

MOTIVATING PEAK PERFORMANCE: LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS THAT STIMULATE EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION AND PERFORMANCE

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The impact of leader behaviors on motivation levels of employees was examined in this study. Two hundred twenty-three vice presidents and chief officers from 104 member colleges and universities in the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities were sampled. Leaders were administered the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-rater version) and multiple regressions models were utilized to create a four-factor leadership model that identified the significant predictive leadership variables that correlate with motivation for extra effort among workers. This new model was slightly more predictive of variance in motivation toward extra effort (adjusted $R^2 = 0.64$) than the individual models of transformational leadership, and much more predictive than the transactional leadership or laissez-faire leadership models. The four-factor leadership model simplifies the leadership process by reducing the number of significant leadership behaviors from a possibility of nine factors to four significant leadership variables for consideration by leaders who desire to effectively increase motivation toward extra effort among their staff.

The role of leadership has been examined in numerous empirical studies and countless articles, essays, and books. From the early research of Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) and the subsequent work of Bradford and Lippitt (1945), laissez-faire leaders have been identified as demonstrating a frustrating and less effective leadership style in many leadership situations. The lack of direct interaction between leaders and workers has consistently demonstrated a negative correlation with motivation toward extra effort among employees.

Additional research has focused on the transactional leadership style with its composite behaviors of contingent reward and management-by-exception (Bass, 1985). Transactional leaders achieve greater results through the use of management-by-exception whereby workers are punished or rewarded for their

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actions. According to Bass (1985, 1990), leaders who utilize management-by-exception do not get involved with subordinates unless mistakes or deviations from the norm occur. In such cases, the leader establishes a predetermined consequence or corrective action for specific failures and enforces punishments when required. Leaders who are more passive may wait to be notified of failures (Hater & Bass, 1988), but more active leaders look for failures and create systems to warn of potential failures (Hater & Bass, 1988). The practice of providing negative feedback results in workers who either maintain the status quo or strive to perform specific tasks with perfection. However, this leader behavior does not facilitate personal growth or increase motivation or loyalty from workers (Bass, 1985).

Transactional leaders and workers often engage in a reciprocal process of contingent rewards in management (Howell & Avolio, 1993) in which each party strives to meet certain expectations or performs specific actions or behaviors in order to achieve a desired benefit or reward. This reinforcement strategy has been practiced for centuries and Bass (1990) has provided numerous historical illustrations to describe this type of leadership behavior. Much of the research has revealed a positive correlation between contingent rewards and organizational outcomes (Blanchard and Johnson, 1985; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

Further research on leadership theory, much of which has been based upon Burns' (1978) earlier research on political leadership, has identified an even more effective leadership style typically called transformational leadership. Initially, transformational leadership was understood to include charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio, Waldman, & Einstein, 1988; Bass, 1990). As a result of supplementary research, two additional components of transformational leadership were identified: inspirational motivation and idealized influence (Barbuto, 1997; Hunt, 1999).

Effectiveness among transformational leaders is measured by the effect of leader behaviors on followers. Subordinates of transformational leaders verbalize feelings of admiration, respect, trust, and appreciation toward these leaders and are motivated to provide extra effort (Bass, 1985; Katz & Kahn, 1978). Transformational leaders are able to increase motivation toward extra

effort from their followers because the leader is able to motivate workers to higher levels of personal expectation and individual commitment (Yammarino & Bass, 1990).

Method

Sample

The population for this study consisted of 105 member institutions within the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU). Three vice presidents and/or chief officers were surveyed from each institution to determine the prevalent leader behaviors of the president and the effects of these leader behaviors on the motivation toward extra effort for the vice presidents and chief officers. The vice presidents selected for the survey worked in the areas of academic affairs, student life, and financial affairs.

The sample comprised participants who responded to the survey: 223 vice presidents and chief officers from 104 member CCCU institutions. These respondents represented 25 provosts, 53 vice presidents of academic affairs, 46 vice presidents of business or financial affairs, 43 vice presidents or deans of student affairs, 21 executive vice presidents, five vice presidents for advancement, 11 other chief officer positions, and 24 chief officers who did not indicate their position or title on the survey.

The participants were selected for their knowledge, experience, and ability to work in close proximity with the president of their given institution. The gender ratio for this group was 81.6% ($n = 169$) men and 18.4% ($n = 38$) women. The mean for their current length of service in this position was 7.14 years and the mean for their total years at the current institution was 11.4 years. The average age was 50.3 years old with 92.3% married ($n = 191$), 5.8% single ($n = 12$), 1.4% divorced ($n = 3$), and 0.5% widowed ($n = 1$). The racial composition was primarily Caucasian with 97% ($n = 195$) Euro American, 1.5% ($n = 3$) African American, 0% ($n = 0$) Hispanic, 0.5% ($n = 1$) Asian American, and 1% ($n = 2$) other.

Of the 104 CCCU institutions whose vice presidents and chief officers responded with regard to institutional size, 15.4% ($n = 16$) were smaller than 1000 students; 63.5% ($n = 66$) were

between 1001 and 3000 in student enrollment; 15.4% ($n = 16$) were between 3,001 and 5,000 in student enrollment; and 2% ($n = 2$) had enrollments between 5,001 and 10,000.

Procedure

Participants were requested to complete the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1989) to provide measurement data on the three independent variables of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles and the dependent variable of motivation toward extra effort. Given the intensive and highly interactive nature of the relationships between the participants and the presidents, the observers had adequate opportunity to observe and therefore provide accurate data on the president's leadership behavior. Likewise, the scores from the MLQ represented each participant's personal motivation level, providing an indication of the long-term effects of the president's behavior on each staff member.

Both leadership styles and the dependent variable of motivation toward extra effort were measured using the 45-item MLQ Form 5x-short (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995). Thirty-six items measured the leadership styles of the presidents and three items measured the dependent variable of motivation. Six additional items measured job satisfaction and perceptions of leadership effectiveness. Followers described their leader's behaviors by utilizing a 5-point frequency scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (frequently, if not always).

Measures

The three leadership styles measured by the MLQ include:

1. Transformational leadership: Leaders transform and motivate followers by creating an exciting new vision, encouraging followers to move beyond their own interests for the sake of the organization, and stimulating the follower's higher order needs (Bass, 1985) (see Table 1).
2. Transactional leadership: Leaders develop relationships whereby the leader and subordinates exchange something of

TABLE 1 Independent Variables for Transformational Leadership

Attributed charisma	Possessing great energy, high self-confidence, strong conviction in personal beliefs, a strong need for power, and assertiveness
Idealized influence	Displaying conviction, highlighting trust, and identifying personal values with an emphasis on purpose, commitment, and ethical consequences of decisions
Inspirational motivation	Articulating an appealing vision for the future, demonstrating optimism, and speaking with enthusiasm and encouragement regarding things that need to be done
Intellectual stimulation	Creating an environment that persuades followers to evaluate their attitudes and values, as well as the way they approach problems and human relations
Individualized consideration	Recognizing followers as individuals, considering their unique abilities, needs, and ambitions, listening attentively, and advising and coaching others as distinctive individuals

equal value (Burns, 1978). These exchanges can be political, psychological, or economic (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1999) (see Table 2).

3. Laissez-faire leadership: Leaders provide neither positive or negative feedback, thus declining to offer personal interaction or direction (Bass & Avolio, 1990) (see Table 3).

TABLE 2 Independent Variables for Transactional Leadership

Contingent reward	Offering rewards in exchange for successful completion of assignments or duties
Management-by-exception (active)	Monitoring worker performance continuously, looking for errors, and taking corrective action if deviations or mistakes occur
Management-by-exception (passive)	Taking corrective action in regard to workers' behavior only when performance falls below an established threshold and waiting for mistakes to be brought to the leader's attention

TABLE 3 Independent Variables for Laissez-faire Leadership

Laissez-faire	Allowing workers to act without interference or directive action
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Motivation toward extra effort represents the inner desire or willingness of employees to exert additional time and energy to achieve organizational goals. While many researchers (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Burns, 1978; Tichy & Devanna, 1986) have found empirical evidence of a highly significant correlation between transformational leadership behaviors and the outcome of motivation toward extra effort, there appears to be only one previous effort (Mason, 1998) to attempt to combine the three leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) to determine which specific behaviors are predictive of motivation toward extra effort.

A stepwise regression process was utilized to identify the proportion of variance in the dependent variable, motivation toward extra effort, accounted for by each of the nine independent variables identified in the three leadership styles. In addition to the multiple regression analysis, a correlation matrix was created to determine which of the nine independent variables correlated with the dependent variable of motivation (Appendix A).

Cronbach's alpha was computed to determine the internal consistency of measurement of all scales from the sample used in this study (Table 4). Reliability estimates were computed for the items used to measure each subscale as suggested by Bass and Avolio (1995). Generally, the alpha coefficients for the variables in this sample were slightly less than those reported by Bass and Avolio (1995).

Results

Mean scores for all nine leadership factors were calculated and the distribution scores were divided into four equally spaced intervals (based on the number of items per scale) to determine the degree of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors that were practiced by the presidents of

TABLE 4 Cronbach’s Coefficient Alpha by Scale (Reliability Coefficients)

	Avolio and Bass (MLQ)	CCCU
Independent variables		
AC (attributed charisma)	0.86	0.76
II (idealized influence)	0.87	0.79
IM (inspirational motivation)	0.91	0.85
IS (intellectual stimulation)	0.90	0.77
IC (individual consideration)	0.90	0.69
CR (contingent reward)	0.87	0.73
MEA (management-by-exception active)	0.74	0.79
MEP (management-by-exception passive)	0.82	0.67
LF (laissez-faire)	0.83	0.70
Total Scale		0.83
Dependent variables		
EE (extra effort)	0.91	0.86
EFF (perceived presidential effectiveness)	0.91	0.85
SAT (job satisfaction)	0.94	0.83
Total Scale		0.94

the institutions in the sample group. The frequency results are presented in Figures 1, 2, and 3.

The result for factors correlated with transformational leadership behaviors was a mean score of 59.23 on a scale of 0–80 (20 items), with a standard deviation of 12.55. The frequency

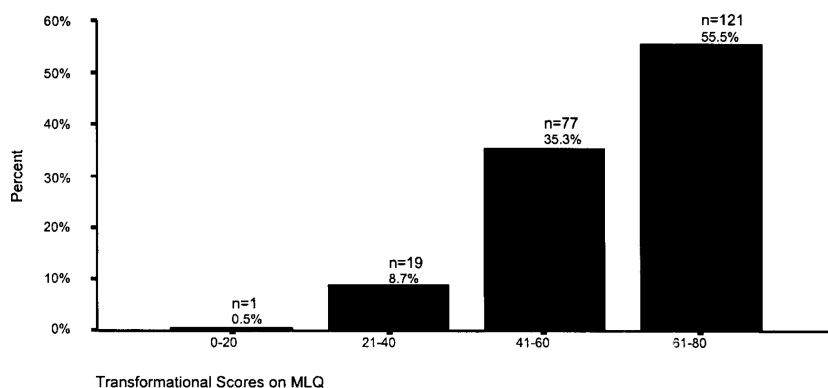


FIGURE 1 Distribution of transformational scores.

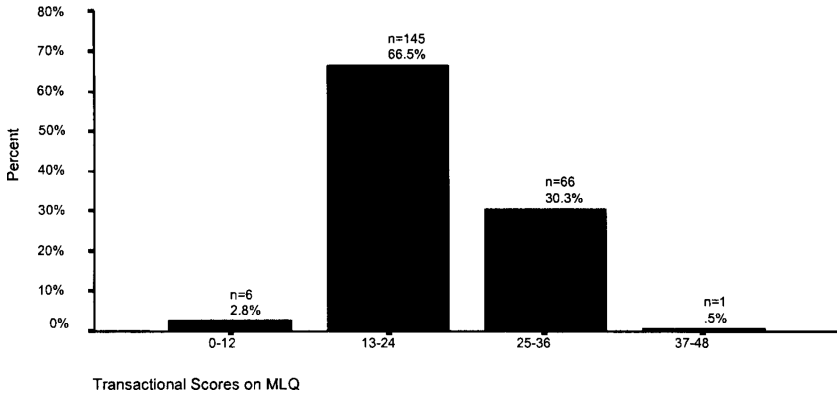


FIGURE 2 Distribution of transactional scores.

results for transformational leadership behaviors are presented in Figure 1.

The mean scores for transactional leadership factors was 21.98 on a scale of 0–48 (12 items) with a standard deviation of 5.40. The frequency results for transactional leadership behaviors are presented in Figure 2.

The mean score for the laissez-faire leadership factor was 4.40 on a scale of 0–16 (4 items). The frequency results for laissez-faire leadership behavior are presented in Figure 3 below.

The data illustrate (Figure 1) that 90.8% of the leader scores for transformational leadership behaviors were in the upper two quadrants; 55.5% of the scores were in the fourth or uppermost

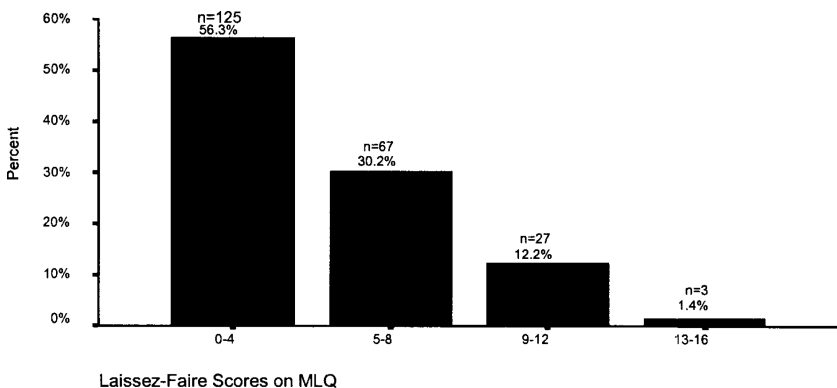


FIGURE 3 Distribution of laissez-faire scores.

quadrant. This indicates that the vice presidents and chief officers were most likely to observe and to encounter the kinds of presidential leadership behavior identified in the transformational leadership model.

The data show (Figure 2) that 96.8% of the leader scores for transactional leadership behavior were in the second and third quadrant, indicating that transactional leadership behaviors were demonstrated to a more moderate degree by CCCU presidents than the transformational leadership behaviors. The vast majority of the scores for laissez-faire leadership behaviors (Figure 3) were in the lowest two quadrants (86.5%), indicating that presidents of the CCCU institutions are actively engaged in guiding and directing their cabinet members at the personal level, rather than focusing their primary energies on external stakeholders or development opportunities.

Additionally, the mean scores were calculated for each of the nine leadership variables that make up the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership models. The data are presented in Figure 4.

The data in Figure 4 show that the factors of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and attributed charisma were the most prevalent leadership behaviors for presidents of CCCU institutions. In contrast, the factors of management-by-exception (active and passive) and laissez-faire behaviors were the least prevalent. These results suggest that presidents at CCCU

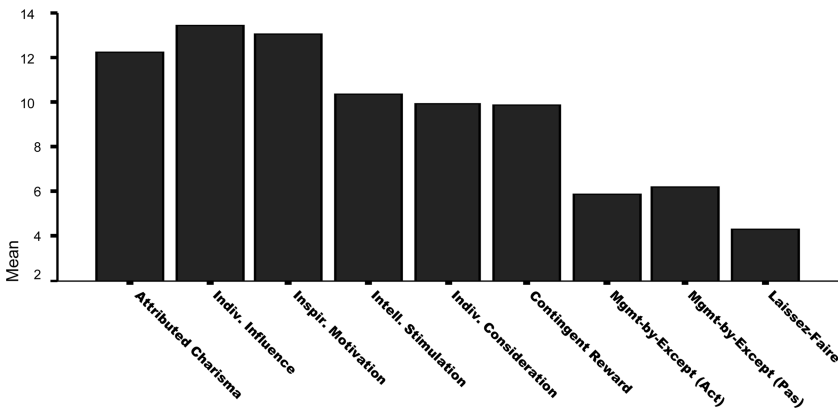


FIGURE 4 Mean of leadership variables.

institutions are viewed as inspiring, positive, emphasizing personal and organizational values, and demonstrating a strong need for power and assertiveness. Thus, presidents who project these characteristic behaviors were much more likely to be perceived as motivating leaders for CCCU institutions.

These data indicate that presidents of CCCU institutions have a strong tendency toward “hands on” leadership, which may be associated with the relatively small size of their institutions. This is not necessarily reflective of the leadership capacity of the vice presidents and chief officers since they were rating the leadership behaviors of the president. However, it does offer some insight into the culture and environment one might expect to encounter as an employee at a CCCU institution.

Five multiple regression models were utilized to identify the independent variables which were significant predictors of motivation toward extra effort (Table 5).

In Table 5, motivation toward extra effort was specified as the criterion (dependent variable). As demonstrated in the first model (column one), the linear combination of transformational leadership variables accounted for a significant percent (62%) of the variance in motivation toward extra effort (adjusted $R^2 = 0.62$). The predictive behaviors that demonstrated a significant correlation with motivation toward extra effort were the transformational leadership factors of attributed charisma (beta = 0.34), intellectual stimulation (beta = 0.24), and individual consideration (beta = 0.28). These results indicate that vice presidents and chief officers were more likely to be motivated by leaders who are energetic, possess high self-confidence, demonstrate power and assertiveness, recognize followers as individuals, consider their followers’ unique abilities, needs, and ambitions, and who create environments that encourage workers to evaluate their attitudes, values, and their approaches to problems and human relations. In the first regression model, the traits of attributed charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration were identified as significant predictors for leaders who positively increased motivation among staff members.

In the second model (column two), the linear combination of transactional leadership variables accounted for 50% of the variance in motivation toward extra effort (adjusted $R^2 = 0.50$).

TABLE 5 Regression Analysis of Presidents' Leadership Style on Motivation Toward Extra Effort Among Followers

Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-faire	Nine-factor model	Four-factor model
P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj $R^2 = .62$ ** Attributed charisma beta = .34 ($p \leq 0.01$) Idealized influence beta = -.08 ($p \leq 0.18$)	P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj $R^2 = .50$ **Contingent reward beta = .65 ($p \leq 0.01$) **Mgmt-by- exception (active) beta = -.15 ($p \leq 0.02$) *Mgmt-by- exception (passive) beta = -.11 ($p \leq 0.04$)	P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj $R^2 = .14$ **Laissez-faire beta = -.38 ($p \leq 0.01$)	P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj $R^2 = .63$ ** Attributed charisma beta = .35 ($p \leq 0.01$) Idealized influence beta = -.10 ($p \leq 0.10$)	P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj $R^2 = .64$ ** Attributed charisma beta = .34 ($p \leq 0.01$) ** Intellectual stimulation beta = .20 ($p \leq 0.01$)
Inspirational motivation beta = .11 ($p \leq 0.09$)			Inspirational motivation beta = .05 ($p \leq 0.44$)	** Individual consideration beta = .18 ($p \leq 0.01$)
** Intellectual stimulation beta = .24 ($p \leq 0.01$) ** Individual consideration beta = .28 ($p \leq 0.01$)			** Intellectual stimulation beta = .20 ($p \leq 0.02$) ** Individual consideration beta = .18 ($p \leq 0.01$)	** Contingent reward beta = .19 ($p \leq 0.05$)
			** Contingent reward beta = .23 ($p \leq 0.02$)	
			Mgmt-by- exception (active) beta = -.07 ($p \leq 0.12$)	
			Mgmt-by- exception (passive) beta = -.08 ($p \leq 0.11$)	
			Laissez-faire beta = .09 ($p \leq 0.11$)	

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

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

While all three independent variables, contingent reward (beta = 0.65), management-by-exception active (beta = -0.15), and management-by-exception passive (beta = -0.11) were significant predictors of motivation toward extra effort, only contingent reward demonstrated a direct positive relationship with motivation. Both other factors, management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive), exhibited a negative relationship with motivation toward extra effort. Overall, the transactional factors accounted for less of the variance in motivation than the transformational factors. Thus, management-by-exception was shown to lower motivation, while systems of reward provided some promise for raising motivation.

In the third model (column three), the laissez-faire leadership factor accounted for only 14% of the variance in motivation (adjusted $R^2 = 0.14$). The laissez-faire factor (beta = -0.38) was identified as a significant predictor variable, but demonstrated a negative relationship with motivation toward extra effort. Interestingly, a lack of direct involvement from the leader may actually lower the motivation of workers. Therefore, leaders who do not actively engage with staff members are likely to demotivate their employees.

A fourth multiple regression model (column four) was utilized to examine the correlation of all nine independent variables to the dependent variable of motivation toward extra effort. The linear combination of all nine leadership variables accounted for a significant percent (63%) of the variance in motivation toward extra effort (adjusted $R^2 = 0.63$). The significant predictors for motivation for extra effort were identified as attributed charisma (beta = 0.35), intellectual stimulation (beta = 0.20), individual consideration (beta = 0.18), and contingent reward (beta = 0.23). In contrast, management-by-exception (active) demonstrated a significant negative correlation with motivation toward extra effort (beta = -0.12). Attributed charisma demonstrated the greatest correlation to variance in motivation toward extra effort; intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and contingent reward represented a lower contribution toward motivation.

A stepwise multiple regression model was used for the fifth model (column five) utilizing the four significant predictors from

the nine-factor model. The linear combination of the four leadership variables accounted for a slightly higher significant percent (64%) of the variance in motivation toward extra effort (adjusted $R^2 = 0.64$), although the percentage increase was negligible. However, the benefit of the four-factor model is demonstrated by comparing the beta weights of the four independent variables. Attributed charisma (beta = 0.34), intellectual stimulation (beta = 0.20), individual consideration (beta = 0.18), and contingent reward (beta = 0.19) all demonstrated a positive significant relationship with motivation toward extra effort.

Findings and Discussion

The results of this study indicate that workers are motivated toward extra effort when leaders model self-confidence, high energy, personal conviction, power, and assertiveness. When attributed charisma is combined with the factors of intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and contingent reward, the presidents can expect that executive-level staff members are going to be motivated toward extra effort.

This study shows that leaders who focus attention on behaviors associated with charisma or intellectual stimulation, and who are considerate of others, are most likely to increase motivation toward extra effort among their staff. By providing a contingent reward system, leaders can motivate employees to work harder to achieve desired results. This study suggests that higher levels of motivation may be achieved when leaders provide specific plans of rewards and create cultures of affirmation, consideration, and appreciation for worker's abilities and effective actions.

Previously, Mason (1998) reported only attributed charisma and individual consideration as significant predictors of motivation toward extra effort. Different results for this study may relate to larger samples for data collection and an enhanced stepwise regression process. Mason selected only one chief officer from each community college, while this study made an effort to triangulate the responses of vice presidents from the areas of academic affairs, student life, and financial affairs. Other differences may be due to leadership variations between community college presidents and CCCU presidents. It was interesting that the factors

of intellectual stimulation and contingent rewards were reported as significant factors in this study of four-year institutions, but were not identified as significant factors in the community college study.

In regard to methodology, Mason forced a stepwise regression by manually selecting the significant subscale from the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire models and pooling the significant predictors into a combined model. The current study employed all nine factors into a combined regression model and then identified the significant subscales before collecting them into a combined four-factor model. This method allowed for the interaction effects between all nine subscales before creating a combined model.

Finally, this study recognized management-by-exception (active and passive) and laissez-faire behaviors as negatively correlated with motivation toward extra effort. These behaviors may represent leadership extremes on opposite ends of a continuum between active intervention and no intervention. Therefore, both too much “hands on” behavior and the absence of interaction (laissez-faire) on the part of the leader seem to negatively impact motivation.

Conclusions

This study focused on the 105 institutions in the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities. The findings may be generalized to other institutions of higher education, especially those similar in mission, size, or scope to CCCU institutions such as other private colleges and universities, denominational colleges, and smaller institutions of higher education. However, further replication studies are needed to verify this assumption.

The data confirm that college and university presidents of member institutions of the CCCU practice transformational leadership behaviors with a high degree of frequency, transactional leadership behaviors with a moderate degree of frequency, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors with a low degree of frequency. Leaders at CCCU institutions are highly likely to demonstrate personal charisma, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, idealized influence, and inspirational motivation.

The combined four-factor model of attributed charisma, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and contingent reward was slightly more predictive of motivation toward extra effort than previous transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire leadership models. The simplification provided by this four-factor model offers leaders a distinctive advantage in motivating their workers. Knowledge of the factors that predict increased motivation allows leaders to focus on the development of a select set of key behaviors to enhance institutional results and to potentially increase organizational effectiveness.

Attributed charisma ranked highest in predictive power. Intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and contingent reward contributed approximately the same variance in motivational levels, but to a lesser degree than attributed charisma. This study provides empirical data to support the concept that a combination of charisma, intellectual stimulation, personal consideration, and a reward system can significantly increase the motivation of workers in an organization.

Using less technical language, these four factors may be viewed in the following way. Attributed charisma may be descriptive of the concept of leadership courage, which is a combination of confidence, a willingness to take risks, and the energy and conviction to try something new. Intellectual stimulation may be compared to the concept of empowerment, which is the decision to engage persons in developing mental pictures of new concepts and encouraging workers to discover the necessary solutions that transform visions into realities. The factor of individual consideration identifies the need that persons have for personal recognition and the need to affirm the unique strengths and abilities of each person in an organization. It appears evident that people respond with renewed energy and motivation when they are working for leaders who are perceived as caring about others as unique individuals. The old adage that “people do not care what you know until they know that you care” suggests the importance of individual consideration. Lastly, contingent reward may be perceived as knowing your workers well enough to identify their strengths and to place persons in positions where they can make positive contributions to the organization and attain rewards and recognition. When people know what they need to do to achieve rewards and they believe they possess the skills and

the training to successfully accomplish the requisite tasks, it makes good sense that these persons are more likely to be motivated toward extra effort.

By utilizing knowledge of these behaviors, leaders can guide the development of systems, methods, and personal behaviors to create a motivated workforce. Highly motivated and satisfied employees also demonstrate a decrease in incidences of absenteeism and an increase in production while on the job (Montana & Charnov, 1993). In turn, followers who perceive their leader as caring for the welfare of each individual worker are likely to demonstrate increased loyalty, confidence, and to have a stronger sense of emotional well-being. When these factors are present, leaders tend to retain a higher level of status in the organization and the organization has a tendency for greater production (Yukl, 2003).

Finally, the study indicates that “hands-on” leaders who are prone to correcting others, and “hands-off” leaders who neither actively engage with workers nor affirm the individual contributions of others, are highly likely to lower motivation among workers, which can lead to increased absenteeism and decreased production for the organization. Therefore, it is good fiscal policy to focus on sustaining the four leadership behaviors identified as positive predictors of motivation toward extra effort among workers. This study suggests that leaders who desire to motivate peak performance from their workers should demonstrate personal courage, express confidence in others, display consideration for the strengths and abilities of their workers, and provide a contingent reward system. By implementing the four leadership behaviors of attributed charisma, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and contingent reward, leaders can elevate the motivation level and increase the production from members of their staff.

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APPENDIX A Structure Coefficients for Motivation Toward Extra Effort

Variables	Standardized Predicted Value of Extra Effort									
	Attributed Charisma	Individualized Influence	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individual Consideration	Contingent Reward	Management-by-Exception (Active)	Management-by-Exception (Passive)	Laissez-Faire Leadership	
Standardized Predicted Value of Extra Effort	.893**	.620**	.740**	.833**	.861**	.845**	-.211**	-.396**	-.449**	
Pearson Correlation										
Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.002	.001	.001	
N	215	215	215	215	215	215	215	215	215	
Attributed Charisma										
Pearson Correlation	.893**	.654**	.704**	.658**	.691**	.655**	-.197**	-.324**	-.492**	
Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.004	.001	.001	
N	215	220	218	220	220	220	217	219	220	
Individualized Influence										
Pearson Correlation	.620**	.654**	.683**	.539**	.546**	.612**	-.052	-.297**	-.390**	
Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	-	.001	.001	.001	.001	.448	.001	.001	
N	215	223	221	221	221	222	218	222	222	
Inspirational Motivation										
Pearson Correlation	.704**	.683**	1	.584**	.576**	.648**	-.185**	-.384**	-.456**	
Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	-	.001	.001	.001	.006	.001	.001	
N	215	218	221	219	219	220	216	220	220	
Intellectual Stimulation										
Pearson Correlation	.833**	.539**	.584**	1	.664**	.667**	-.057	-.271**	-.352**	
Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	-	.000	.001	.401	.001	.001	
N	215	221	219	221	221	221	218	220	221	
Individual Consideration										
Pearson Correlation	.861**	.546**	.576**	.664**	1	.743**	-.116	-.282**	-.392**	
Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.001	-	.001	.088	.001	.001	
N	215	221	219	221	221	221	218	220	221	

Contingent Reward										
Pearson Correlation	.845**	.655**	.612**	.648**	.667**	.743**	1	.006	-.326**	-.431**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	-	.927	.001	.001
N	215	220	222	220	221	221	222	218	221	222
Management-by-Exception										
(Active)										
Pearson Correlation	-.211**	-.197**	-.052	-.185**	-.057	-.116	.006	1	.171*	.158**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.004	.448	.006	.401	.088	.927	-	.012	.020
N	215	217	218	216	218	218	218	218	218	218
Management-by-Exception										
(Passive)										
Pearson Correlation	-.396**	-.324**	-.297**	-.384**	-.271**	-.282**	-.326**	.171*	1	.595**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.012	-	.001
N	215	219	222	220	220	220	221	218	222	221
Laissez-Faire Leadership										
Pearson Correlation	-.449**	-.492**	-.390**	-.456**	-.352**	-.392**	-.431**	.158*	.595**	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.020	.001	-
N	215	220	222	220	221	221	222	218	221	222

*.Correlation is significant at the 0.55 level (2-tailed).

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

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