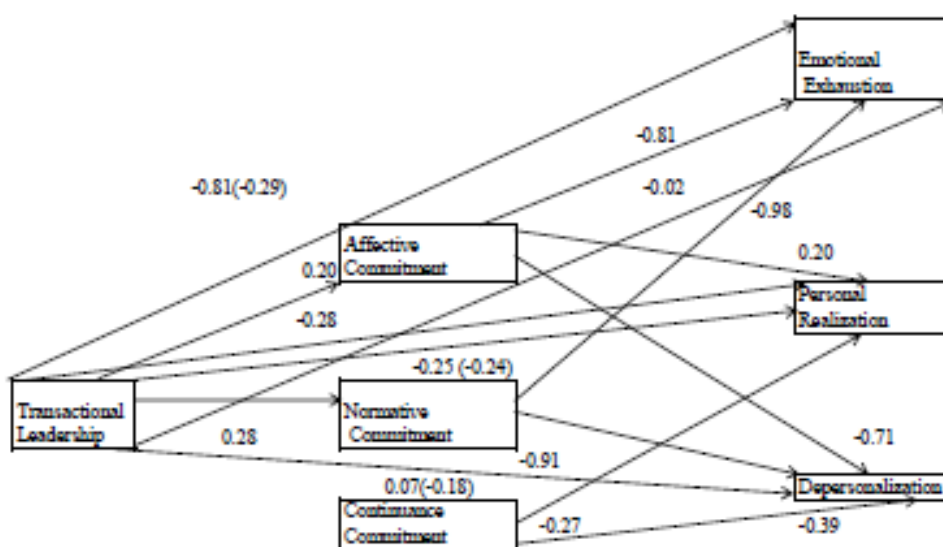


Figure 8. Complete path analysis model with transactional leadership style as the exogenous variable

Figure 9 illustrates the complete path analysis model with all the significant paths of the direct relationship between transformational leadership style and organizational commitment and burnout dimensions and between organizational commitment and burnout syndrome dimensions with transformational leadership style as the exogenous variable. Also, it shows the indirect effect of transformational leadership style on the burnout syndrome dimensions through organizational commitment dimensions toward the organization as mediator variables.

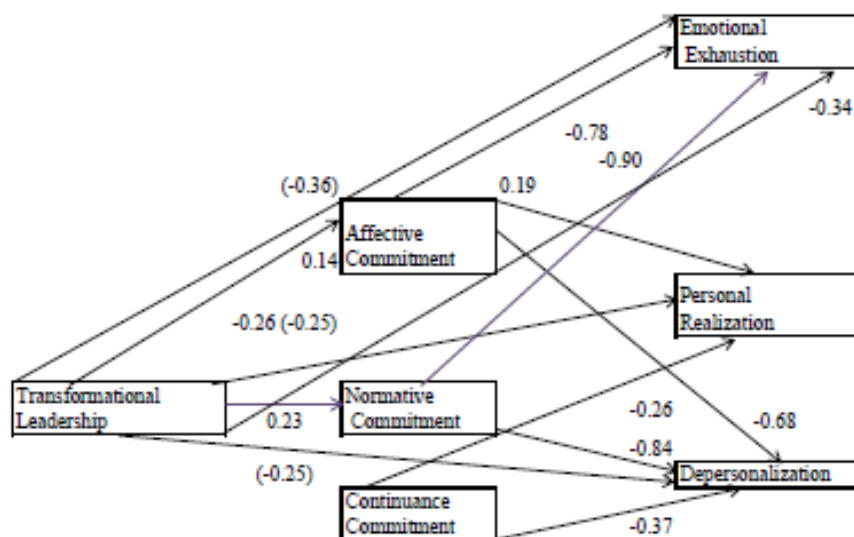


Figure 9. Complete path analysis model with transformational leadership style as the exogenous variable

Figure 10 illustrates the complete path analysis model with all the significant paths of the direct relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and organizational commitment and burnout dimensions and between organizational commitment and burnout syndrome dimensions with laissez-faire leadership style as the exogenous variable. Also, it shows the indirect effect of laissez-faire leadership style on the burnout syndrome dimensions through organizational commitment dimensions toward the organization as mediator variables.

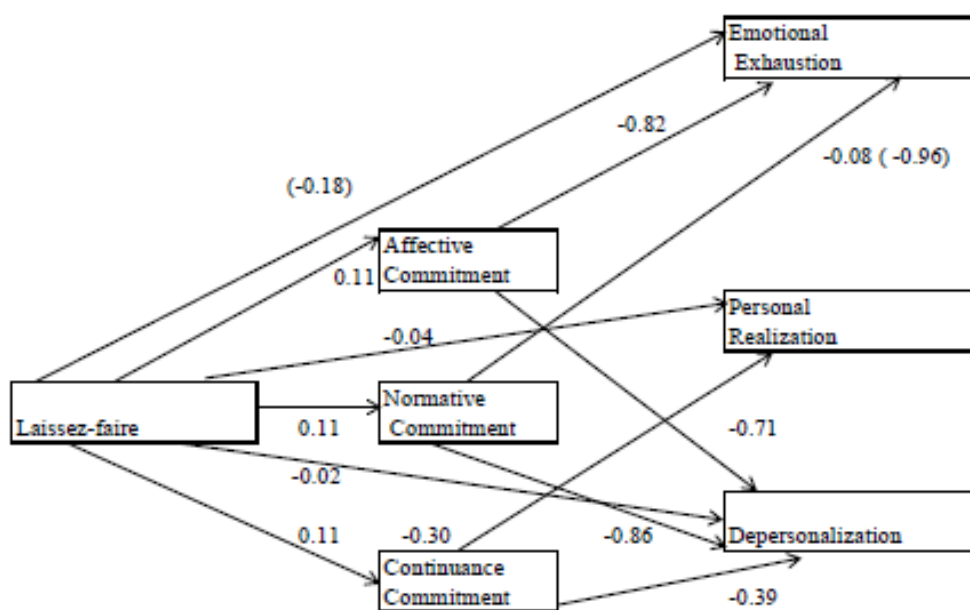


Figure 10. Complete path analysis model with laissez-faire as the exogenous variable

### Evaluation of Findings

The purpose of the current quantitative correlational study was twofold: (a) to examine the relationships among the variables of faculty perceptions of deans' leadership, organizational commitment of faculty members, and burnout among Colombian university faculty members; and (b) to identify what, if any, direct and

indirect effects the variables of faculty member perceptions of deans' leadership and organizational commitment of faculty members had on burnout among Colombian university faculty members. The perception of deans' leadership was the exogenous variable, as measured by the MLQ-5X. The burnout syndrome dimensions were the endogenous variables, as measured by the MBI. Organizational commitment dimensions were the intervening endogenous variables, as measured by the OCQ. Research concerning the prevention of burnout syndrome has been limited. Exploring prevention of burnout syndrome among Colombian faculty members was not only important for the educational quality delivered at universities (Cárdenas Rodríguez et al., 2014), but also to help decrease illness and work stress in Colombia (Castro & Araújo, 2012). The goal of the current study was to add to the limited research of faculty burnout in Colombian universities.

The first research question was used to determine if any relationships existed among the variables of faculty member perceptions of their deans' leadership style (i.e., transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire), organizational commitment (i.e., affective, continuance, and normative), and burnout syndrome (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization). The results of the current study indicated that transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership styles were significantly and positively correlated with affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment. It was determined that transformational leadership was weak but correlated positively with affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment. Additionally, the dimensions of leadership style were significantly, negatively correlated with normative commitment,

depersonalization, and emotional exhaustion. Laissez-faire leadership was determined to be weak but correlated negatively with normative commitment, depersonalization, and emotional exhaustion. Additionally, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and laissez-faire correlated with depersonalization, emotional exhaustion, and personal realization. Affective commitment and normative commitment correlated moderately and negatively to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Normative commitment and continuance commitment were significantly, negatively correlated to personal realization. Continuance commitment was significant and correlated negatively with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Based on the study results, the null hypothesis for question one was rejected. The conclusion was that one or more of the dimensions of leadership styles were significantly related to one or more of the dimensions of organizational commitment and burnout syndrome.

Analyses for the second and third research questions were used to determine if any direct effects existed among the variables of faculty member perceptions of their deans' leadership style (i.e., transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire), organizational commitment (i.e., affective, continuance, and normative), and burnout syndrome (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization). Also, the fourth question was answered, using the same analyses, to determine if any indirect effects existed among the variables of faculty member perceptions of their deans' leadership style (i.e., transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) and burnout syndrome (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization). Based on the study results, the null hypotheses for questions two, three, and four were rejected. The conclusion was that one or more of the dimensions of leadership styles had



significant direct and indirect effects on organizational commitment and burnout dimensions and that one or more organizational commitment dimensions had a direct effect on burnout dimensions.

The findings from the current study were consistent with findings by Othman et al. (2013), Rehman et al. (2012), Saeed et al. (2013), Tabbodi (2009), and Tahir et al. (2014). Additionally, Othman et al. (2013), Rehman et al. (2012), Saeed et al. (2013), Tabbodi (2009), and Tahir et al. (2014) found that transactional and transformational leadership styles were related to organizational commitment at higher education institutions. Additionally, the results from the current study were expected, because according to the review of the literature, leadership styles indicated that a significant proportion of the variance in organizational commitment accounted for increasing faculty member commitments to the organizations (Othman et al., 2013; Rehman et al., 2012; Saeed et al., 2013; Tabbodi, 2009; Tahir et al., 2014). Within the current study, the literature review did not show any research regarding the effects of dean leadership styles on the dimensions of burnout syndrome. However, prior to the current study, positive effects regarding the effect of leadership on burnout of employees were expected, primarily based on the findings by Bass (1985) indicating leadership style motivated and encouraged employees, and changed their feelings toward their jobs. In a different setting, leadership styles were a predictor of faculty member job satisfaction (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014) and faculty member personal goals, capacity beliefs, and context beliefs (Lo et al., 2010). Therefore, the current study findings can be added to the current literature regarding the effects of leadership styles on burnout syndrome dimensions in anticipated ways, based on previous findings regarding the positive effects of

transactional and transformational leadership styles on employee satisfaction towards their jobs (Bass, 1985). However, unexpected results were found to be related to the relationship between laissez-faire leadership style, organizational commitment, and burnout dimensions of faculty members. In previous research, researchers found that when leaders show laissez-faire leadership style, that is, ignoring problems and subordinate's needs (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008), an unanticipated effect on faculty organizational commitment and burnout syndrome may result.

The results of the current study showed that transactional leadership had direct, positive, and significant effects on affective and normative commitment. Current study results were used to confirm the findings of Saeed et al. (2013). Saeed et al. (2013) concluded that a transactional leadership style was related positively to affective commitment. Additionally, the results of the current study indicated that transformational leadership had a positive direct effect on normative commitment and affective commitment, but no effect on continuance commitment. Results from the current study were contradictory to results from Saeed et al. (2013), who found that a transactional leadership style was related positively to continuance commitment and affective commitment, and had no effect on normative commitment. Unexpectedly, the results of the current study indicated that the laissez-faire had a direct, positive, and significant effect on affective, continuance, and normative commitments.

No studies regarding the effects of laissez-faire on organizational commitment dimensions were found in the literature review. In fact, during the literature review, no existing studies regarding leadership styles as predictors of organizational commitment and burnout syndrome were identified. However, other researchers explored burnout

syndrome as an antecedent of organizational commitments (Nagar, 2012; Salehi & Gholtash, 2011; Yongzhan, 2014), and as a result of organizational commitment (Mercado-Salgado & Gil-Monte, 2010). In the current study, burnout syndrome caused by organizational commitment was explored. Similar to the present study, Mercado-Salgado and Gil-Monte (2010) found that normative and affective commitments were negatively related to burnout syndrome. However, the current study was used to extend beyond the results of Mercado-Salgado and Gil-Monte (2010) to explore leadership dimensions as antecedents of organizational commitment and the effect of the dimensions of organizational commitment on different dimensions of burnout syndrome. Based on the current study, the new findings were expected because high organizational commitment is used to fulfill employee psychological needs to feel comfortable within an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990) and to decrease chronic stress leading to burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The current study is used to help clarify the antecedent or consequence dilemma of burnout syndrome in higher education institutions, because as Karakus et al. (2014) and Mercado-Salgado and Gil-Monte (2010) noted, burnout syndrome was an outcome of organizational commitment.

Affective commitment was found to have a direct negative effect on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization among faculty. Findings from the current study were anticipated because, as noted by Allen and Meyer (1990), faculty members who experience affective commitment feel connected to the organization and the emotional trait of connection will protect faculty members from burnout syndrome. Additionally, continuance commitment was found to have a negative direct effect on personal realization and depersonalization and normative commitment was found to have a

negative direct effect on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. However, the finding of decreased burnout dimensions because employees remained with the organization based on the perceived cost of leaving or because they felt obligated to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990) was surprising because faculty members did not stay with the organization based on desire.

In the literature review, no studies were found regarding leadership style and burnout syndrome among faculty members. However, in a previous study of nursing personnel, it was found that transformational leadership was positively associated with personal realization, and negatively associated with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Kanste, 2008). Kanste (2008) concluded that transformational leadership style and laissez-faire were positively related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and negatively related to personal realization. In the current study, results were found to be contradictory to findings by Kanste (2008) because the current research findings showed that transformational leadership was significantly and negatively correlated to personal realization.

When examining the study results, direct effects of leadership styles on burnout dimensions were found. Transactional leadership had a direct negative effect on emotional exhaustion, personal realization, and depersonalization. It was expected that transactional leadership would have a direct negative effect on burnout syndrome dimensions because traits such as praise for work well done and recommendations for economic benefits (Bass, 1985) influence employee attitudes toward their jobs.

Transformational leadership was shown to have a significant negative direct effect on emotional exhaustion, personal realization, and depersonalization. The negative direct

effect of transformational leadership on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization was expected, because transformational leaders increased motivation and satisfaction by subordinates with the leaders (Bass, 1985) and decreased burnout syndrome when making subordinates enthusiastic about their assignments (Bass, 1985). Surprisingly, laissez-faire had a direct negative effect on emotional exhaustion. The fact that leader nonresponsiveness could be seen as equitable and that it influences burnout of faculty members was unexpected.

In the literature review, no studies were found in which researchers explored the indirect effect of leadership styles on the dimensions of burnout syndrome. However, Lee (2013) explored the influence of leadership styles of university supervisors on organizational effectiveness using organizational commitment and organizational change of faculty as mediators. Lee (2013) found that organizational commitment and organizational change had a significant mediating effect between leadership styles and organizational effectiveness. The current study results showed that organizational commitment dimensions mediated the relationship between leadership styles and burnout dimensions. In a similar study, Yu (2013) investigated the relationship between transformational leadership of superiors and organizational commitment of faculty subordinates with goal setting, self-efficacy, and goal-self-concordance as mediators. Yu (2013) found that transformational leadership exerts an indirect effect on organizational commitment of faculty. In the current study, results indicated that transformational leadership had an indirect effect on the relationship between organizational commitment and burnout dimensions. In a different setting involving nurses, Zhou et al. (2014) evaluated the relationship between core self-evaluation and burnout with organizational

commitment as a mediator. The findings showed that core self-evaluation had a significant positive predictive effect on burnout syndrome (Zhou et al., 2014). In the current study, organizational commitment dimensions were mediators between transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and burnout dimensions. Surprisingly, laissez-faire had an indirect effect on emotional exhaustion, personal realization and depersonalization. The fact that the absence of leadership decreases burnout of faculty members was unexpected.

Additionally, within the nursing environment, Madathil et al. (2014) examined the relationship between nurse supervisors' leadership styles and nurses' burnout, with work role autonomy and psychological distress as mediators. Perceptions of leadership styles influenced the component of personal realization (Madathil et al., 2014). The studies are important for the current study because researchers provided examples of the use of path analysis to examine indirect effects between leadership styles, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome. The ideal path to decrease burnout syndrome involves transactional leadership style as the exogenous variable, because it has the most direct and indirect effects on organizational commitment and burnout syndrome variables. The current study results are unexpected, because transformational leadership style has more positive effects on subordinates than transactional leadership (Bass, 1985), and should have increased more organizational commitment than transactional leadership.

### **Summary**

The purpose for the current quantitative correlational study was twofold: (a) to examine the relationships among the variables of faculty member perceptions of dean

leadership, organizational commitment of faculty members, and burnout among Colombian university faculty members; and (b) to identify what, if any, direct and indirect effects the variables of faculty member perceptions of dean leadership and organizational commitment of faculty members had on burnout among Colombian university faculty members. An email invitation was sent to 301 adjunct faculty members at three Colombian universities. The invitation contained a link to an electronic survey via SurveyMonkey<sup>®</sup>. Of the 301 survey invitations sent, 246 surveys were retrieved from faculty members. However, eight participants declined the informed consent form, and 46 participants did not answer all questions within the MLQ-5X, OCQ, and MBI. Therefore, after excluding the missing data, the final sample size for the study was 192 participants, which was representative of the survey population.

Hypothesis 1 was tested using linear regression. Correlations between leadership styles, organizational commitment, and burnout dimensions were found. Hypotheses 2 through 4 were tested using bootstrapping techniques. First, the direct effect between leadership styles, organizational commitment dimensions, and burnout syndrome dimensions were examined. Secondly, the direct effects of organizational commitment on burnout syndrome were studied. Finally, the indirect effects of leadership styles on burnout syndrome were analyzed. Nine figures were developed showing all the significant direct and indirect effects with their respective paths (see Figures 2-10).

## Chapter 5: Implications, Recommendations, and Conclusions

Burnout is the feeling of exhaustion and fatigue that a person experiences (Freudenberger, 1975) and was identified among faculty in higher education settings (Karakus et al., 2014; Mercado-Salgado & Gil-Monte, 2010; Nagar, 2012; Salehi & Gholtash, 2011; Yongzhan, 2014). Those who suffer from burnout experienced a decrease in their quality of life (Cárdenas Rodríguez et al., 2014), personal relations (Correa-Correa, 2012) and health (Magaña Medina et al., 2014). Universities face the challenge of finding ways to prevent burnout syndrome to decrease absenteeism and turnover (Lawler & Hackman, 1971). Variables such as organizational commitment have an effect on burnout syndrome (Mercado-Salgado & Gil-Monte, 2010). In addition, leadership styles within higher education institutions influence organizational commitment (Lee, 2013; Tahir, Abdullah, Ali, & Daud, 2014). Without clarification of variables that influence burnout syndrome, university officials and managers cannot prevent burnout syndrome among their faculty to decrease turnover intentions and mental disease.

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was twofold: (1) to examine the relationships among the variables of faculty perception of deans' leadership, organizational commitment of faculty, and burnout among Colombian university faculty; and, (2) to identify what, if any, direct and indirect effects the variables of faculty perception of deans' leadership and organizational commitment of faculty had on burnout among Colombian university faculty. Faculty members of three universities located in the city of Bogotá, Colombia were surveyed using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), and the Multifactor



Burnout Inventory (MBI). Demographic data regarding age, sex, and years of teaching experience were also collected. Of the 301 faculty in the sample, 246 surveys were returned; however, after excluding surveys from participants that declined the consent form and those who did not answer all the questions, 192 surveys were included in the data analysis.

The dean of each school within the participant universities was contacted to ask for permission to engage faculty in the study. In addition, the target universities' Institutional Review Boards (IRB) and Northcentral University's IRB approved of the study and data collection prior to conducting the research. Demographic data were analyzed using descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations). The exogenous variables (perceptions of dean's leadership), intervening endogenous variables (organizational commitment variables), and endogenous variables (burnout syndrome variables) were analyzed using descriptive statistics, to include means and standard deviations. Correlational analyses were performed for all variables to address the first research question. For questions two, three, and four, the PROCESS<sup>®</sup> procedure, within IBM SPSS<sup>®</sup>, was used to perform the mediation analysis with bootstrapping to calculate the standard errors and confidence intervals (Hayes, 2013) to examine the direct effects of each of the dimensions of leadership on the dimensions of organization commitment and of burnout syndrome, the direct effects of the dimensions of organization commitment on the dimensions of burnout syndrome, and the indirect effects of leadership style on the dimensions of burnout syndrome. This chapter includes a discussion of the implications of the findings of this study. Each question is discussed

individually and conclusions are drawn. Finally, recommendations for future research and practice are presented.

### **Implications**

One of the health problems that faculty members face, based on work-related stress, is known as burnout syndrome (Botero Alvarez, 2012). The problem is that, in recent years, Colombian faculty members have been affected by burnout syndrome with a reportedly moderate to high presence of the syndrome (Correa-Correa, 2012; Ferrel Ortega et al., 2010; Gonzalez Portillo et al., 2011); however, existing researchers have failed to consider possible variables associated with faculty burnout, namely organizational commitment and deans' leadership styles, which have been examined in American and European universities (Jones & Rudd, 2008; Magaña Medina, Aguilar-Morales, & Sánchez-Escobedo, 2014; Moreno-Jimenez et al., 2009; Saeed et al., 2013). Specifically, researchers have not clearly identified variables or predictors that explain the high or low presence of burnout syndrome (Ferrel Ortega et al., 2010; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011) in Colombian faculty. Burnout syndrome negatively affects Colombian higher education institutions, as increased economic resources are spent replacing faculty members because of resulting illness and turnover (Botero Alvarez, 2012; Nagar, 2012; Terán, Rosero, & Botero Alvarez, 2011). The institutions also show a decrease in the quality of education based on low performance of faculty members (Cárdenas Rodriguez et al., 2014). Without clarification of variables that contribute to burnout syndrome, academic leaders cannot effectively identify viable solutions for combating this growing problem. Four research questions with their corresponding hypotheses were posed to investigate the present study's documented

problem. Following are the four questions developed to address the analysis of the exogenous variables (perception of dean's leadership), intervening endogenous variables (organizational commitment variables), and endogenous variables (burnout syndrome variables) and the implications drawn based on the findings presented in Chapter 4.

**Research Question 1.** What relationships, if any, exist among the variables of faculty's perception of their deans' leadership style (i.e., transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire), organizational commitment (i.e., affective, continuance, and normative), and burnout syndrome (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal realization)?

The current study findings were used to provide further understanding of leadership styles, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome. These findings indicated that deans with transformational and transactional leadership were correlated strongly to faculty members with normative commitment. The findings in the current study matched existing leadership and organizational commitment theory given theoretical framework proponents have suggested that transformational and transactional leadership were positively correlated to organizational commitment (I-Chao, 2013; Nordin 2012; Othman et al., 2013; Rehman et al., 2012). The current study results showed that transactional and transformational leadership styles had a positive correlation with affective, normative, and continuance commitment. The results can be used to add to the body of literature on leadership theory, because further investigation of the correlations between the variables was needed in Latin American universities, particularly in Colombia, so university administrators could enhance organizational commitment of faculty members using the leadership practices of university deans.

Results from the current study indicated a strong negative correlation between the three dimensions of organizational commitment and the two burnout dimensions of depersonalization and emotional exhaustion. The results can be used to imply that faculty members with organizational commitment will be more resistant to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization than their counterparts who are not commitment to the organization. Additionally, results from the current study can be added to the theory of organizational commitment and burnout syndrome. Further, the current study is important because few empirical studies exist regarding organizational commitment and burnout within the educational sector. The results from the current study can be used to help clarify the antecedent or outcome dilemma (Karakus et al., 2014) based on the result indications that organizational commitment is an antecedent of burnout syndrome. Therefore, committed faculty members are less likely to exhibit emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

The findings from the current study indicated that laissez-faire leadership style was weakly positively correlated to affective and continuance commitment. Studies regarding the effect of laissez-faire leadership style on organizational commitment were scarce; however, findings from the current study were relative to laissez-faire leadership theory to increase knowledge. The effects on organizational commitment could be caused by the uniqueness of the work performed by faculty members, because direct supervision of a superior is not needed for their work. Furthermore, some faculty members preferred to have more independence, thereby the lack of leadership enhanced their organizational commitment.

Additionally, the findings of the current study indicated that laissez-faire leadership style was weakly negatively correlated to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. In the literature review, no studies were found where researchers related laissez-faire leadership style and its effect on burnout syndrome. The current study results have added to organizational commitment and burnout theory data, because the findings indicated that laissez-faire leadership style increased affective and continuance commitment, and reduced emotional exhaustion and depersonalization within the educational setting.

**Research Questions 2, 3, and 4.** The current study results seemed to indicate that leaders using transactional leadership style are more likely to have faculty members who show affective commitment and normative commitment. Faculty members with affective commitment want to stay with the organization, and faculty members with normative commitment feel responsibility to the organization and will not leave it. Therefore, committed faculty members will stay longer with the organization, thus helping university leaders save money more effectively by eliminating the need to train new employees.

In addition, affective and normative organizational commitment dimensions decreased the depersonalization and emotional exhaustion of faculty members. Also, transactional leadership style had direct and indirect negative effects of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. The implication here is that leaders using a transactional leadership style are more likely to have faculty members who show more affective and normative commitment and experience less emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. The current study results matched the finding of leadership and

organizational commitment theorists who stated transactional leadership was positively related to affective and normative commitment (Saeed et al., 2013) and organizational commitment reduced burnout syndrome among faculty members (Mercado-Salgado & Gil-Monte, 2010). Findings from the current study added to leadership and burnout theory because results showed that transactional leadership had direct and indirect effects on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization of faculty members.

Additionally, the current study findings indicated that both transactional and transformational leadership styles have direct positive effects on affective and normative commitment. However, the current study results showed the use of transactional leadership style had the stronger effect on the variables. In turn, the use of transformational leadership style was likely to reduce directly and more effectively emotional exhaustion and depersonalization by faculty members than the transactional leadership style. The study findings indicated a stronger negative relationship between transformational leadership, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization. Faculty members who were lead by transformational leaders may experiment less burnout, because their leaders make them feel self-confident, encouraged, proud, and enthusiastic (Bass, 1985). Therefore, leaders' characteristics were used as a protection from burnout syndrome.

However, both transactional and transformational leadership styles had a negative direct and indirect negative effect (with normative commitment as the intervening endogenous variable) on personal realization. Low personal realization was not positive for employees, because they did not feel satisfied with their jobs and professional lives. The data regarding low personalization indicated that a low score on personal

realization showed higher degrees of burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The fact could be explained because faculty members may feel burdened by the intervention by deans on their work, causing faculty members to have less positive personal realization.

No effect was found between normative commitment and personal realization with the three leadership dimensions as exogenous variables, which indicated that personal realization by faculty members was not related to feelings of having to remain with the organization. The current study was used to confirm existing theory regarding transformational leadership that indicated transformational leadership was positively related to affective commitment and continuance commitment (Saeed et al., 2013). Also, the current study findings were contradictory with those of Rehman et al. (2012) because they found that transformational leadership style had a stronger correlation with organizational commitment than transactional leadership style.

The findings from the current study were used to add to current organizational commitment theories, because the results showed transformational leadership style had a positive direct effect on normative commitment. The current study findings showed that a transformational leadership style had direct and indirect effects on burnout dimensions, thus transformational and burnout theories were expanded. The results were interesting because, like transactional leadership, transformational leadership decrease the personal realization of employees.

Study results indicated that a leader with laissez-faire had faculty members who experienced all the dimensions of organizational commitment and laissez-faire leaders hindered all burnout syndrome dimensions on faculty members. Laissez-faire leadership style had medium positive direct effects on organizational commitment of faculty

members and negatively small direct and indirect effects on the three dimensions of burnout syndrome of faculty, thereby adding to the current leadership and burnout theory because the literature review did not show any studies regarding the effects of laissez-faire on organizational commitment and burnout dimensions. This implies those faculty with deans who demonstrate a laissez-faire leadership style will be less likely to have faculty with little burnout and more likely to have committed faculty.

The study results showed that with laissez-faire as the exogenous variable, affective commitment had a stronger negative effect on emotional exhaustion among the other leadership styles. The indication may be that with the absence of leadership, faculty members feel less emotionally drained because laissez-faire leaders do not closely monitor them. Laissez-faire was the only study variable that showed a direct positive effect on continuance commitment. The direct positive effect may be an indication that based on the absence of leadership involvement, faculty members desire to remain with the university because they are relatively unmonitored. However, the study results must be interpreted with caution, because if faculty members are left alone (unmonitored), a significant possibility exists that the desirable outcomes sought by university officials may not be achieved.

With transactional and transformational leadership styles as the exogenous variables, affective commitment was the only organizational commitment dimension that had a positive direct effect on personal realization. The results could be explained by the fact that people who are emotionally attached to the organization feel successful in their work. However, when laissez-faire style was the exogenous variable, affective commitment did not have any effect on personal realization. The absence of leadership



may have an unforeseen effect on personal realization through affective commitment. These research results were consistent with Mercado-Salgado and Gil-Monte (2010), because Mercado-Salgado and Gil-Monte found that the dimension of affective commitment could prevent burnout syndrome. However, the current study results were contradictory with those of Karakus et al. (2014) who did not find a significant direct relationship between organizational commitment and burnout syndrome. The current study was used to expand the leadership, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome theory, because the findings showed the positive effect that transformational and transactional leadership, as the exogenous variable, has on the relationship between affective commitment and personal realization.

### **Recommendations**

The findings of the current study can be used to present open recommendations for practice in higher education. Based on the current study results, a transactional leadership style is the most desirable style that deans can use because of the greater effects on organizational commitment and burnout syndrome dimensions. Leaders of institutions of higher education who need to retain faculty members should consider creating hiring policies and criteria designed to employ transactional leaders when hiring new staff and train existing leaders to employ transactional leadership practices. Leaders who use transactional leadership style foster organizational commitment and decrease turnover intentions of faculty members by eliminating or reducing burnout. If university administrators desire to decrease more directly the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization of faculty members, administrators should train and hire leaders who use the transformational leadership style. Finally, university administrators could

increase faculty's personal realization in two ways, using leadership styles and organizational commitment. Initially, university administrators should implement training policies involving the benefits of a dean's feedback, because faculty members who have deans who are too involved could evaluate themselves negatively and feel dissatisfied with their job's accomplishments. Second, university administrators should foster affective commitment of faculty members using new goals and values of the organization that align with the goals and values of employees. Therefore, faculty member involvement regarding the set of goals and values of the university is crucial to achieve personal realization. If university administrators desire to increase the personal realization of their employees, they should refrain from fostering continuance commitment. Faculty members should feel the desire to stay with the organization instead of feeling they "have" to stay.

The findings of this study propose recommendations for future research in higher education. Transactional leadership has direct and indirect effects on the burnout syndrome dimensions of faculty members. Researchers in future studies in the higher educational context could replicate the current study using larger populations in higher education settings to determine if the results regarding organizational commitment and burnout of faculty are generalizable. The results of the current study will be provided to the participant sites as a courtesy for allowing the study. Replication of the current study conducted after university administrators begin hiring transactional leaders and instituting training policies that enhance transactional leadership practices could be useful in determining if transactional leaders have the anticipated effect of increased organizational commitment and decreased burnout among faculty. The replication of the current study

could be used to provide more evidence that transactional leadership is more effective in the higher education environment than transformational leadership.

Previously, researchers found that transformational leadership style was preferred among leaders (Jones & Rudd, 2008). Bass (1985) found transformational leaders promoted a higher quality of performance and innovation among their subordinates. Additionally, subordinates believed their transformational leader created commitment and belief in the organization (Bass, 1985). However, findings from the current study indicated that a transformational leadership style was not as desirable as a transactional leadership style within the higher educational environment. Current universities environments may have unique characteristics where faculty members do not often interact directly with deans but instead interact with program chairs or area directors. Therefore, future researchers should replicate the current study, but deviate by examining program chair leadership styles versus dean leadership styles to determine the effect on organizational commitment and burnout syndrome of faculty members.

In addition, future quantitative research could be conducted to determine the reasons transactional leaders foster organizational commitment dimensions better than transformational leaders. Using the same participant sites, one transformational leader and one transactional leader could be identified. Faculty members of transformational leaders and transactional leaders could be invited to answer the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to address the following questions:

- What, if any, direct effects do the dimensions of transformational leadership style (charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration)

have on the organizational commitment dimensions (affective, continuance, and normative)?

- What, if any, direct effects do the dimensions of transactional leadership style (contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive avoidant leadership) have on the organizational commitment dimensions (affective, continuance, and normative)? The data could be analyzed using correlations and linear regressions to draw conclusions.

Laissez-faire leadership style may have significant influence on subordinates as indicated in the current study; therefore, further research is warranted (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). Further investigation regarding the correlation between laissez-faire leadership style, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome is important within the higher educational environment. Future researchers could replicate the current study at other universities to help generalize the current findings regarding the direct effect of laissez-faire on organizational commitment and burnout dimensions. However, leaders need to interpret the current findings regarding laissez-faire leadership style with caution as higher education settings are unique and faculty members do not necessarily believe they need a leader to perform their jobs. Hence, the absence of leadership could cause high organizational commitment and low burnout among faculty members. Faculty members have to meet performance expectations, including productivity in teaching and research and student satisfaction (Gormley & Kennely, 2010), and performance expectations may be affected by lack of proper supervision and guidance from deans. Future researchers should conduct qualitative research to determine if faculty members who are led by deans using the laissez-faire leadership style can meet the desired

outcomes, including student learning and achievement, involvement with the university, academic achievement, and enrollment. Additionally, interviews could be conducted at the same participant sites with voluntary laissez-faire deans who evaluate the performances of their subordinates. The study could be used to answer the following question: To what extent do faculty members, who have deans who exhibit show laissez-faire, meet the university's goals? Data could be organized using an analytical framework approach so the qualitative report would be organized around essential issues (Quinn, 2002).

### **Conclusions**

The problem investigated in this study was that researchers failed to consider possible variables associated with faculty burnout, namely organizational commitment and deans' leadership styles that explain the high or low presence of burnout syndrome (Ferrel Ortega et al., 2010; Rojas Botero & Grisales Romero, 2011) in Colombian faculty. The purpose of this qualitative correlational study was twofold: (1) to examine the relationships among the variables of faculty perception of deans' leadership, organizational commitment of faculty, and burnout among Colombian university faculty, and (2) to identify what, if any, direct and indirect effects the variables of faculty perception of deans' leadership and organizational commitment of faculty have on burnout among Colombian university faculty. The first research question was answered using correlation analysis and the second, third and fourth research questions were answered using bootstrapping techniques. The current study added to the current leadership, organizational commitment, and burnout syndrome theories, because data were used to confirm the direct effects of transactional and transformational leadership

style on organizational commitment dimensions and the direct effect of organizational commitment on burnout syndrome. However, the current study showed new implications for leadership and burnout theories, because data indicated that all leadership styles had direct and indirect effects on burnout dimensions of faculty members. Findings from the current study showed that laissez-faire leadership style had a direct positive effect on organizational commitment of faculty members, thereby adding to current leadership theory.

The current study had a limitation regarding participation. Thirty six percent of the participant faculty declined the informed consent form or did not answer all questions across all instruments, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X); the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ); and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). Based on the current study, the researcher posed recommendations for practice and for future research. Importantly, the current study indicated that transactional leadership style was most useful for enhancing more affective and organizational commitment, reducing burnout syndrome dimensions in faculty members than other leadership styles. University administrators may want to use results from the current study to justify hiring an increased number of transactional leaders and instituting policies that teach transactional leadership to decrease turnover intentions and work-related stress (burnout syndrome). Future researchers could replicate the current study among larger populations to determine if the results are generalizable or to examine the leadership styles of program chairs to determine effects on organizational commitment and burnout syndrome of faculty members. More significantly, researchers could replicate the current study after university administrators hire transactional leaders and implement training

policies that enhance transactional leadership style among leaders. Finally, conducting future qualitative research at other universities could be useful in determining whether desirable outcomes determined by the university occur when faculty members are lead by deans using the laissez-faire leadership style.

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## Appendixes

## Appendix A: Demographic Survey Questions

Please answer the following demographic questions:

Please select the choice that best describes your current status

1. Gender
  - Male
  - Female
  
2. Age
  - 21-40
  - 41-60
  - 61 +
  
3. Years of tenure
  - Up to 5 years
  - 6 to 10 years
  - 11 to 15 years
  - 16 to 20 years
  - 21 +

## Appendix B: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X)

This questionnaire is used to describe the leadership style of the above-mentioned individual as you perceive it. Answer all items on this answer sheet. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank. Please answer this questionnaire anonymously.

Important (necessary for processing): Which best describes you?

\_\_\_ I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.

\_\_\_ The person I am rating is at my organizational level.

\_\_\_ I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.

\_\_\_ Other than the above.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently if not always
0	1	2	3	4

The Person I Am Rating. . .

1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	0	1	2	3	4
2. *Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4
6. *Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs	0	1	2	3	4
7. Is absent when needed	0	1	2	3	4
8. *Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	0	1	2	3	4
9. *Talks optimistically about the future	0	1	2	3	4
10. *Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her	0	1	2	3	4
11. Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	0	1	2	3	4
12. Waits for things to go wrong before taking action	0	1	2	3	4
13. *Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0	1	2	3	4
14. *Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	0	1	2	3	4

15. *Spends time teaching and coaching	0 1 2 3 4
16. Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	0 1 2 3 4
17. Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."	0 1 2 3 4
18. *Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	0 1 2 3 4
19. *Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group	0 1 2 3 4
20. Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action	0 1 2 3 4
21. *Acts in ways that builds my respect	0 1 2 3 4
22. Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	0 1 2 3 4
23. *Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	0 1 2 3 4
24. Keeps track of all mistakes	0 1 2 3 4
25. *Displays a sense of power and confidence	0 1 2 3 4
26. *Articulates a compelling vision of the future	0 1 2 3 4
27. Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards	0 1 2 3 4
28. Avoids making decisions	0 1 2 3 4
29. *Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	0 1 2 3 4
30. *Gets me to look at problems from many different angles	0 1 2 3 4
31. *Helps me to develop my strengths	0 1 2 3 4
32. *Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	0 1 2 3 4
33. Delays responding to urgent questions	0 1 2 3 4
34. *Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission	0 1 2 3 4
35. Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations	0 1 2 3 4
36. *Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	0 1 2 3 4

#### MLQ scoring key

Sum each of the scores of the following questions and average

Question Number	Dimension of leadership	Average by
1, 3, 4, 11, 12, 16, 17, 20, 22, 24, 27 35	Transactional	12
2, 6, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 21, 23, 25 26, 29, 30, 31, 32, 34, 36	Transformational	20
5, 7, 28, 33	Laissez faire	4



19. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me 1 2 3 4 5
20. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain 1 2 3 4 5
21. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization 1 2 3 4 5
22. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization 1 2 3 4 5
23. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers 1 2 3 4 5
24. I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore 1 2 3 4 5

### OCQ scoring key

Reverse the questions and then average the following:

Questions	Dimension	Reverse questions	Average by
1-8	Affective commitment	4,5,6,8	8
9-16	Continuance commitment	9,12	8
17-24	Normative commitment	18,19,24	8

### Appendix D: Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)

Because persons in a wide variety of occupations will answer this survey, it uses the term recipients to refer to the people for whom you provide your service, care, treatment, or instruction. When answering this survey please think of these people as recipients of the service you provide, even though you may use another term in your work.

**Instructions:** On the following pages are 22 statements of job-related feelings. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, write the number “0” (zero) in the space before the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by writing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way. An example is shown below.

Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job
4. I can easily understand how my recipients feel about things
5. I feel I treat some recipients as if they were impersonal objects
6. Working with people directly is a strain for me
7. I deal very effectively with the problems of my recipients
8. I feel burned out from work
9. I feel I’m positively influencing other people’s lives through my work
10. I’ve become more callous toward people since I took this job
11. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally
12. I feel very energetic
13. I feel frustrated about by my job
14. I feel I’m working too hard on my job
15. I don’t really care what happens to some recipients
16. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me
17. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my recipients
18. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my recipients
19. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job In my work
20. I feel like I’m at the end of my rope

21. I deal with emotional problems very calmly  
 22. I feel recipients blame me for some of their problems

#### MBI scoring key

Emotional exhaustion. The scores of questions 1,2,3,6,8,13,14,16 and 20 are added and found in the following table

Categorization emotional exhaustion	
High	27 or over
Moderate	17-26
Low	0-16

Depersonalization. The scores of questions 5, 10,11, 15 and 22 are added and found in the following table

Categorization depersonalization	
High	13 or over
Moderate	7-12
Low	0-6

Personal realization. The scores of questions 4,7,9,12,17,18,19 and 21 are added and found in the following table

Categorization personal realization	
High	39 or over
Moderate	32-38
Low	0-31



## Appendix E: Figures

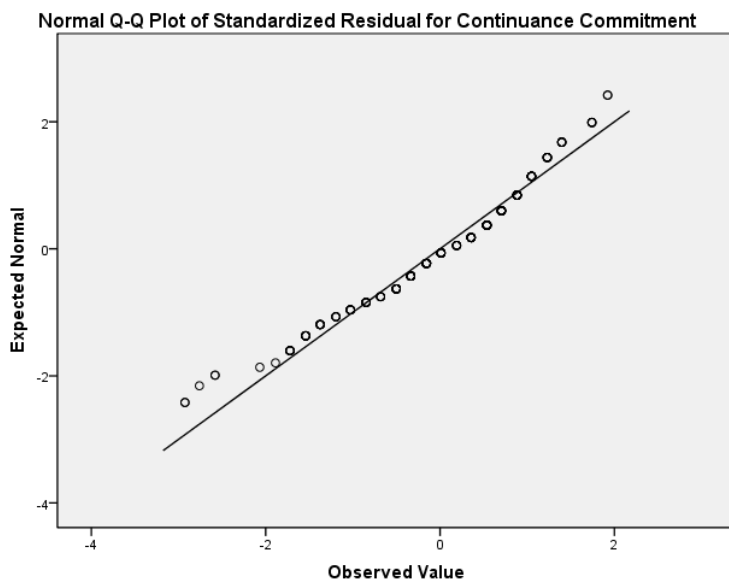


Figure E1. Q-Q plot of continuance commitment

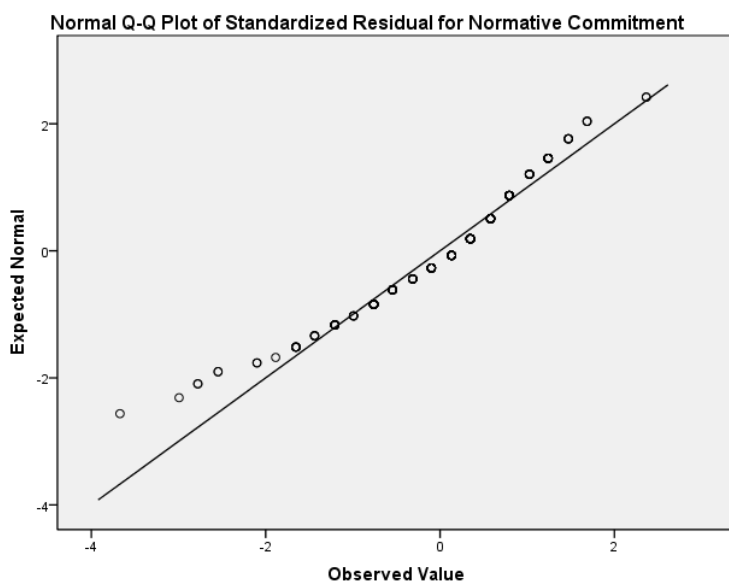


Figure E2 Q-Q plot of normative commitment

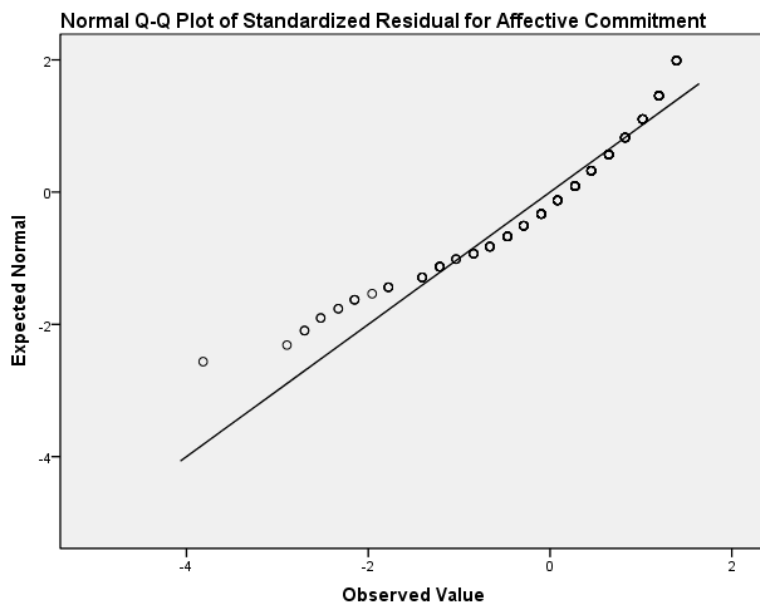


Figure E3. Q-Q plot of affective commitment

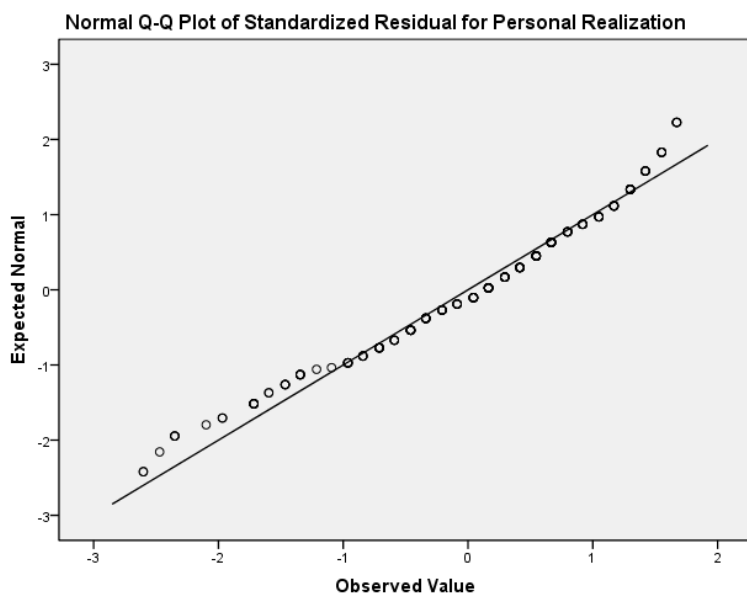


Figure E4 Q-Q plot of personal realization

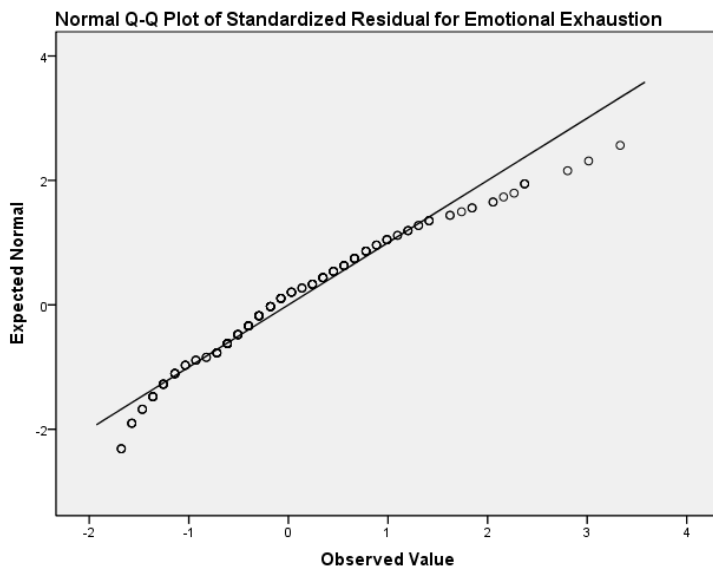


Figure E5 Q-Q plot of emotional exhaustion

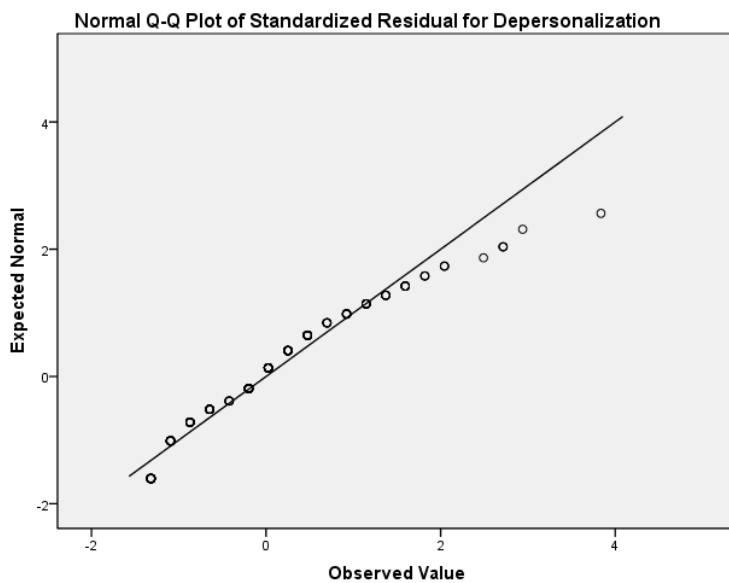


Figure E6. Q-Q plot of depersonalization

## Appendix F: Scatterplots

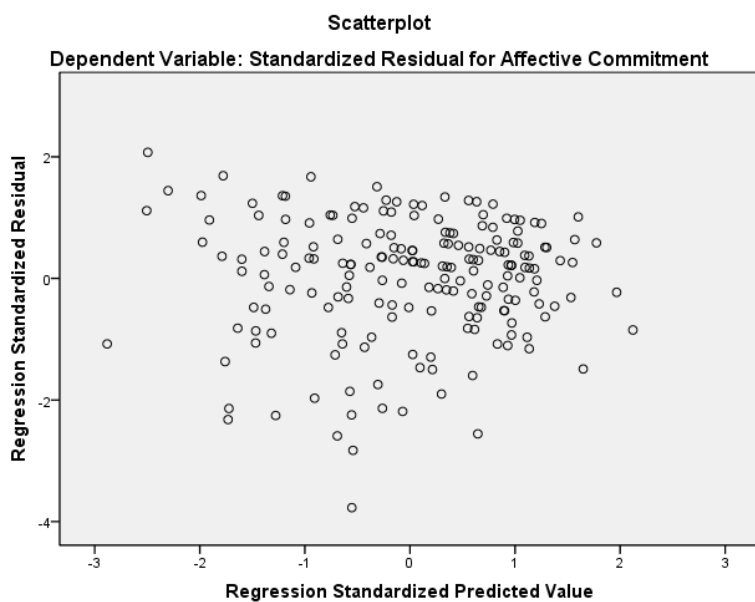


Figure F1. Scatterplot for affective commitment

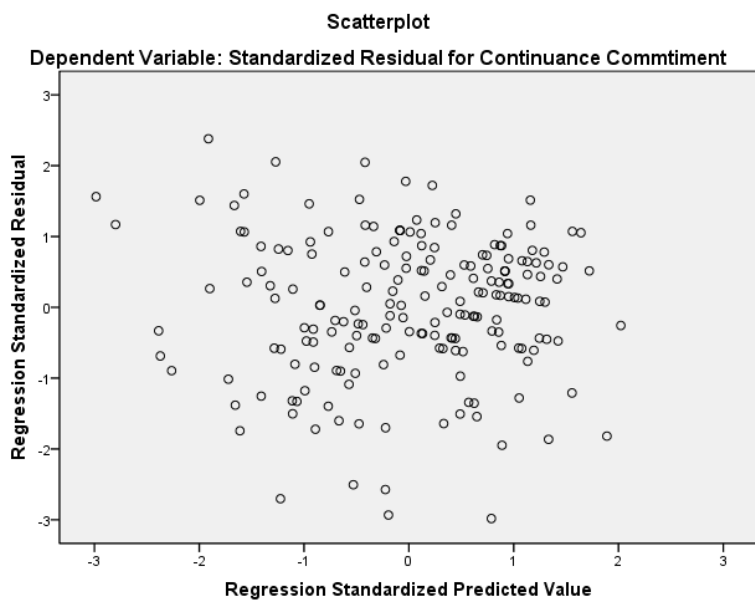
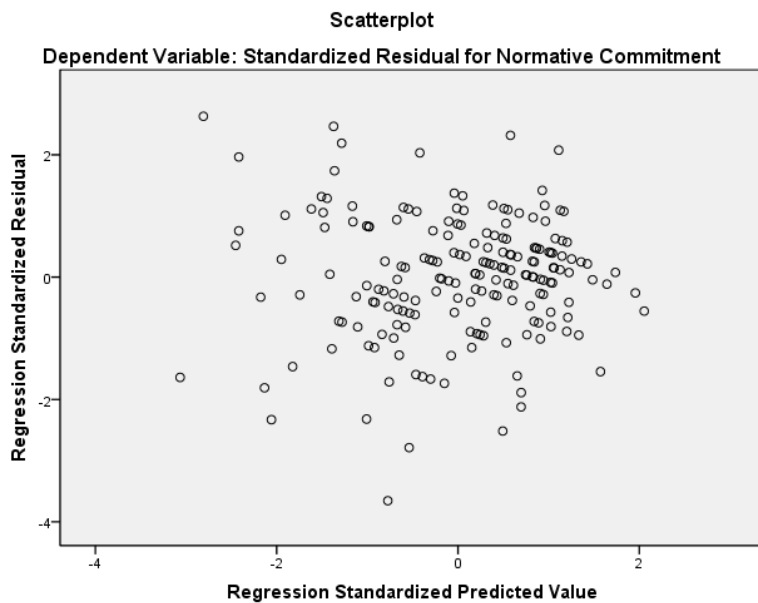
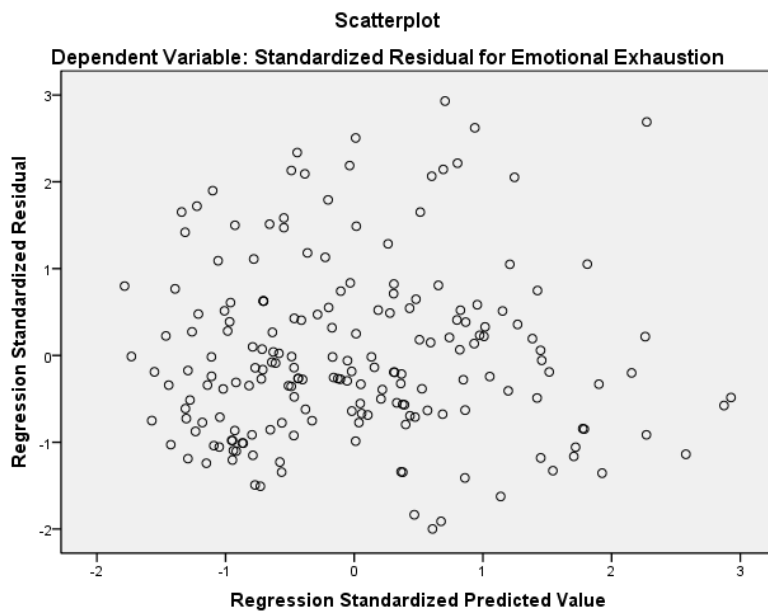


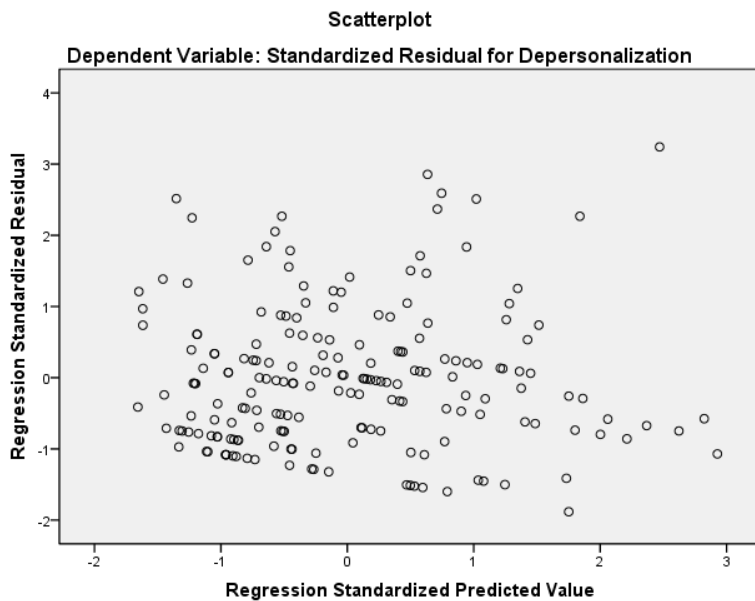
Figure F2. Scatterplot for continuance commitment



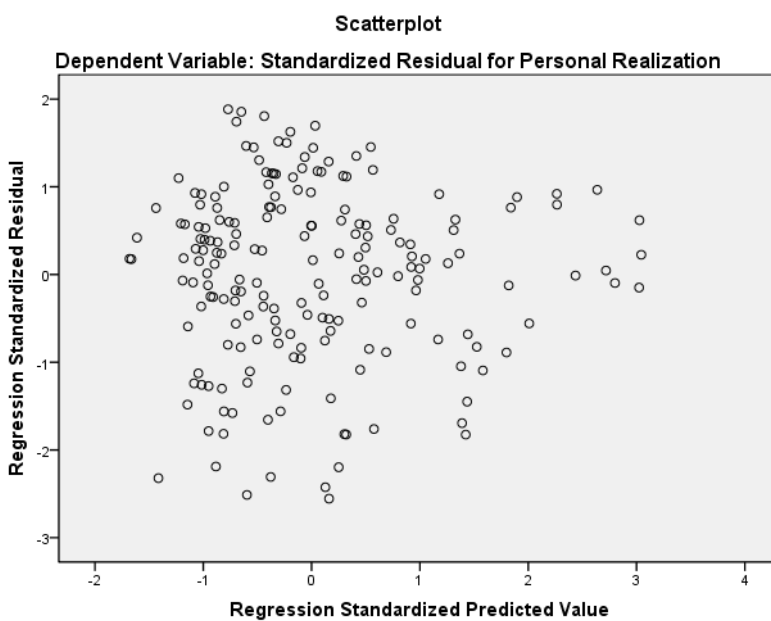
*Figure F3.* Scatterplot for normative commitment



*Figure F4.* Scatterplot for emotional exhaustion



*Figure F5.* Scatterplot for depersonalization



*Figure F6.* Scatterplot for personal realization

## Appendix G: Permission Letters

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**NORTHCENTRAL**  
UNIVERSITY

**Date:** 12/15/2015

**PI Name:** Nohora Bohórquez

**Chair Name (if applicable):** Dr. Leslie Curda

**Application Type (Initial, Modification, Continuing, Pilot):** Initial

**Review Level (Exempt, Expedited, Full Board):** Exempt, Category 2

**Study Title:** Perception of Leadership Styles, Organizational Commitment and Burnout in Faculty of Colombian Universities

Approval Date: 12/15/2015

Continuing Review Due Date: N/A

Expiration Date: 12/15/2016

Dear Nohora:

Congratulations! The purpose of this letter is to inform you that your IRB application has been approved. Your responsibilities include the following:

1. Follow the protocol as approved. If you need to make changes, please submit a modification form requesting approval of any proposed changes before you make them.
2. If there is a consent process in your research, you must use the consent form approved with your final application. Please make sure all participants receive a copy of the consent form.
3. Continuing review is required as long as you are in data collection or if data have not been de-identified. Failure to receive approval of the continuing review before the expiration date means the research must stop immediately.
4. If there are any injuries, problems, or complaints from participants, you must notify the IRB at [IRB@ncu.edu](mailto:IRB@ncu.edu) within 24 hours.
5. IRB audit of procedures may occur. The IRB will notify you if your study will be audited.
6. When data are collected and de-identified, please submit a study closure form to the IRB.
7. You must maintain current CITI certification until you have submitted a study closure form.
8. If you are a student, please be aware that you must be enrolled in an active dissertation course with NCU in order to collect data.

Congratulations from the NCU IRB. Best wishes as you conduct your research!

Respectfully,

Northcentral University Institutional Review Board

Email: [irb@ncu.edu](mailto:irb@ncu.edu)

2488 Historic Decatur Rd., Suite 100, San Diego, CA 92106 USA  
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