PRESIDENTS' LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS ASSOCIATED WITH FOLLOWERS' JOB

SATISFACTION, MOTIVATION TOWARD EXTRA EFFORT, AND PRESIDENTIAL

EFFECTIVENESS AT EVANGELICAL COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

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Transformational leaders have tendencies that include: 1) projecting confidence and optimism about goals and followers' ability, 2) providing a clear vision, 3) encouraging creativity through empowerment and rewarding experimentation, 4) setting high expectations and creating a supportive environment, and 5) establishing personal relationships with followers. Transactional leadership as a process in which leaders and followers decide on goals and how to achieve them through a mutual exchange. The leader provides followers with resources, rewards, and punishment in order to achieve motivation, productivity, and effective task accomplishment. Laissez-faire leadership is the process of letting followers work without direction or guidance from the leader. The laissez-faire leader avoids providing direction and support, shows a lack of active involvement in follower activity, and abdicates responsibilities by maintaining a line of separation between the leader and the followers.

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the assumption that a combination of transformational and transactional leadership factors is more predictive of greater followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness than either leadership style alone.   The study investigated perceptions of the degree to which transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership were practiced by presidents of member colleges and universities in the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU). In addition, the study considered whether some combination of transformational and transactional behaviors is more predictive of job satisfaction, motivation

toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness than either transformational or transactional leadership alone. The independent variables in the study included the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of the college and university presidents and the dependent variables were job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness.

This study points to specific behaviors that are predictive of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness. By combining the behaviors identified as transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors, this study determines specifically which behaviors are predictive of the three dependent variables. By combining the transformational leadership behaviors of Attributed Charisma and Individual Consideration with the transactional leadership behavior of Contingent Reward, leaders may develop leadership styles that are more satisfying, motivating, and effective for followers than solely using the transformational model of leadership. Followers indicate that they are more satisfied and motivated by leaders who possess great energy, high levels of self-confidence, strong beliefs and ideals, are assertive, have the ability to make followers feel more confident, who create greater personal confidence within their followers, and who use positive reward systems to affirm desired behavior. This information provides empirical data to support the concept that a combination of charisma, personal consideration, and a reward system may increase follower's job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceptions of leaders' effectiveness better than transformational leadership behaviors alone.

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This dissertation is dedicated to my family:
My wife, Lisa
And my boys, Scott, Dylan, and Dalton
Who have offered endless encouragement and support
And who are the true joys of my life.

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INTRODUCTION

"The American college presidency began with the election of Henry Dunster as chief

officer of Harvard College in 1640. He received the title <u>president</u> which has continued at

Harvard and has become the usual title for the chief executive of American institutions of higher

education" (Prater, 1963). From the creation of the office of president, the chief executive has

retained this title and assumed responsibility for leading the institution of higher learning.

Schmidt (1957) identifies the president as "the most important individual in the early college." If

the president is not the most important leader in colleges and universities, he or she undoubtedly

fulfills a significant role in the success of the institution.

The importance of leadership has been the subject of hundreds of articles, essays, and

research studies. The word "leadership" has many definitions depending on the viewpoint of the

educator (Stogdill, 1974). Since so many different perspectives exist, it is apparent that many

conflicting ideas also subsist regarding organizational leadership (Birnbaum, 1989).

Historically, the majority of research studies have taken place within the military, business

organizations, and governmental agencies. Relatively little attention has been given to the study

of leadership in educational institutions (Vroom, 1983).

Burns (1978) originally described transformational leadership theory as a process "in

which leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation"

(p.20). Leadership scholars and practitioners have proposed that organizations need leadership

that inspires followers and enables them to create change (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985;

Conger & Kanungo, 1988). The concept of transformational leadership includes five key

factors: 1) attributed charisma, 2) idealized influence, 3) inspirational motivation, 4) intellectual

stimulation, and 5) individual consideration (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1993). Many empirical studies have tested the propositions of transformational leadership in a number of different settings (e.g. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Yammarino & Bass, 1990), and findings indicate that transformational leadership can improve the quality of research and development groups (Keller, 1992) and can lead to higher job satisfaction for followers.

Rouse, Baker, and Rose (1989) have proffered the idea that transformational leaders represent the most effective leadership style for presidents of colleges and universities. Research findings suggest that organizations may benefit from leaders who are less aggressive and more nurturing (Ross & Offerman, 1991). Transformational leaders have tendencies that include: 1) projecting confidence and optimism about goals and followers' ability, 2) providing a clear vision, 3) encouraging creativity through empowerment and rewarding experimentation, 4) setting high expectations and creating a supportive environment, and 5) establishing personal relationships with followers (Nahavandi, 2000).

One cannot consider transformational leadership without recognizing two additional styles of leadership: transactional and laissez-faire leadership. Bass (1985) has described transactional leadership as a process in which leaders and followers decide on goals and how to achieve them through a mutual exchange. He identified three key factors for transactional leadership: 1) contingent reward, 2) management-by-exception (active), and 3) management-by-exception (passive). The leader provides followers with resources, rewards, and punishment in order to achieve motivation, productivity, and effective task accomplishment (Nahavandi, 2000).

In addition, Bass (1985) described laissez-faire leadership as the process of letting followers work without direction or guidance from the leader. Laissez-faire leadership has also been defined as "avoidance or absence of leadership" (Bass, 1997, p. 134). The laissez-faire

leader avoids providing direction and support, shows a lack of active involvement in follower activity, and abdicates responsibilities by maintaining a line of separation between the leader and the followers. Bass (1996, p. 157) states, "laissez-faire leadership is the epitome of ineptness and ineffectiveness and is negatively related to the components of transformational leadership."

Higher education has experienced tremendous growth and undergone major changes in many areas. Leadership remains a key issue for institutions with limited financial and academic resources if they hope to remain competitive and remain viable in the future. Many Christian colleges, which are members of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU), possess modest endowments, receive little financial support from alumni, and have limited educational resources (Peterson, 2000).

Presidents of Christian colleges and universities must possess more than administrative abilities and management skills to be successful leaders in the arena of higher education. Prior to the 1960s, college presidents were seen as builders, responsible for the maintenance and development of colleges, most of which were rather small. The decade of the 1970s brought significant financial challenges with an increased emphasis on cost effectiveness and productivity, and the role of the college president became that of manager (Baker, 1994; Cohen & Brawer, 1996). In the 1990s, presidents at Christian colleges faced diminishing resources, and growing enrollments produced as many challenges as opportunities. Lewis (1989) recommended that effective college presidents must be more than managers; they must become educational leaders. Corrigan (2002) has reported that presidents across all institutional types are facing great challenges, especially in areas requiring coordination with faculty, legislators, and governing boards.

In the last decade, the growth in enrollment in higher education has reach unprecedented levels. In the period from 1990 to 2000, enrollments have escalated by 10.81% (Chronicle, 2002) for all colleges and universities. This is a staggering increase of 1.49 million students on the national level. Between 1990 and 1999, enrollment at CCCU colleges and universities increased 41.9 %, compared to 17.1% at other private institutions and 4.3% at public colleges and universities (Peterson, 2000). With the inclusion of enrollment figures for 2000, CCCU institutions demonstrated an enrollment increase of 47.36% during the decade of the 1990s (Peterson, 2000).

The Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU) is an international higher education association of Christian colleges and universities. The CCCU was founded in 1976 with 38 members. The Council for Christian colleges and universities has grown to 105 members in North America and 62 affiliate institutions in 24 countries. The mission of CCCU is to advance the cause of Christ-centered higher education and to help member institutions transform lives by faithfully relating scholarship and service to biblical truth.

The Council for Christian Colleges and Universities sponsors an annual Executive Leadership Development Institute that focuses on the ongoing professional development of chief administrative officers. Another project of CCCU, the Leadership Development Institute, is intended to identify and develop emerging leaders with a particular focus on women and minorities. The Council for Christian Colleges and Universities has funded an extensive list of projects and studies related to executive leadership development. Key areas of research include topics such as understanding campus culture, governance, conflict resolution, communication styles, dealing with the media, developing vision and a strategic plan, budgeting, character building, personal renewal, and political savvy. The South African Learning Study Program is

one of the most recent projects of the CCCU. This is part of the women's leadership initiative

has been awarded a grant from the W.K. Kellogg Foundation to advance the careers of

outstanding women and minorities and to enhance service learning on CCCU campuses

(http://www.cccu.org/projects/projects.asp).

Christian colleges and universities are looking for more than good personalities and keen

intellects from their presidents. Effective presidents must be adept at planning, fund raising,

budgeting, and also possess a strong set of leadership skills to maintain current enrollment levels

and to move forward in reaching new students in light of the growing competition among

institutions for students (Corrigan, 2002). It will take effective leadership for CCCU presidents

for Christian colleges and universities to remain fiscally sound, provide quality academic

programs, and continue to be competitive in recruiting new students in the face of the ongoing

battle for students between various institutions of higher education.

<div align="center">Statement of the Problem</div>

The problem of this study was the leader styles of presidents of CCCU institutions and

their association with followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived

presidential effectiveness.

<div align="center">Purposes of the Study</div>

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the assumption that a combination

of transformational and transactional leadership factors is more predictive of greater followers'

job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness than

either leadership style alone. Additional purposes were:

1.   to determine the leadership styles of presidents of member colleges and universities of

         the Council of Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU);

<div align="center">5</div>

2. to discover to what degree various leadership behaviors are utilized by presidents of member institutions of the CCCU;

3. to test the assumption that laissez-faire leadership has a negative impact on followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness;

4. to develop a model which combines the leadership factors associated with presidents' transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership to determine which are most predictive of job satisfaction among followers;

5. to develop a model which combines the leadership factors associated with presidents' transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership to determine which are most predictive of motivation toward extra effort among followers;

6. to develop a model which combines the leadership factors associated with presidents' transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership to determine which are most predictive of perceived presidential effectiveness.

The study investigated perceptions of the degree to which transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership were practiced by presidents of member colleges and universities in the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU). In addition, the study considered whether some combination of transformational and transactional behaviors is more predictive of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness than either transformational or transactional leadership alone. The independent variables in the study included the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of the college and university presidents and the dependent variables were job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness.

Research Questions

To accomplish the purposes of this study, four research questions were investigated that related to the leadership behaviors utilized by the presidents of member institutions of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities.

1.   What transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors are practiced by presidents at member colleges and universities of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU)?

2.   What combination of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of presidents are significant predictors of job satisfaction among followers?

3.   What combination transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of presidents are significant predictors of motivation toward extra effort among followers?

4.   What combination transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of presidents are significant predictors of perceived presidential effectiveness among followers?

Significance of Study

This study may have important implications. First, this study adds to the general body of knowledge related to transformational leadership. The study examined to what degree presidents of CCCU institutions demonstrate transformational leadership. The aim of this study was to identify which specific leadership behaviors of presidents predict followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness. Prior studies have compared transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership to

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the dependent variables specified in this study. However, there appears to be only one previous attempt to combine these leadership paradigms into a model to determine what specific behaviors of presidents predict followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness in higher education institutions. A study by Mason (1998) compared transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership factors for community college presidents and the potential of these factors for predicting job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness. Mason found that presidents of community colleges practiced transformational leadership behaviors more often than transactional behaviors and they utilized laissez-faire behavior least often. In addition, Mason concluded that Attributed Charisma and Individual Consideration were the two leadership variables most likely to predict job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort and perceived presidential effectiveness (1998).

Secondly, this study has important implications for practitioners, particularly for presidents of CCCU institutions and more generally for others in leadership positions. By identifying specific leadership behaviors that predict followers' satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness, leaders can develop and employ these leadership behaviors and utilize them to further their institutions. Highly motivated employees are substantially more productive. In addition, increasing employees' levels of job satisfaction can lower the incidence of absenteeism, tardiness, turnover, and grievance (Montana & Charnov, 1993). Followers who perceive their leaders as effective are more confident in facing challenges, experience greater job satisfaction, demonstrate higher levels of commitment to the organization, and display healthier psychological well-being (Yukl, 1994).

Definition of Terms

The following terms were used throughout the study:

1. *Chief academic officers* are those administrators who are directly responsible for curriculum and faculty-related decisions. They individuals were identified from the member list of CCCU institutions and report directly to the president.

2. *Chief financial officers* are those administrators who are directly responsible for the financial decisions of a college or university. These individuals were identified from the member list of CCCU institutions and report directly to the president.

3. *Chief student services officers* are those administrators who are directly responsible for decisions related to students' housing, care, and activities. These individuals were identified from the member list of CCCU institutions and report directly to the president.

4. *Transformational leadership* is the practice of leadership behaviors that empower followers to create vision, to promote change, and to achieve a meaningful and satisfying work environment (Bass, 1985). The following leadership factors are associated with transformational leadership (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995):

    a. *Attributed Charisma* – The leader possesses tremendous energy, a high level of self-confidence, a strong conviction in their beliefs and ideals, a strong need for power, assertiveness, and the ability to make followers feel more confident, thereby promoting positive change in their behavior (Bass, 1985).

    b. *Idealized influence (behavior)* – The leader displays conviction, emphasizes trust, takes stands on difficult issues, presents their most important values, emphasizes the importance of purpose, commitment, and ethical consequences of decisions, and is viewed as a role model by followers (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

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c. *Inspirational motivation* – The leader articulates an appealing vision of the future, has the potential to arouse others to meet new challenges and opportunities with positive attitudes, talks optimistically and with enthusiasm, and provides encouragement and meaning for what needs to be done (Avolio, Walkman, & Yammarino, 1991; Bass & Avolio, 1995).

d. *Intellectual stimulation* - The leader creates an environment that persuades followers to evaluate their attitudes and values, as well as the way they approach technical problems and human relations problems (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991). Transformaional leaders "stimulate the followers' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 3).

e. *Individualized consideration* – The leader recognizes followers as individuals; considers the their unique needs, abilities, and ambitions; listens attentively; furthers followers' development; advises, teaches, and coaches, rather than treating all followers as though they have the same needs and ambitions (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991).

5. *Transactional leadership* is the practice of leadership behaviors grounded in exchange theory in which leaders and followers agree on goals and the process of achieving goals through a exchange of rewards and punishment to obtain follower compliance and effort in order to achieve organizational performance (Bass, 1985). The following leadership factors are associated with transactional leadership (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995):

a. *Contingent reward* – The leader influences the motivation and performance of followers through positive and negative feedback (Bass, 1985). "The leader assigns

or gets agreement on what needs to be done and promises rewards in exchange for satisfactorily carrying out the assignment" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 4). They also offer resources and assistance and supply praise and approval for quality follower performance (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

    b. *Management-by-exception (active)* – The leader reviews job performance continuously, monitors followers' performance, looks for errors, and takes corrective action if deviations from standards occur (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

    c. *Management-by-exception (passive)* – The leader takes corrective action in regard to followers' behaviors only when their performance falls below an established threshold and wait to take action until mistakes are brought to their attention (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

6.   *Laissez-faire* is the process of allowing followers to act without interference or direction, thereby avoiding leadership. This is essentially a "non-leadership component whereby leaders avoid accepting their responsibilities, fail to follow up requests for assistance, and resist expressing their views on important issues" (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1995).

<center>Assumptions</center>

The following assumptions were made for the purposes of this study:

1. CCCU presidents are in a leadership role and chief academic, financial, and student services officers interact directly with the president.

2. Chief academic, financial, and student services officers are forthright in responding to the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire.

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3. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) measures the transformational,

   transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behavior factors and the outcomes of followers' job

   satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perception of presidential effectiveness.

Limitations of the Study

The study's sample primarily consisted of the chief academic, financial, and student services officers. Although graduate affairs officers, development officers, and other deans, directors, and officers answer directly to the president at various CCCU institutions, care should be taken in generalizing the results to other CCCU personnel.

The study's sample consisted of chief academic, financial, and student services officers from 105 CCCU schools and excluded representatives from public and other private colleges and universities. Therefore, care should be taken in generalizing the results of this study to chief officers or presidents in public or other private institutions.

A possible limitation for any study utilizing a survey instrument for data collection is the reliability and validity of the instrument. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire has been tested and used in leadership research in a variety of settings and has been found to be reliable and valid.

The limitations discussed represent the characteristics of a one-time study utilizing a survey instrument to gather data. These limitations do not render the data gathered inaccurate or unnecessary. Rather, the limitations determine the need for further research with the purpose of broadening the applicability of the findings of this study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

"Leadership is the ability to influence individuals or groups toward the achievement of goals. Leadership, as a process, shapes the goals of a group or organization, motivates behavior toward the achievement of those goals, and helps define group or organizational culture. It is primarily a process of influence." (Ratzburg, 2002)

History of Leadership Theory

Leadership theories can be documented from the ancient inscriptions of the earliest civilizations. One of the earliest compositions on leadership was written by Confucius in approximately 500 B.C. (Ayman, 1992). Reflections on leadership may be found in the writings of Plato, Plutarch, & Caesar (Bass, 1990).

Stogdill (1948) published one of the earliest comprehensive reviews of the research literature on leadership traits and observed that interest in this age-old subject appears as strong as ever. He concluded that particular individual traits appear related to leadership success (Stogdill, 1948). Different schools of thought regarding leadership have existed concurrently since the earliest inquiries into the subject began and in recent years a plethora of research on the topic of leadership has been undertaken.

The leadership theories discussed in this chapter are organized into conceptual schemas or groups. Each theory provides a basis for development of other leadership theories within a conceptual group.

The development of earlier leadership theories often provided insights that eventually led to the creation of a new group of leadership theories and these theoretical perspectives often overlapped in both historical time period and in conceptual design.

Early Theorists

Great Man Theories

The earliest theories on leadership identified the leader's genetic disposition or personal

traits as the key factors in determining leadership effectiveness, thus the title "Great Man"

theories (Stogdill, 1974). The underlying presupposition is that a leader's effectiveness and

entitlement are based on hereditary traits that distinguish him from his followers (Carlyle, 1841).

Early theorists held that leaders and followers are fundamentally different and that leaders are

more capable, possessing a set of personality traits that are of higher quality (Hughes, Ginnett, &

Curphy, 1999). Galton's (1870) study of the ancestry of great men in history had a strong

influence on leadership theorists well into the early twentieth century. Leadership is explained

by the internal qualities with which a person is born (Bernard, 1926). Thus, it is understood that

the position of leadership, whether a monarch, priest, statesman, etc., is dependent on one's birth,

not a process of training or development (Dowd, 1936; Jennings, 1960).

Although the Great Man theory spawned a significant amount of research, the eventual

conclusion was that leaders and followers are not really fundamentally different. While more

recent research clearly demonstrates that possessing particular personality traits generally helps

leaders be more successful, the diversity of successful leaders led to a loss of support for the

Great Man theory on the part of researchers (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1999).

Trait Theories

It made sense to endeavor to distinguish the specific traits or characteristics that set apart

leaders from their followers, since "Great Men" could be readily identified. Thus, trait theorists

have attempted to quantify leadership based on specific qualities or characteristics of leaders

such as personality, motives, values, or skills that differentiated them from their followers (Yukl,

2002). Thus, successful leaders could be quickly assessed and put into positions of leadership.

Personality, physical, and mental characteristics were examined (Horner, 1997). Early

researchers endeavored to characterize leaders according to specific traits such as intelligence,

height, weight, age, physical appearance, self-confidence, emotional control, integrity, or other

traits they believed discriminated between leaders and followers (Mann, 1965; Stogdill, 1948). It

was assumed that some people are natural leaders and are endowed with certain personality traits

that are not possessed by ordinary people (Yukl, 2002).

The term "personality" is rather ambiguous and has at least two distinct meanings

(Hogan, 1991). One meaning is the impression people make on others and emphasizes one's

social reputation. This definition of personality concerns public information that can be easily

verified, and research has revealed that observers tend to have high levels of agreement when

describing another individual's behavior patterns (Curphy, 1998; Curphy & Osten; 1993; Hogan,

1992; Nilsen, 1995). Social impressions are rather universal; thus people tend to use similar

terms when describing a person's public behavior.

A second meaning of the term "personality" emphasizes the unseen structures and

processes in a person's mind that explain why people behave in a certain manner in a particular

situation. Freud (1913) believed that intra psychic tensions among the id, ego, and superego

cause people to behave in particular ways even if the true motives behind the behaviors are

unknown to the person. Much of the early research addressing the relationship between

personality and leadership success was based on the trait theory approach (Hughes, Ginnett, &

Curphy, 1999).

Early leadership theories attributed leadership success to abilities such as tireless energy,

extraordinary insight, and incredible persuasive powers. Some researchers have proposed

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(Gardner, 1990) that effective leaders possess such traits as physical vigor, eagerness to be given responsibility, high intelligence, strong people skills, a need for achievement, self-confidence, the ability to motivate others, honesty, assertiveness, courage, determination, good understanding of others needs and desires, and the ability to be flexible. Hundreds of studies have investigated these mystifying qualities. However, this immense research effort has failed to identify any traits that guarantee leadership success (Yukl, 2002).

In 1966, Douglas McGregor provided an explanation of different styles of management based on the leader's attitudes about human nature. McGregor combined two contrasting sets of assumptions about human nature and called these Theory X and Theory Y.

A succinct description of Theory X reflects a traditional and somewhat pessimistic view of people. Managers with this style tend to rely on coercive, external-control methods to motivate workers, such as pay, disciplinary actions, punishments, and threats. Theory X leaders assume people are lazy and not naturally industrious or motivated to work.

In contrast, Theory Y reflects a view that most people are intrinsically motivated by meaningful work and value a sense of achievement, personal growth, pride in contributing to their organization, and respect for jobs well done. Theory Y leaders believe followers value opportunities to take on greater responsibility and autonomy independent of receiving tangible rewards for doing so (Yukl, 2002).

Hall and Donnell (1979) examined the findings of five separate studies involving more than 12,000 managers and explored the relationship between managerial achievement and attitudes toward subordinates. Hall and Donnell found that managers with a Theory Y attitude could better accomplish organizational objectives and maximize the potential of subordinates. In contrast, managers holding to a Theory X perspective were predicted to restrict subordinate

growth and limit organizational potential (Hall & Donnell, 1979). However, research to identify traits that belong specifically to leaders have met with minimal results and have led to the general conclusion that no single set of characteristics can operationally distinguish leaders from followers or guarantee effective leadership.

Behavioral Theories

Studies that focus on leader behaviors attempt to determine what kinds of things successful leaders do, rather than examine how the perceptions that others hold toward leaders (Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill & Coons, 1957). These researchers focus on identifying the behaviors exhibited by leaders that increase the effectiveness of their companies or organizations. The well-documented Michigan and Ohio State leadership studies took this approach. Two primary, independent factors were identified as a result of these studies: consideration and initiation of structure.

The primary concept driving behavioral leadership studies is the idea that leadership is not necessarily an inborn trait, but rather effective leadership methods can be taught to employees (Saal & Knight, 1988). Further broadening this research came with management's focus on people-oriented activities (consideration) along with task-oriented activities (initiation of structure).

The earliest and one of the most significant studies on behavioral theories of leadership was completed by Lewin, Lippit, & White (1939). They organized elementary age children into clubs and then trained graduate students to lead these groups of elementary age students by using either autocratic, democratic, or laissez-faire leadership styles. The researchers recorded significant differences in the behaviors of children in the various groups. The autocratic leaders constantly directed the actions and interactions of the group members. The democratic leaders

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encouraged the children in their group to decide their own policies and gave them freedom in regard to their tasks and interactions. The laissez-faire leaders simply gave their group complete freedom and refrained from participating in activities and minimized interaction with the children.

Observers recorded a greater frequency of commands, orders, praise, approval, and criticism from authoritarian leaders. The observers perceived that democratic leaders offered more suggestions and encouraged independence among group members. Laissez-faire leaders only provided information and then, only when questioned directly. The observers tallied greater degrees of hostility, discontent, and submission among the authoritarian led groups. The children in the democratic led groups demonstrated more friendliness, spontaneity, and cohesiveness, and the laissez-faire led groups were less efficient and less satisfying to group members (Stogdill, 1974).

Numerous studies have since been conducted to discover more information about these three leadership styles and to ascertain which style is the most effective (Foa, 1957; Gibb, 1968; Shaw, 1955; Torrance, 1953; Vroom & Mann, 1960; Ziller, 1957). Studies indicate that neither autocratic or democratic leadership can be verified as a means of increasing productivity, but follower satisfaction has been found to be higher under democratic leadership (Baker, 1992; Stogdill, 1974).

Motivation and Environmental Theories

The environmental theorists propos that the development of a great leader is the result of the right time, place, and circumstances (Mumford, 1909). They believe the environment or setting must be suitable in order for leadership to thrive and flourish (Hocking, 1924; Tead, 1935). For instance, the leadership effectiveness of such leaders as Lincoln, Gandhi, Roosevelt,

and Washington are difficult to separate from the time period and the events with which each is associated. Tead (1935) concluded that a leader is as much the result of the setting and times of his life as of a desire to wield power. As early as 1918, Bogardus proclaimed that the type of leadership accepted by a group is determined by the makeup of the group and the crises it faces. In similar manner, Murphy (1941) asserted that leadership does not reside in a person but is a direct function of particular situations.

Other motivational theories include need theories, which offer arguments for actions leaders need to take to influence others' behavior. Need theories suggest that people have needs for particular outcomes, and they are driven to behave in ways that satisfy those needs (Alderfer, 1969; Maslow, 1954; Murray, 1988). These researchers have argued that appropriate environmental conditions activate certain needs.

<div align="center">Interactive Theorists</div>

Researchers became discouraged with the results of focusing exclusively on trait and behavioral approaches and began to pay closer attention to the interactions between the leader's traits, the leader's behaviors, and the situation in which the leader operates (Horner, 1997). A new group of researchers came forward which emphasize the importance of contextual factors and the way they influence leadership.

These researchers affirm an interaction framework for analyzing leadership and propose that leadership includes an interaction between the leader, the followers, and the situation. They point out that leadership is more than just possessing the correct personality traits, or certain leader qualities, or the behavior the leader displays, but that leadership is the process of influencing others toward the achievement of group goals. Interactive theorists state that leadership is not just a person or a position; leadership is a process in which leaders and

followers interact in a dynamic manner in a particular situation or environment (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1999).

Contingency Theories

Contingency theories assume that the effects of one variable on leadership are contingent on other variables (Horner, 1997). In the early 1950's, leadership theory expanded as new concepts and perspectives were explored. The new theorists exemplify a more thorough understanding of the complex nature of leadership and base their findings on quantitative data, rather than simply on empirical observations (Yukl, 2002). This new approach is a major innovation, in that it explores the possibility that leadership can be different in each situation (Saal & Knight, 1988).

Gerth and Mills (1952) extended the level of knowledge regarding leadership by identifying four key leadership factors: 1) the traits and motives of the leader, 2) the image the public holds of the leader and their motives for following the leader, 3) the role played by the leader, and 4) the situation in which the leader and followers are involved. These theorists identified a significant concept in leadership theory by acknowledging the importance of the interaction between leaders and followers.

Catell (1951) recommended that the two main goals of leadership are to help a group select a common goal and then to guide the group to achieve the goal. Furthermore, Stogdill and Shartle (1955) suggested that leadership should be researched in relation to the interactions, status, behavior, and perceptions of the leaders in relation to members of their group. This suggested a shift in focus from analysis of the characteristics of the individual in leadership to a study of the overall leadership situation.

Fiedler (1967) developed the Contingency Model of situational leadership with the goal of incorporating situational factors into the leadership model. His contingency model of leadership is probably the earliest and best-known contingency theory and suggests that leader effectiveness is determined by choosing the right kind of leader for particular situations or changing the situations to match a certain leader's style (Hughes, Ginnett & Curphy, 1999). Fiedler created a scale of "situational control" based on factors he determined are existent in all situations. The three main situational factors proposed by Fiedler (1967) include: 1) leader-member relations, which include the levels of trust and support that exist between the leader and followers; 2) task structure, or the extent to which goals and methods for achieving the group's task are defined; and 3) position power, which is the degree to which the leader has the authority to reward and punish followers.

A Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) instrument was used to test Fiedler's theory. When using the LPC, leaders are asked to utilize a list of 16-24 items to describe a coworker with whom the leader can work least well, and rate this individual on a set of bipolar adjectives scales (e.g. friendly-unfriendly, boring-interesting, efficient-inefficient). The LPC score is the sum of the ratings and is construed as representative of factors related to the leader, not the specific individual the leader rates (Yukl, 2002).

Low LPC leaders are primarily motivated by tasks, which means these leaders mainly gain fulfillment from task accomplishment and tend to focus on enhancing relationships only after they are confident that the allocated tasks are being successfully achieved. High LPC leaders are primarily motivated by personal relationships, which means these leaders are primarily satisfied by maintaining close relationships and tend to move toward task

accomplishment after establishing positive relationships with their followers (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1999).

Some researchers accept the instrument as well researched (Rice, 1978) and Fiedler interpreted LPC scores to be predictive of leadership style. However, other researchers reported results in direct opposition to his findings (Nealey & Blood, 1968; Stinson, 1977).

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) were responsible for a major shift in focus, on the part of researchers, to examination of the overall leadership situation with the development of their "Situational Leadership" model. Hersey and Blanchard perceived that most leadership behaviors can be categorized either as "relational" behaviors or as "task-oriented" behaviors. Relational behaviors involve creating positive interactions with people and providing support for others. Ttask-oriented behaviors involve clearly communicating about goals, duties, and assignments (Mosley, Megginson, & Pietri, 1989).

The situational leadership model proposes that a higher level of maturity and development among the followers tends to create positive responses to a participatory leadership style; a lower level of maturity would accept and respond positively to a more directive leadership style. Later, Hersey and Blanchard developed the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (1982) and research results gathered through administration of the instrument have provided divergent results (Blank, Weitzel & Green, 1987; York & Hastings, 1986).

Other researchers, such as Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973), have described leadership style as a variable dependent on the existing situation. These theorists readily recognize the relationship between the leader's authority and the follower's freedom. Findings indicate that the greater the authority and more directive the leader, the less freedom the followers tend to

experience. Likewise, leaders who exert less authority must have more mature and competent followers in order to maintain productivity (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977, 1982).

While some researchers claim the Hersey-Blanchard model of leadership has not been validated (Graeff, 1983), it has maintained interest among managers. This may be due to its ease of mastery and the fact that it is less complex than other leadership models (Blake & Moulton, 1985).

Interaction-Expectation Theories

In 1950 Homans suggested that successful leadership can be identified and measured by three variables: 1) action, 2) interaction, and 3) sentiments. The premise is that increasing the frequency of interactions between a leader and followers increases mutual trust and respect and establishes group culture and cohesiveness.

Hemphill (1955) suggested that successful leadership occurs when followers participate in an action or activity that is initiated by the leader and that the participation results in a solution to a problem. When this occurs, the likelihood of leadership success increases and follower expectations of leader success are enhanced.

In 1964, Blake, Shepard, and Moulton introduced the Managerial Grid, a two-dimensional model of leadership behavior similar to that found at Ohio State and Michigan. They identified leadership practices based on "concern for people" (consideration) and on "concern for output" (initiating structure). Later, Blake and Moulton (1978) identified the "team management" style of leadership. These researchers have provided evidence showing increased profitability of companies by as much as 400% when leaders value both people and production and utilize a team approach to management.

Stogdill (1959) created an expectancy-reinforcement theory of attainment that focused on group dynamics. He stated that every time group members work together on a task, they reinforce the expectations that each will continue to perform in an expected way. The behavior of each group member reinforces the expectation of the same actions from each group member. In the same way, the leadership ability of each member is identified to the extent the individual continues to initiate action and meet group expectations regarding actions and goal achievement.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) recognized that a leader's choice of decision processes reflects effects in the leader, effects in the followers, and effects in the situation. Likewise, Maier (1963) identified the need for leaders to contemplate the various requirements to reach a quality decision and the likelihood of subordinate acceptance before choosing a decision procedure.

Vroom and Yetton (1973) proposed that leaders could enhance group performance by increasing participation in the decision-making process. The Normative Decision Model was designed to improve leadership effectiveness by managing follower participation in the decision-making process, and in turn, improving group commitment and performance (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). The decision-making process in the Normative Decision Model is based on a continuum ranging from completely autocratic to completely democratic (Vroom & Jago, 1988). These processes are presented in Figure 2.1 below.

Figure 2.1
Normative Decision Model – Levels of Participation

Decision Making Style	Processes of Participation in Normative Decision Model
Autocratic l (Al)	Leader solves the problem along using information that is readily available to him/her
Autocratic ll (All)	Leader obtains additional information from group members, then makes decision alone. Group members may or may not be informed.
Consultative l (Cl)	Leader shares problem with group members individually, and asks for information and evaluation. Group members do not meet collectively, and leader makes decision alone.
Consultative ll (Cll)	Leader shares problem with group members collectively, but makes decision alone
Group ll (Gll)	Leader meets with group to discuss situation. Leader focuses and directs discussion, but does not impose will. Group makes final decision.

Vroom and Yetton (1973) perceived decision quality and decision acceptance as the two most important criteria for judging the sufficiency of a decision. Vroom and Jago (1988) later revised the initial model to include additional variables and decision-making rules.

A number of studies were conducted to test the Vroom-Yetton model (Crouch & Yetton, 1987; Ettling & Jago, 1988; Field, 1982; Field & House, 1990; Field, Read, & Louviere, 1990; Heilman, Hornstein, Cage, & Herschlag, 1984; Jago & Vroom, 1980; Margerison & Glube, 1979; Paul & Ebadi, 1989; Tjosvold, Wedley, & Field, 1986; Vroom & Jago, 1978). The results of empirical research studies have generally supported the model. However, the model has several conceptual weaknesses. Critics of the model point out that decision-making processes are treated as a single, discrete event that occurs at a single point in time, but most important decisions are not made in this manner (Yukl, 2002). Field (1979) has stated that the model is not parsimonious; thus distinctions between autocratic, consultative, and group decision procedures are more critical than distinctions made among subvarieties of each procedure. Another criticism includes the assumption that leaders have the skills necessary to use each of the decision

procedures adequately and leader skill is not a factor in determining which procedure is most appropriate in different situations (Crouch & Yetton, 1987; Field, 1979).

Evans (1970) developed the path-goal theory to explain how the behavior of a leader influences the satisfaction and performance of followers (Georgopoulos, Mahoney, & Jones, 1957; Vroom, 1964; Yukl, 2002). Its chief premise is that the degree to which leaders demonstrate consideration and rewards for their followers determines the paths or behaviors the followers emulate in order to receive rewards (Evans, 1970). When these paths are clearly marked and identified, the subordinates understand which actions will result in rewards. Every time rewards are provided, the path is reinforced for the followers. A good leader will clarify goals, indicate acceptable paths, and then provide rewards for the appropriate behavior (House, 1971). The theory has been revised numerous times by researchers (Evans, 1974; House & Dessler, 1974; House & Mitchell, 1974; House, 1996).

Herzberg (1966) provided a well-known motivation theory. In his research, Herzberg made a distinction between factors in the workplace that lead to employee satisfaction and factors that lead to employee dissatisfaction. He proposed that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two different continuums instead of two ends of the same continuum. Herzberg titled the elements that caused satisfaction as motivators, because employees are motivated to achieve them. The set of elements that lead to dissatisfaction are labeled hygiene factors, because they are necessary to keep employees from becoming dissatisfied.

According to House (1971), "The motivational function of the leader consists of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route" (p. 324). Leaders can also affect follower

satisfaction. House and Dessler (1974) have stated, "Leader behavior will be viewed as acceptable to subordinates to the extent that the subordinates see such behavior as either an immediate source of satisfaction or an instrumental to future satisfaction" (p. 13).

The expectancy theory describes motivation to work as a rational decision process in which a person chooses how much effort to put forth at given points in time. In choosing between maximum effort and a minimal effort, a person considers the likelihood that a certain level of effort will lead to successful achievement of the task and the likelihood that task completion will result in desirable outcomes (e.g. higher pay, recognition, promotion, a sense of achievement) and result in avoiding undesirable outcomes (e.g. reprimands, layoffs, negative responses from peers, excessive stress) (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1999).

The probability of an outcome is called an "expectancy" and the desirability of an outcome is called a "valence." How all the expectancy factors and valences for different outcomes and levels of effort combine to determine a person's level of motivation is a matter of speculation and controversy (Yukl, 2002). Research conducted to test path-goal theory has yielded mixed results and the results have been inconclusive (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Ahearne, & Bommer, 1995; Wofford & Liska, 1993). This decision model provides an overly complex and unrealistic description of human behavior (Behling & Starke, 1973; Mitchell, 1974; Schriesheim & Kerr, 1977). Expectancy theory does not account for emotional reactions to decision dilemmas, such a denial or distortion of relevant information about expectancies and valences (Yukl, 2002).

Leadership Research

In contrast to former leadership theories, the most recent leadership theories consider a number of affective consequences. These consequences include: followers becoming

emotionally attached to the leader, motivational arousal of the followers by the leader's behavior, followers incorporating the leader's values and mission as their own, and followers placing trust and confidence in the leader (Green, 1994).

Astin and Scherrei (1980) have studied university presidents and offered four more styles of leadership including the bureaucrat, the intellectual, the egalitarian, and the counselor. They define bureaucrats as leaders who prefer to communicate through other staff rather than direct interaction with faculty, and they are viewed as distant and ineffective by faculty. This style of leader was identified as most likely to be president of large or nondenominational institutions. The intellectual leader is most likely to interact and communicate directly with faculty. This person is more likely to lead selective institutions, especially educational institutions located in the East.

The egalitarian president communicates more often with everyone including faculty, students, administrators, donors, potential students, and visitors. This leader's accessibility to nearly everyone characterizes their nonauthoritative approach to leadership and these individuals are most commonly found at institutions in the Midwest.

Finally, the counselor's administrative style is identified by a preference for interactions with others through personal conversations and informal gatherings. These leaders are older than the other groups and have been in office for a period lasting longer than the other three leadership styles. Presidents with counselor leadership style have not been found to have a high correlation with any particular type of institution.

Additional leadership theories have emerged over the two decades as can be observed in the comparison of transformational and transactional leadership theories. Transactional leadership stems from a more traditional view of workers and organizations and primarily

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involves the use of positional power by leaders to motivate followers to complete tasks (Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership searches for methods to motivate followers by satisfying higher-order needs and more fully engaging them in the process of work and achievement (Bass, 1985).

<u>Transformational Leadership</u>

Transformational leadership was first explained by Burns (1978), but more empirical research has been based on the model formulated by Bass (1985,1996). Transformational leaders can cope with change and initiate new follower behaviors. They can create new paradigms in the minds of experienced and new workers alike. Yukl (2002) has avowed, "with transformational leadership, the followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader, and they are motivated to do more then they originally expected to do" (p. 253). According to Bass (1985), leaders transform and motivate followers by 1) creating a new vision and emphasizing the importance of particular task outcomes, 2) encouraging followers to move beyond their own interests for the sake of the organization, and 3) stimulating the followers' higher order needs.

Bass (1985) has found strong correlations between transformational leadership behavior and increased job satisfaction for followers, increased motivation toward extra efforts for followers, and perceived leader effectiveness. In research studies in 1988, Hater and Bass found additional empirical evidence of a highly significant correlation between these outcomes and transformational leadership. According to Bass, (1998) over 200 empirical studies on transformational leadership have been conducted since it was first introduced by Burns in 1978. These studies have consistently offered evidence of a correlation between a transformational leadership style and followers' motivation and satisfaction (Bass, 1997). The transformational

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leader has been described as one who transforms organizations by instilling ideological values, moral purpose, and generating strong commitment, in comparison to threatening punishment, offering material incentives, or changing the physical work environment (Bass, 1996).

Bennis and Nanus (1985) proffer that transformational leadership is effective because it empowers people and creates a more meaningful and satisfying work environment for followers. Other researchers submit that the transformational leader can create a new vision and promote change, especially during difficult times (Tichy & Devanna 1986). Transformational leadership may be most effective during periods of transition and rapid change. Furthermore, this leadership style can motivate followers to create and promote a new vision, while continuing to increase followers' satisfaction (Bass, 1985).

While some scholars argue that the leader's personal qualities are the key to transformational leadership (Boal & Bryson, 1987; Hill, 1982; Kets de Vries, 1977, 1994; Sashkin & Burke, 1988; Zaleznik, 1977), it appears that the leader's qualities are not the sole key to their leadership effectiveness. However, transformational leaders can be distinguished by their vision and values, their rhetorical skills, their ability to build a particular kind of image in the hearts and minds of their followers, and their personalized style of leadership (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1999).

Transactional Leadership

Burns (1978) was one of the first researchers to use the terms "transformational" and "transactional" in describing leadership. While the literature up to this point in time described many leadership behaviors, few theories described leadership styles. Burns divided the most commonly accepted leadership behaviors into two categories and titled them transactional and transformational leadership.

Transactional leadership can be described as an exchange relationship between leaders and followers. Burns (1978) stated that transactional leadership is a process whereby the leader and subordinates exchange something of equal value (i.e., exchanging labor or a product for payment or rewards). This kind of exchange is not limited to financial exchanges. These exchanges can be political, psychological, or economic (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1999). The transactional leader is focused on day-to-day operations and preserving the status quo. The transactional leader uses rewards and coercion to motivate followers to comply with the leader's demands (Burns, 1978).

Bass (1985) endeavored to examine transactional and transformational leadership in more detail. He focused on the concepts of reward and punishment as key issues in understanding transactional leadership. Even though both the leader and followers understand the reward/punishment system, Bass (1995) indicates that this system is a weakness of the transactional leadership model. Bass found that extrinsic rewards such as verbal praise, pay increases, or job promotions can increase motivation and satisfaction in the follower. However, the leader is often not motivated to provide these incentives as long as the subordinate is performing adequate work. In the real world, leaders are more likely to interact with subordinates if problems arise, and usually display contingent disapproval (i.e. punishment or correction) to correct the problem behaviors. Although reward and punishment systems may work in theory, Bass (1985) concluded that the leader is more likely to be required to display disapproval, and this leads to low levels of motivation and satisfaction.

Bass identified two primary behaviors associated with transactional leadership: contingent rewards and management-by-exception (active). Contingent Reward refers to positive feedback and reinforcement, even if the follower continues to perform at an average

level. Management-by-Exception (active) behavior takes place when the leader monitors subordinates for errors or mistakes and takes corrective actions. Bass and Avolio (1990) added Management-by-Exception (passive) to describe occasions when the leader waits passively for errors and then takes corrective action when necessary.

Laissez-faire Leadership

Bass (1985) describes the laissez-faire model as a non-leadership model. In this approach, the "leader" provides no real direction and the laissez-faire leader does not provide negative feedback (Bass & Avolio, 1990). In a 1939 study by Lewin, Lippett, and White, the laissez-faire leadership style was compared to autocratic and democratic leadership styles. In the study, a group of adults were trained in leading boys' clubs. The laissez-faire leaders provided materials, but refrained from giving directions or participating in the activities, except to answer questions. They gave the group freedom of action and did not make judgmental or evaluative comments to the group. The results of the study showed that the laissez-faire groups were less organized, less efficient, and less satisfying to members than the groups under a democratic leadership (Lewin, Lippett, & White, 1939; Lippett, 1940). Further studies concluded that laissez-faire leadership resulted in less concentration and poorer quality work than either autocratic or democratic leadership styles. In addition, there was less worker satisfaction due to less sense of accomplishment, less vision and clarity in regard to goals, and less sense of group unity (Lippett & White, 1943; 1960).

According to Avolio and Bass, (1991), laissez-faire leaders delay and appear indifferent to what is happening with their followers. They avoid taking stands on issues, don't emphasize results, refrain from intervening, and often fail to follow-up (Bass, 1996). Bass (1985) also states that laissez-faire leaders are shown less respect by followers and that productivity, group

cohesiveness, and feelings of satisfaction are diminished under a laissez-faire leadership style. Bass (1996) concludes that laissez-faire is the least effective leadership style in that it demonstrates low initiation, low consideration, low task orientation, low relations orientation, and low direction and participation.

Other findings by Bass (1990) in regard to laissez-faire leadership indicate that poorer quality work and less actual work is accomplished. There is also more play, disorganization, discouragement, frustration, and aggression under laissez-faire leadership than under democratic leadership (Bass, 1990). Therefore, laissez-faire leadership appears to be negatively correlated with job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived president effectiveness.

<div align="center">Dependent Variables</div>

Job Satisfaction

The term "job satisfaction" is used to describe many personal characteristics that affect how employees perceive their jobs. Leaders must consider these personal factors and the characteristics of the work environment in order to assess the satisfaction of their followers (Locke & Latham, 1990).

Job satisfaction is an important area to measure and it studies have demonstrated that job satisfaction is highly correlated to turnover and absenteeism (Baker, et. al., 1994). The greater the level of job satisfaction, the lower the likelihood of the employee resigning or leaving the organization. The high cost of replacing workers makes the value of this finding apparent to leaders at all levels. Although the link between job satisfaction and absenteeism is not as strong, Locke and Latham (1990) have demonstrated that employees with high job satisfaction are less likely to be absent frequently.

Motivation Toward Extra Effort

Montana and Charnov (1993) found that highly motivated individuals can bring significant increases in productivity and job satisfaction and demonstrate considerable decreases in absenteeism, tardiness, and grievances. Therefore, it is helpful to identify some of the basic theories of motivation and to be able to apply these theories.

Unfulfilled needs tend to create tension, which creates behavior and activity aimed at satisfying the human need to reduce tension. Montana and Charnov (1993) define motivation as a process of stimulating individuals to take action that will lead to the fulfillment of needs or the accomplishment of goals. Jensen and Chilberg (1991) stated, "If you can figure out what makes a person 'tick' in a particular situation, you may be able to discover how to maximize his or her productivity to the group." Kanfer (1990) further declared that motivation is anything that provides direction, persistence, and intensity of behavior.

Perceived Effectiveness

Most researchers define leadership effectiveness in terms of the consequences or results of the leader's actions for followers and other organizational stakeholders. Likewise, perceived effectiveness of the leader is beneficial to both the follower and the leader. The followers' benefits include feeling higher job satisfaction, a higher level of commitment to the organization, better preparation to meet challenges, and greater overall psychological well-being when they perceive the leader as effective. Likewise, the leader's benefits include retention of higher status within the group and more opportunities for advancement within the group. The group or organization is more likely to perform well and achieve their goals when followers perceive their leaders as effective (Yukl, 1994).

Summary

The role of the college president is continuously changing and becoming increasingly complex. While there is no perfect presidential leadership model, Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) propose that transformational leadership is the paradigm best suited to college leadership in the 21st century. However, only one study is reported in the current literature that combines the leadership paradigms of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership into a single model to determine which individual characteristics are most predictive of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness (Mason, 1998).

Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) assert that transformational leadership behaviors can be grouped into five basic categories: a) vision, b) influence orientation, c) people orientation, d) motivational orientation, and e) values orientation. These researchers compared the presidents' responses with those of the presidents' administrative team and found a significant amount of agreement between the self-perceptions of the presidents and the perceptions of the administrative staff members who served with the presidents.

This chapter has reviewed the literature pertinent to leadership styles leading to job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived leader effectiveness. Previous studies have compared the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership paradigms and grouped leadership behaviors under these three styles.

Mason (1998) conducted research, which provides data that demonstrate which leadership styles predict job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived effectiveness when transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership are combined into one model. Mason surveyed the chief academic officers of 500 community colleges and requested that they rate the leadership of their community college president. The findings were

then compared and regression models were developed that combined leadership variables associated with transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership to determine which were most predictive of followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness. Mason's study was based on the assumption that a combination of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors would be more predictive of job satisfaction, motivation, and perceived effectiveness and that laissez-faire leadership would be negatively related to these factors.

This study combined transformational and transactional leadership models to replicate Mason's study on community college presidents and compared Mason's findings with the results of a study of presidents of institutions in the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities. The goal of this study was to determine the combination of leadership behaviors that are most predictive of followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived effectiveness.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

To fulfill the purposes of this study, data were collected from the vice-presidents of institutions that are members of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU). This chapter contains sections on (a) procedures for collecting the data, (b) the survey instrument, (c) the population, (d) the sample, (e) procedures for the analysis of data, and (f) the reporting of the data.

Research Design and Data Collection

In preparation for conducting this study, a membership list of CCCU institutions was acquired via Peterson's Guide to Christian Colleges and Universities (2002) and the Internet at www.cccu.org (2003). As of 2003, CCCU institutions include 105 colleges and universities identified as member institutions. The member list was entered into an Excel spreadsheet and addresses were obtained from the American Council on Education's Directory of Accredited Institutions of Postsecondary Education (ACE, 2002) and from the CCCU member institutions' websites (Appendix A).

Demographic information was collected for each participant and for the institution's president. This included job title, age, gender, ethnicity, years in current position, years employed at the institution, marital status, and highest degree held.

Each chief financial administrator, chief student affairs administrator, and chief academic affairs administrator (n=315) was sent an e-mail petitioning him or her to participate in the study (Appendix C). Included in the initial e-mail were instructions for accessing the survey online and a statement assuring all participants of their anonymity. After two weeks, a second e-mail was sent which included instructions and a link to the online survey. After a three-week period,

a packet was mailed to non-responders with a self-addressed and postage-paid envelope and a paper copy of the survey (Appendix B). This was followed up two weeks later with an e-mail message asking the subjects to return the completed survey instrument via regular mail or by accessing the online survey. Any responses received more than three weeks after the packets were mailed were considered non-responders, once a return sample of 65% of the original mailing had been attained.

Instrumentation

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used to collect data on the three independent variables of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership and the three dependent variables of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived leadership effectiveness (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Bass created the original version of the MLQ in 1995. Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1995) have since developed a revised version of the MLQ, Form 5x-short, which was used in this study.

The MLQ was administered to the chief financial officer, the chief student affairs officer, and the chief academic officer at each university in the sample. There were two reasons for utilizing the MLQ: a) to quantify leadership style, and b) to determine what combination of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire factors are significant predictors of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness. The MLQ (5x-short) results were utilized to answer the first research question regarding whether the CCCU college and university presidents exhibit transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire leadership as a primary leadership style.

The MLQ, (5x-short), contains 45 descriptive items. The items were utilized to measure nine leadership attributes (Bass and Avolio, 1995). These nine variables represent a full range of leadership from transformational to transactional to laissez-faire leadership. Four items are dedicated to each of the nine variables.

Twenty of the items measure five variables that represent transformational leadership. Items ten, eighteen, twenty-one, and twenty-five measure Attributed Charisma. Items six, fourteen, twenty-three, and thirty-four measure Idealized Influence. Items nine, thirteen, twenty-six, and thirty-six measure Inspirational Motivation. Items two, eight, thirty, and thirty-two measure Intellectual Stimulation. Items fifteen, nineteen, twenty-nine, and thirty-one measure Individualized Consideration.

Twelve statements measure three transactional leadership factors. Items one, eleven, sixteen, and thirty-five measure Contingent Reward. Items four, twenty-two, twenty-four, and twenty-seven measure Management-by-Exception (Active). Items three, twelve, seventeen, and twenty measure Management-by-Exception (Passive).

The four items that measure laissez-faire leadership are items five, seven, twenty-eight, and thirty-three. The last nine items measure job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived effectiveness as a leader. Items thirty-eight and forty-one measure job satisfaction; items thirty-nine, forty-two, and forty-four measure motivation toward extra effort, and items thirty-seven, forty, forty-three, and forty-five measure perceived effectiveness. Scores for each measure (leadership styles and job-related elements) were summed and grand mean scores were computed.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x-short) (Bass & Avolio, 1995) was sent via e-mail to three vice-presidents at each institution to measure the perceptions of several

chief officers, to obtain more well rounded feedback. The questionnaire has been updated and

expanded from a 1985 instrument and is designed to measure a full range of leadership styles and

behavior (Avolio & Bass, 1991). The range of leadership styles corresponds to highly

transformational leaders at one end of the spectrum and to highly avoidant leaders at the other

end. The validity of five transformational factors, four transactional factors, and one laissez-faire

factor were examined with positive results in terms of validity and reliability (Avolio, Bass, &

Jung, 1995).

Four multiple regression models were utilized for research questions two through four.

Multiple regression analysis was selected for its ability to detect significant predictors of job

satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness. Separate

regression models were conducted for each dependent variable. Regression analysis also

provides the benefit of standardized coefficients, or betas, which make the regression coefficients

more comparable as one investigates the proportion of variance in the dependent variables (job

satisfaction, extra effort, and leader effectiveness) accounted for by each of the nine independent

variables. The relative contribution of each predictor variable may be partly explained by the

magnitude of its standardized regression coefficient. The betas help explain how much change

will occur in the dependent variable for each standard deviation change in the specific

independent variable.

In addition to multiple regression analysis, a correlation matrix was created to determine

which of the nine independent variables correlated with each of the three dependent variables.

The correlation matrix appears in Appendix G.

Validity

Confirmatory Factor Analysis with LISREL VII using the maximum likeliness estimation method and adjusted modification indices to test convergent and discriminate of the leadership styles was used to determine those statements that did not fit the model parameters (Avolio, Bass, and Jung, 1995). The outcomes confirmed a five-factor (transformational), a three-factor (transactional), and a one-factor (laissez-faire) solution for the dependent variables of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived leadership effectiveness.

The validity testing was based on over 2,000 subjects gathered from nine separate sample groups ranging from 66 in size to 475. The version of the MLQ (5x-short) utilized in this study has been previously used in almost 200 research programs, doctoral dissertations, and masters' theses worldwide between 1991 and 1995. Written permission to use the MLQ (5x-short) was obtained from Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio through Mind Gardens, Inc. (Appendix B). A copy of this survey can be found in Appendix B.

Reliability

The reliability for each leadership style and job-related element on the MLQ (5x-short) was established by Avolio and Bass, through analysis of 2,000 respondents. Alpha coefficients for each of the nine leadership factors and three job-related elements are found in Table 3.1 (Avolio and Bass, 2000).

TABLE 3.1
Alpha Coefficients for MLQ 5X

FACTOR	MEAN	STD. DEV.	RELIABILITY
TOTAL SAMPLE (N=2154)			
Attributed Charisma	2.56	0.84	0.86
Idealized Influence	2.64	0.85	0.87
Inspirational Motivation	2.64	0.87	0.91
Intellectual Stimulation	2.51	0.86	0.90
Individual Consideration	2.66	0.93	0.90
Contingent Reward	2.20	0.89	0.87
Management-by-Exception (active)	1.75	0.77	0.74
Management-by-Exception (passive)	1.11	0.82	0.82
Laissez-Faire	0.89	0.74	0.83
Job Satisfaction	2.57	1.28	0.94
Extra Effort	2.60	1.16	0.91
Perceived Effectiveness	2.62	0.72	0.91

Population of the Study

Over 4,000 institutions of higher education operate in the United States (The Chronicle, 2003). Nearly 1,700 of these institutions are private four-year accredited colleges and universities (The Chronicle, 2003) and "approximately 900 of these colleges and universities are self-defined as religiously affiliated" (Peterson, 2000). Although many of these institutions place an emphasis on a liberal arts education, just over 100 intentionally church-related institutions have committed to the integration of faith and learning and qualify for membership in the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU, 2003). There are 105 Christian colleges and universities currently listed as members of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (Peterson, 2000).

This study surveyed the entire population of CCCU institutions (N=105) and a total of 315 questionnaires were distributed. The institutions identified for participation in this study were obtained from Peterson's Christian Colleges and Universities: The Official Guide to Campuses of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (2002).

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were utilized to describe the sample, and early and late responders were compared for evidence of non-responder bias. The questionnaires were scored using the MLQ (5x-short) Scoring Key. The MLQ contains 45 items and each item can be rated using a five-point Likert scale. The scale ranges from 0 – 4, where "0" represents "Not at all," "1" denotes "Once in a while," "2" signifies "Sometimes," "3" indicates "Fairly often," and "4" means "Frequently, if not always." The final scores were then used to categorize the perceived presidential leadership as transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire. Means and standard deviations of each were calculated. The research questions that guided the data analysis are as follows:

1.   To what degree are transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors practiced by presidents at member colleges and universities of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU)?

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the leadership characteristics of the CCCU presidents. Means and standard deviations for the five factors measuring transformational leadership, the three factors measuring transactional leadership, and the single factor measuring laissez-faire leadership were calculated. These results were compared to Bass and Avolio's midpoint of 2.0 on the MLQ 0–4 scale to classify each president according to the three leadership styles.

Multiple regression models were utilized to investigate the following three questions:

2.   What combination of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of presidents are significant predictors of job satisfaction among followers?

A multiple regression model was used to determine which of the transformational leadership factors predict job satisfaction, which of the transactional leadership factors are significant, and whether the laissez-factor leadership factor is significant.

Next, a multiple regression model was used to determine which of the nine factors associated with transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire followers' job satisfaction.

Finally, a combined multiple regression model using significant predictors from the nine-factor model was used to determine which of the nine factors associated with transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership predicts followers' job satisfaction.

3.   What combination of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of presidents are significant predictors of motivation of extra effort among followers?

A multiple regression model was used to determine which of the transformational leadership factors predict motivation toward extra effort, which of the transactional leadership factors are significant, and whether the laissez-factor leadership factor is significant.

Next, a multiple regression model was used to determine which of the nine factors associated with transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership followers' motivation toward extra effort.

Finally, a combined multiple regression model using significant predictors from the nine-factor model was used to determine which of the nine factors associated with transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership predicts followers' motivation toward extra effort.

4.	What combination of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors are significant predictors of perceived presidential effectiveness among followers?

A multiple regression model was used to determine which of the transformational leadership factors predict perceived presidential effectiveness, which of the transactional leadership factors are significant, and whether the laissez-factor leadership factor was significant.

Next, a multiple regression model was used to determine which of the nine factors associated with transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership predicts perceived presidential effectiveness.

Finally, a combined multiple regression model using significant predictors from the nine-factor model was used to determine which of the nine factors associated with transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership predicts perceived presidential effectiveness.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Of the 315 questionnaires distributed, 223 respondents submitted survey data; this represents a 70.8% response rate. Of the MLQ surveys returned, 196 were submitted online in response to e-mail requests; 27 were returned via regular mail as a result of one mass mailing. Results include a descriptive analysis of the sample followed by the research questions.

Demographic Profile of Sample

The survey included an addendum for the collection of demographic information on the respondents. These questions supplied the data necessary to provide a description of the characteristics of vice-presidents and chief officers for the CCCU.

Job Title

What are the characteristics of the sample of chief officers at CCCU institutions? The first demographic question posed to the respondents related to their official job titles. Of the 199 vice-presidents and chief officers who responded with respect to job titles, 12.6% (n = 25) reported the job title of provost, 26.6% (n = 53) were vice-president or dean of academic affairs, 23.1% (n = 46) reported vice-president of business and/or financial affairs, 21.6% (n = 43) were vice-president or dean of student affairs, 10.6% (n = 21) were vice-president or executive vice-president, 2.5% (n = 5) reported vice-president of advancement, and 3% (n = 6) reported other titles. Twenty-four respondents (10.76%) did not answer the question. See Table 4.1 below.

TABLE 4.1
Job Title of Sample Respondents

Job Title	Provost	V.P./Dean of Academic Affairs	V.P. Business or Financial Affairs	V.P./Dean of Student Affairs	Executive V.P.	V.P. for Advancement	Other Titles
N = 199)	12.6% (n = 25)	26.6% (n = 53)	23.1% (n = 46)	21.6% (n = 43)	10.6% (n = 21)	2.5% (n = 5)	3% (n = 6)

Degree Attainment

Of the 208 vice-presidents and chief officers who responded, the doctoral degree (either

Ed.D. or Ph.D.) was the highest degree attained and comprised 54.3% (n = 113) of the

respondents; 31.7% (n = 66) held a masters degree as their highest degree attained, and 13%

(n = 27) had a bachelor's degree. Two respondents (1%) held no college degree; fifteen (6.72%)

did not answer the question. See Table 4.2 below.

TABLE 4.2
Degree Attainment of Sample Respondents

Degree Attained	Ed. D. or Ph.D	Masters Degree	Bachelors Degree	No Degree	No Response
(N = 208)	54.3% (n = 113)	31.7% (n = 66)	13% (n = 27)	1% (n= 2)	(n = 15)

Years in Current Position

Of the 207 vice-presidents and chief officers who answered the question regarding the

length of time in their current position, the mean number of years in the current position was

7.14, with a range of 0.5 to 33. Sixteen respondents (7.17%) did not answer the question. See

Table 4.3 below.

TABLE 4.3
Years in Current Position for Sample Respondents

Years in Current Position	Mean	Range	No Response
(N = 207)	(7.14 years)	(0.5 – 33 yrs)	(n = 16)

<u>Years at Current Institution</u>

Of the 206 respondents who provided data, the mean number of years at their current

institution was 11.4 years with a range of 0.5 to 39 years. Seventeen respondents (7.62%) did

not answer this question. See Table 4.4 below.

TABLE 4.4
Years at Current Institution for Sample Respondents

Years at Current Institution	Mean	Range	No Response
(N = 206)	(11.4 years)	(0.5 – 39 yrs)	(n = 17)

<u>Age</u>

Of the 204 vice-presidents and chief officers who provided data, the mean age was 50.3,

with a range of 30 to 75. Nineteen respondents (8.52%) did not answer this question. See Table

4.5 below.

TABLE 4.5
Age of Sample Respondents

Age	Mean	Range	No Response
(N = 204)	(50.3 years)	(30 – 75 yrs)	(n = 19)

<u>Gender</u>

Of the 207 vice-presidents and chief officers who answered the question regarding

gender, males comprised 81.6% (n = 169) of the sample and females comprised 18.4% (n = 38).

Sixteen respondents (7.17%) did not answer this question. See Table 4.6 below.

TABLE 4.6
Gender of Sample Respondents

Gender	Males	Females	No Response
(N = 207)	81.6% (n = 169)	18.4% (n = 38)	(n = 16)

Marital Status

Of the 207 vice-presidents and chief officers who answered the question regarding

marital status, 92.3% (n = 191) reported they were married, 5.8% (n = 12) single, 1.4% (n = 3)

divorced, and 0.5% (n = 1) widowed. Sixteen (7.17%) did not answer the question. See Table

4.7 below.

TABLE 4.7
Marital Status of Sample Respondents

Marital Status	Married	Single	Divorced	Widowed	No Response
(N = 207)	92.3% (n = 191)	5.8% (n = 12)	1.4% (n = 3)	0.5% (n = 1)	(n = 16)

Ethnicity

Of the 201 vice-presidents and chief officers who responded with regard to ethnicity,

97% (n = 195) were Euro-American, 1.5% (n = 3) were African American, 0.5% (n = 1) was

Asian-American, and 1% (n = 2) reported the other category. Twenty-two (9.87%) respondents

did not answer this question. See Table 4.8 below.

TABLE 4.8
Ethnicity of Sample Respondents

Ethnicity	Euro American	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	Other	No Response
(N = 201)	97% (n = 195)	1.5% (n= 3)	0.0% (n = 0)	0.5% (n = 1)	1% (n = 2)	(n = 22)

Of the 104 CCCU institutions whose chief officers responded with regard to institutional

size, 15.4% (n = 16) were smaller than 1,000 students, 63.5% (n = 66) were between 1,001 and

3,000 students, 15.4% (n = 16) were between 3,001 and 5,000 students, and 2% (n = 2) were

between 5,001 and 10,000 students. Four (4%) of the respondents did not answer the question.

See Table 4.9 below.

TABLE 4.9
Size of CCCU Institutions

Institutional Size	Less than 1,000	1,001 to 3,000	3,001 to 5,000	5,001 to 10,000	No Response
(N = 104)	15.4% (n = 16)	63.5% (n= 66)	15.4% (n = 16)	2% (n = 2)	4% (n = 4)

Instrument Reliability

Cronbach's alpha was computed to determine the internal consistency of measurement of

all scales from the sample used in this study (Table 4.10). Reliability estimates were computed

for the items used to measure each subscale as suggested by Avolio and Bass (2000). Generally,

the alpha coefficients for the variables in this sample were slightly less than those reported by

Avolio and Bass (2000). See Table 3.1 below.

TABLE 4.10
Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha by Scale
(Reliability Coefficients)

	Avolio & 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

Research Question One

What transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors are practiced by presidents at member colleges and universities of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU)?

Descriptive statistics define the leadership characteristics of the CCCU presidents. The means and standard deviations were calculated for the five factors measuring transformational leadership, the three factors measuring transactional leadership, and one factor measuring laissez-faire leadership.

TABLE 4.11

Descriptive Statistics for Leadership Styles

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Transformational Leadership	218	0	80	59.23	12.551
Transactional Leadership	218	0	48	21.98	5.403
Laissez-Faire Leadership	222	0	16	4.40	3.302
Valid N (listwise)	215				

The mean score for transformational leadership factors (on a scale of 0-80) was 59.23, with a standard deviation of 12.55. The mean score for the transactional leadership factors (on a scale of 0-48) was 21.98, with a standard deviation of 5.40. The mean score for the laissez-faire leadership factor (on a scale of 0-16) was 4.40, with a standard deviation of 3.30. The distribution of scores from each group of leadership behaviors were then 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 practiced by the sample group. The frequency results are presented in Figures 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3.

Figure 4.1

Distribution of Transformational Scores

Transformational Scores on MLQ

Figure 4.2

Distribution of Transactional Scores

Transactional Scores on MLQ

Figure 4.3

Distribution of Laissez-Faire Scores

Laissez-Faire Scores on MLQ
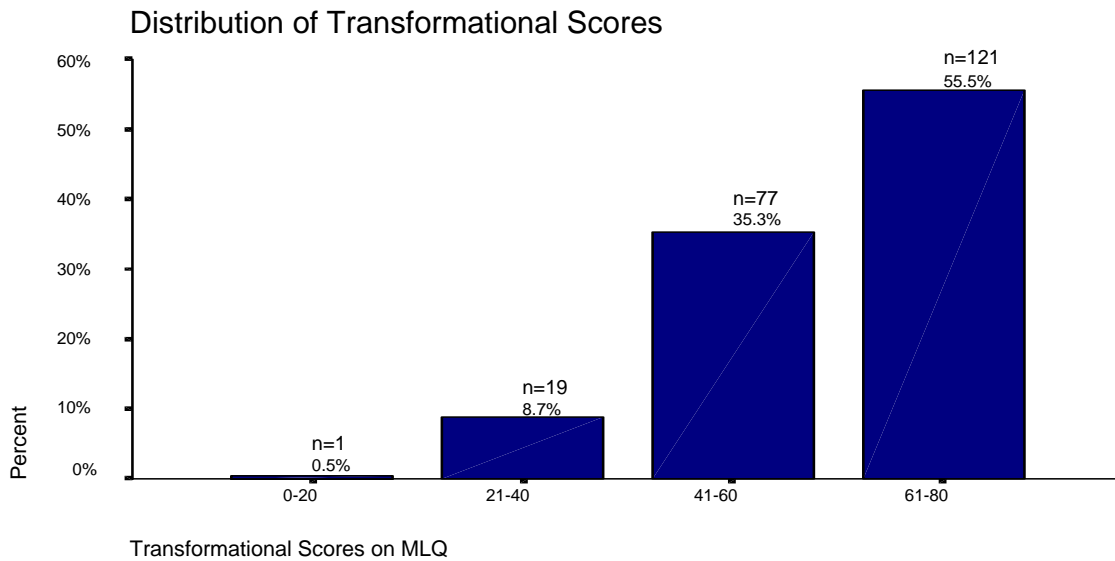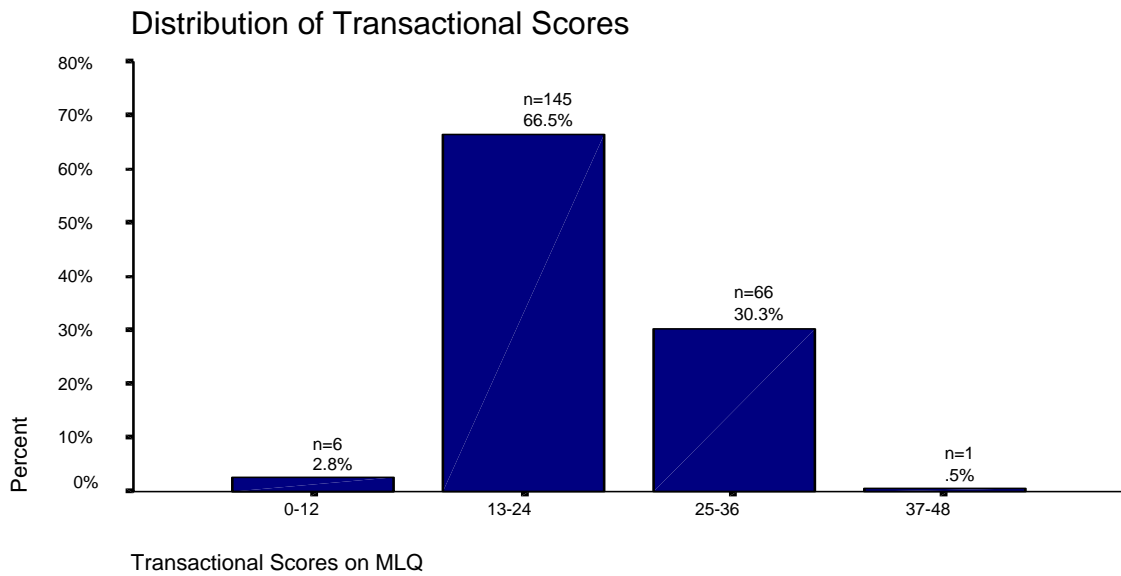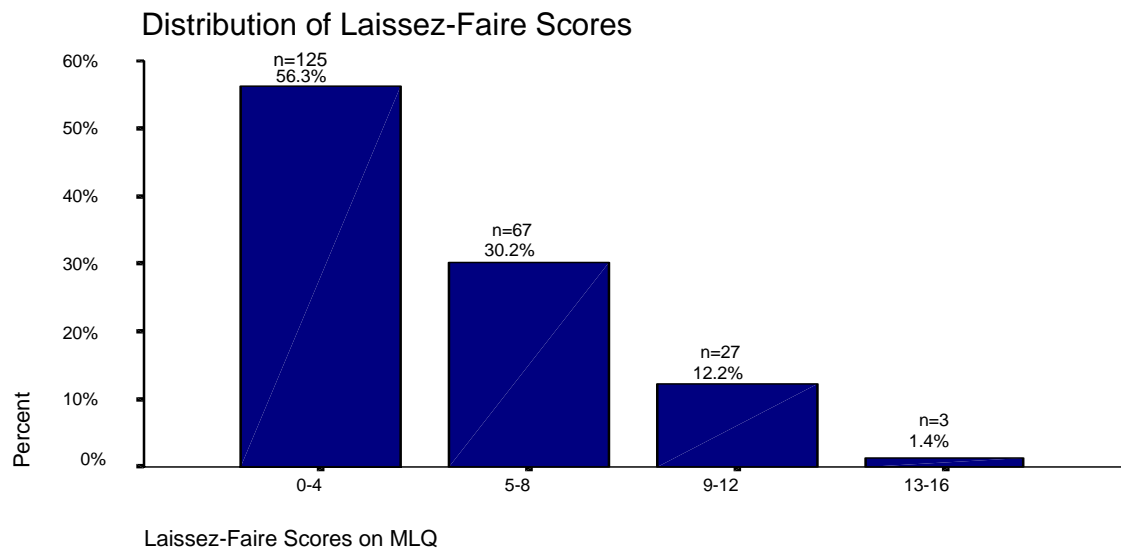
The data illustrate that 90.8% of the leader scores for transformational leadership behavior were in the upper two quadrants; 55.5% of the scores were in the fourth or uppermost quadrant. In addition, 96.8% of the leader scores for transactional leadership behavior were in the second and third quadrant, indicating that these behaviors were demonstrated to a moderate

degree. The majority of scores for laissez-faire leadership behavior were in the lowest two

quadrants (86.5%).

Additionally, mean scores were calculated for each of the nine leadership variables. The

data are presented in figure 4.4 below.

Figure 4.4
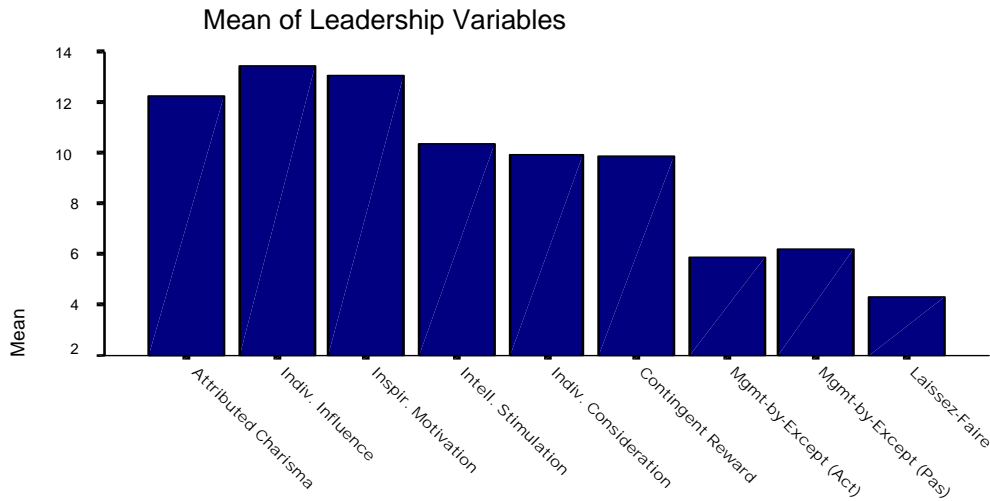
The data show that idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and attributed charisma

were the most prevalent leadership behaviors for presidents of CCCU institutions and

management-by-exception (active), management-by-exception (passive), and laissez-faire

behaviors were the least prevalent.

Research Question Two

What transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership

behaviors of presidents are significant predictors of job satisfaction among followers?

Four multiple regression models were utilized to identify the independent variables which

were significant predictors of job satisfaction (Table 4.12).

In the first model, job satisfaction was specified as the criterion (dependent variable) and

the transformational factors Attributed Charisma, Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation,

Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration subscales were specified as the predictors

or independent variables.

TABLE 4.12
**Result of Regression Analysis of Presidents' Leadership Style
on Job Satisfaction Among Followers**

Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-Faire	Nine Factor Model	Four Factor Model
P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .75	P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .57	P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .22	P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .77	P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .77
**Attributed Charisma beta = .50 ($P \leq 0.01$)	**Contingent Reward beta = .70 ($P \leq 0.01$)	**Laissez-Faire beta =-.47 ($P \leq 0.01$)	**Attributed Charisma beta = .47 ($P \leq 0.01$)	**Attributed Charisma beta = .54 ($P \leq 0.01$)
Idealized Influence beta = .01 ($P \leq 0.80$)	**Mgmt-by-Exception (Active) beta = -.24 ($P \leq 0.01$)		Idealized Influence beta = .01 ($P \leq 0.90$)	**Individual Consideration beta = .19 ($P \leq 0.01$)
Inspirational Motivation beta = .09 ($P \leq 0.09$)	Mgmt-by-Exception (Passive) Beta = -.06 ($P \leq 0.24$)		Inspirational Motivation Beta = .04 ($P \leq 0.45$)	**Contingent Reward beta = .23 ($P \leq 0.01$)
*Intellectual Stimulation beta = .11 ($P \leq 0.03$)			Intellectual Stimulation beta = .10 ($P \leq 0.06$)	**Mgmt-by-Exception (Active) beta = -.12 ($P \leq 0.01$)
**Individual Consideration beta = .27 ($P \leq 0.01$)			**Individual Consideration beta = .18 ($P \leq 0.02$)	
			**Contingent Reward beta = .19 ($P \leq 0.01$)	
			**Mgmt-by-Exception (Active) beta = -.12 ($P \leq 0.01$)	
			Mgmt-by-Exception (Passive) beta = .03 ($P \leq 0.42$)	
			Laissez-Faire beta = -.02 ($P \leq 0.65$)	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
 * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

55

The linear combination of transformational leadership variables accounted for a significant percent (75%) of the variance in job satisfaction (Adjusted R^2 = .75). Of the five independent variables, Attributed Charisma (p ≤ .01), Intellectual Stimulation (p ≤ .05), and Individualized Consideration (p ≤ .01) subscales were identified as significant predictors of job satisfaction among chief officers and vice-presidents of CCCU institutions. The magnitude of the contribution for Attributed Charisma on job satisfaction was considerably higher than Intellectual Stimulation or Individualized Consideration (Table 4.12).

In the second model, job satisfaction was specified as the criterion (dependent variable) and the transactional factors Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception Active, and Management-by-Exception Passive subscales were specified as the predictors or independent variables.

The linear combination of transactional leadership variables accounted for 57% of the variance in job satisfaction (Adjusted R^2 = .57). Of the three independent variables, only Contingent Reward and Management-by-Exception Active subscales were identified as significant predictors (p ≤ .01) of job satisfaction for chief officers and vice-presidents of CCCU institutions. Contingent Reward demonstrated a positive relationship with job satisfaction, while Management-by-Exception Active exhibited a negative relationship with job satisfaction for chief officers and vice presidents (Table 4.12).

In the third model, job satisfaction was specified as the dependent variable and the Laissez-faire subscale was specified as the predictor or independent variable. The Laissez-faire leadership factor accounted for only 22% of the variance in job satisfaction (Adjusted R^2 = .22). Laissez-faire leadership was a significant predictor variable (p ≤ .01), and exhibited a negative relationship with job satisfaction for CCCU chief officers and vice-presidents (Table 4.12).

In the fourth model, the dependent variable was specified as job satisfaction and all nine leadership factors, Attributed Charisma, Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individual Consideration, Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception Active, Management-by-Exception Passive, and Laissez-faire subscales, were specified as the predictors or independent variables.

The linear combination of all nine leadership variables accounted for a significant percent (77%) of the variance in job satisfaction (Adjusted R^2 = .77). Of the independent variables, Attributed Charisma ($p \leq .01$), Individualized Consideration ($p \leq .01$), and Contingent Reward ($p \leq .01$) subscales were identified as significant predictors of job satisfaction for chief officers and vice-presidents of CCCU institutions. The magnitude of the contribution for Attributed Charisma on job satisfaction was highest. Individualized Consideration and Contingent Reward were relatively low in the magnitude of their contribution to job satisfaction (Table 4.12). Management-by-Exception Active was also significant ($p \leq .01$), but had a negative relationship with job satisfaction for CCCU chief officers and vice-presidents.

In the fifth model, job satisfaction was specified as the dependent variable. The four leadership factors Attributed Charisma, Individual Consideration, Contingent Reward, and Management-by-Exception (Active) were specified as the predictors or independent variables.

In the stepwise regression, the linear combination of these four leadership variables accounted for a significant percent (77%) of the variance in job satisfaction (Adjusted R^2 = .77). The four-factor model was as robust in predicting extra effort as the nine-factor model. Of the independent variables, Attributed Charisma ($p \leq .01$), Individualized Consideration ($p \leq .01$), and Contingent Reward ($p \leq .01$) subscales were identified as significant predictors of job satisfaction for chief officers and vice-presidents of CCCU institutions. The magnitude of the

contribution for Attributed Charisma on job satisfaction was highest. Individualized

Consideration and Contingent Reward were relatively low in the magnitude of their contribution

to job satisfaction (Table 4.12). Management-by-Exception Active was also significant

($p \le .01$), but had a negative relationship with job satisfaction for chief officers and

vice-presidents at CCCU institutions.

Structure coefficients were calculated for the original nine subscale values and the

predicted value of job satisfaction to provide an indication of the correlations between the

original subscale values and the constant - predicted job satisfaction. The Pearson correlations

appear in Appendix D.

The observed relationship between the dependent variable of job satisfaction and all five

transformational factors of Attributed Charisma, Individualized Influence, Inspirational

Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration reveals a strong positive linear

correlation. Likewise, the transactional factor of Continent Reward shows a strong positive

linear correlation. The transactional factors Management-by-Exception (Active) and

Management-by-Exception (Passive) exhibit a negative linear correlation with job satisfaction.

Laissez-Faire leadership also demonstrates a negative linear correlation with job satisfaction for

chief officers and vice presidents.

<u>Research Question Three</u>

What transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership

behaviors of presidents are significant predictors of motivation of extra effort among followers?

Four multiple regression models were utilized to identify the independent variables which

were significant predictors of perceived leadership effectiveness (Table 4.13).

TABLE 4.13
Result of 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) $\leq$ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .62	P (model) $\leq$ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .50	P (model) $\leq$ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .14	P (model) $\leq$ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .63	P (model) $\leq$ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .64
**Attributed Charisma beta = .34 (P $\leq$ 0.01)	**Contingent Reward beta = .65 (P $\leq$ 0.01)	**Laissez-Faire beta = -.38 (P $\leq$ 0.01)	**Attributed Charisma beta = .35 (P $\leq$ 0.01)	**Attributed Charisma beta = .34 (P $\leq$ 0.01)
Idealized Influence beta = -.08 (P $\leq$ 0.18)	**Mgmt-by-Exception (Active) beta = -.15 (P $\leq$ 0.02)		Idealized Influence beta = -.10 (P $\leq$ 0.10)	**Intellectual Stimulation beta = .20 (P $\leq$ 0.01)
Inspirational Motivation beta = .11 (P $\leq$ 0.09)	*Mgmt-by-Exception (Passive) beta = -.11 (P $\leq$ 0.04)		Inspirational Motivation beta = .05 (P $\leq$ 0.44)	**Individual Consideration beta = .18 (P $\leq$ 0.01)
**Intellectual Stimulation beta = .24 (P $\leq$ 0.01)			**Intellectual Stimulation beta = .20 (P $\leq$ 0.02)	**Contingent Reward beta = .19 (P $\leq$ 0.05)
**Individual Consideration beta = .28 (P $\leq$ 0.01)			**Individual Consideration beta = .18 (P $\leq$ 0.01)	
			**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 0.01 level (2-tailed).
 * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In the first model, extra effort was specified as the criterion (dependent variable) and the

transformational factors Attributed Charisma, Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation,

Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration subscales were specified as the predictors or independent variables.

The linear combination of transformational leadership variables accounted for a significant percent (62%) of the variance in extra effort (Adjusted $R^2 = .62$). Of the five independent variables, Attributed Charisma, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration subscales were identified as significant predictors ($p \leq .01$) of extra effort for chief officers and vice-presidents of CCCU institutions. The magnitude of the contribution for Attributed Charisma on extra effort was higher than Intellectual Stimulation and Individualized Consideration (Table 4.13).

In the second model, extra effort was specified as the criterion (dependent variable) and the transactional factors Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception Active, and Management-by-Exception Passive subscales were specified as the predictors or independent variables.

The linear combination of transactional leadership variables accounted for 50% of the variance in extra effort (Adjusted $R^2 = .50$). All three independent variables, Contingent Reward ($p \leq .01$), Management-by-Exception Active ($p \leq .05$), and Management-by-Exception Passive ($p \leq .01$) subscales were identified as significant predictors of extra effort for chief officers and vice-presidents of CCCU institutions. Contingent Reward demonstrated a direct positive relationship with extra effort, while Management-by-Exception (Active) and Management-by-Exception (Passive) exhibited a negative relationship with extra effort for chief officers and vice presidents (Table 4.13).

In the third model, extra effort was specified as the criterion (dependent variable) and the Laissez-faire subscale was specified as the predictor or independent variable. The Laissez-faire

leadership factor accounted for only 14% of the variance in extra effort (Adjusted R^2 = .14).

Laissez-faire leadership was identified as a significant predictor variable ($p \leq .01$) and exhibited

a negative relationship with extra effort for CCCU chief officers and vice-presidents (Table

4.13).

In the fourth model, the dependent variable was specified as extra effort and all nine

leadership factors, Attributed Charisma, Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation,

Intellectual Stimulation, Individual Consideration, Contingent Reward, Management-by-

Exception Active, Management-by-Exception Passive, and Laissez-faire subscales, were

specified as the predictors or independent variables.

The linear combination of all nine leadership variables accounted for a significant percent

(63%) of the variance in extra effort (Adjusted R^2 = .63). Of the independent variables,

Attributed Charisma, Intellectual Stimulation, Individualized Consideration, and Contingent

Reward subscales were identified as significant predictors ($p \leq .01$) of extra effort for chief

officers and vice-presidents of CCCU institutions. The degree of the contribution for Attributed

Charisma on extra effort was highest. Intellectual Stimulation, Individualized Consideration, and

Contingent Reward were relatively low in the magnitude of their contribution to extra effort

(Table 4.13).

In the fifth model, job satisfaction was specified as the dependent variable. And the four

leadership factors Attributed Charisma, Intellectual Stimulation, Individual Consideration, and

Contingent Reward were specified as the predictors or independent variables.

In the stepwise regression, the linear combination of these four leadership variables

accounted for a significant percent (64%) of the variance in job satisfaction (Adjusted R^2 = .64).

The four-factor model was as robust in predicting extra effort as the nine-factor model. Of the

independent variables, Attributed Charisma, Intellectual Stimulation, Individualized Consideration, and Contingent Reward subscales were identified as significant predictors (p ≤ .01) of extra effort for chief officers and vice-presidents of CCCU institutions. The degree of the contribution for Attributed Charisma on extra effort was highest. Intellectual Stimulation, Individualized Consideration, and Contingent Reward were relatively low in the magnitude of their contribution to extra effort (Table 4.13).

Structure coefficients were calculated for the original nine subscale values and the predicted value of extra effort to provide an indication of the correlations between the original subscale values and the constant - predicted extra effort. The Pearson correlations appear in Appendix E.

The observed relationship between the dependent variable of extra effort and all five transformational factors of Attributed Charisma, Individualized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration reveals a strong positive linear correlation. Likewise, the transactional factor of Continent Reward shows a strong positive linear correlation. The transactional factors Management-by-Exception (Active) and Management-by-Exception (Passive) exhibit a negative linear correlation with extra effort. Laissez-Faire leadership also demonstrates a negative linear correlation with extra effort.

Research Question Four

What transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of presidents are significant predictors of perceived presidential effectiveness among followers?

Four multiple regression models were utilized to identify the independent variables which were significant predictors of perceived leadership effectiveness (Table 4.14).

TABLE 4.14
Result of Regression Analysis of Presidents' Leadership Style
on Perceived Presidential Effectiveness Among Followers

Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-Faire	Nine Factor Model	Four Factor Model
P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .73	P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .61	P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .29	P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .76	P (model) ≤ 0.01 Adj R^2 = .76
**Attributed Charisma beta = .44 (P ≤ 0.01)	**Contingent Reward beta = .71 (P ≤ 0.01)	**Laissez-Faire beta = -.54 (P ≤ 0.01)	**Attributed Charisma beta = .409 (P ≤ 0.01)	**Attributed Charisma beta = .46 (P ≤ 0.01)
Idealized Influence beta = .10 (P ≤ 0.07)	**Mgmt-by-Exception (Active) beta = -.15 (P ≤ 0.01)		Idealized Influence beta = .06 (P ≤ 0.27)	*Individual Consideration beta = .13 (P ≤ 0.02)
**Inspirational Motivation beta = .14 (P ≤ 0.01)	**Mgmt-by-Exception (Passive) beta = -.13 (P ≤ 0.05)		Inspirational Motivation beta = .06 (P ≤ 0.30)	**Contingent Reward beta = .30 (P ≤ 0.01)
Intellectual Stimulation beta = .03 (P ≤ 0.52)			Intellectual Stimulation beta = -.01 (P ≤ 0.85)	**Laissez-Faire beta = -.14 (P ≤ 0.01)
**Individual Consideration beta = .27 (P ≤ 0.01)			*Individual Consideration beta = .13 (P ≤ 0.02)	
			**Contingent Reward beta = .29 (P ≤ 0.01)	
			Mgmt-by-Exception (Active) beta = -.05 (P ≤ 0.14)	
			Mgmt-by-Exception (Passive) beta = -.01 (P ≤ 0.86)	
			*Laissez-Faire beta = -.09 (P ≤ 0.04)	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
 * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The linear combination of transformational leadership variables accounted for a

significant percent (73%) of the variance in perceived leadership effectiveness (Adjusted R^2 =

.73). Of the five independent variables, Attributed Charisma, Inspirational Motivation and Individual Consideration subscales were identified as significant predictors ($p \leq .01$) of perceived leadership effectiveness for chief officers and vice-presidents of CCCU institutions. The magnitude of the contribution for Attributed Charisma on perceived leadership effectiveness was higher than Inspirational Motivation or Individualized Consideration (Table 4.14).

In the second model, perceived leadership effectiveness was specified as the criterion (dependent variable) and the transactional factors Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception Active, and Management-by-Exception Passive subscales were specified as the predictors or independent variables.

The linear combination of transactional leadership variables accounted for 61% of the variance in perceived leadership effectiveness (Adjusted R^2 = .61). All of the independent variables, Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception Active, and Management-by-Exception Passive subscales were identified as significant predictors ($p \leq .01$) of perceived leadership effectiveness for chief officers and vice-presidents of CCCU institutions. Contingent Reward demonstrated a direct positive relationship with perceived leadership effectiveness, while Management-by-Exception Active and Management-by-Exception Passive both exhibited a negative relationship with perceived leadership effectiveness for chief officers and vice presidents (Table 4.14).

In the third model, perceived leadership effectiveness was specified as the criterion (dependent variable) and the Laissez-faire subscale was specified as the predictor or independent variable. The Laissez-faire leadership factor accounted for only 29% of the variance in perceived leadership effectiveness (Adjusted R^2 = .29). Laissez-faire leadership was identified

as a significant predictor variable ($p \leq .01$), but exhibited a negative relationship with perceived leadership effectiveness for CCCU chief officers and vice-presidents (Table 4.14).

In the fourth model, the dependent variable was specified as perceived leadership effectiveness and all nine leadership factors, Attributed Charisma, Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individual Consideration, Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception Active, Management-by-Exception Passive, and Laissez-faire subscales, were specified as the predictors or independent variables.

The linear combination of all nine leadership variables accounted for a significant percent (76%) of the variance in perceived leadership effectiveness (Adjusted $R^2 = .76$). Of the independent variables, Attributed Charisma ($p \leq .01$), Individualized Consideration ($p \leq .05$), and Contingent Reward ($p \leq .01$) subscales were identified as significant predictors of perceived leadership effectiveness for chief officers and vice-presidents of CCCU institutions. The Laissez-faire subscale was identified as being a significant negative predictor ($p \leq .05$) of perceived leadership effectiveness for chief officers and vice-presidents of CCCU institutions. The degree of the contribution for Attributed Charisma on perceived leadership effectiveness was highest. Individualized Consideration, Contingent Reward, and Laissez-faire subscales were all relatively low in the magnitude of their contribution to perceptions of leadership effectiveness (Table 4.14).

In the fifth model, job satisfaction was specified as the dependent variable. And the four leadership factors Attributed Charisma, Individual Consideration, Contingent Reward, and Laissez-faire were specified as the predictors or independent variables.

In the stepwise regression, the linear combination of these four leadership variables accounted for a significant percent (76%) of the variance in job satisfaction (Adjusted $R^2 = .76$).

The four-factor model was as robust in predicting extra effort as the nine-factor model. Of the independent variables, Attributed Charisma ($p \leq .01$), Individualized Consideration ($p \leq .05$), and Contingent Reward ($p \leq .01$) subscales were identified as significant predictors of perceived leadership effectiveness for chief officers and vice-presidents of CCCU institutions. The Laissez-faire subscale was identified as a significant negative predictor ($p \leq .01$) of perceived leadership effectiveness for chief officers and vice-presidents of CCCU institutions. The degree of the contribution for Attributed Charisma on perceived leadership effectiveness was highest and Contingent Reward was the next strongest predictor. The Individualized Consideration and Laissez-faire subscales were relatively low in the magnitude of their contribution to perceptions of leadership effectiveness (Table 4.14).

Structure coefficients were calculated for the original nine subscale values and the predicted value of predicted effectiveness to provide an indication of the correlations between the original subscale values and the constant - predicted effectiveness. The Pearson correlations appear in Appendix F.

The observed relationship between the dependent variable of perceived effectiveness and all five transformational factors of Attributed Charisma, Individualized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration reveals a strong positive linear correlation. Likewise, the transactional factor of Continent Reward displays a significant positive linear correlation. The transactional factors Management-by-Exception (Active) and Management-by-Exception (Passive) exhibit a negative linear correlation with perceived presidential effectiveness. Laissez-faire leadership also demonstrates a negative linear correlation with perceived leadership effectiveness on the part of the college or university president.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS,

IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of Findings

The primary purpose of this study was to produce a model consisting of the collective

leadership factors associated with transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership in

order to determine which factors were most predictive of follower job satisfaction, motivation

toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness. This study was based on the

assumption that a combination of transformational and transactional behaviors would be more

predictive of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential

effectiveness than either leadership style by itself. It was also assumed that laissez-faire

leadership had a negative impact on job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and

perceived presidential effectiveness.

A sample of 315 chief academic, financial, and student affairs officers was selected from

the population of 105 member institutions in the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities.

This sample represented three chief officers at each institution who worked directly with the

president and who were in a position to observe the president's behavior firsthand and provide

personal feedback regarding the president's leadership behavior. A total of 223 respondents

returned questionnaires, for a 70.8% response rate.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) surfaced from the literature review as

the preeminent instrument for measuring transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire

leadership styles while also measuring job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and

perceived presidential effectiveness. Demographic information regarding each chief officer was

gathered along with the questionnaire. The demographic profile included job title, degree

attained, years in current position, years at current institution, age, gender, marital status, and

ethnicity.

<u>Research Question One</u>

To what degree are transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-

faire leadership behaviors practiced by presidents at member colleges and universities of the

Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU)?

The data indicated that presidents of member institutions of the Council for Christian

Colleges and Universities (CCCU) demonstrated transformational leadership behaviors with a

high degree of frequency as rated by their respective chief academic, financial, and student

affairs officers. The MLQ has four items measuring five transformational factors with a

maximum of four points per item, which provides a total of 80 possible points for

transformational leadership behavior. On a scale of 0 to 80 for transformational leadership

behavior, the majority (55.5%) of the presidents scored between 61 and 80, which represents the

upper 25% range of possible transformational leadership scores. Additionally, 35.3% scored

between 41 and 60, which represents the remainder of the upper 50% range of possible

transformational leadership scores. The remaining presidents (9.4%) scored 40 or below and

only one president in the sample scored in the 0 to 20 range for transformational leadership.

These data indicate that 90.8% of the presidents of CCCU institutions demonstrate the

transformational leadership behaviors of Attributed Charisma, Idealized Influence, Inspirational

Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration with a high degree of

frequency, according to the chief officers who rated the presidents. It is understandable that

these behaviors would be important for presidents to emulate in order to be successful as leaders for colleges and universities.

It takes a tremendous amount of mental energy, a significant level of self-confidence, a strong sense of ideals and beliefs, and an ability to effectively utilize power and influence to cause followers to feel more confident and positive in order for a president to be successful over the long term. These are all primary elements of Attributed Charisma, so it is not surprising that presidents of CCCU institutions scored high in this area. These colleges and universities are mostly small in size with 15.4% indicating they have less than 1,000 enrolled students, 63.5% with 1,001 to 3,000 enrolled students, 15.4% with 3,001 to 5,000 students, and only 2% with more than 5,000 students. It is likely the president has some opportunity to interact with many employees during the academic year and the ability to communicate in a warm positive manner is likely to be an important trait.

Presidents of Christian colleges and universities are usually expected to display religious and ethical convictions, emphasize core values, and articulate a compelling vision of the future. These are key elements of Idealized Influence and Inspirational Motivation. Finally, one might expect presidents of CCCU institutions to create an environment that persuades followers to evaluate their attitudes and values as they approach human relationships problems and technical problems and to treat followers as individuals by considering their unique needs, ambitions, and through careful listening. These are key elements of Intellectual Stimulation and Individualized Consideration. It is not difficult to understand why presidents of smaller Christian colleges and universities scored high on these observed behaviors.

In contrast, the presidents of CCCU institutions demonstrated transactional leadership behaviors with a moderate degree of frequency. The MLQ has four items measuring three

transactional factors with a maximum of four points per item, which provides a total of 48 points for transactional leadership behavior. On a scale of 0 to 48 for transactional leadership behavior, the majority (66.5%) of the presidents scored between 13 and 24, which is the quadrant just below the 50% margin for possible transactional leadership scores. Additionally, 30.3% of the presidents scored between 25 and 36, which represents the quadrant just above the 50% margin for possible transactional leadership scores. A very small percentage (2.8%) of the scores were in the largest quadrant with a range between 0 and 12, and a minute percentage (0.5%) of the presidents scored in the highest quadrant which ranges between 37 and 48. These data indicate that 96.8% of the presidents of CCCU institutions demonstrate transactional behaviors of Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception (active), and Management-by-Exception (passive) with a moderate degree of frequency according to the chief officers who rated them.

One might expect that presidents would feel some degree of responsibility for the motivation and performance of their followers. Most leaders are expected to provide both positive and negative feedback to achieve the desired results. Followers need the leader to clarify expectations, exchange promises and provide resources, arrange mutually satisfactory agreements, and provide commendations for successful performance by followers. These are the primary elements of contingent reward and one might expect these kinds of behaviors from leaders.

In comparison, Management-by-Exception (active) is described as monitoring the job performance of followers continuously, looking for errors, and taking corrective action if deviations from standards occur. Active monitoring of employee actions is not the norm for presidents of most colleges and universities. The typical president must keep a broad perspective and guide many different priorities and projects for the long-term success of the institution. It

would seem counteractive for the president to personally monitor the behavior and work patterns of the followers.

Likewise, it is reasonable that leaders, who are rated high in transformational leadership behaviors, might be rated lower for Management-by-Exception (active) behaviors. Management-by-Exception (passive) is slightly different in that the leader takes corrective action only when follower performance falls below an established threshold and the leader often waits to take action until mistakes are brought to their attention. This approach to dealing with problems is probably more realistic for college and university presidents. When other administrative or academic leaders are unable to solve a significant problem on their own, they are likely to bring these problems to the attention of the president for consideration and consultation.

The presidents of CCCU institutions did not demonstrate laissez-faire leadership behaviors with a high degree of frequency. The MLQ had four items measuring the laissez-faire leadership factor with a maximum of four points per item, which provides a total of 16 points for laissez-faire leadership behavior. On a scale of 0 to 16 for laissez-faire leadership, the majority (56.3%) of the presidents scored between 0 and 4 which is the quadrant with the lowest possible scores. Additionally, 30.3% scored between 5 and 8, which represents the next highest quadrant of scores. Only 13.6% of the scores were above the 50% margin for possible scores for laissez-faire leadership behaviors. These data indicate that 86.8% of the presidents of CCCU institutions do not demonstrate laissez-faire leadership behavior with a high degree of frequency according to the chief officers who rated them. Laissez-faire is described as the process of allowing followers to act without interference or direction, whereby leaders avoid accepting responsibility, fail to follow up on requests for assistance, and resist expressing their views on important issues.

The low scores for laissez-faire leadership are consistent with the high scores for transformational leadership, since these leadership styles are basically opposite. It is expected that the president at an evangelical college or university is going to be involved to some degree in most aspects of the university. One would not expect to find a "hands-off" leader at a small private college, but rather a positive, outgoing, encouraging leader who is admired and respected by faculty, staff, and students. These data indicate that the leadership style of most presidents at CCCU institutions are most likely to represent transformational leadership, some transactional leadership, and very little laissez-faire leadership behaviors.

These findings suggest that the majority presidents of institutions in the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities demonstrate 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. Recent meta-analysis of government, military, and business leaders discovered similar results (Gaspar, 1992; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Mason, 1998; Patterson, Fuller, Kester, & Stringer, 1995).

Research Question Two

What combination of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of presidents are significant predictors of job satisfaction among followers?

The findings of research question two suggest that a combined four-factor model predicts job satisfaction among chief academic, financial, and student affairs officers equally well as the transformational model and better than the transactional or laissez-faire models. The combined four-factor model accounted for 77% of the variance in job satisfaction, and the transformational model accounted for 75% of the variance in job satisfaction.

Since the findings for the first research question indicated that CCCU presidents practiced transformational leadership behaviors with a high degree of frequency, it is not surprising to note that the transformational model accounted for 75% of the variance for predicting job satisfaction. Nor should it be surprising the findings indicated that the transactional model accounted for only 57.2% of the variance for predicting job satisfaction, when one considers that transactional behaviors were practiced by presidents of CCCU institutions with moderate frequency. It makes sense that transactional behaviors might impact job satisfaction to a lesser degree than transformational behaviors if the presidents were rated as using transactional behaviors with only a moderate degree of frequency.

Likewise, it also understandable that laissez-faire behavior accounted for the least amount of variance (21.6%) in predicting job satisfaction since presidents were rated as practicing laissez-faire leadership with a minimal degree of frequency.

Statistically, the combined four-factor model and the transformational model were approximately equal in predicting job satisfaction. Both the transactional and laissez-faire models were significantly weaker in predicting job satisfaction than the combined four-factor model or the transformational model.

In the transformational model, the significant leadership behaviors included Attributed Charisma, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration. In the transactional model, Contingent Reward was identified as a positive predictor of job satisfaction. This indicates that as these behaviors increased in frequency, there was a significant increase in job satisfaction.

In the transactional model, Management-by-Exception (Active) was also a significant predictor, but with a negative relationship with job satisfaction. Likewise, Laissez-faire was

identified was a significant predictor, but with a negative association with job satisfaction. As the frequency of these behaviors increased, job satisfaction decreased.

The leadership behaviors that were significant in the combined four-factor model were Attributed Charisma, Individual Consideration, Contingent Reward, and Management-by-Exception (Active). In the individual leadership models, Contingent Reward appeared to be a stronger predictor of job satisfaction than Attributed Charisma. However, in the combined four-factor model, Attributed Charisma appeared as the predictor that most contributed to the variance in job satisfaction, followed by Contingent Reward and Individual Consideration. In the combined four-factor model, the contribution of Contingent Reward as a predictor of the variance in job satisfaction was relatively small in comparison to Attributed Charisma. This pattern of reduction in contribution of Contingent Reward to the variance of job satisfaction, as compared to Attributed Charisma, was also identified in the combined four-factor regression model for motivation toward extra effort and the combined four-factor regression model for perceived presidential effectiveness. This raises questions concerning the interaction effect between Attributed Charisma and Contingent Reward, such as whether or not these subscales may be measuring some of the same constructs.

The review of the literature suggested that only one prior study had combined transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire behaviors into a combined regression model. Mason (1998) identified the same interaction effect between Attributed Charisma and Contingent Reward. The Pearson correlation coefficient relating Attributed Charisma and Contingent Reward was .66. Likewise, the Pearson correlation coefficient between Attributed Charisma and Individual Consideration was .69 (Appendix E). The high correlation between Attributed Charisma, Contingent Reward, and Individual Consideration indicates the possibility of

significant interaction effects between Attributed Charisma, Contingent Reward, and Individual Consideration. The fact that the effect of Contingent Reward and the effect of Individual Consideration nearly disappear in the combined four-factor model is bothersome and suggests a relationship between these variables that warrants deserves further investigation.

Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1995) recognized the high correlation coefficients among the five transformational leadership behaviors. The researchers also identified significant positive correlations between the transformational variables and the Contingent Reward variable. In their study, the average of the correlation coefficients among the five transformational variables was 0.83 compared to 0.79 for the combination of the five transformational variables and the Contingent Reward variable. In Mason's study, a slightly different ratio was found between the variables: the average correlation coefficient among the five transformational variables was 0.74 compared to 0.75 for the five transformational variables and Contingent Reward (Appendix E). This study found an average correlation coefficient among the five transformational variables of 0.63 compared to 0.64 including the five transformational variables and Contingent Reward (Appendix E).

The relatively high degree of correlations between Contingent Reward and the five transformational variables (Attributed Charisma, Individualized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration) could be explained in this and previous studies by several reasons (Bass & Avolio, 1995). First, the literature explains that transformational leaders must be responsive to followers and reward desired behavior in order to be transformational (Burns, 1978). Second, transformational behaviors and Contingent Reward are active styles of leadership. Both styles require the leader to provide feedback and verbal response. Third, Shamir (1995) proposes that consistent honoring of agreements (Contingent

Reward) builds trust, which is an important element in transformational leadership. Therefore, it may be expected that a high degree of positive correlations exist between Contingent Reward and the five transformational factors with regard to job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness.

In addition, the high correlations coefficients suggest that Attributed Charisma and Contingent Reward may be measuring the same behavioral construct. In reviewing the definitions of the terms one may observe similarities. Attributed Charisma refers to a leader who possesses tremendous energy, a high level of self-confidence, a strong conviction in their beliefs and ideals, a strong need for power, assertiveness, and the ability to make followers feel more confident, thereby promoting positive change in their behavior (Bass, 1985). Contingent reward is defined as behavior in which the leader influences the motivation and performance of followers through positive and negative feedback (Bass, 1985). It may be possible that positive feedback makes followers feel more confident, thereby promoting positive change in their behavior. With this perspective in mind, it may be logical that Attributed Charisma and Contingent Reward are highly correlated. This possible solution may also explain the relatively small contribution of Contingent Reward when grouped with Attributed Charisma in the combined four-factor model, if Contingent Reward and Attributed Charisma are actually measuring the same behavioral effect.

Individual Consideration was also identified in the transformational model, in the nine-factor model, and in the combined four-factor model as a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Individual Consideration is defined by a leader who recognizes followers as individuals; considers the their unique needs, abilities, and ambitions; listens attentively; furthers followers' development; advises, teaches, and coaches, rather than treating all followers as though they

have the same needs and ambitions (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991). The factors of personal recognition, consideration of needs and abilities, listening attentively to followers, along with teaching, coaching, and advising followers could lead to increased trust in the leader and increased confidence in the followers.

It is also interesting that Intellectual Stimulation was a significant predictor of job satisfaction ($p \leq$ .05) in the transformational model. However, this study did not identify Intellectual Stimulation as a significant predictor of job satisfaction in either the nine-factor model or the four-factor combined model. Intellectual Stimulation is described as behavior in which the leader creates an environment that persuades followers to evaluate their attitudes and values, as well as the way they approach technical problems and human relations problems (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991).

The interaction of Attributed Charisma, Individual Consideration, and Contingent Reward creates a highly personalized approach that focuses followers on a common goal, raises their confidence, recognized followers as individuals, and influences the motivation and performance of followers through positive feedback. In contract, Intellectual Stimulation involves leaders who stimulate others to examine new perspectives, create new ways of doing things, and encourage expressions of ideas and reasons. Intellectual Stimulation relies more on personal introspective approach to lead others to seek new conclusions, while the former leadership behaviors are directed toward focusing and guiding followers toward common goals.

The concept of unifying followers through common adherence to shared goals is a powerful and motivating approach to leadership. Attributed Charisma, Individual Consideration, and Contingent Reward may be more predictive of follower job satisfaction, due to their potential for establishing shared goals and providing positive interaction between both followers

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and leaders. Intellectual Stimulation utilizes more of an individual approach by persuading followers to evaluate attitudes and values, and then come up with new approaches. This finding may be indicative of the possibility to increase leadership power by influencing others as a group, rather than by leading many individuals.

Finally, Management-by-Exception (Active) was identified in the transactional model, in the nine-factor model, and in the combined four-factor model as a negative significant predictor of job satisfaction. It is defined as behavior where the leader reviews job performance continuously, monitors followers' performance, looks for errors, and takes corrective action if deviations from standards occur (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

The type of behavior produced by Management-by Exception (Active) is counter to the behaviors related to Attributed Charisma, Individual Consideration, and Contingent Reward. If a leader reviews job performance continuously, monitors followers' performance, looks for errors, and takes immediate corrective action when deviations occur, the follower will not feel a high level of confidence, believe the leader sees them as important, and will tend to focus on the negative feedback. If one is knowledgeable regarding the behavior associated with Management-by-Exception (Active) it is understandable that Management-by-Exception (Active) would be a negative predictor of job satisfaction when compared to Attributed Charisma, Individual Consideration, and Contingent Reward.

Research Question Three

What combination of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of presidents are significant predictors of motivation of extra effort among followers?

The findings of research question three suggest that a combined four-factor model predicts motivation toward extra effort for chief academic, financial, and student affairs officers

equally well as transformational model and better than the transactional or laissez-faire models. The combined four-factor model accounted for 64% of the variance in measuring motivation toward extra effort, while the transformational model accounted for 61.7% of the variance in measuring motivation toward extra effort. The transactional model accounted for 50% of the variance and the laissez-faire model accounted for only 14% of the variance. Therefore, the combined four-factor model and the transformational model were approximately equal in predicting motivation toward extra effort. Both the transactional and laissez-faire models were significantly weaker in predicting motivation toward extra effort than the combined four-factor model or the transformational model.

In the transformation model, the significant leadership behaviors were Attributed Charisma, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration. In the transactional model, Contingent Reward was identified as a positive predictor of motivation toward extra effort. This means that as these behaviors increased in frequency, there was a significant tendency for motivation toward extra effort to increase.

In the transactional model, Management-by-Exception (Active) and Management-by-Exception (Passive) were identified as negative predictors of motivation toward extra effort. Likewise, Laissez-faire was identified as a significant predictor, and it had a negative impact on motivation toward extra effort. As the frequency of these behaviors increased, motivation toward extra effort tended to decrease.

The leadership behaviors that were significant in the combined four-factor model were Attributed Charisma, Intellectual Stimulation, Individual Consideration, and Contingent Reward. As previously mentioned, in the separate leadership models, Contingent Reward appeared to be a stronger predictor of motivation toward extra effort than Attributed Charisma. However, in the

combined four-factor model, Attributed Charisma appeared as the predictor that contributed the most variance to motivation toward extra effort, followed by Intellectual Stimulation, Contingent Reward, and finally Individual Consideration.

In the combined four-factor model, the contribution of Contingent Reward to the variance in motivation toward extra effort was considerably less than Attributed Charisma. This pattern of reduction in contribution of Contingent Reward to the variance of motivation toward extra effort, as compared to Attributed Charisma, was identified in the combined regression model for job satisfaction and again in the combined regression model for perceived presidential effectiveness. This raises the question once again concerning the interaction effect between Attributed Charisma and Contingent Reward.

Intellectual Stimulation was documented in the transformational model and in the combined four-factor model as a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Interestingly, this variable accounted for approximately the same amount of the variance in motivation toward extra effort in both the transformational model and the combined four-factor model. Intellectual Stimulation is described as behavior in which the leader creates an environment that persuades followers to evaluate their attitudes and values, as well as the way they approach technical and human relations problems (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991). The same leader behaviors identified as encouraging followers to consider new ways of thinking and helping them identify new solutions, are likely to increase the confidence of the followers and strengthen additional personal commitment and motivation toward extra effort.

While Attributed Charisma was the strongest predictor of motivation toward extra effort (33.9%), Intellectual Stimulation accounted for the 20.1% of the variance in motivation toward extra effort and was more predictive than either Contingent Reward or Individual Consideration.

Campion (1989), found that motivation toward extra effort was positively correlated to intellectual requirements of workers and was stronger than external motivation. Herzberg's (1966) Two-Factor theory also argues that individuals are more motivated by intrinsic aspects of work than by extrinsic characteristics.

Expectancy theory suggests that linking rewards to performance may increase workers' motivation. Some researchers have questioned this assumption and argued that even though rewards can sometimes increase extrinsic motivation, rewards tend to decrease intrinsic motivation, which flows naturally from the work itself when one performs interesting or stimulating work (Deci & Ryan, 1985). It is possible that Intellectual Stimulation is more predictive of motivation toward extra effort due to its intrinsic aspects, while Contingent Reward and Individualized Consideration are dependent on external sources. A strong correlation between Intellectual Stimulation and motivation toward extra effort might be expected in an academic setting. Further research on the relationship between Intellectual Stimulation and motivation toward extra effort is recommended, particularly in non-academic environments.

Individual Consideration was also identified in the transformational model and in the combined four-factor model as a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Individual Consideration is defined by a leader who recognizes followers as individuals; considers their unique needs, abilities, and ambitions; listens attentively; furthers followers' development; and advises, teaches, and coaches, rather than treating all followers as though they have the same needs and ambitions (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991). The factors of personal recognition, consideration of needs and abilities, listening attentively to followers, along with teaching, coaching, and advising followers can lead to greater trust in the leader and increased confidence in the followers. One could argue that the behaviors of Individual Consideration and

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Intellectual Stimulation are intricately related and these constructs in the study may actually measure the same behaviors.

Research Question Four

What combination of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors are significant predictors of perceived presidential effectiveness among followers?

The findings of research question three suggested that a combined four-factor model could predict perceived presidential effectiveness for chief academic, financial, and student affairs officers only slightly better than the transformational model and much better than the transactional or laissez-faire models. The combined four-factor model accounted for 76% of the variance in measuring perceived presidential effectiveness, while the transformational model accounted for 72.7% of the variance in measuring perceived presidential effectiveness. The transactional model accounted for 61% of the variance and the laissez-faire model accounted for only 29% of the variance. Therefore, the combined four-factor model and the transformational model were relatively equal in predicting perceived presidential effectiveness. Both the transactional and laissez-faire models were significantly weaker in predicting perceived presidential effectiveness than the combined four-factor model or the transformational model.

In the transformation model, the leadership behaviors that were significant were Attributed Charisma, Inspirational Motivation, and Individual Consideration. In the transactional model, Contingent Reward was identified as a positive predictor of perceived presidential effectiveness. This means that as these behaviors increased in frequency, there was a significant tendency for perceived presidential effectiveness to increase.

In the transactional model, Management-by-Exception (Active) and Management-by-Exception (Passive) were identified as negative predictors of perceived presidential

effectiveness. Likewise, Laissez-faire was identified as a significant predictor, and had a negative impact on perceived presidential effectiveness. As the frequency of these behaviors increased, perceived presidential effectiveness tended to decrease.

The leadership behaviors that were significant in the combined four-factor model were Attributed Charisma, Individual Consideration, Contingent Reward, and Laissez-faire. In the separate leadership models, Contingent Reward appeared to be a much stronger predictor of perceived presidential effectiveness than Attributed Charisma. However, in the combined four-factor model, Contingent Reward was less predictive (30%) of perceived leadership effectiveness than Attributed Charisma (46.1%). This same pattern was documented in the regression models for followers' job satisfaction and motivation toward extra effort among followers. It is plausible that factors associated with Attributed Charisma are more intrinsically motivating, produce greater job satisfaction, and create stronger perceptions of presidential effectiveness than the extrinsic motivation of Contingent Rewards.

Although Inspirational Motivation demonstrated a predictive relationship with perceived leadership effectiveness in the transformational model (at the 0.01 level of significance), it was not identified as a predictor of perceived leadership effectiveness in the combined four-factor model. Inspirational Motivation is described as articulating an appealing vision of the future, arousing others to meet new challenges, and providing encouragement and meaning for things that need to be done. The definition for Inspirational Motivation and the definition of Attributed Charisma are worded very similarly. It is possible that some aspects of Inspirational Motivation could be measuring the same constructs as Attributed Charisma, which could limit the predictive ability of Inspirational Motivation on perceived presidential effectiveness.

Finally, Laissez-faire leadership behavior was identified in the combined four-factor model as a negative significant predictor of perceived presidential effectiveness. It is defined as the process of allowing followers to act without interference or direction, thereby avoiding leadership. This is essentially a "non-leadership component whereby leaders avoid accepting their responsibilities, fail to follow up requests for assistance, and resist expressing their views on important issues" (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1995). It is possible that some academic leaders and other chief officers construed a lack of interaction between a president and his or her followers as representative of presidential disinterest and possibly leadership ineptness. This study found that Laissez-faire behavior was a negative predictor of presidential effectiveness.

While the negative predictive value of Laissez-faire behavior was not very high (-13.5%), it is interesting to note that followers value interaction with the chief leader, even in academic settings. It appears evident that followers value communication and an ongoing contact with their leader. A laissez-faire leader is not typically available or involved with the followers in an ongoing manner and this may explain the negative correlation between laissez-faire behavior and perceptions of presidential effectiveness. However, this study did not investigate faculty perceptions of presidential effectiveness and it is possible that some variance exists between the perceptions of chief officers and those of faculty members.

Discussion of Findings

Caution should be employed prior to generalizing the results of this study to other populations. However, the researcher is confident that the findings regarding leadership behaviors of CCCU presidents that are predictive of followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness may be applicable to the general population of administrators at Christian colleges.

Many empirical studies have confirmed that transformational leadership has a major impact on followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived leader effectiveness as compared to transactional leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Bass, 1985, 1996; Howell & Avolio, 1993). Review of leadership studies on military, government, and organizational leaders suggests that the relationships between job satisfaction, motivation, and effectiveness are stronger between followers and transformational leadership than with transactional leadership styles (Gaspar, 1992; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Patterson, Fuller, Kester, & Stringer, 1995).

Gaspar (1992) compared civilian and military samples using the MLQ and reported that the transformational leadership scales were positively correlated with measures of performance in the military. Lower, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996) employed meta-analysis with more than thirty independent studies that used the MLQ and they concluded that strong positive correlations existed between all subscales of transformational leadership and satisfaction, motivation, and perceived effectiveness. They also reported that the transactional subscale of Contingent Reward was slightly less positively correlated with performance and Management-by-Exception was negatively correlated with measures of performance.

Patterson, Fuller, Kester, and Stringer (1995) also utilized meta-analysis and reported strong positive correlations between transformational leadership behaviors and satisfaction, motivation, and effectiveness, as compared to Management-by-Exception, Contingent Reward, and Laissez-faire leadership behaviors. Avolio and Bass (1991) reported similar findings. They stated that transformational leadership behaviors were strongly correlated with effectiveness, as compared to transactional and laissez-faire leadership factors.

This study is supportive of previous research findings regarding the strong correlation between transformational leadership subscales and the dependent variables of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness. The transformational model was more predictive than the transactional or laissez-faire models for all three dependent variables. It was previously noted that Mason's leadership study in 1998 was the only previous study identified that attempted to combine the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors into a single model. Mason identified the significant predictors from the transformational model, the transactional model, and the laissez-faire model and combined the leadership factors of Attributed Charisma, Individual Consideration, Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception (Active), and Laissez-faire to form a new Combined Leadership Factor model. Mason reported that this new combined model was as predictive as the transformational model for each of the dependent variables.

Bass and Avolio (1995) reported that all five transformational leadership factors (Attributed Charisma, Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration) demonstrated a strong, positive correlation with the dependent variables of followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived leader effectiveness. Mason found that only Attributed Charisma and Individual Consideration were predictive of all three dependent variables and that Inspirational Motivation was a weak predictor of perceived leader effectiveness. Mason did not report Idealized Influence or Intellectual Stimulation as significant predictors of followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, or perceived leader effectiveness.

This study found that Attributed Charisma, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration were significant predictors of followers' job satisfaction and motivation toward

extra effort in the transformational model. The significant predictors of perceived presidential effectiveness were identified as Attributed Charisma, Individual Consideration, and Inspirational Motivation in the transformational model. The differences in the findings of the current study and Mason's study are difficult to explain, but may be due to differences in data collection between Mason's study and this current research study. While Mason selected only one chief officer to rate the president at each of the community colleges and reported a 63.2% response rate, this study attempted to achieve more thorough feedback by surveying three chief officers at each of the CCCU institutions and achieved a 70.8% response rate. The differences may also be due to leadership variations between community college presidents and presidents of CCCU institutions.

Mason reported that Attributed Charisma and Individual Consideration were predictive of all three dependent variables in the combined models for followers' job satisfaction, motivation, and perceived presidential effectiveness. Contingent Reward was not a predictor of follower's job satisfaction nor motivation toward extra effort in Mason's combined models. However, Mason found that Contingent Reward was a predictor of perceived presidential effectiveness, but the correlation was weak between the variables.

This study found that Attributed Charisma, Individual Consideration, and Contingent Reward were significant predictors of followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness in all three combined models. In addition, Intellectual Stimulation was also found to be predictive of motivation toward extra effort among followers. Attributed Charisma emerged as the most predictive behavior in all three combined models, followed by Contingent Reward, and Individual Consideration.

The disparity in the findings of this research study and the findings in Mason's study may be explained by the different regression processes utilized in each study. Mason selected each significant subscale from the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire models and pooled these into a combined model. This study first employed all nine factors into a combined regression model and then identified the significant subscales and collected them in a four-factor combined model. This approach considered the interaction effects between all nine subscales before creating a combined model.

Bass and Avolio (1995) previously reported that Management-by-Exception demonstrated negative correlations with transformational leadership behaviors and with the Contingent Reward subscale. Mason found Management-by-Exception to be negatively correlated with all three dependent variables. This study identified Management-by-Exception (active) to be a negative predictor of followers' job satisfaction. This study also identified Laissez-faire behavior to be negatively correlated with perceived presidential effectiveness. This indicates that as Management-by-Exception (active) increases, then followers' job satisfaction is likely to decrease. Similarly, as Laissez-faire behavior increases, followers' perceptions of presidential effectiveness are likely to decrease.

<div align="center">Conclusions</div>

The problem in this study was to investigate to what degree transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors are practiced by presidents at member institutions of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU) and what combination of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire factors are significant predictors of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness. Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. As a group, the presidents of higher education institutions in the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities 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 lower degree of frequency.

2. The combined four-factor model predicts job satisfaction among chief academic, financial, and student affairs officers slightly better than the transformation model and much better than the transactional or laissez-faire model.

3. The combined four-factor model predicts motivation toward extra effort among chief academic, financial, and student affairs officers slightly better than the transformation model and much better than the transactional or laissez-faire model.

4. The combined four-factor model predicts perceived presidential effectiveness among chief academic, financial, and student affairs officers slightly better than the transformation model and much better than the transactional or laissez-faire model.

5. Attributed Charisma, and Individual Consideration were found to be significant predictors of job satisfaction and perceived presidential effectiveness in both the transformational and the combined four-factor model.

6. Attributed Charisma, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration are significant predictors of job satisfaction and motivation toward extra effort in both the transformational and the combined four-factor model.

7. Attributed Charisma ranks first in predictive power, followed by Contingent Reward and Individual Consideration, among the significant variables in predicting job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness in the combined four-factor model.

8. Management-by-Exception (Active) is a significant negative predictor of job satisfaction in the combined four-factor and nine-factor models.

9. Laissez-Faire is a significant negative predictor of perceived effectiveness in the combined four-factor and nine-factor models.

10. The data indicates a strong interaction between Attributed Charisma and Contingent Reward. These two variables may be measuring similar constructs.

Generalizability of Findings

This study was intended to examine the 105 institutions in the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities. The question emerges regarding the ability to apply the unique findings of this study to other institutions of higher education. There are currently 4,197 institutions of higher education operating in the United States, of which 2,484 are private institutions and 1,713 are public institutions (The Chronicle, August 2003). Considerable differences exist among various aspects of these institutions such as: 1) governing board, 2) size and diversity of faculty and staff, 3) demographics of student population, 4) student retention, 5) student selectivity, 6) variety of academic programs, 7) academic resources, 8) academic reputation, 9) financial resources and; 10) age, experience, ethnicity, degree attainment, marital status, and gender of the president. This is by no means a comprehensive list of the differences that exist between institutions of higher education in the United States. While great dissimilarity exists among the multitude of institutions of higher education, it seems doubtful that these distinctions represent a significant difference that would render the findings reported in this study inapplicable to colleges and universities in general. This reasoning is based on the fact that similar variations exist among the universities included in this study.

Implications

This study has several important implications. First, it contributes to the body of research and findings regarding transformational leadership. This study presents data that are suggestive of the fact that presidents of Christian colleges utilize transformational leadership with a high degree of frequency.

While many studies have compared transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles in relation to job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness, there only appears to be one previous attempt to combine these leadership approaches into a single leadership model. Mason's study (1998) surveyed 500 chief academic officers from a population of 1080 community colleges. Upon evaluation of the data from 316 respondents, Mason's findings indicated Attributed Charisma and Individual Consideration were the two primary predictors of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness. In comparison, this study surveyed three chief officers at all 105 Christian Colleges and Universities in the CCCU. Evaluation of the data from 223 respondents indicated that Attributed Charisma, Contingent Reward, and Individual Consideration are the three primary predictors of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness.

The combined four-factor model is slightly better than the transformational model in predicting job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness, and much better than the transactional or laissez-faire models. The knowledge that the transformational model is approximately equal with the combined nine-factor model and the four-factor model in predicting job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness is important information for the field of leadership research.

Second, this study has notable implications for leaders in higher education, especially presidents and other educational leaders in Christian colleges and universities. Knowing which behaviors are predictive and most likely to produce the desired results of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and effectiveness is very beneficial and important if leaders hope to maximize the efforts of faculty and staff, retain high performers, and maintain the public perception of effective leadership. Knowledge of these factors allows leaders to focus on the development of key behaviors in order to enhance institutional results, raise the level of satisfaction among faculty and staff, and strengthen positive perceptions of their own effectiveness as a leader.

This study points to specific behaviors that are predictive of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived presidential effectiveness. By combining the behaviors identified as transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors, this study determines specifically which behaviors are predictive of the three dependent variables. By combining the transformational leadership behaviors of Attributed Charisma and Individual Consideration with the transactional leadership behavior of Contingent Reward, leaders may develop leadership styles that are more satisfying, motivating, and effective for followers than solely using the transformational model of leadership. Followers indicate that they are more satisfied and motivated by leaders who possess great energy, high levels of self-confidence, strong beliefs and ideals, are assertive, have the ability to make followers feel more confident, who create greater personal confidence within their followers, and who use positive reward systems to affirm desired behavior. This information provides empirical data to support the concept that a combination of charisma, personal consideration, and a reward system may

increase follower's job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceptions of leaders' effectiveness better than transformational leadership behaviors alone.

Previous studies have asserted that each of the five transformational leadership behaviors are predictive of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived leadership effectiveness (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). This study found that Attributed Charisma, Individual Consideration, and Contingent Reward were the significant leadership variables that contributed most to the variance in job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived effectiveness of presidential leadership among the chief officers at CCCU institutions.

Attributed Charisma refers to a leader who possesses tremendous energy, a high level of self-confidence, a strong conviction in their beliefs and ideals, a strong need for power, assertiveness, and the ability to make followers feel more confident, thereby promoting positive change in their behavior (Bass, 1985). Individual Consideration is described as a leader who recognizes followers as individuals; considers the their unique needs, abilities, and ambitions; listens attentively; furthers followers' development; advises, teaches, and coaches, rather than treating all followers as though they have the same needs and ambitions (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991). Contingent Reward is characterized by a leader who clearly outlines the requirements for a follower to receive rewards such as praise for good work and recommendations for pay increases as well as job promotions (Bass, 1985). Since these behaviors were positively correlated with increases in job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceptions of effectiveness, presidents and other leaders in Christian colleges and universities should choose to focus attention on the development and utilization of these behaviors when relating to followers.

In contrast, Management-by-Exception (Active) was identified as a negative significant predictor of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived effectiveness in the transactional model. Management-by-Exception (Active) was a significant predictor in the combined four-factor model and demonstrated a negative relationship to job satisfaction. Presidents may benefit by avoiding this behavior as many studies have revealed strong correlations between job satisfaction and motivation toward extra effort (Bass, 1985). Management-by-Exception (Active) refers to a leader who reviews job performance continuously, monitors followers' performance, looks for errors, and takes corrective action if deviations from standards occur (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

A better approach to leadership may include the development of systems that guide, direct, and promote self-monitoring of follower performance by the workers themselves. Project timelines, accurate job descriptions, ongoing planning, defined deadlines, and corporate celebration of accomplishments are some of the methods that may be employed to promote self-monitoring and personal success for followers. If faculty and staff are aware of expectations, goals, and processes, they may be more motivated to provide efforts in the direction of desired goals, particularly in the presence of positive charismatic leadership, a reward system, and recognition of individual efforts. By creating a system to inform, guide, and support followers' actions, the staff and faculty can be proactive in avoiding problems instead of needing a leader to identify and correct their mistakes.

In similar fashion, Laissez-faire leadership was identified as a significant negative predictor of job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived effectiveness for presidents at Christian colleges and universities in the Laissez-faire leadership model. Likewise, Laissez-faire behavior was a significant predictor in the combined four-factor model and

demonstrated an negative relationship to perceived effectiveness in the combined four-factor model. Laissez-faire behavior is described as the process of allowing followers to act without interference or direction, thereby avoiding leadership (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1995).

A college or university president could benefit from the knowledge that followers indicate a desire and expectation for interaction with the leader. The literature suggests that Laissez-faire behavior may be acceptable in situations where workers are highly trained and autonomy is desired. However, in the presence of problems or critical decisions, most followers prefer to confer with a leader for assistance and direction in solving the problem (Bass, 1990). In situations involving highly trained individuals, the leader is needed for consultation, to recognize and affirm successes, and to reward the attainment of desired goals.

By improving personal knowledge of behaviors that lead to job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived effectiveness, presidents of Christian colleges and universities and other administrative and academic leaders can develop methods, systems, and leadership behaviors that help guide followers to achieve the desired outcomes. Highly motivated and satisfied employees also demonstrate a decrease in incidence of absenteeism and a tendency for increased production while on the job (Montana & Charnov, 1993). In turn, followers that viewed their leaders as effective, demonstrated increased loyalty, confidence, trust, satisfaction, and had a stronger sense of psychological wellbeing. Likewise, leaders that are perceived as effective tend to retain a higher level of status in the organization and the organization's tendency for greater production is increased (Yukl, 2003).

Recommendations for Future Research

The unique findings of this study will be useful to students and practitioners of higher education administration. In order to further develop the field of leadership behavior research, the following recommendations are offered:

1. A study of leader behavior for presidents of institutions within various Carnegie classifications should be conducted to provide additional information on the impact of leadership behavior on job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived effectiveness. These findings should be compared using meta-analysis when adequate information is available.

2. Further investigation is warranted on the leadership behaviors of personnel in various positions of academic leadership, to appraise their impact on job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived effectiveness. One of the limitations of the present study is the narrow focus of the study participants, namely presidents of Christian colleges and universities.

3. While the findings of this study are of concern specifically to presidents of Christian colleges and universities, they may prove beneficial for all college and university presidents.

4. Further analysis of Bass's constructs is appropriate. The strong correlations between the five identified transformational behaviors and Contingent Reward should be explored to a greater degree.

5. Research on the relationship between Intellectual Stimulation and motivation toward extra effort could prove enlightening and particularly valuable in business management applications.

6. Further investigation of the relationship between Laissez-faire behavior and perceived presidential effectiveness utilizing faculty members as raters could provide additional insights for further research and consideration.

7. Additional study should be completed regarding additional dependent variables to determine whether a true predictive relationship exists between leadership behaviors, worker attitudes, and organizational climates.

8. Research on whether or not transformational leadership leads to higher levels of innovation could prove beneficial for presidents of higher education institutions and leaders in industry.

APPENDIX A

COUNCIL FOR CHRISTIAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES –

MEMBER INSTITUTIONS

Member Institutions of
The Council for Christian Colleges and Universities

1   Abilene Christian University
2   Anderson University
3   Asbury College
4   Azusa Pacific University
5   Belhaven College
6   Bethel College (IN)
7   Bethel College (KS)
8   Bethel College (MN)
9   Biola University
10 Bluffton College
11 Bryan College
12 California Baptist University
13 Calvin College
14 Campbellsville University
15 Carson Newmen College
16 Cedarville University
17 College of the Ozarks
18 Colorado Christian University
19 Cornerstone University
20 Covenant College
21 Crichton College
22 Crown College
23 Cumberland College
24 Dallas Baptist University
25 Dordt College
26 East Texas Baptist University
27 Eastern Mennonite University
28 Eastern Nazarene College
29 Eastern University
30 Erskine College
31 Evangel University
32 Fresno Pacific University
33 Geneva College
34 George Fox University
35 Gordon College
36 Goshen College
37 Grace College & Seminary
38 Grand Canyon University

39	Greenville College
40	Hope International University
41	Houghton College
42	Houston Baptist University
43	Howard Payne University
44	Huntington College
45	Indiana Wesleyan University
46	John Brown University
47	Judson College (AL)
48	Judson College (IL)
49	Kentucky Christian College
50	King College
51	The King's University College
52	Lee University
53	LeTourneau University
54	Lipscomb University
55	Louisiana College
56	Malone College
57	The Master's College & Seminary
58	Messiah College
59	MidAmerica Nazarene University
60	Milligan College
61	Montreat College
62	Mount Vernon Nazarene College
63	North Greenville College
64	North Park University
65	Northwest Christian College
66	Northwest College
67	Northwest Nazarene University
68	Northwestern College (IA)
69	Northwestern College (MN)
70	Nyack College
71	Oklahoma Baptist University
72	Oklahoma Christian University
73	Oklahoma Wesleyan University
74	Olivet Nazarene University
75	Oral Roberts University
76	Palm Beach Atlantic University
77	Point Loma Nazarene University
78	Redeemer University College

79	Roberts Wesleyan College
80	Seattle Pacific University
81	Simpson College
82	Southeastern College
83	Southern Nazarene University
84	Southern Wesleyan University
85	Southwest Baptist University
86	Spring Arbor University
87	Sterling College
88	Tabor College
89	Taylor University
90	Trevecca Nazarene University
91	Trinity Christian College
92	Trinity International University
93	Trinity Western University
94	Union University
95	University of Sioux Falls
96	Vanguard University
97	Warner Pacific College
98	Warner Southern College
99	Wayland Baptist University
100	Western Baptist College
101	Westmont College
102	Wheaton College
103	Whitworth College
104	William Tyndale College
105	Williams Baptist College

APPENDIX B

MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

m\nd garden

1690 Woodside Road, Suite 202 Redwood City, CA 94061
650-261-3500 fax 650-261-3505 www.mindgarden.com

Date: _October 29, 2003_

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for _Kerry S Webb_

to use the following purchased copyright material;

Instrument: _Multifactor Leadership Questionaire_

Author: _Bernard M Bass and Bruce J Avolio_

for her/his thesis research.

In addition, 5 sample items from the instrument may be reproduced for

inclusion in a proposal or thesis.

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

Sincerely,

Mind Garden, Inc

Sample MLQ

MLQ   Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Rater Form (5x-Short)

Name of Leader: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

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

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

___ I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.
___ The person I am rating is at my organizational level.
___ I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.
___ I do not wish my organizational level to be known.

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

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

THE PERSON I AM RATING...

1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts................................ 0 1 2 3 4
2. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate......... 0 1 2 3 4
3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious.................................... 0 1 2 3 4
4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards........ 0 1 2 3 4
5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise................................. 0 1 2 3 4

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CCCU Survey

UNIVERSITY of NORTH TEXAS   Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

This questionnaire is to describe the leadership style of the president of your college or university as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank. Please answer this questionnaire **anonymously**.

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

- ○ I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.
- ○ The person I am rating is at my organization level.
- ○ I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.
- ○ I do not wish my organizational level to be known.

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

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

The Person I am Rating...

1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	Please Select
2. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	Please Select
3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious	Please Select
4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	Please Select
5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	Please Select

Demographic Information

UNIVERSITY of NORTH TEXAS   Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Please answer the following demographic information:

Your College or University:	
Age	
Gender	
Ethnicity	
Enrollement at your institution	Please Select... ▾
Years in your position	
Years at your institution	
Highest degree held	
Marital status	
Job title	

Submit

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Your survey has been sent!

Thank you for taking the time to complete the Multifactor Leadership
Questionnaire. Your input is considered valuable in regard to this study of
institutional leadership for Christian colleges and universities.

The results of this study should be finalized by the end of August. If you would like
to receive a copy of the executive report submit your name and email below. We
thank you once again for providing this valuable information regarding leadership
styles at your institution.

Collegially,

D. Barry Lumsden
Kerry S. Webb

To receive an executive report of the final results of the leadership study please
enter your name and email address below. Your survey has already been submitted
and your name and email address is not related (your anonymity is safe).

Name: [   ]

Email: [   ]

[Submit]

UNIVERSITY of NORTH TEXAS	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Your request has been sent!

Thanks again for your participation. You will receive the final survey report via email at the beginning of the fall semster.

D. Barry Lumsden
Kerry S. Webb

UNT Home page >>

APPENDIX C

INITIAL E-MAIL CONTACT

FOLLOW-UP E-MAIL

COVER LETTERS

FINAL E-MAIL

Initial e-mail from Kerry Webb 05/21/03 09:29AM

Dear Vice Presidents and Chief Officers,

At the University of North Texas, we have undertaken a national study of presidents of colleges and universities that are members of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities. The purpose of the study, which has been approved by the Institutions Review Board at the University of North Texas (940-565-3940), is to ascertain followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived leadership effectiveness.

We are using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, a frequently used tool to quantify leadership styles, so that you may quantify your President's leadership style. A copy of the MLQ has been sent to the Chief Academic Officer, the Chief Financial Officer, and the Chief Student Affairs Officer at each CCCU member institution. We ask that you complete the questionnaire **anonymously**. The information we receive will be analyzed in the aggregate and not on an individual basis.

It will be very helpful if you will please spend approximately 5-10 minutes to respond to the multiple-choice questionnaire. You can access the questionnaire at www.dbu.edu/webb. Please respond to the questionnaire by the end of this week if possible. Your participation in this study is critical and will contribute important information for decisions regarding academic curricula for programs in higher education, as well as, providing critical input for the hiring of future CCCU leadership.

When the research is completed, we will be glad to provide you with a copy of our findings. You will have an opportunity to request an executive report of our findings when you have completed the survey. You will remain anonymous and your request will not be linked to your feedback. In the meantime, please know that your cooperation and participation in the study will be greatly appreciated. If you have any questions, you may e-mail them to kerry@dbu.edu. Please take a few minutes to access the link and respond to the survey - www.dbu.edu/webb

Collegial regards,

D. Barry Lumsden
Professor of Higher Education
University of North Texas
940-565-4074

Kerry S. Webb
Dean, College of Adult Education
Dallas Baptist University
214-333-5445

Follow-up e-mail from Kerry Webb 05/30/03 10:56AM

Dear Chief Officers for CCCU Institutions,

Your response is needed to this important leadership survey of presidents at CCCU institutions. The objective is to obtain responses from 65% (approximately 200) of the chief officers/vice presidents at CCCU institutions. Currently, over 110 of the chief officers have responded. Your participation is needed to strengthen the validity of the study and enhance the generalizability of our findings. If you have not yet responded to the survey, would you please do so right away? You can access the survey by clicking this link - www.dbu.edu/webb

We know your schedule is very busy and there are probably more demands than time to respond to all of them. However, your participation in this study is greatly needed. We need an evaluation of your president's leadership style. It is anticipated that the findings from this study will benefit all of our CCCU institutions.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire can be accessed at www.dbu.edu/webb. Thank you once again for your participation in this important study. If you have already responded, please disregard this email and accept our thanks for your response.

Collegially,

D. Barry Lumsden
Professor of Higher Education
University of North Texas
940-565-4074

Kerry S. Webb
Dean, College of Adult Education
Dallas Baptist University
214-333-5445

Coverletter to CCCU Chief Officers and Vice-Presidents

<Vice President>   June 9, 2003
<University Name>
<Address>
<City>, <State> <Zip>

Dear <Vice President>,

Your participation is requested for a national study of presidential leadership at colleges and universities that are members of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities. The purpose of the study, which has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of North Texas (940-565-3940), is to ascertain followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived leadership effectiveness.

Enclosed is a copy of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, a frequently used tool to quantify leadership style, so that you may quantify your President's leadership style. A copy of the MLQ has been sent to the Chief Academic Officer, the Chief Financial Officer, and the Chief Student Affairs Officer at each CCCU member institution. We ask that you complete the questionnaire **anonymously**. The information we receive will be analyzed in the aggregate and not on an individual basis. Thus far, 148 of the chief officers have responded out of the 315 contacted. We need your response to reach our sample requirements of 200 respondents.

Please return the questionnaire in the enclosed self-addressed and postage paid envelope within the next week. Your participation in this study is critical and will help contribute important information for decisions regarding academic curricula for programs in higher education, as well as, providing critical input for the hiring of future CCCU leadership.

You may also access the questionnaire and respond online at www.dbu.edu/webb if this would be more convenient for you. When the research is completed, we will be glad to provide you with a copy of our findings. You will have an opportunity to request an executive report of our findings when you have completed the survey. You will remain **anonymous** and your request will not be linked to your feedback. In the meantime, please know that your cooperation and participation in the study will be greatly appreciated. If you have any questions, you may e-mail them to kerry@dbu.edu. Please take a few minutes to complete the enclosed survey or you may access the survey online at www.dbu.edu/webb.

Collegial regards,

D. Barry Lumsden   Kerry S. Webb
Professor of Higher Education   Dean, College of Adult Education
University of North Texas   Dallas Baptist University
940-565-4074   214-333-5445

Final e-mail from Kerry Webb 06/25/03 02:44PM

Dear Vice Presidents and Chief Officers,

At Dallas Baptist University and the University of North Texas, we have undertaken a national study of presidents of colleges and universities that are members of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities. The purpose of the study, which has been approved by the Institutions Review Board at the University of North Texas (940-565-3940), is to ascertain followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and perceived leadership effectiveness.

We are using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, a frequently used tool to quantify leadership styles, so that you may quantify your President's leadership style. A copy of the MLQ has been sent to Vice Presidents and Chief Officers at each CCCU member institution. We ask that you complete the questionnaire anonymously. The information we receive will be analyzed in the aggregate and not on an individual basis.

You can access the questionnaire at www.dbu.edu/webb. Please respond to the questionnaire by the end of this week if possible. Your participation in this study is critical and will contribute important information for decisions regarding academic curricula for programs in higher education, as well as, providing critical input for the hiring of future CCCU leadership. When the research is completed, we will be glad to provide you with a copy of our findings. You will have an opportunity to request an executive report of our findings when you have completed the survey.

You will remain anonymous and your request will not be linked to your feedback. In the meantime, please know that your cooperation and participation in the study will be greatly appreciated. If you have any questions, you may e-mail them to kerry@dbu.edu. Thank you for taking a 5-10 minutes to access the link and respond to the survey - www.dbu.edu/webb

Collegial regards,

D. Barry Lumsden
Professor of Higher Education
University of North Texas
940-565-4074

Kerry S. Webb
Dean, College of Adult Education
Dallas Baptist University
214-333-5445

APPENDIX D

STRUCTURE COEFFICIENTS FOR JOB SATISFACTION

Appendix D

Structure Coefficients for Job Satisfaction

Correlations

Variables		Stand. Predicted Value of Job Satisfaction	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 Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	1	.944**	.688**	.758**	.769**	.841**	.812**	-.278**	-.340**	-.515**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001
	N	215	215	215	215	215	215	215	215	215	215
Attributed Charisma	Pearson Correlation	.944**	1	.654**	.704**	.658**	.691**	.655**	-.197**	-.324**	-.492**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.004	.001	.001
	N	215	220	220	218	220	220	220	217	219	220
Individualized Influence	Pearson Correlation	.688**	.654**	1	.683**	.539**	.546**	.612**	-.052	-.297**	-.390**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.	.001	.001	.001	.001	.448	.001	.001
	N	215	220	223	221	221	221	222	218	222	222
Inspirational Motivation	Pearson Correlation	.758**	.704**	.683**	1	.584**	.576**	.648**	-.185**	-.384**	-.456**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.	.001	.001	.001	.006	.001	.001
	N	215	218	221	221	219	219	220	216	220	220
Intellectual Stimulation	Pearson Correlation	.769**	.658**	.539**	.584**	1	.664**	.667**	-.057	-.271**	-.352**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.001	.	.001	.001	.401	.001	.001
	N	215	220	221	219	221	221	221	218	220	221
Individual Consideration	Pearson Correlation	.841**	.691**	.546**	.576**	.664**	1	.743**	-.116	-.282**	-.392**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.	.001	.088	.001	.001
	N	215	220	221	219	221	221	221	218	220	221
Contingent Reward	Pearson Correlation	.812**	.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	-.278**	-.197**	-.052	-.185**	-.057	-.116	.006	1	.171*	.158*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.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	-.340**	-.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	-.515**	-.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 0.01 level (2-tailed).

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

APPENDIX E

STRUCTURE C0EFFICIENTS FOR

MOTIVATION AND EXTRA EFFORT

Appendix E
Structure Coefficients for Extra Effort

Correlations

Variables		Stand. Pred. 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
Stanardized Precited Value of Extra Effort	Pearson Correlation	1	.893**	.620**	.740**	.833**	.861**	.845**	-.211**	-.396**	-.449**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.002	.001	.001
	N	215	215	215	215	215	215	215	215	215	215
Attributed Charisma	Pearson Correlation	.893**	1	.654**	.704**	.658**	.691**	.655**	-.197**	-.324**	-.492**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.004	.001	.001
	N	215	220	220	218	220	220	220	217	219	220
Individualized Influence	Pearson Correlation	.620**	.654**	1	.683**	.539**	.546**	.612**	-.052	-.297**	-.390**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.	.001	.001	.001	.001	.448	.001	.001
	N	215	220	223	221	221	221	222	218	222	222
Inspirational Motivation	Pearson Correlation	.740**	.704**	.683**	1	.584**	.576**	.648**	-.185**	-.384**	-.456**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.	.001	.001	.001	.006	.001	.001
	N	215	218	221	221	219	219	220	216	220	220
Intellectual Stimulation	Pearson Correlation	.833**	.658**	.539**	.584**	1	.664**	.667**	-.057	-.271**	-.352**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.001	.	.000	.001	.401	.001	.001
	N	215	220	221	219	221	221	221	218	220	221
Individual Consideration	Pearson Correlation	.861**	.691**	.546**	.576**	.664**	1	.743**	-.116	-.282**	-.392**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.	.001	.088	.001	.001
	N	215	220	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 0.01 level (2-tailed).

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

APPENDIX F

STRUCTURE COEFFICIENTS FOR

PERCEIVED PRESIDENTIAL EFFECTIVENESS

Appendix F

Structure Coefficients for Perceived Effectivness

Correlations

Variables		Stand. Pred. Value of Perceived Effectiveness	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 Perceived Effectiveness	Pearson Correlation	1	.926**	.736**	.786**	.727**	.828**	.862**	-.197**	-.412**	-.595**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.004	.001	.001
	N	215	215	215	215	215	215	215	215	215	215
Attributed Charisma	Pearson Correlation	.926**	1	.654**	.704**	.658**	.691**	.655**	-.197**	-.324**	-.492**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.004	.001	.001
	N	215	220	220	218	220	220	220	217	219	220
Individualized Influence	Pearson Correlation	.736**	.654**	1	.683**	.539**	.546**	.612**	-.052	-.297**	-.390**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.	.001	.001	.001	.001	.448	.001	.001
	N	215	220	223	221	221	221	222	218	222	222
Inspirational Motivation	Pearson Correlation	.786**	.704**	.683**	1	.584**	.576**	.648**	-.185**	-.384**	-.456**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.	.000	.001	.001	.006	.001	.001
	N	215	218	221	221	219	219	220	216	220	220
Intellectual Stimulation	Pearson Correlation	.727**	.658**	.539**	.584**	1	.664**	.667**	-.057	-.271**	-.352**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.001	.	.001	.001	.401	.001	.001
	N	215	220	221	219	221	221	221	218	220	221
Individual Consideration	Pearson Correlation	.828**	.691**	.546**	.576**	.664**	1	.743**	-.116	-.282**	-.392**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.	.001	.088	.001	.001
	N	215	220	221	219	221	221	221	218	220	221
Contingent Reward	Pearson Correlation	.862**	.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	-.197**	-.197**	-.052	-.185**	-.057	-.116	.006	1	.171*	.158*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.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	-.412**	-.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	-.595**	-.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 0.01 level (2-tailed).

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

APPENDIX G

INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG MLQ FACTOR SCORES

Appendix G

Intercorrelations Among MLQ Factor Scores

		Attributed Charisma	Individualized Influence	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individual Consideration	Contingent Reward	Management-by-Exception (Active)	Management-by-Exception (Passive)	Laissez-Faire Leadership	Extra Effort	Perceived Effectiveness	Job Satisfaction
Attributed Charisma	Pearson Correlation	1	.654**	.704**	.658**	.691**	.655**	-.197**	-.324**	-.492**	.722**	.810**	.832**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.004	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	220	220	218	220	220	220	217	219	220	220	218	220
Individualized Influence	Pearson Correlation	.654**	1	.683**	.539**	.546**	.612**	-.052	-.297**	-.390**	.496**	.629**	.606**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.448	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	220	223	221	221	221	222	218	222	222	221	220	223
Inspirational Motivation	Pearson Correlation	.704**	.683**	1	.584**	.576**	.648**	-.185**	-.384**	-.456**	.598**	.693**	.666**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.006	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	218	221	221	219	219	220	216	220	220	219	218	221
Intellectual Stimulation	Pearson Correlation	.658**	.539**	.584**	1	.664**	.667**	-.057	-.271**	-.352**	.673**	.634**	.678**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.401	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	220	221	219	221	221	221	218	220	221	221	219	221
Individual Consideration	Pearson Correlation	.691**	.546**	.576**	.664**	1	.743**	-.116	-.282**	-.392**	.693**	.719**	.743**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.088	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	220	221	219	221	221	221	218	220	221	221	219	221
Contingent Reward	Pearson Correlation	.655**	.612**	.648**	.667**	.743**	1	.006	-.326**	-.431**	.685**	.752**	.719**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.927	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	220	222	220	221	221	222	218	221	222	221	219	222
Management-by-Exception (Active)	Pearson Correlation	-.197**	-.052	-.185**	-.057	-.116	.006	1	.171*	.158*	-.168*	-.162*	-.242**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.448	.006	.401	.088	.927	.	.012	.020	.013	.017	.000
	N	217	218	216	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	216	218
Management-by-Exception (Passive)	Pearson Correlation	-.324**	-.297**	-.384**	-.271**	-.282**	-.326**	.171*	1	.595**	-.330**	-.369**	-.305**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.012	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	219	222	220	220	220	221	218	222	221	220	219	222
Laissez-Faire Leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.492**	-.390**	-.456**	-.352**	-.392**	-.431**	.158*	.595**	1	-.381**	-.540**	-.468**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.020	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
	N	220	222	220	221	221	222	218	221	222	221	219	222
Extra Effort	Pearson Correlation	.722**	.496**	.598**	.673**	.693**	.685**	-.168*	-.330**	-.381**	1	.783**	.773**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.013	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
	N	220	221	219	221	221	221	218	220	221	221	219	221
Perceived Effectiveness	Pearson Correlation	.810**	.629**	.693**	.634**	.719**	.752**	-.162*	-.369**	-.540**	.783**	1	.837**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.017	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	N	218	220	218	219	219	219	216	219	219	219	220	220
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.832**	.606**	.666**	.678**	.743**	.719**	-.242**	-.305**	-.468**	.773**	.837**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
	N	220	223	221	221	221	222	218	222	222	221	220	223

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

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

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