

Mediating Roles of Job Resources and Personal Resources between Leadership Styles and Employee Engagement

U Zaw Myo Htun¹

Abstract

Mediating roles of job resources and personal resources between leadership styles and employee engagement were examined in this study. Employee engagement becomes the most important factor in higher education sector. However, few studies have been conducted in this research area in Myanmar. This study is mainly focused on the relationship between leadership styles and employee engagement. In addition, mediating roles of job resources and personal resources were also investigated. Quantitative research method was used in this study and descriptive analysis and inferential statistics had been used to explain the relationship among variables. Path analysis with structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed to model the complex relationship between the leadership styles, engagement behaviors, job resources and personal resources. The results show that different leadership styles have different effects on employee engagement, job resources, and personal resources. Job resources and personal resources is a mediator between student engagement and desirable outcome.

Key words: Satisfaction, student engagement, higher education Institutions, Job demand, Job resources

¹ Professor & Head, Department of Management Studies , Cooperative University, Than Lyin

1. Introduction

Globalization of higher education environment can bring many opportunities to higher education organizations, but it can also expose them to a number of risks and challenges. Although university leadership is quite different from business organization in past, universities are demanded for more efforts in fund raising, innovating and productive in teaching, publishing high quality research, making networking local and abroad, and participating in community involvement. Because of those challenges, fostering faculty involvement and engagement are crucial than ever. One of the most important key drivers for employee engagement is the management and leadership of the organizations. Thus, leadership roles become the most important factors for sustaining of the universities and colleges.

Academic administrators and faculty members faced increasing challenges in the middle management operations in the higher institution of learning. Thus, this study aimed to investigate the relationship between leadership styles and faculty engagement its role of faculty members in maximizing the middle operations in the academic setting. However, there has been little published research into the relationship between leadership styles and employee engagement. This area would benefit from empirical research into what type of leadership style can foster more employee engagement. Such a study would both fill a gap in the literature and have an important potential effect on practice. Yet, leadership does not exist separately from followers' perceptions (Avery, 2004). All we can measure are their perceptions of leadership styles. Therefore, this dissertation investigates the relationship between perceived leadership styles and employee engagement in higher education institutions in Myanmar.

2. Theoretical Background

The framework of this study has four main domains: employee engagement, leadership styles, personal resources, and job sources. Four leadership styles form the independent variables, namely transactional, transformational, laissez- faire, and servant leadership were discussed. First section of the chapter was started with roles of employee in higher education sector.

2.1 Roles of Employee Engagement and Leadership in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)

The typical administrative organization chart in higher education has the president or chancellor at the top, followed closely by several vice president or vice chancellor. Next come deans or provost and assistant deans. Each deans is usually responsible for several departments, each of which headed by a chair or head (Blau, 194; Morris, 1981). Thus, chair persons constitute the middle management. However, each individual in those positions performs leadership functions with respect to their roles and are perceived as academic leaders by faculty and staff (Birnbaum, 1992). “What is more, the same factors are also important to the staff and faculty of universities. “HEI’s are labour intensive and their budgets are predominantly devoted to personnel, also the effectiveness of higher education institutions is largely dependent on their staff” (Toker, 2011, p. 156).

The competitiveness among universities grows exponentially, performance and quality of teaching, and academic work has to be outstanding. Leadership plays significant role in educational organization success (Osseo-Asare et al., 2005). Even though corporations are more often studied in the leadership area, HEI are business organizations too, they worth millions, therefore should be led as well (Lumby, 2012).

One part of the scientific literature defines leadership in higher education the same as in business organizations, the other part on the contrary argue that both are distinctive concepts (Lumby, 2012). Some sources argue that leadership practices in corporate and other organizations are completely inappropriate in HEI and if we move toward a standardized look at the definition and measurement of leadership it would threaten the leadership in the HEI (Eacott, 2011). Based on the survey conducted in the UK universities Spendlove(2007) found that there are different perceptions to leadership based on their work background. Faculties come from business background think that leadership in HEIs is the same as in business. But, pure academicians thought leadership in HEIs was not the same as business world. The diversity of HEI, their structure and environment makes it hard to apply the same pattern of leading the faculty (Lumby, 2012).

In higher education, the most pay attention area is the roles and responsibilities of the department chairperson (Seargen, creswell, and Wheller,1993). The chair person was the key individual in defining and realizing the department objectives (Bennett, 1990). The most prominent two activities of department chair were representing the interests of the department

to other parts of the institutions and serving as a mentor to junior faculty members (Bare, 1986). He further suggested that in the performance of these functions the chairpersons employed a consultative style of leadership.

Knight and Holen(1985) studied the relationship between department leadership and faculty perceptions of the quality of their chair persons' performance of typical responsibilities. They found that the most effective department chair persons were those who rated high on both initiating structure (tasks) and considerations (relationship). Moreover, they found that faculty wanted chair persons oriented toward both structure and consideration. As academic environment are facing many challenges now a days. The academic leader should be knowledgeable and competent enough to manage his subordinates effectively. So the question arise that what leadership style should be used in higher

2.2 Employee Engagement

There is no universal definition on employee engagement. Engagement has been defined in numerous different ways by academic researchers, consultancy and research institutions and companies (Markos and Sridevi, 2010). The meaning of engagement can sometimes overlap with other constructs in organizational behavior; however, it is still a distinct and unique construct, which embraces cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components that are associated with individual role performance. Employee engagement defined as employees' willingness and abilities to help their company succeed by providing discretionary effort on a sustainable basis. Engagement is affected by many factors which involve both emotional and rational factors relating to work and the overall work experiences.(Witemeyer, Hazen A.,2013)

Employee engagement is one of the important outcomes of leadership processes. Kahn (1990) defined employee engagement as an attempt to avail themselves to the role of organizational members in the work. Employee engagement is the enthusiasm and involvement in the work. People are very attached to their work personally identify with the work and motivated by the work itself. In the attachment, the individual uses and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally for achieving performance in accordance with the role played (in-role performance). Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter argued that employee engagement is associated with sustainable workload, feelings of being elect, as well as having control, recognition, and rewards the right, the presence of community support

work, honesty and fairness, and felt that the work was meant and appreciated (Xu & Thomas, 2011). Engaged employees who feel bound optimistic and spontaneous, tend to show a positive attitude and be proactive behavior at work (Organ, 1994; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) and they are more likely to do things that aim to improve the effectiveness of the organization (Saks, 2008). Table (2.2) shows the evolution of employee engagement in academic and practitioner literature.

This study is done based on Schaufeli et al. (2006) which is operational the concept of engagement based on vigor, dedication and absorption. Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working and by the willingness and ability to invest effort in one's work. Dedication is considered by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Absorption is written off as by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one feels carried away by one's job.

2.3 Leadership

Leader is a person who usually takes responsibility to achieve the organizational goal. Leadership also plays a central part in understanding organizational behavior. Although the behavioral approach's major contribution is narrowing leadership into task-oriented and people-oriented styles, there is no single effective style which suited in all situations (Robbins, 2005).

The full range leadership construct has gained tremendous popularity among researchers and practitioners and is one of the most broadly used comprehensive leadership theories. The label, full range leadership, indicates the wide viewpoint of what comprises a large variety of leadership styles. These styles have been identified to capture a broad range of leadership behaviors from laissez-faire to transformational leadership, each of which have made distinctive contributions to effective and ineffective leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Bass' full range of leadership model (1999) identified transactional and transformational leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. Transactional and Transformational leadership were described as active forms of leadership, whereby the leader engaged the followership. The active management by exception dimension of the transactional leadership model provided for a form of transactional leadership, where the leader remained fairly uninvolved, monitoring the performance of the follower and intervening when the

performance exceeded acceptable limits. In the more passive form of management by exception, the leader only intervened when a serious problem occurred (Bass et al., 2003).

Although transformational leadership is the vital role in contemporary leadership theories, servant-leadership is one of the survival tools for leaders in current century. Because of the explosion of information technology and globalization processes, organizations are trying to adapt to dynamic environment factors. Thus, the leaders who are steering the company have not only a responsibility to control the organizations but also have a capacity to create and establish the effective change strategies that align the organizations' culture.

The term servant-leadership was introduced by Robert Greenleaf in 1970. Servant-leadership focuses on increased service to others rather than to oneself. LC Spears (1995) revealed the characteristics of the servant leader as listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community. After introduced by Greenleaf, many scholars have approved that servant leadership as a modern and reliable theory in the field of organizational leadership. Russel (2001) discussed as the servant leadership appreciates human equality and fosters the individual improvement in an organization. Servant leadership is serving as a leader rather than leading itself. By implementing the servant leadership, the leader more focused on development of employees as the valuable assets of the organization. Sendjaya & Sarros (2002) said the scholars and practitioners have more pay attention to belief in the tenets of servant leadership as a practical operational approach for school communities in recent two decades.

Leadership is situational factors that can affect creativity. Leadership can be attributed to the creativity of individual followers. The results of empirical studies state that the leadership effect occurs with increasing public confidence in the followers of the goals of higher employment and increased perceptions of individuals at work, which in turn will yield positive results such as cohesion, job satisfaction, effort or spirit, psychological well-being, and performance (Jiao, Richards, Zhang, 2011). When leaders promote active thinking in the organization, employees will be more engaged and involved in the organization. When employees are engaged in their jobs, they will increase the behaviors that promote the good of the organization (Babcock - Roberson & Strickland, 2010). The leader is an important element of the work context can affect how individuals view their work. Macey and Shneider (2008) states that when leaders have clear expectations or fair, and recognize good

performance, the leader will have a positive effect on employee engagement by giving birth to a sense of attachment to the job. Leadership can increase the sense of engagement and employee involvement, teamwork, commitment, competence, and performance of employees (Shamir et al., 1993; Yuan, Lin, Shieh, & Li, 2012).

There are a number of constructs that are important to the performance of the organization, such as job satisfaction, empowerment, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and well-being (Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Savery & Luks, 2001).

The relationship between perceived leadership styles and employee engagement is influenced by many factors. Although there are many factors influencing those relationships, current study will more focus on employee's personal resources and job resources in their work. Both theoretical and empirical works highlight the important moderating role that employee characteristics may play in the relationship between leadership styles and employee engagement. Need for achievement, equity sensitivity and need for clarity play the key roles in employee characteristics (Zhang, 2010). The following figure explains the relationship between Job resources and employee work engagement.

Many research shows that achievements of the institutions are related with transformational leadership (Griffith's, 2004). The studies also show positive relationship between transformational leadership style and the fast forward learning in the organizations where feedback learning shows positive relationship with the transactional leadership style (Bucic et al., 2010). Aydin et al. (2013) also found that transactional leadership style positively affects job satisfaction as well, although to a lesser extent than transformational one.

Employee engagement has many definitions ranging from the degree to which "people bring in or leave out their personal selves during work role performances" (Kahn, 1990, p. 694), to "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74). The JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001) assumes these characteristics can be divided into demands and resources. Excessive job demands (e.g. too high a workload) are related to burnout, whereas increased job resources are associated with engagement (Crawford et al., 2010). Job resources are: "physical, psychological, social or organizational aspects of the job that help achieve work

goals, and/or reduce job demands, and/or stimulate personal growth and learning” (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). Job resources thus activate a motivational process leading to engagement (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007).

Job resources occur at organizational, interpersonal, job, and task levels (Bakker et al., 2004). At the organizational level, financial rewards motivate employees in exchange for labor (i.e. base salary), and monetary premiums for good performance (Demerouti, 1999). At the interpersonal level, team climates create resources through the extent to which team members “construe themselves as interrelated to others rather than as independent and unique” (Bakker et al., 2006b, p. 240). When team members feel empathy toward their co-workers, and frequently exchange views with one another, emotional contagion of engagement occurs (Bakker et al., 2006a, b).

At job level, feedback provides employees with information on their performance from superiors, colleagues, or through the work process (Demerouti, 1999). Finally, at task level, participation in decision making allows employees to experience decision latitude (Karasek, 1979), enabling them to directly affect their working environment (Spector, 1986).

Adel A. Y. Alzyoud1 (2015) showed three components of resources (autonomy, social support and performance feedback) tested in this study were found to be a strong predictor of work engagement among the academics in higher education institutions. The present study expanded this prospective evidence to Myanmar academics’ staff and suggests that resources of job (autonomy, social support besides feedback) are predictors of work engagement. When academics experience greater autonomy, social support and performance feedback at work, they may be more likely to find a way to make their work more pleasant, participate in their workplace decision in order to increase their involvement in their work and workplace, and thus increase their commitment to their work. Therefore, through strong autonomy, social support and performance feedback relationships, employees appear better equipped to cope with challenges at work place and show to understand their work more meaningful. Further to the point made above, the significant relationship job resources on work engagement among academicians can influences their level of contributions to enhance the performance of their universities.

The academic operations in universities or college institutions are facing a lot of pressures have realized the need to be more transformative. In schools where focus has been achieved, teaching and learning, instruction, extension, and linkages becomes transformative for every one (Sagor, 1992). Thus, the role of leadership will be discussed in following sections.

3. A Conceptual Development and Hypothesis Development

3.1 Objectives of the Study

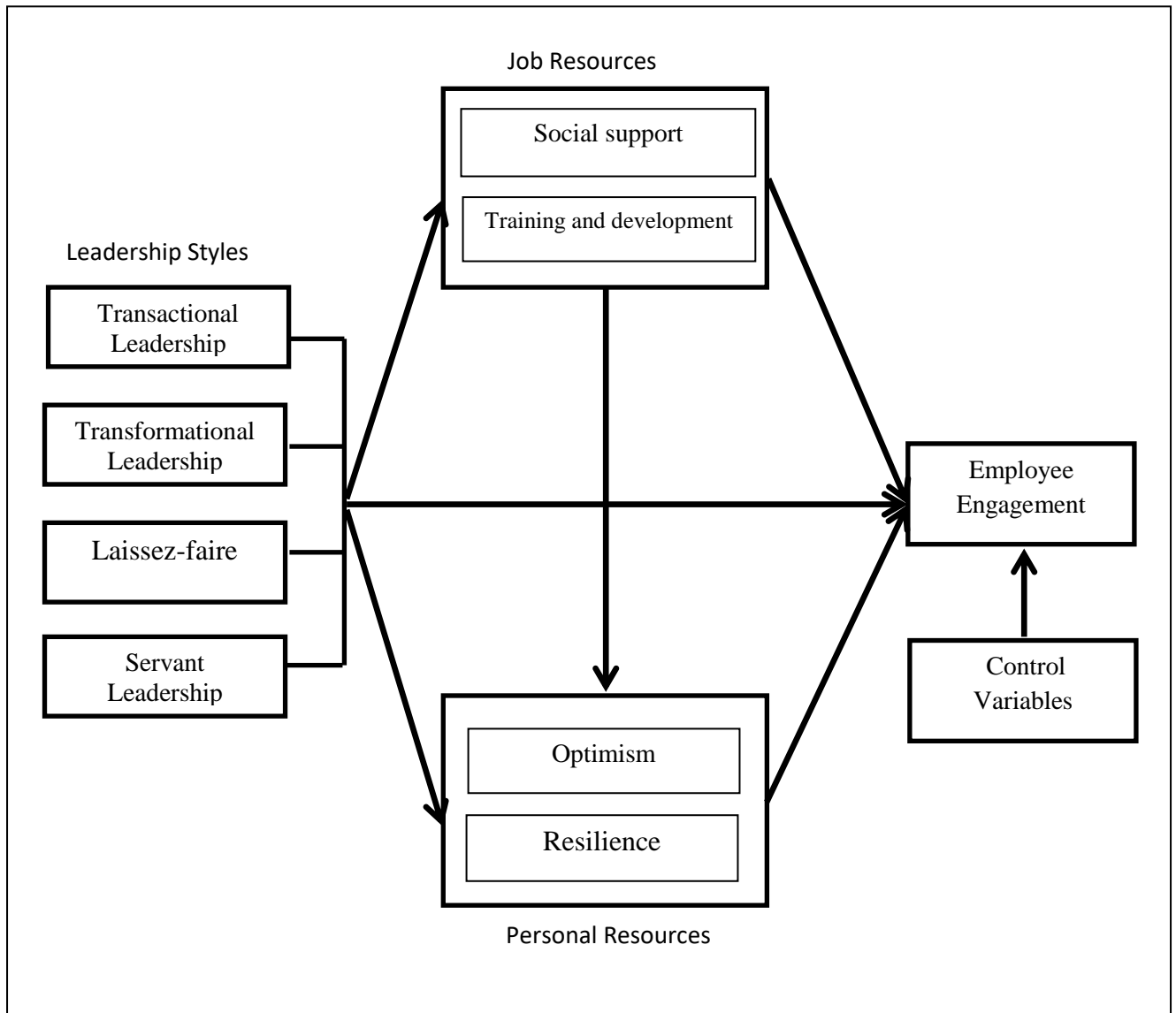
Therefore, in order to determine the relationship between the leadership styles and work engagement, there are altogether three objectives are set in the study. They can be described as follows:

1. To examine the relationship between leadership styles and employee engagement levels in higher education institutions of Myanmar.
2. To find out the mediating roles of job resources and personal resources among leadership styles and employee engagement level.
3. To compare the effects of different leadership styles on employee engagement with the mediating effects of job resources and personal resources.

3.2 Conceptual Framework

Employee engagement is a relatively new concept that is being studied and utilized by two sectors: the academic sector and the industry sector. There is a clear delineation between the academic and the industry view of engagement (Wefald & Downey, 2009 as cited in Remo, 2012). Academic researchers have concentrated mainly on clarifying the psychological construct and its measurement. The industry stream is primarily focused on the outcomes of a psychological state: performance, retention, and commitment. The industry stream had readily adopted the concept of workplace engagement even though little evidence existed to support it. In fact, the industry stream is, in part, the moving force behind the revival of the employee engagement concept in the academic realm (Macey & Schneider, 2008 as cited in Remo, 2012).

Figure (1) The Conceptual Framework for current study



Source: Own Compilation based on (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Schaufeli, Wilmar. (2015).

As the goal of this study is to explore leadership styles toward Employee Engagement and identify causal relationships between different constructs of interest through hypotheses testing, explanatory research is the most appropriate type. Besides the research type, a researcher also must decide on a research method to be used for collecting data in order to answer the research question (Bhattacharjee 2012). When it comes to quantitative research one of the popular methods is survey, where a survey research of explanatory type is used to ask about relations between variables which are grounded in theory (Recker 2013). Quantitative method for data collection was adopted for this study. Quantitative method

enables researcher to test specific hypotheses and examine specific relationships between the variables and project results to population at large (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Self-administered questionnaire survey was employed for this study. Part A is about the demographic details of the respondents, the questions include gender, age group, nationality, highest educational degree earned, number of years in the institution, number of year in teaching field and present job title. Demographic information of respondents is important for this study as frequencies, means, standard deviations and variances are to be calculated by using these information. Part B is related to the transformational leadership styles, transactional leadership styles, and laissez-faire. Servant leadership is examined in part C. Part D is about employee engagement and Part E is about job resources and personal resources. These five parts consists of 56 questions that are used for examining the relationship between the independent variables and dependent variable with mediating variable. There are 9 questions covering dimensions of employee engagement, 22 questions on transformational leadership, 10 questions about servant leadership, and 15 questions on job resources. All 56 questions are in 5-point Likert scales, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

3.3 Methods of the Study

The approach taken for this research study was a quantitative research study using a cross-sectional design that involved collecting data on the sample population at a single point in time. The data was collected through the use of four instruments that measured the leadership style of the department chair, job resources and personal resources of the organizations, and the employee engagement. The first instrument, leadership styles, was designed to measure the full range of leadership style model, which included transformational, transactional, laissez-faire leadership and servant leadership. The participants in the study were requested to rate their perception on their department chair's leadership style using this instruments. The second instrument was designed to measure an individual's level of employee engagement as dedication, vigor, and absorption. The participants in the study were requested to rate their level of employee engagement. The personal resources behavior of participant was measured by using the third instruments which contains optimistic and resilience measures; Fourth instrument was used to measure the job resources of their institutions.

The targeted population was faculties of four universities in southern district of Yangon region. Because, these four universities represent the compositions of HEIs of

Myanmar: art and science university, technological university, maritime university, and cooperative university. Census survey was employed for current research. But, Rector of Technological University (Than Lyin) was not allowed to collect qualitative type survey data in her university. Thus, sampling frame was modified and Technological University (Mhaw Bi) was added. These two universities are the same structure and similar location except Technological University (Mhaw Bi) located in northern district of Yangon. There are total 54 departments and 1080 teaching and administrated staffs in targeted four universities. Questionnaires were delivered to every department of targeted universities and collected after one week. 943 questionnaires were returned and 48 questionnaires were dropped for incomplete filling and some errors

Table(1) The Constructs which used in current research

Scale	Origin
Employee Engagement	Adapted from Schaufeli and Bakker (2003)
Transformational leadership	Adapted from Bass and Avolio (1994)
Transactional leadership	Adapted from Bass and Avolio (1994)
Laissez-faire	Adapted from Bass and Avolio (1994)
Servant leadership	Adapted from Barbuto & Wheelers (2006)
Personal resources: Optimism	Adapted Van Veldhoven et al., 2002. Schaufeli and Bakker (2003)
Personal Job resources :Self-Efficacy	Adapted Van Veldhoven et al., 2002. Schaufeli and Bakker (2003)
Job resources Social Support	Adapted Karasek (1985)
Job resources Training and development	Adapted Babakus et al (2009).

Source: Current Research

4. Analysis and Findings

4.1 PLS model in this paper

As previously mentioned, inferential analysis is used for theory testing, as it is a way of hypotheses testing (Bhattacharjee 2012). There are a number of different numerical statistical procedures for this purpose, and most of them are supported by software applications. We chose Partial least squares analysis as our data analysis and hypotheses testing procedure.

The structural component of current PLS model consists of the relationships between the before-mentioned seven constructs: employee engagement, job resources, personal resources, transformational leadership, servant leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez faire. The assumed relationships between those constructs can be seen from the theoretical model. For Measurement component, it consists of the relationships between the constructs and their indicators, i. e. the items that are used to measure the constructs. Weights

are used as estimations of the case values for the constructs. The initial version of the model created in SmartPLS is represented in Figure 3.1. Besides the constructs (colored blue), it displays all measurement items for the constructs (colored yellow). All the constructs are modeled as reflective.

4.2 Assessing of reflective measurement model

Following the validation guidelines of Straub et al. (2004) and Lewis et. Al (2005), the reflective measurement model should be tested at least internal consistency reliability, indicator reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity in order to achieve the fitness of measurement model. Unidimensionality is aimed to drop the item that consists less contribution on these factors. Accurately, the procedure for removal items had two types which is multidimensionality and unidimensionality procedure. Both these procedure plays a same vital role to retain the item which are related on the factor though these procedure looks so different to carry out the research. Usually, researchers prefer value below than 0.50 should be drop from the measurement model (Afthanorhan. 2013). However, it depends on researchers to choose which one of the substantive meaningful regarding on their literature review. In this case, the author addressed 0.40 or above of factor loadings to retain in the measurement model.

Once the unidimensionality procedure has achieved, the traditional method which is internal consistency reliability, Cronbach alpha proposed by Nunnally (1978) has been used. As usual, value higher than 0.70 considered as the measurement model is reliable. But there is an alternative method to replace the weakness of cronbach alpha namely composite reliability. Composite reliability is proposed by Nunally and Bernstein (1994) and most of the researchers concurs to indicate this method is much reliable rather than cronbach alpha, since this measure managed to overcome some of cronbach alpha deficiency. According to Urbach et. al (2010), indicator reliability describe the extent to which a variable or set of variables is consistent regarding what it extends to measure. However, in PLS-SEM does not emphasize the purpose of indicator reliability, instead, the significant of indicator can be tested using resampling technique such as bootstrapping (Efron 1979) or jackknifing (Miller 1974). There may be various reasons for these requirement not being fulfilled since the item may have influenced by additional factors that can give the untrue estimation. Thus, PLS algorithm initiated once more in order to obtain new results. Convergent validity involves the degree to which individual items reflecting a construct converge in comparison to items measuring different constructs (Urbach et. al, 2010). A common criterion applied to test the convergent validity construct is namely Average Variance Extracted (AVE) proposed by

Fornell & Larcker (1981). The formula of AVE is total factor loading power of two divide by number of items consisted. Fornell & Larker suggest the result higher than 0.50 indicate the construct is captured to be explained more than half of the variance of its indicators and thus, demonstrates sufficient convergent validity. In particular, any value in construct below than 0.50 is consists of measurement residual.

Finally, discriminant validity concerns the degree to which the measures of different constructs differ from one another. According to Zainudin (2013), the correlation between exogenous variables (independent) should be below 0.85 to prove the constructs differs contributions. For the first measures, cross loadings are obtained by correlating each latent variable component scores with all the other items (Chin, 1998). Accordingly, the AVE of each latent variable should be greater than the constructs highest square correlation with any other latent variable.

4.3 Confirmatory factor analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis is used to assess item loadings and cross loadings. Since cognitive absorption is treated as second order construct in the theoretical model, the special procedure had to be followed. Wilson and Henseler (2007) identified the two step approach for this purposes, and that procedure was used in Agarwal and Karahanna (2000). As the purpose of this paper is theory testing, the same procedure has been chosen. First, PLS analysis was performed without second-order constructs, and the latent variable scores from this step were used in the following calculations.. The results of the CFA can be seen in the table 1. CFA results showed that all of the items have high loadings on their respective constructs. After the Outer loading assessment, R square value and Adjusted R square value were discussed. According to table (3.6) and (3.7), all the R square value and adjusted R square value are in acceptable range

Table (2) R Square Value

	Original Sample (O)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	95% Confident Interval		P Values
				0.025	0.975	
AJR	0.285	0.026	10.847	0.231	0.334	0.000
APR	0.265	0.029	9.041	0.206	0.318	0.000
EE	0.395	0.027	14.659	0.332	0.439	0.000

Source: Current Research

4.4 Evaluation of indicator's collinearity

As we deal with reflective type of construct in this study, it was employed to examine inner VIF values for issues of collinearity According to Hair et al. (2017), the threshold value of VIF is less than 5.

Table (3) Multi-collinearity

	AJR	APR	EE
AJR		1.400	1.586
APR			1.378
EE			
L.LZF	1.431	1.432	1.443
L.SVT	2.618	2.718	2.738
L.TFL	3.631	3.697	3.751
L.TNL	2.473	2.490	2.499
O.Age			3.455
O.Services			3.533
O.YatDpt			1.712
OywithHd			1.479

Source: Current Research

The Table 3 shows the value of VIF of all the predictor constructs was less than 5, therefore, collinearity is not an issue between the constructs' formative indicators (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2011).

4.5 Convergent validity

Internal consistency

Internal consistency is the first step which needs to be checked (Henseler et al. 2009). To determine the internal consistency we will first check Cronbach's alpha value (Cronbach 1951). Cronbach's Alpha test is widely used to evaluate the consistency of questionnaire respondents (Mitchell and Jolley 2012), and it provides an estimate for reliability based on indicator correlations (Henseler et al. 2009). According to Mitchell and Jolley (2012), alpha coefficient values larger than 0.70 are considered for acceptable inrange. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient normally ranges between 0 and 1, but there is actually no lower limit according Gliem and Gliem (2003). The closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0 the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale (Gliem and Gliem 2003).

Table (4) Internal consistency measures of current Research

	Item numbers	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Job Resources(AJR)	6	0.814	0.816	0.868	0.526
Personal Resources(APR)	7	0.842	0.846	0.882	0.520
Employee Engagement (EE)	8	0.860	0.868	0.892	0.510
Laissez-faire(L.LZF)	4	0.768	0.801	0.852	0.593
Servant Leadership(L.SVT)	10	0.915	0.916	0.929	0.568
Transformational Leadership(L.TFL)	8	0.857	0.887	0.891	0.517
Transactional leadership(L.TNL)	3	0.796	0.802	0.880	0.710

Source: Survey Data

In Table 4 the Cronbach's Alpha result for each construct is described. Again, the values are high, showing that the constructs within the model are well explained by the items in the questionnaire. Henseler et al. (2009) state how Cronbach's Alpha can underestimate internal consistency reliability of latent variables in PLS (Partial least squares) path models, which is why a measure such as Composite reliability could be more appropriate. Since we are using PLS analysis we also used Composite reliability measure to check internal consistency, and the results can be seen in Table 4. A value above 0.8 or 0.9 is considered as satisfactory, while a value under 0.6. shows a lack of reliability (Henseler et al. 2009). For the assessment of validity, two validity subtypes are usually examined: the convergent validity and the discriminant validity (Henseler et al. 2009). Convergent validity shows that a set of indicators represents the same underlying construct (Henseler et al. 2009).

Average Variance Extracted

Table (5) Average Variance Extracted

	Original Sample (O)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics ((O/STDEV))	95% Confident Interval		P Values
				0.025	0.975	
AJR	0.526	0.016	33.646	0.496	0.557	0.000
APR	0.520	0.015	33.948	0.489	0.550	0.000
EE	0.510	0.015	33.341	0.479	0.540	0.000
L.LZF	0.593	0.015	39.489	0.565	0.624	0.000
L.SVT	0.568	0.016	36.493	0.538	0.598	0.000
L.TFL	0.517	0.014	36.892	0.489	0.544	0.000
L.TNL	0.710	0.016	44.404	0.677	0.739	0.000

Source : Current Research

In order to assess this validity subtype we used Average Variance Extracted (AVE), as suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981), where an AVE value of at least 0.5 indicates

sufficient convergent validity (Götz, Liehr-Gobbers and Krafft 2010). The values for Average Variance Extracted (AVE) can be seen in Table 5.

All of the values are greater than the suggested value of 0.5, showing that each item has sufficient convergent validity. AVE stands for average variance extracted and it is a measure of convergent validity together with composite reliability (CR) value. In order to provide convergent validity, AVE should be 0.5 or more and CR 0.7 or more. Furthermore, CR should be higher than AVE.

Table (6) Composite Reliability

	Original Sample (O)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	95% Confident Interval		P Values
				0.025	0.975	
AJR	0.868	0.007	118.329	0.853	0.881	0.000
APR	0.882	0.006	137.111	0.869	0.894	0.000
EE	0.892	0.006	148.001	0.879	0.903	0.000
L.LZF	0.852	0.008	104.131	0.837	0.868	0.000
L.SVT	0.929	0.004	220.776	0.920	0.937	0.000
L.TFL	0.891	0.006	152.845	0.880	0.902	0.000
L.TNL	0.880	0.008	106.802	0.863	0.895	0.000

Source : Current Research

4.6 Discriminant validity

For discriminant validity, as the other validity subtype, Agarwal and Karahanna (2000) used Chin and Newsted (1999) recommendations in assessing discriminant validity. The first step is to prove that indicators load more strongly on their corresponding construct than on other constructs and the second step involves comparing AVE value to inter-construct correlations, where square root of AVE should be larger than inter-construct correlations (Chin and Newsted 1999). The second step means that “the average variance shared between the construct and its indicators should be larger than the variance shared between the construct and other constructs” (Agarwal and Karahanna 2000, p. 679).

4.7 Heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT)

Henseler et al. (2015) have suggested the assessment of the correlations' heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) to examine the discriminant validity. This recent approach shows the estimation of the true correlation between two latent variables. A threshold value of 0.90 has been suggested for HTMT (Henseler et al., 2015).

Table (7) Heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT)

	AJR	APR	EE	L.LZF	L.SVT	L.TFL	L.TNL	O.Age	O.Ser vices	O.Yat Dpt	OYwith Hd
AJR	1										
APR	0.575	1									
EE	0.488	0.617	1								
L.LZF	0.316	0.216	0.150	1							
L.SVT	0.582	0.431	0.399	0.468	1						
L.TFL	0.578	0.461	0.418	0.635	0.857	1					
L.TNL	0.547	0.378	0.498	0.605	0.779	0.894	1				
O.Age	0.104	0.107	0.192	0.038	0.073	0.078	0.032	1			
O.Services	0.080	0.070	0.174	0.032	0.048	0.043	0.020	0.839	1		
O.YatDpt	0.043	0.066	0.172	0.016	0.044	0.037	0.042	0.436	0.459	1	
OYwithHd	0.035	0.065	0.067	0.032	0.059	0.046	0.045	0.277	0.302	0.558	1

Source : Current Research

4.8 Goodness-of-fit index

Tenenhaus et al. (2005) suggested a PLS (GoF) in order to validate the PLS model that is used as a fit measure in CB-SEM but is not able to separate the valid models from invalid models. According to Hair et al. (2017), Henseler et al. (2014) assessed the efficiency of standardized root mean square residual's (SRMR), a model fit measure used in CB-SEM but was not previously applied for PLS-SEM.

Table (8) Model Fit

	Saturated Model	Estimated Model
SRMR	0.063	0.063
Chi-Square	6168.457	6178.074
NFI	0.760	0.760
rms Theta	0.108	

Source :Current Research

The SRMR refers to the root mean square discrepancy between the observed and model-implied correlations (Hair et al. (2017). Moreover, the SRMR shows an absolute fit measure where a value of zero indicates a perfect fit. Hu & Bentler (1998) suggested that a value of less than 0.08 represents a good fit while applying SRMR. A value of 0.063 was found for SRMR for PLS model that indicates a good fit.

4.9 Descriptive statistics

Table 9 shows the frequency of male and female respondents. Out of the total respondents (N=895), 118 respondents (13%) are male and 87 respondents (63.6%) are female.

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	118	13%
	Female	777	87%
Age	21-30	146	16%
	31-40	313	35%
	41-50	341	38%
	51-60	95	11%
Education Level	Diploma or Bachelor	221	24.7%
	Postgraduate Diploma	29	3.2%
	Master	454	50.7%
	Ph.D	191	21.3%
Rank	Professor and same rank	10	1.1%
	Associate Professor, lecture, and same rank.	383	42.8%
	Assistant Lecture and same rank.	244	27.3%
	Tutor and same rank.	168	18.8%
	Junior clerk and others	90	11.0%
Duration at current Department	1-5	487	54%
	6-10	171	19%
	11-15	96	11%
	16-20	108	12%
	21 and above	33	4%
Total Service in Years	5 and less	170	19%
	6-10	191	21%
	11-15	179	20%
	16-20	241	27%
	21 and above	114	13%
Experience	5 and less	705	78%

with current Department Head	6-10	94	11%
	11 and above	96	11%
Areas of the work	Teaching	650	72.6%
	Administrative and others	245	27.4%

Source: current research

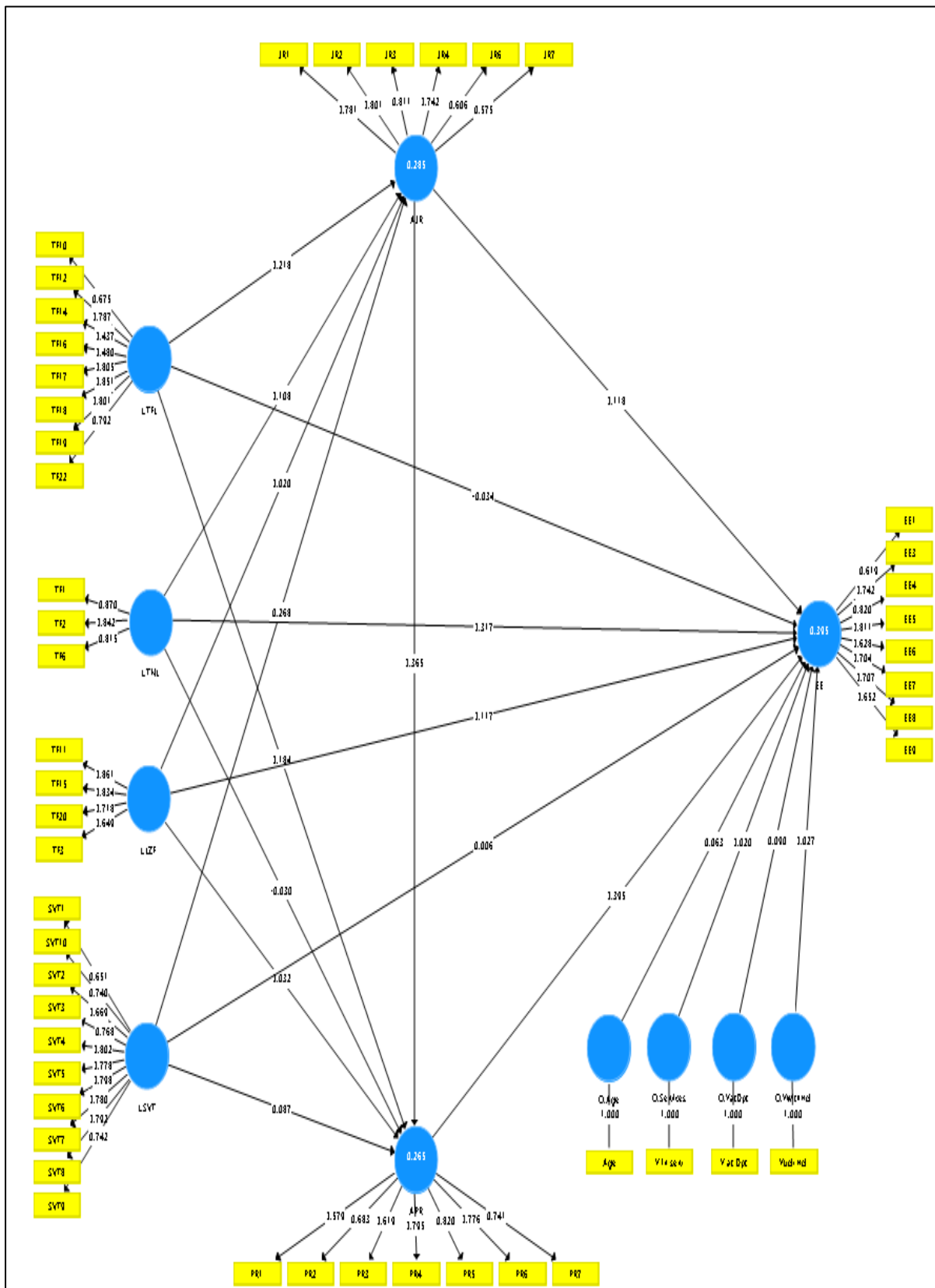
The distribution of different age group is described in table . 341 respondents (38%) are from 41-50 years old, follow by 313 respondents (35%) within the age group of 31-40 years old and 146 respondents (10.6%) are from the age group of 21-25 years. According to table majority of the respondents (n=454) (50.7%) are holding Master degree, 191 respondents (21.3%) are holding Doctorate degree, 221 respondents (24.7%) are holding Bachelor degree or Diploma, 29 respondent (3.2%) are holding Post-graduate diploma.

The present job title of respondents of the surveys. Majority of the respondents are associates professors and lecturers (n=383) (42.8%), follow by 244 assistant lectures (27.3%), 168 tutors and same rank (18.8%), 90 junior clerk and others (11%), 10 respondents (1.1%) with professor and same rank. There are 170 respondents (19.0%) who had worked for the higher education institutions within the length of less than 5 years, 191 respondents (21.0%) falls in the range of 6 to 10 years, 179 respondents (20.0%) work between 11 to 15 years, 241 respondents (27.0%) falls in the range of 16-20 years and 114 respondents (13%) had worked in the various institutions for 21 years and above.

The table explains the frequency number of working experiences of the respondents. There are 487 respondents (54.0%) who had worked for the current department within the length of less than 5 years, 171 respondents (19.0%) falls in the range of 6 to 10 years, 96 respondents (11.0%) work between 11 to 15 years, 108 respondents (12.0%) falls in the range of 16-20 years and 33 respondents (4%) had worked in the various institutions for 21 years and above.

The distribution of the different experiences duration with department head is described in table (3.21). 705 respondents (78%) are under 5 years and follow by 94 respondents (11%) within of 6-10 years group and 96 respondents (11%) are from the group of 11 years and above. Following table shows the working area of the respondents. Nearly 73% of the respondents are teaching staffs. More than 27 percent are from the field of administrative and others.

Figure (2) Inferential statistics



Source: Current research

Table (10) Path Coefficient

	Original Sample (O)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STD EV)	95% Confident Interval		P Values	Decisions
				0.025	0.975		
AJR -> APR	0.365	0.038	9.715	0.295	0.441	0.000	Supported
AJR -> EE	0.118	0.040	2.935	0.042	0.196	0.003	Supported
APR -> EE	0.395	0.039	10.224	0.317	0.469	0.000	Supported
L.LZF -> AJR	0.020	0.032	0.635	-0.043	0.081	0.525	Rejected
L.LZF -> APR	0.032	0.035	0.932	-0.036	0.099	0.351	Rejected
L.LZF -> EE	0.117	0.033	3.480	0.051	0.183	0.001	Supported
L.SVT -> AJR	0.268	0.056	4.775	0.156	0.376	0.000	Supported
L.SVT -> APR	0.087	0.057	1.536	-0.027	0.195	0.125	Rejected
L.SVT -> EE	0.006	0.047	0.125	-0.088	0.097	0.901	Rejected
L.TFL -> AJR	0.218	0.059	3.718	0.101	0.331	0.000	Supported
L.TFL -> APR	0.184	0.061	3.014	0.065	0.305	0.003	Supported
L.TFL -> EE	-0.034	0.053	0.647	-0.139	0.068	0.517	Rejected
L.TNL -> AJR	0.108	0.051	2.139	0.006	0.206	0.032	Supported
L.TNL -> APR	-0.030	0.054	0.550	-0.136	0.075	0.582	Rejected
L.TNL -> EE	0.317	0.044	7.194	0.228	0.403	0.000	Supported
O.Age -> EE	0.063	0.049	1.286	-0.034	0.160	0.199	Rejected
O.Services -> EE	0.020	0.047	0.435	-0.068	0.116	0.664	Rejected
O.YatDpt -> EE	0.090	0.030	2.974	0.029	0.146	0.003	Supported
OYwithHd -> EE	0.027	0.028	0.958	-0.027	0.082	0.338	Rejected

Source :Current Research

In the table above, the “T Statistics” column contains the same value of t as appeared in corresponding diagram above. The “P Values” column shows the corresponding significance (probability) levels for the path for the given row (e.g., the first row is the path from Incentives to Motivation). Confidence intervals appear in a separate table immediately below. Coefficients of some 2.5% of cases lie below the lower confidence limit and another 2.5% lie above the upper limit, making these the 95% confidence limits.

The path multiplication rule may be used to estimate direct and indirect effects when, as in the model depicted above, one variable (Servant Leadership) has a direct effect on another (Personal resources) as well as in indirect effect (from Personal resources to Employee Engagement). The direct effect is the standardized structural coefficient, also known as the inner model loading of Servant leadership on Personal Resources. The indirect effect is the product of the path coefficient for TSVT-> A.PR times the path coefficient for TSVT -> A.PR

Table (11) Indirect Effects

	Original Sample (O)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics ((O/STDEV))	95% Confident Interval		P Values	Decisions
				0.025	0.975		
AJR -> EE	0.144	0.021	6.760	0.103	0.186	0.000	Supported
L.LZF -> APR	0.007	0.012	0.627	-0.015	0.031	0.531	Rejected
L.LZF -> EE	0.018	0.016	1.133	-0.013	0.050	0.257	Rejected
L.SVT -> APR	0.098	0.024	4.007	0.052	0.146	0.000	Supported
L.SVT -> EE	0.105	0.025	4.211	0.058	0.156	0.000	Supported
L.TFL -> APR	0.079	0.023	3.515	0.036	0.125	0.000	Supported
L.TFL -> EE	0.130	0.028	4.668	0.075	0.183	0.000	Supported
L.TNL -> APR	0.040	0.018	2.137	0.003	0.077	0.033	Supported
L.TNL -> EE	0.017	0.023	0.718	-0.029	0.062	0.473	Rejected

Source: Current Research

According to Table (3.15), partitioning the effects shows that AJR has the largest indirect effect on Employee engagement followed by L.TFL and L.SVT. L.TNL has the smallest indirect effects on A.PR to compare with L.TFL and L.SVT. LZF has no indirect effects on EE and APR. L.TNL -> EE has also no direct effects on EE.

Table (12) Specific Indirect Effects

	Original Sample (O)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics ((O/STDEV))	95% Confident Interval		P Values	Decisions
				0.025	0.975		
L.LZF -> AJR -> APR	0.007	0.012	0.627	-0.015	0.031	0.531	Rejected
L.SVT -> AJR -> APR	0.098	0.024	4.007	0.052	0.146	0.000	Supported
L.TFL -> AJR -> APR	0.079	0.023	3.515	0.036	0.125	0.000	Supported
L.TNL -> AJR -> APR	0.040	0.018	2.137	0.003	0.077	0.033	Supported
L.LZF -> AJR -> EE	0.002	0.004	0.579	-0.004	0.013	0.563	Rejected
L.SVT -> AJR -> EE	0.032	0.013	2.352	0.010	0.063	0.019	Supported
L.TFL -> AJR -> EE	0.026	0.011	2.247	0.008	0.054	0.025	Supported
L.TNL -> AJR -> EE	0.013	0.007	1.735	0.002	0.031	0.083	Rejected
L.LZF -> AJR -> APR -> EE	0.003	0.005	0.625	-0.006	0.012	0.532	Rejected
L.SVT -> AJR -> APR -> EE	0.039	0.010	3.762	0.020	0.060	0.000	Supported
L.TFL -> AJR -> APR -> EE	0.031	0.010	3.253	0.013	0.051	0.001	Supported
L.TNL -> AJR -> APR -> EE	0.016	0.008	2.066	0.002	0.032	0.039	Supported
L.LZF -> APR -> EE	0.013	0.014	0.917	-0.014	0.041	0.359	Rejected
L.SVT -> APR -> EE	0.034	0.023	1.513	-0.009	0.081	0.130	Rejected
L.TFL -> APR -> EE	0.073	0.026	2.830	0.025	0.127	0.005	Supported
L.TNL -> APR -> EE	-0.012	0.021	0.546	-0.054	0.030	0.585	Rejected

Source: Current Research

According to Table, partitioning the specific effects shows that L.SVT has the more indirect effect on Employee engagement through AJR. Although L.TNL has less indirect effects on A.PR to compare with L.SVT, LZF has no indirect effects on EE through A.JR. Except L.LZF, all leadership styles have specific indirect effects through AJR and APR. For mediating roles of APR between leadership styles and EE, only TFL has effects on EE.

Table (13) Total Effects

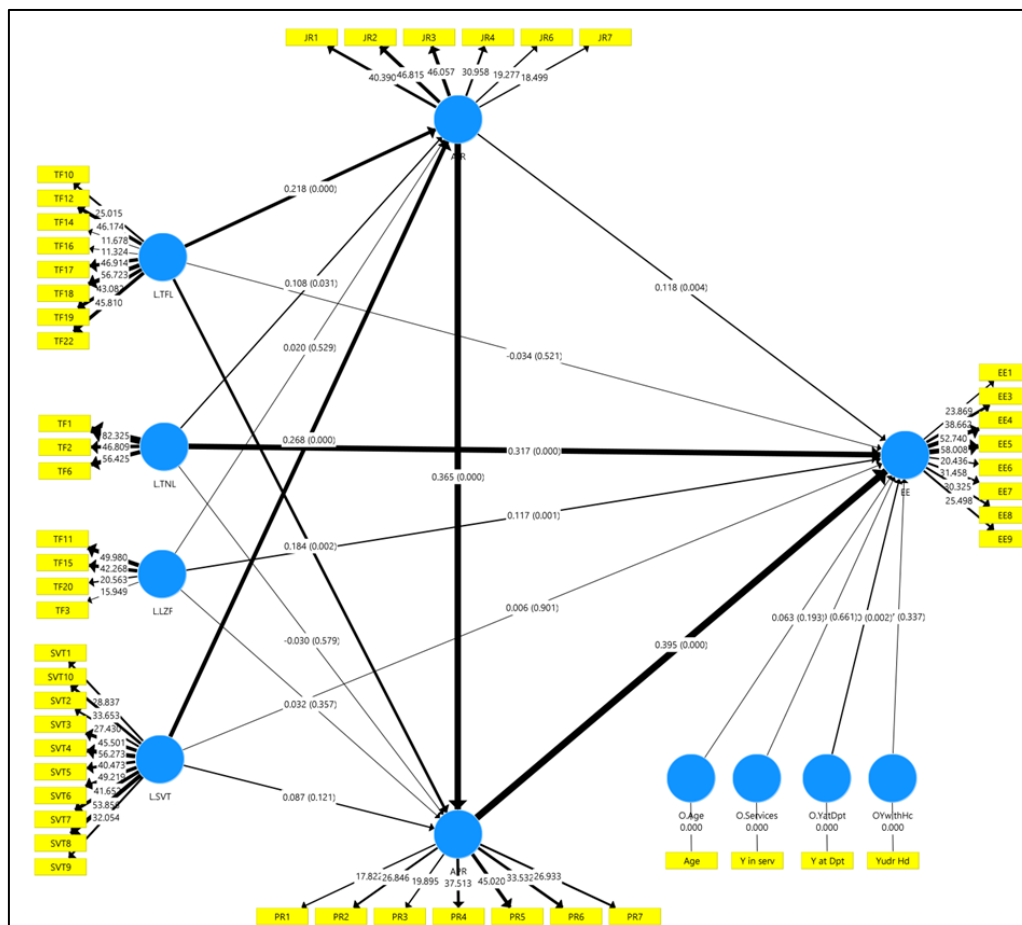
	Original Sample (O)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	95% Confident Interval		P Values	Decisions
				0.025	0.975		
AJR -> APR	0.365	0.038	9.715	0.288	0.436	0.000	Supported
AJR -> EE	0.262	0.040	6.615	0.183	0.337	0.000	Supported
APR -> EE	0.395	0.039	10.224	0.312	0.466	0.000	Supported
L.LZF -> AJR	0.020	0.032	0.635	-0.040	0.083	0.525	Rejected
L.LZF -> APR	0.040	0.036	1.098	-0.031	0.112	0.272	Rejected
L.LZF -> EE	0.135	0.037	3.680	0.063	0.207	0.000	Supported
L.SVT -> AJR	0.268	0.056	4.775	0.152	0.373	0.000	Supported
L.SVT -> APR	0.185	0.053	3.494	0.084	0.288	0.000	Supported
L.SVT -> EE	0.111	0.055	2.029	0.001	0.212	0.043	Supported
L.TFL -> AJR	0.218	0.059	3.718	0.098	0.328	0.000	Supported
L.TFL -> APR	0.264	0.060	4.421	0.141	0.374	0.000	Supported
L.TFL -> EE	0.095	0.057	1.673	-0.017	0.202	0.094	Rejected
L.TNL -> AJR	0.108	0.051	2.139	0.008	0.207	0.032	Supported
L.TNL -> APR	0.010	0.054	0.184	-0.096	0.113	0.854	Rejected
L.TNL -> EE	0.334	0.050	6.619	0.234	0.431	0.000	Supported
O.Age -> EE	0.063	0.049	1.286	-0.035	0.158	0.199	Rejected
O.Services -> EE	0.020	0.047	0.435	-0.070	0.111	0.664	Rejected
O.YatDpt -> EE	0.090	0.030	2.974	0.030	0.147	0.003	Supported
OYwithHd -> EE	0.027	0.028	0.958	-0.029	0.080	0.338	Rejected

Source: Current Research

Above Table shows the absolute effects of independent variables on employee engagement and mediating variables. Partitioning the effects shows that A.JR has a smaller total absolute effect on EE than does A.PR (0.395 vs. 0.262), with all variables being positive. However, the effect of job resources has strong effects on personal resources. Among the leadership styles, all variables have effects on employee engagement except transformational leadership styles. Transactional leadership has the strongest effects with path coefficient (0.334). In addition, Laissez-faire has not much difference total absolute effect on employee engagement than does servant leadership (0.135 vs 0.111.), with all variables being positive.

Although laissez-faire has not direct effect on job resources, other all variables have some effects on job resources. Servant leadership has the strongest effects on job resources followed by transformational leadership. Total absolute effects of servant leadership on personal resources are the highest with (0.185) to compare with other leadership styles. But laissez-faire and transactional leadership have not significant effects on personal resources. Following figure (3.4) show the high light paths of the variables using relative value.

Figure(3) High Light Paths (Relative Value)



Source: Current Research

In this chapter, the method used to explore the relationship of the leadership styles of department head and employee engagement with mediating effects of job resources and personal resources were described. Four instrumentations were used to collect related data to answer the four research questions. The survey was delivered to the participants responded by researcher himself. The statistical methods of Pearson’s correlation coefficients and structure equation modeling were utilized to analyze data. The SPSS and SMART PLS3 were used for statistical computations. An alpha level of .05 was the criterion level of significance for this

study, and .01 and .001 levels were reported as well. All of the hypotheses testing had performed in this chapter. The results obtained from this chapter will be further discussed in the final chapter followed by the implications and limitations of the study with a few recommendations that are relevant to this study.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

According to path coefficients results of current results, job resources and personal resources had significantly impacted on employee engagement. Among leadership styles, only laissez-faire and transactional leadership styles had significant effects on employee engagement. Job resources were impacted by all leadership styles except laissez-faire. Job resources and transformational leadership had some significant effects on personal resources of the employees.

Job resources, servant leadership, and transformational leadership made some indirect effects on employee engagement. Personal resources had been impacted by indirect effects of leadership styles except laissez faire. Among leadership styles, transactional leadership styles bring the greatest effects on employee engagement to compare with other leadership styles. Job resources made the biggest indirect effects on employee engagement. The relationship between some leadership styles and employee engagement, job resources and personal resources possessed some mediating roles.

Current results show that there are some relationships between employee engagement and leadership styles. The result also consistent with previous research as employee engagement was driven by leadership styles. However, transactional leadership style had more influencing power that contrast with other culture. Although transformational leadership style had no direct impact on employee engagement, it was the one of the main key drivers for development of personal resources and job resources, which are main antecedents of employee engagement.

According to table (9), both job resources and personal resources had direct effects on employee engagement. Even though personal resources had greater effects on employee engagement, personal resources were influenced by job resources. Both of job resources and personal resources have also mediating roles. They bring some effects between the

relationship of leadership styles and employee engagement. To foster the employee engagement in HEIs, leadership training programs should be established. Based on above discussions, administrators in respective universities should focus not only on leadership dimensions but also development of job resources dimensions. In addition, employee engagement programs should be formulated.

This study is important because it can help university to become more successful and effective while seeking to raise the quality of employees' engagement. The management field will get benefit from knowing what predictable outcomes are possible from using a specific leadership styles which developed the employee engagement. Because the faculty, the organization, and the field of student engagement may be affected positively by this study, its significance is likely to be comprehensive.

There are limitations to the generalization of findings noted in this study. Current study used adopted instruments and it should be changed with Myanmar scales. To get more comprehensive results, random sampling method should be used rather than purposive sampling. In dimension of leadership styles, only servant leadership, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and laissez-faire were investigated. Other approaches of leadership dimension should be added.

The findings of this study clearly show that there are relationship between employee engagements and some leadership styles. However, there are the difference degrees of impacts on employee engagement with different leadership styles. Based on current research, teaching staffs and administrative staffs in co-operative university are more engage when their immediate supervisors or head of the department are practicing the transactional leadership style. In addition, this research also explains the mediating roles of job resources and personal resources.

The finding of this research also support that employee engagement is a meaningful concept and requires serious attention from the administrations of the university. Universities need to pay attention on leadership styles of chair which encourage employee engagement. In practical terms, this study suggests that top management of the university should be trying to understand the employee engagement behavior of their faculty and staff members to raise the performance of the university.

This study focuses to examine the relationship between four leadership styles and work engagement of teaching and administrative staffs of four universities in suburb of Yangon. By using census survey, altogether 1080 teaching and administrative staffs were requested to fill predetermined questionnaires. There are limitations to the generalization of findings noted in this study. Due to time and cost constraint, the data for this study will collect from some selected universities of Myanmar and this sample may not be representative of other organizations. The questionnaire of the study will be directly adopted from various western models with some adaptation. Therefore, it is needed to modify the questionnaire which can measure on exact dimension of different leadership styles, job resources, employees' personal resources and employee engagement in Myanmar. Thus, future studies should be to consider the various determinants in order to comprehensively understand the dimensions of work engagement and facets of servant-leadership, transformational leadership, transitional leadership, laissez-faire styles in Myanmar. In addition, this research is conceptualized based on JD-R frame work. However, the research is only emphasis on Job resources and personal resources. Job demand is more focused on burn out, while job resources are more focused on work engagement. Thus, job demand factor is not considered in current research.

Although some Asian scholars have examined this area of studies, the relationship between leadership styles and work engagement in more culture, is called for. Moreover, in contrast to the numerous studies exploring the leadership, relatively few studies have investigated the relationship between leadership styles and work engagement in Myanmar context. In addition, there is no investigation about this context in her higher education sector.

This research is carried out among the universities' faculties in Myanmar as the importance of choosing this area lies in the fact that, for improving the quality of education sector that plays a vital role to develop the leadership in Myanmar. Thus, the main aim of this research is to analyze the relationship of employee engagement amongst the universities faculties of Myanmar. Leadership's tenants of caring and ethical behavior and community building are an essential component for building work engagement in higher education sector. Many academic administrators have been seen as servant leaders and transformational leaders. They have to manage the supporting work for academic instructors. Thus, those instructors can devote more teaching and scholar work. Moreover, faculties in Myanmar have

two roles; as an academician and as a public servant. And also, the education sector is the area where the strong work engagement can be seen. Thus, investigating the multidimensional leadership styles in selected universities will clearly explain the links between leadership styles and employee engagement in Myanmar.

The researcher has proposed that research into the correlation between leadership style and employee engagement for staffs in higher education context, would add to the field of organizational leadership. Organizations that rely on knowledge workers for services need to strengthen the engagement of their employees, in order to be more successful. Studies on employee engagement and burnout have been conducted on service-oriented professions such as nursing, dentistry, and medicine. The researcher found little scholarly literature evidence regarding employee engagement and the higher education sector. A study investigating the influence of leadership style on employee engagement in educational institutions would expand the range of investigation into these topics of organizational leadership. Moreover, this research point out that some leadership styles will foster the job resources, which will boost the personal resources and employee engagement of staff in HEIs.

This study is important because it can help leaders and organizations to become more successful and effective while seeking to raise the quality of employees' engagement. The leadership field will benefit from knowing what predictable outcomes are possible from using a specific leadership style. As a result, actions may become more strategic and may assist in goal achievement. Because the leader, the organization, the employee, and the field of leadership may be affected positively by this study, its significance is likely to be comprehensive.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I would like to give special thanks to Dr. Yi Yi Win, Rector of Co-operative University, Thanlyin and U Oo Tin Thein and Daw Myint Myint Sein Pro Rectors of Co-operative University, Thanlyin, for granting permission to write this research paper. Finally, I would like to thank all people who helped for my research paper by giving ideas and suggestions.

Reference

1. Alarcon, G. M., & Lyons, J. B. (2011). The relationship of engagement and job satisfaction in working samples. *The Journal of Psychology, 145*(5), 463-480
2. AL-Hussami, M. (2008). A study of nurse's job satisfaction: The relationship to organizational commitment, perceived organizational support, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and level of education. *European Journal of Scientific Research, 22*(2), 286-295. Retrieved from: <http://www.europeanjournalofscientificresearch.com>
3. Avery, G. C. (2014). *Understanding Leadership*. SAGE Publication.
4. Avolio, J., Gardner, L., Walumbwa, O., Luthans, F. & May, D. (2004). Unlocking the mask: a look at the process by which authentic leaders' impact follower attitudes and behaviours. *The Leadership Quarterly, 15*(8), 801-23.
5. Bakker, A.B., Demerouti, E. and Verbeke, W. (2004), "Using the job demands-resources model to predict burnout and performance", *Human Resource Management, Vol. 43* No. 1, pp. 83-104.
6. Bakker, A.B. and Demerouti, E. (2007), "The job demands-resources model: state of the art", *Journal of Managerial Psychology, Vol. 22* No. 3, pp. 309-328.
7. Bakker, A.B., Schaufeli, W.B., Demerouti, E. and Eeuwema, M.C. (2006b), "An organizational and social psychological perspective on burnout and work engagement", in Hewstone, M.,
8. Babcock-Roberson, Meredith Elaine and Strickland, Oriel J. (2010). The relationship Between Leadership, Work Employment, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *The Journal of Psychology, 144* (3), 313-326.

9. Bare, A.C. (1986). Managerial behavior of college chairpersons and administrators. *Research in Higher Education*, 24(2), 128-138
10. Barling, J., Weber, T., & Kelloway, E. K. (1996). Effects of transformational leadership training on attitudinal and financial outcomes: A field experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(6), 827-832. Retrieved from <http://www.apa.org/journals/apl>
11. Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), 207-218. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.88.2.207
12. Bennete, J.B (1990). The dean and the department chair: Tward greater collaboration. *Education record*, v71(1), 24-26
13. Birnbaum, R.R (1992). How academic leadership works. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
14. Blau, P.M. (1994). The organization of academic work (2nd ed.). New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction
15. Bucic, T., Robinson, L. and Ramburuth, P. (2010), "Effects of leadership style on team learning", *Journal of Workplace Learning*, Vol. 22 No. 4, pp. 228-248.
16. Demerouti, E. (1999), *Burnout: Eine Folge konkreter Arbeitsbedingungen bei Dienstleistungs- und Produktionstätigkeiten (Burnout: A Consequence of Working Conditions Among Service Workers and Industrial Workers)*, Lang, Oldenburg.

17. Demenouti, E., Bakker A.B., Nachreniner, F., & Schaufeli, W.B. (2001). The Job Demands: resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 499- 512.
18. Eacott, S. (2011), “New look leaders or a new look at leadership?”, *International Journal of Educational Management*, Vol. 25 No. 2, pp. 134-143.
19. Farr, J. V., & Brazil, D. M. (2009). Leadership skills development for engineers. *Engineering Management Journal*, 21(1), 3-8. Retrieved from <http://www.asem.org/asemweb-publication.html>
20. Griffith, J. (2004), “Relation of principal transformational leadership to school staff job satisfaction, staff turnover, and school performance”, *Journal of Educational Administration*, Vol. 42 No. 3, pp. 333-356.
21. Jiao, Changquan; Richards, David A.; and Zhang, Kai. (2011). Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: OCB-Specific Meanings as Mediators. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 26(1): 11-25.
22. Jones, E. C., & Chung, C. A. (2006). A methodology for measuring engineering knowledge worker productivity. *Engineering Management Journal*, 18(1), 32-38. Retrieved from <http://www.asem.org/asemweb-publication.html>
23. Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*.
24. Karasek, R.A. (1979), “Job demands, job decision latitude and mental strain: implications for job redesign”, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 24 No. 2, pp. 285-308.
25. Lumby, J. (2012), “What do we know about leadership in higher education? The leadership foundation for higher education research”, Leadership Foundation for Higher Education, London.

26. Macey, William H. and Schneider, Benjamin. (2008). The meaning of Employee Engagement. *Industrial Organizational Psychology*, 1(1): 3-30.
27. Markos, S. S. M.(2010):“Employee Engagement: The Key to Improving Performance”.*International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(12).
28. Organ, Dennis W. 1994. Personality and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Management*, 20(2): 465-478
29. Osseo-Asare, A.E., Longbottom, D. and Murphy, W.D. (2005), “Leadership best practices for sustaining quality in UK higher education from perspective of the EFQM excellence model”, *Quality Assurance in Education*, Vol. 13 No. 2, pp.148-170.
30. Remo, Neli, "Comparing Two Models of Employee Engagement: An Examination of Ante-cedents and Outcome Variables" (2012).*Electronic Theses and Dissertations*. Paper 4838.
31. Robbins, S. P. (2005). *Organizational Behavior* (11 th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Prentice.
32. Sagor, Richard (1992) Transformational Leadership. ERIC Digest. Retrieved from <http://www.ericdigest.org/1992/leadership.htm-23k-Cached>
33. Saks, Alan M. (2006). Antecedents and Consequences of Employee Engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(7): 600-619.
34. Schaufeli, Wilmar B.; Salanova, Marisa; Gonzales-Roma, Vicente; and Bakker, Arnold B. (2002). The Measurement of Engagement and Burnout: A Two Sample Confirmatory factor Analytic Approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 3(1): 71-92

35. Schaufeli, W. B., Bakker, A. B., & Salanova, M. (2006). The measurement of work engagement with a short questionnaire: A cross-national study. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 66(4), 701-716.
36. Schaufeli, Wilmar. (2015). Engaging leadership in the job demands-resources model. *Career Development International*. 20. . 10.1108/CDI-02-2015-0025.
37. Seargen, A.T., Creswell, J.W., & Wheelar, D.W. (1993). The department chair: New roles, responsibilities, and challenges. (AASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No.1). Washington University, School of Education and Human development.
38. Shamir, Boas; House, Robert J.; and Arthur, Michael B. (1993). The Motivational Effects of Charismatic Leadership: A Self-Concept Based Theory. *Organizational Science*, 4(4): 577-594.
39. Spector, P.E. (1986), "Perceived control by employees: a meta-analysis of studies concerning autonomy and participation at work", *Human Relations*, Vol. 39 No.11, pp. 1005-1016.
40. Toker, B. (2011), "Job satisfaction of academic staff: an empirical study on Turkey", *Quality Assurance in Education*, Vol. 19 No. 2, pp. 156-169.
41. Witemeyer, Hazen A. (2013) "Employee Engagement Construct and Instrument Validation." Dissertation, Georgia State University.
42. Wefald, A. J., & Downey, R. G. (2009). Job engagement in organizations: Fad, fashion or folderol? *Journal of organizational behavior*, 30, 141-145.

43. Wefald, A. J., Mills, M. J., Smith, M. R., & Downey, R. G. (2012). A comparison of three job engagement measures: Examining their factorial and criterion-related validity. *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being* 4(1), 67-90.
44. Xu, Jessica and Thomas, Helena Cooper. (2011). How Can Leaders Achieve High Employee Engagement?. *Leadership and Organizational Development*, 22(4): 399-416.
45. Yang, Y. F. (2009). An investigation of group interaction functioning stimulated by transformational leadership on employee intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction: An extension of resource-based theory perspective. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 37(9), 1259-1278.
46. Yuan, Benjamin J.C.; Lin, Michael B.H.; Shieh, Jia Horng; and Li, Kuang-Ping. (2012). Transforming Employee Engagement into Long-term Customer Relationship: Evidence From Information Technology Salespeople In Taiwan. *Social behavior & Personality*, 40(9): 1549-1554.
47. Zhang, W.(2010). The relationship between perceived leadership styles and employee engagement :The moderating role of employee characteristics. Unpublished doctoral dissertation Macquarie Graduate School of Management, Macquarie University Sydney,