


2016

Examining the Impact of Leadership Styles on the Motivation of U.S. Teachers

Katrina Franklin
Walden University

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Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Katrina Franklin

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Walden University
2016

Abstract

Examining the Impact of Leadership Styles on the Motivation of U.S. Teachers

by

Katrina M. Franklin

MEd, Texas State University, 2004

BBA, Northwood University, 1998

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Psychology

Walden University

December 2016

Abstract

Teachers face daily challenges in their work, which affect their ability to remain motivated and effective educators. The problem is that there is a lack of adequate research on how administrative leadership styles affect the motivation of United States teachers working within the U.S. and internationally. The purpose of this quantitative causal comparative study was to examine teachers' preferences regarding school administrators' leadership styles and gauge whether differences exist among U.S. teachers working in the United States and internationally. Herzberg's two-factor theory as well as full range leadership theory were used to quantitatively explore the relationship between leadership styles and motivational factors. The sample included American teachers from the United States ($n = 128$) and American teachers teaching internationally ($n = 115$). Multiple linear regressions and a MANOVA were used to analyze data, revealing a significant relationship between leadership styles and motivational factors among international teachers, and no significant differences in leadership styles and motivational factors between domestic and international teachers. The findings add support for administrators implementing a laissez-faire leadership style that allows teachers to have more choice in performing their duties. An examination of teachers working in different country contexts contributes more understanding regarding how leadership styles motivate teachers to achieve their goals. Using the study findings, educators may be able to provide learning that is responsive to societal and cultural differences, contributing to positive social change.

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Dedication

I dedicate the completion of this study to God, family, and friends. Through the entire process, all of you supported me in my effort to complete this process. In addition, a special thank you to Dr. James E. Williams for having confidence in me that I could complete this program.

Acknowledgments

I want to take this opportunity to express my thanks to Dr. James Brown for always supporting, encouraging, and never giving up on me during the good and bad days of this process.

Also, thank you to Dr. Rebekah Cardenas for coming on board and supporting me through this process. Thank you for always saying the positive comments even when there were revisions to be made.

Finally, thank you to the academic advisors, the Petition committee, and Dr. Lori Lacivita for working with me during this process.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

In organizational psychology, leadership is an important organizational variable and a key determinant of employee performance. In addition, a leader should use different leadership styles for maximum effect in different contexts (Gibbs, Knapper, & Piccinin, 2008). As Gibbs, Knapper, and Piccinin (2008) noted, educational leaders must negotiate a variety of factors related to culture, geographical location, and subject. The quality of leadership affects the classroom learning climate student discipline, and cooperation of their guardians, among other issues (Kolak, 2010).

School administrators have many concerns and challenges. The most crucial task and responsibility of school administrators is to motivate their teachers to spur student academic achievement. Ingvarson (2009) found that having appropriate leadership skills is a requirement for teachers to be effective in their teaching role. When administrators lack skills, the importance of a teacher's leadership skill in the learning process is heightened (Ingvarson, 2009). According to Fullan (2003), the key challenge for administrators is to exploit leadership behaviors that optimize teachers' motivation. Gibbs et al. (2008) described administrator and educator influence as the contextual nature of leadership in learning. The kind of approach taken by a particular teacher should be dependent on cultural context, subject, and physical setting, among other factors.

The purpose of this study was to determine whether different leadership styles affect teachers' motivation. Educators and administrators may use the results of this study to ascertain the effectiveness of leadership styles that can motivate teachers.

Improving the leadership skills of teachers and administrators may result in a better-educated society where individuals seek to learn not as an end in itself but as a means to positively influence peoples' lives and produce positive social transformation.

Background

Employee commitment fosters the success of any organization (Ingvarson, 2009). Organizational leaders seek to cultivate the highest level of commitment among their employees. This commitment was influenced by how motivated employees are to perform their jobs satisfactorily. Ingvarson (2009) observed that employee motivation is dependent on how satisfied employees are with the way their organizations operate. Employee motivation refers to how employees feel toward and perceive their organizations as well as how they are affected by leadership styles (Ingvarson, 2009). Therefore, developing a high level of commitment among employees means developing effective leadership skills on the part of the administrator. Implementation of leadership in an organization is pivotal for motivating employees and achieving their organizational commitment (Pooja & Renu, 2006). As several researchers have noted (see Angel, Alcover, Rico, & Gil, 2005; Ingvarson, 2009; Ori & Roth, 2011), knowledge gaps exist regarding how leadership affects employees' development of motivation.

Leadership, Motivation, and Teachers

Researchers have linked the source of employee motivation to different types of leadership styles (Angel et al., 2005; Ingvarson, 2009; Ori & Roth, 2011). Rajiv, Dubinsky, and Anderson (2003) examined leadership styles and their influence on the motivation of employees. The researchers used self-determination theory in the context

of employee motivation as influenced by leadership styles (Rajiv, Dubinsky, & Anderson, 2003). Rajiv et al. found that how employees perceived leadership styles of their administrator determined their level of motivation toward their work. Rajiv et al. also found that the perceptions of employees toward leadership styles could influence other external and internal factors. Conversely, Pooja and Renu (2006) examined job design and the effect it has on the motivation of employees' performance. The researchers used Oldham and Hackman's (2005) conceptual model related to job characteristics. Pooja and Renu further found a need for a dynamic managerial learning framework to influence employee motivation and enhance employees' performance.

In addition, when using a theoretical model, a researcher has to take into consideration that employees are a crucial variable within an institution or organization. Changes in leadership may also have a positive influence on employee satisfaction and performance. In a study of how change-oriented leadership affects employee satisfaction and performance, Angel, Alcover, Rico, and Gil (2005) found a positive relationship between employees' motivation and how leaders manage existing changes. Khaliq (2009) compared the features of conventional management and its effect on leadership styles and worker motivation in Islamic organizations. Khaliq found that Islamic managers emphasize more motivational concepts in their leadership styles. However, Khaliq did not determine whether any relationship existed between Islamic culture and the types of leadership adopted within the organizations. Therefore, the different changes in leadership, including the Islamic organizations, are geared toward improved leadership and employee satisfaction.

Having the appropriate leadership skills is a requirement for teachers to be effective in their teaching role (Ingvarson, 2009). A lack of leadership skills on the part of an administrator underpins the importance of a teacher's leadership skills in the learning process (Ingvarson, 2009). However, the type of leadership related to level of motivation was not provided, which included judgment and knowledge among teachers (Ingvarson, 2009) and indicated a gap in the literature.

Researchers have proposed many theories regarding the relationship between the motivation of teachers and educational leadership. One theory, by Adeyemi (2010), is that educators need to better understand factors that may affect the motivation of teachers, as teachers need motivation in order to achieve quality work. Adeyemi further noted that one way of motivating teachers is through establishing leadership that teachers perceive as serving their needs within the teaching environment. While Adeyemi highlighted the importance of motivation among teachers, he did not relate it to performance, which is a key concept in understanding motivation as a variable. Ori and Roth (2011) investigated the relationship between teachers' motivation and educational leadership. With the application of the two theories, Ori and Roth discovered that transformational leadership was ideal in establishing autonomous motivation among teachers while controlled motivation generates transactional leadership. In this study, I sought to expand on Ori and Roth's (2011) study by including more leadership styles and a more diverse sample.

Problem Statement

Leadership in the classroom can enhance the learning process, resulting in improved student outcomes. Leadership extends beyond management (Kolak, 2010). Management may involve using available resources to accomplish a goal within an organization. Leadership entails how individuals can be driven to achieve these goals (Kolak, 2010). Therefore, leadership involves understanding what approach is best suited to drive a level of motivation among subjects to achieve the identified goals (Kolak, 2010). A range of approaches exists to leading within an organization; identifying what approach is best suited for a particular environment is the most critical issue. According to Kolak (2010), major management styles include autocratic (demanding), consultative (negotiating), persuasive (insisting), and democratic (free will). How an organization manages its employees is dependent on the organization's objectives, mission, and vision, which all define the leadership styles (Kolak, 2010). In this study, I sought to understand how administrative leadership styles affect the motivation of a diverse population of American and international teachers.

Different types of leadership styles may have different effects on teachers. Leadership styles used in educational settings are intended to motivate the teachers, who will motivate their students to be enthusiastic about learning and their performance in the classroom. Addressing motivation is critical for teachers because it affects their performance and that of their students (Ingvarson, 2009). Motivation is the force that drives individuals to accomplish their objectives (Ingvarson, 2009). Teacher motivation includes the factors that drive teachers to do their best in their classrooms. Motivation is,

therefore, an important variable in understanding teachers' satisfaction and performance. In this study, I examined teachers' preferences regarding school administrators' leadership styles and gauge whether differences exist among U.S. teachers working in the United States and internationally.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative causal comparative study was to examine teachers' preferences regarding school administrators' leadership styles and gauge whether differences exist among U.S. teachers working in the United States and internationally. Researchers have studied how leadership qualities affect teacher motivation in U.S. teachers and in teachers in other countries (Elzahiri, 2010; Roth, 2014; Slater, 2011). However, based on my review of the literature, researchers have not examined whether a difference exists between motivational leadership styles of American teachers and U.S. teachers teaching internationally. Administrative leadership styles in schools affect student outcomes and enhance the learning process. In this study, I examined how different leadership styles can affect teachers' motivation levels.

I sought to outline the leadership styles that demonstrated maximum influence in a different context. In addition, I wanted to ascertain the variables that reward teachers in the classroom. Such an approach ensures that teachers continuously engage in effective professional teaching practices. This approach also ensures institutions of learning engage and retain effective teachers (Ingvarson, 2009). My study was to identify differences between the leadership approaches used by American teachers in the United States and internationally. The inclusion of the international context in this study is

necessary to ensure generalizability to leadership styles in school environments outside of the United States. Moreover, the inclusion of U.S. teachers working outside of the United States also helps to ensure that the results from the study are applicable not only in the United States, but also in other countries around the world.

Research Hypothesis and Questions

This quantitative causal comparative study involved investigating administrative leadership efforts and teachers' motivation and the relationship among American teachers working in the United States and at an international school. The research questions for this study were

RQ1: Do leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally?

H_01 : Leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, do not have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally.

H_a1 : Leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally.

RQ2: Are there statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS), between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally?

H_02 : There are no statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and WEIMS, between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally.

H_a2 : There are statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and WEIMS, between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally.

Theoretical Framework

The four key approaches to leadership, as discussed by Robbins and Decenzo (2004), are visionary leadership, charismatic leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership. According to Robbins and Decenzo, a visionary leader allows his or her imaginative creativity, intuitive thinking, and valiant decision-making to enhance employees. A visionary leader is more able and/or likely to (a) strategically plan beyond the confines of his or her company, (b) take risks, and (c) make decisions that will move his or her company forward (Robbins & Decenzo, 2004).

Robbins and Decenzo (2004) also stated that charismatic leaders instill enthusiasm among team members. Charismatic leaders are energetic in steering others

forward. Rue and Byars (2005) noted that charismatic leaders have an idealized goal and a personal commitment to achieving that goal. In addition, team members perceive charismatic leaders as unconventional agents of radical change. Charismatic leaders also tend to have high levels of self-confidence and are assertive. A link exists between charismatic leadership, motivation, and high performance among subordinates (Rue & Byars, 2005).

Transformational leadership had its beginnings in the study of transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Both transformational and transactional leadership are easily contrasted to better understand their salient points of reference. A transactional leader is a leader who focuses on employees working in a group, the organizational structure and preexisting policies, and the role as supervisor (Bass & Avolio, 1993). In addition, transactional leaders use compensation, requital, and discipline as means to motivate employees (Bass & Avolio, 1993). A transformational leader is one who inspires employees, has charismatic qualities, offers shared responsibility of leadership, and creates a new vision for the organization (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Finally, transformational leaders encourage and promote employee value in the organization, as well as establish an emotional connection with the organization.

In addition to the four key approaches of leadership, researchers have also used relational leadership in theorizing contemporary leaders (Yukl, 2010). In relational leadership, leaders tend to develop different relationships with various individuals who report directly to them within the organization. Relational leaders cultivate high-quality relationships with only a small number of direct reports whom they highly trust (Yukl,

2010). High-quality relationships are characterized by mutual trust, respect, and a sense of obligation by those involved while low-quality relationships are characterized by a low degree of trust, respect, and a sense of obligation. According to relational leadership theorists, those groups with leaders who have established high-quality relationships tend to receive more responsibilities (Yukl, 2010). In addition, those individuals receive increased approval, support, and tangible rewards as compared to those who have low-quality relationships (Yukl, 2010). Leaders can enhance motivation among all employees by establishing high-quality relationships (Yukl, 2010).

Nature of the Study

This study involved a quantitative correlational approach to compare the preferred leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) for school administrators of American and international teachers (Creswell, 2003). I conducted inferential analyses to ascertain any statistically significant relationships between the variables.

The survey method allowed for the collection and analysis of research data from the population. I used multiple linear regressions and a multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) to answer the research questions. The use of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS) instrument helped collect demographics, teaching experience, leadership style preferences, and motivational factors from the participants. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was the main statistical tool used to analyze responses. The quantitative paradigm of the study involved the positivist approach that leadership and

motivational theories interrelate. The results from the study provided information regarding the relationship between leadership styles and motivation.

I used a power analysis via a MANOVA to determine the minimum sample size requirement. G*Power 3.1.7 was used to calculate an appropriate sample size to assure empirical validity. Based on the power analysis calculations, a sample of at least 212 participants was deemed sufficient for the study (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2014). This sample size assisted in collecting the diverse data and increased the reliability of the results (Bartlett, Kotrlik, & Chadwick, 2001).

Definitions

Charismatic leadership describes a leader's behavior through the perceptions of the followers, who embrace the leader's focus on organizational change (Conger, Kanungo, & Menon, 2000). Charismatic leaders deliver an inspirational vision of the organization through behavior and speech, because they are attuned to followers' needs and external opportunities (Conger et al., 2000). The charismatic leader is separate from the status quo because of his or her vision as an inspiration, which translates into increased follower motivation and goal orientation.

Visionary leadership is a concept within the broader context of transformational leadership and concerns followers' perceptions of their leader, who values all stakeholder interests (Carter & Greer, 2013). A visionary leader has a keen understanding of competitive environments and dynamic markets, such that the vision is always future oriented and goal driven (Vera & Crossan, 2004).

Transactional leadership is based on a process of exchanges between follower and leader (Chaudhry & Javed, 2012). The controlling outcomes of exchange can be contingent upon a reward-based system, such as employee compensation, or the vigilance of a manager to ensure goals and standards are met, or leader intervention when goals are not met (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010). Follower motivation is the desire to complete goals and meet organizational expectations.

Transformational leadership involves directing the attention and energies of the followers toward the mission of the organization (Bass, 1991). Motivation of followers stems from the charismatic inspiration conveyed through behavior and messages; intellectual stimulation of goal orientation, or the direct relation and meeting of the followers' emotional needs (Bass, 1991). The vision of transformational leaders has broad based implications, as well as attention to individual needs of their followers.

Intrinsic motivation is the desire to improve or achieve personal gratification through achievement that meets emotional or intellectual needs (Janssen, van Vuuren, de Jong, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The motivations of the follower are aligned with importance and purpose that extend beyond compensation exchanges to meet higher levels of personal well-being (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Extrinsic motivation is the desire to achieve a goal because of the personal or social value in the outcome that may or may not provide pleasure to the recipient (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The extrinsically motivated activity has a separable outcome from the

individual (Ryan & Deci, 2000), opposite that of intrinsic, which is tied exclusively to the individual.

Assumptions

Research literature has shown a relationship between leadership styles and employee motivation (Bass, 1985, 2000; Bass & Avolio, 1993). Researchers have proven the relationship between leadership styles for school administrators and teacher motivation (Mehmood & Arif, 2011); however, researchers have not explored all leadership styles within this relationship. The various types of leadership styles are represented in the literature, but this researcher only pursued the following leadership types: charismatic, visionary, transactional, and transformational. One assumption of this study was that the literature has not shown the relationship between school administration leadership types and teacher motivations for the leadership types, which included charismatic and visionary leadership.

Another assumption for this study was that all participants answered the survey questions in a true and unbiased manner. Because of the precautions taken for participant confidentiality, the participants' anonymity prevented direct persecution from authorities who may perceive this study as having adverse results. Furthermore, this assumption confirmed that the analysis of data was accurate and presented the respondent's feedback, regardless of the unavailability of any documentation.

A final assumption was that American teachers in the United States and internationally had adequate knowledge on the issue of leadership styles and the motivational factors that affect the teachers in their workplace. This assumption did not

require substantial knowledge of the leadership styles, just an awareness of perceived leadership attributes, as analyzed through the survey instrument. The reliance on their knowledge was a critical aspect in conducting the study and generating adequate findings.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this study pertained to American teachers who teach in the United States and internationally, and the analysis of their leadership styles and how those styles affect motivation among teachers. The teacher participants attended international schools located in Kuwait. This school includes a mix of American born teachers and teachers from Kuwait. Research literature pertaining to the leadership types and teacher motivations was within the scope of this study. European, East Asian, and African born teachers were excluded from this sample population. In addition, I described leadership styles within the literature pertaining to corporate culture to present examples, because a corporate culture differs largely from a school regarding organizational goals and fiscal structures. The review of the literature includes other leadership types to support the explication of leadership theory, which was not the focus of this study. This study only included the four leadership types, as discussed earlier in the theoretical framework.

A delimitation for this study was that the teachers were from the United States and Kuwait. An additional delimitation was that the participants worked in private schools in Kuwait. Finally, a delimitation of the study was that it included teachers who have adequate knowledge on the research issue and understand leadership styles and

motivation. The engagement of the teachers was ideal in diversifying the available data for adequate analysis and evaluation of the research issue.

Limitations

Data collection for the study occurred through the school websites and teachers' e-mail addresses. This method limited the amount of responses, because not all teachers check their e-mails on a regular basis. In addition, the participants may not have had enough time to complete the questionnaire or meet the deadline, because of time constraints. In order to mitigate these circumstances, this researcher sent reminder emails about the survey and made accommodations when necessary.

Another limitation was that teacher perceptions about leadership types and styles may not have coincided with the definitions presented in the literature. Teacher participants are not seasoned researchers in social sciences, especially pertaining to leadership theory. This may be a limitation because of their lack of experience with expressing their ideas about leadership and what best motivates them. The questions on the survey may have sparked their interest to pursue these thoughts further, and their answers may have reflected these nascent thoughts not yet fully formed.

An additional limitation for this study was a lack of qualitative data regarding the emotional perspectives of teachers concerning their understanding of positive leadership types and how those types of leadership qualities motivate them to do their best every day in the classroom. Gaining a more in-depth perspective from the participants produced more robust data, which may encourage more research pertaining to administrative leadership styles and motivation.

Significance

This study contributed to the research literature through expanding upon school administration leadership types that are positively received by teachers. Furthermore, I expanded on previous research pertaining to teacher motivations and leadership effectiveness regarding leadership. Finally, I examined teachers from differing cultural backgrounds and performed an analysis of the relationship between them. The information gained from this study benefits educators and administrators in ascertaining the effectiveness of approaches to leadership, which may help teachers from different cultural settings to better understand leadership expectations. The findings of this research can help enhance learning that is responsive to societal and cultural differences. The benefits of discovering leadership styles that American teachers internationally prefer provide invaluable knowledge to administrators and American teachers in the United States. This information also provides the administrators and teachers better ways to motivate students from different cultures migrating to the United States for education.

Organizations and institutions have realized the importance of leadership and are seeking to adopt a leadership style that matches their operational environment with the aim of gaining an increased and sustainable competitive edge. Majeed, Bhatti, Nemati, Rehman, and Rizwan (2010) found that the study of leadership and its effect on motivation is a complex area of study, because of the many intervening factors, such as organizational culture and change. These factors can cause administrators to face many different challenges. Fullan (2003) suggested that the challenge educational administrator's face is exploiting leadership behaviors that mainly influence the

optimization of the teachers' motivation. Among the many tasks and responsibilities that school leaders have, motivating teachers is crucial to the students' academic achievement, which is the essential precept of all educational institutions (Fullan, 2003).

According to Barnett and McCormick (2003), employee achievement is one of the key goals of any educational institution and each person's practices, attitudes, and values revolve around it. The researchers believed that factors can motivate teachers and boost their performance (Barnett & McCormick, 2003). Barnett and McCormick also found particular characteristics of leadership (e.g., openness and listening attitudes) that encourage teachers' commitment in using their expertise and directing their efforts toward the expressed vision, hence, motivation. Therefore, according to Barnett and McCormick, leadership that motivates teachers is transformational or visionary, participatory, relationship-oriented, transactional, or managerial.

Various authors have discussed how behaviors of principals affect various aspects of the teachers. Davis and Wilson (2000) established how principals' empowering behaviors affected teachers' motivation, job satisfaction, and work-related stress. The researchers discovered that teacher empowerment by principals had an effect on the teacher's motivation (Davis & Wilson, 2000). Hoy and Miskel (2005) explored the effectiveness of the leadership style used by principals on teachers' motivation. The researchers investigated the importance of giving teachers opportunities to participate in decision-making as well as policy formulation to motivating them (Hoy & Miskel, 2005). Leadership styles have an effect on teacher motivation. Hoy and Miskel suggested that the traits of a leader influence the group's effectiveness. Principals should allow teachers

the chance to exploit their potential by giving them responsibilities through their involvement in decision-making. This responsibility makes the teachers feel that their efforts and contributions toward the accomplishment of institutional goals are recognized, appreciated, and valued.

Conversely, Adeyemi (2010) found that teachers tend to perform better in schools where principals use autocratic leadership styles as opposed to schools where leadership use was democratic. Hoy and Miskel (2005) could not conclude that the leadership styles mentioned previously could lead to the motivation of the teachers. The researchers concluded further research was needed to prove leadership styles do motivate teachers in an educational institution (Hoy & Miskel, 2005). Further research regarding this type of leadership should occur in order to establish whether the high performance is because of motivation or other factors, such as strictly adhering to rules, regulations, and expectations. Through this study, I investigated the inconsistency of these findings and expanded on the research through the inclusion of international teachers.

Summary

Educators possess one of the most integral positions in any society, because they inform and mold future generations as well as instruct future instructors. However, being a teacher in the 21st century has become a complex and multifaceted occupation, assuming involvement in school functions that lie outside the classroom and redirect energy and motivation away from the classroom, which detracts a teacher's potential to instruct their students. As seen in the literature, some teachers perform best when

included in leadership decisions (Hoy & Miskel, 2005), while others prefer to be directed (Adeyemi, 2010).

The purpose of this study was to determine which leadership styles motivate American teachers in the United States and internationally. Chapter 2, the review of the literature, provides a detailed analysis of the current literature related to leadership types, motivational factors, and administrative differences. Chapter 2 includes a presentation of what other scholars have written in relation to the study topic and what gaps of knowledge researchers have identified to justify the need for the current study. Chapter 3 presents the methodology of this research study, which details the various aspects of a quantitative correlational analysis.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Motivation can be important in ensuring an individual can successfully achieve established goals. According to Praver and Oga-Baldwin (2008), motivation is the reason individuals do the things they do, how long they are eager to continue doing the activity, and how hard they will pursue it. Unlike people who do not have the inspiration or drive to act, motivated people are enthusiastic and remain engaged until the activity is successful (Praver and Oga-Baldwin, 2008). Also, this understanding of motivation applies to a variety of jobs and professions, including teaching. Leadership is a key factor that influences teachers' level of motivation and commitment to work. School administrators have to find creative ways to motivate their teachers to support the mission and philosophy of their schools (Whiteacre, 2006). In addition, administrators should serve as a role model for teachers.

From the perspective of teachers, motivation is crucial to fulfilling their job description. According to Porter (2012), teachers, like other professionals, require motivation to remain committed to their work and provide quality services. If teachers are not motivated to do their job in the classroom, it could lead to a negative effect on the school. The negative effect could be teachers transferring to other schools, leaving their current schools, or leaving the field of education altogether. Turnover rates are high among teachers in many countries (Porter, 2012).

In the United States, the turnover rate is more than 30% for all teaching staff (Porter, 2012). Dissatisfied and demotivated employees create a myriad of problems for

an organization. Demotivated teachers may attend class late, leave before their scheduled time, skip required material, or not cover the subject adequately (Hayes, Christie, Mills, & Lingard, 2004). This demotivation leads to the noncompletion of the designated syllabus within the stipulated time (Hayes et al., 2004). Such behavior results in poor outcomes for schools, which may cause students to transfer as these institutions fail to get new admissions (Hayes et al., 2004). This trend may affect the growth of a school in terms of improved academic standards. This trend could lead to more students scoring poorly on state standard testing, possessing an inability to acquire qualified teachers, or school closings.

According to Spector (1997), employees who lack motivation may engage in counter-productive activities, including providing poor services, sabotaging equipment, committing theft, and starting destructive rumors. Employees who are not motivated or satisfied with their jobs sometimes report mental health disturbances, such as depression, apprehension, tension, sleeplessness, and lassitude (Roper, 2011; Sharaf, Madan, & Sharif, 2008). According to Dess and Shaw (2001), lack of motivation increases employee dissatisfaction. When employees are not satisfied at their workplace, they may not complete their duties. Unsatisfied employees may not attempt to achieve preset goals and objectives.

The managers or supervisors are responsible for identifying the factors that cause employee dissatisfaction (Dess and Shaw, 2001). Also, employee dissatisfaction with companies can derive from a variety of concerns, such as company benefits, wages, or promotion procedures. And, identifying and responding to these factors is important to a

company's success. The company can then replace these employees with motivated individuals to prevent the organization from experiencing problems associated with a lack of motivation (O'Driscoll & Beehr, 1994). Otherwise, employees may experience mental health problems or leave the organization.

In this chapter, I reviewed the various theories and concepts of leadership that have evolved during the past 71 years. This chapter starts with a review of leadership theories. Thereafter, the chapter is comprised of the following subsections regarding theories and concepts relevant to the study: the importance of leadership in education administration, overview of leadership and motivation and theoretical frameworks, motivational theories, motivation concept, types of motivation, leadership concept and authority, leadership styles, autonomy, and teaching methodology.

Literature Search Strategy

I conducted a comprehensive online library search to compile literature for this review. I consulted a librarian for assistance in determining the best search methodology, which helped to generate ideas regarding the proper keywords and phrases. Among the online journal databases searched, the most applicable results came from EBSCO, Elsevier, ERIC, JStor, and ScienceDirect. I investigated several other databases, such as Wiley, Emerald, and Taylor & Francis, in the process, as well. Prior to generating the returns, I selected the peer reviewed and journal article functions to ensure that all of the literature generated would fit within the parameters of the study rubric.

I performed multiple Boolean searches using the keywords described in the previous section of this literature review. The search yielded seminal articles and current

articles pertaining to discussions of leadership theory. In addition, I selected articles pertaining to discussions about leadership, motivational affect, school administration, and teacher performance. With a strong base of articles selected, multiple searches helped to identify more articles regarding international teachers. Because of the leadership literature and motivation field of study beginning in the second half of the 20th century, inclusion of older articles was useful in understanding how this field of study has developed. The older articles allowed the discussion of various theories associated with the study.

Leadership Theories

Four theories relate to levels of motivation in school settings: contemporary, contingency, behavioral, and trait theories. However, the contemporary four theories of leadership helped guide this study because of the characteristics of the workforce. I used other theories to point out some of the limitations of the contemporary theories.

Contemporary theories include the attributes of a leader (transactional leadership) and comparing those attributes to transformational leadership (Tng, 2009). Contemporary theorists look at the behaviors of leaders and followers. The framework of transactional leadership is the patterns of behavior exhibited by a leader, while transformational leadership allows those being led the ability to challenge the points of view held by their leader (Bass, 2000). These theorists take into consideration situational actors and view leadership as a relationship or bond between the leader and those they are leading.

According to some leadership theorists, leadership is an attribute granted to a person by others. Stewart (2006) observed that in organizations, people tend to attribute

performance to certain attributes of a leader. A charismatic leader is a self-assured, radical agent who is committed to achieving organizational goals (Tucker, 1968). This type of leader is unconventional rather than a proprietor of the status quo (Tucker, 1968). A charismatic leader might believe that he or she can do no wrong; however, this feeling of invincibility can ruin a team or an organization (Mindtools, 2012). A relationship exists between charismatic leadership and subordinates' satisfaction and performance (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007). A leader who can inspire their employees will yield positive results for the company. In addition, this inspiration will lead employees to being motivated to do their work. Although many researchers have reviewed the different types of leadership, according to Rue and Byars (2005), most researchers who have investigated leadership view it from three levels: charismatic, transformational, or transactional.

Transactional leadership refers to the leadership process in which people are motivated using rewards and punishment (Tengilimoğlu, 2005). The leaders are expected to come up with structures, standards, and procedures so that the subordinates understand the requirements and the rewards they will gain for complying with the orders. According to Bass (2000), such leaders tend to be dominating and often take swift action without consulting with their subordinates. Transformational leaders, however, do more than transacting with those they supervise and transform the situation as well as their subordinates (Currie & Lockett, 2007). According to Bass (2000), transformational leaders get their subordinates to surpass their self-interest for the sake of the organization.

Leadership Concepts and Authority

As noted by Chipunza, Samuel, and Mariri (2011), it is difficult to find one definition for the term leadership. Bennis (1999) suggested seven attributes are essential to leadership: (a) technical competence, (b) conceptual skill, (c) track record, (d) people skills, (e) taste, (f) judgment, and (g) character. Character is the key to leadership, as Harvard University indicated that 85% of a leader's performance depends on personal character (Bennis, 1999). Results-oriented leaders see themselves as catalysts. These leaders expect to achieve a lot, but know that they can do this only with the efforts employees. Results-oriented leaders bring the passion, resourcefulness, risk-tolerance, and discipline of the entrepreneurship to every endeavor of the organization (Chipunza et al., 2011).

Leadership is described as an act of influence; while some view it as a process; others describe it as the quality or trait of an individual. Authority is the process of having others report to a person (i.e., being the boss in an organization). In this study, Nel et al. (2004) explained the definition of leadership as a process in which an individual causes or influences others to willingly direct their efforts and abilities with enthusiasm toward achieving defined organizational or group goals. This study pertained to the following two types of leadership styles: transformation and transactional. These types of leadership styles affect motivation most, as suggested by Lind and Stevens (2004).

Transformational Leadership Style

Transformational leadership is the most preferred type of leadership theory by many organizations, and it involves engaging everyone in the decision-making (Bass,

2000). Transformational leaders are aware of their subordinates and the capability to building a consensus amongst the subordinates. Such leadership style depends on explaining the vision to the subordinates in a meaningful way to propel them to attain the organizational objectives (Bass, 2000). Leaders can motivate their followers through values and emotions. Researchers have also found transformational leadership to enhance the effectiveness of leadership beyond the levels achieved with transactional leadership (Bass, 2000). The most fundamental aspect of successful leadership is getting everyone involved in the process of leading. Through dialog and the involvement of all parties, strategies can be pursued, and the unity in moving forward is more important than realizing ambitions in any organization (Nguni, Slegers, & Denessen, 2006).

Transformational leadership depends on the leader being innovative, visionary, and cooperative. The following are common characteristics of a transformational leader: interactive, empowering, creative, passionate, and visionary (Nguni et al., 2006). In their demonstration of the transformational theory, Kouzes and Posner (2003) pointed out similar features that are characteristics of exemplary leaders: (a) visionary (inspire a clear and shared vision), (b) interactive (which enables them to forge the way forward), (c) creative (challenge the status quo), (d) empowering (enable others to take action), and (e) passionate (motivate followers and encourage them through frustration that often characterizes change).

Different authors have adopted various approaches when discussing transformational leadership. Bass (2000) defined transformational leaders as discovering the existing energy in subordinates or followers through the creation of an organizational

environment that allows for active interaction and directing this energy toward achieving organizational objectives. A transformational leader's main focus is finding the problem and solving it in collaboration with all stakeholders with the aim of achieving superior performance (Bass, 2000). Transformational leaders seek to raise the level of the employees' commitment to their tasks and toward achieving the wider goals of the organization (Bass, 2000). Transformational leaders mainly seek to motivate organizational members while they strive to implement and increase the perception of success within the organization. These leaders motivate their followers toward the realization of the organizational goals by gaining their confidence (Currie & Lockett, 2007). Transformational leaders allow employees to deal with their problems, difficulties, and challenges by finding solutions and providing them with the autonomy to increase their efficacy as well as performance. Currie and Lockett (2007) described it as a leadership style for addressing the needs of followers and being sensitive to appreciating their followers' differences. Transformational leadership can be analyzed from various dimensions.

As depicted by Bass (2000), researchers use four different dimensions to analyze transformational leadership. The four dimensions are inspirational motivation, idealized influence or behavior, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. With inspirational motivation, a leader spells out his or her expectations for employees. The leaders pick desirable traits and apply them in their place of work to make the organization more resilient. Inspirational motivation refers to the ability of leaders to create team spirit to attain organizational objectives, as well as to increase performance

(Bass, 2000). Within the first dimension, the leader inspires, motivates his or her subordinates, and involves them in creating an ambitious vision. As team spirit is vital to the success, the leader induces commitment in team members. Transformational leaders can articulate a vision to followers. These leaders are also able to help the followers experience the same passion and motivation to fulfill the goals.

As highlighted by Bass (2000), the second dimension is idealized influence or behavior, which involves employees taking up or copying the ways of administration and management leaders. Idealized influence refers to a situation in which leaders involve their subordinates in the process of determining the organization's vision and mission. Idealized influence refers to the leader being a role model—one who an employee respects, trusts, and admires (Bass, 2000). In addition, the leader tends to consider the needs of others instead of his or her own needs. The leader models consistency and integrity. Many times, employees who respect their supervisor try to follow him or her and are willing to incorporate their goals.

Consequently, Bass (2000) outlined that the third dimension is individualized consideration, whereby leaders must consider the needs of every one of their employees and meet their expectations. Every employee needs a different environment to perform. Leaders use this style to ensure that they have maximum touch with their workers. Transformational leaders lead team members who demonstrate aspirations and motivation. The leader accepts and respects the individual differences. He or she acts as a coach in supporting all team members to develop and succeed in achieving more (Bass, 2000). Such leadership also involves offering support and encouragement to individual

followers. A transformational leader creates a supportive relationship by keeping the communication open, so that the employees feel free to express ideas (Bass, 2000).

Individualized consideration means creating a suitable environment that is supportive and includes individual differences, needs, and values the thoughts of subordinates.

Bass (2000) stated that the fourth dimension is intellectual stimulation, which is the art of leaders encouraging their employees to seek solutions to problems using current methods. Creativity and innovation are the keys to success, and transformational leaders encourage their team to generate creative solutions to problems and take risks (Bass, 2000). The mistakes that may happen from this process become opportunities from which to learn. Transformational leaders not only challenge the status quo, they also encourage creativity. The leader encourages followers to explore new ways of doing things and new opportunities to learn.

Transformational leadership can be beneficial to the organization. According to Afshari, Siraj, Ghani and Alfashari (2011), transformational leadership increases creativity, intrinsic motivation, psychological empowerment, and supports innovation, which are all crucial in increasing performance. Afshari et al. explained that transformational leaders value the feelings (intrinsic motivation) of their employees. The leaders seek to develop their employees' self-confidence, help them to grow as individuals, and show them different ways through which they can achieve their goals. By doing this, the leaders increase the interest of their employees in their work that eventually results in the development of intrinsic motivation. Transformational leaders also tend to be inspirational and, as such, they can inspire their subordinates through

motivation to committing to the vision of the institution (Afshari et al., 2011).

Transformational leadership involves providing a supportive environment by listening to the individual needs of the employees and addressing these needs in order to improve performance (Walumbwa & Ojode, 2002). Transformational leaders will stimulate their followers to be enthusiastic in completing their tasks effectively. Afshari et al. further indicated that transformational leadership helps employees to develop intrinsic motivation regarding their work. Leaders help them address employees' individual needs, develop positive attitudes toward their work, and identify ways through which they can effectively accomplish their tasks. This assistance can be applied to a variety of professions, such as teachers, nurses, physicians, engineers, and other types of workers. Administrators, directors, managers, and principals can take the transformational approach in their leadership and guide employees in developing intrinsic motivation toward their work.

Transactional Leadership Style

In the transactional leadership style, the leader rewards the people for their performance and satisfies their individual needs (Nguni et al., 2006). The goal of the transformational leadership style is to transcend to the higher needs of subordinates through empowering them. Transactional leadership includes an exchange of financial rewards for higher productivity (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006). Transactional leadership, therefore, depends more on the provision of extrinsic rewards as opposed to intrinsic rewards. If a transactional leader is not providing incentives that encourage performance, the employees do not perform up to the mark.

Transactional leaders use external motivators, including organizational rewards such as higher pay, promotions, or trips to make employees work harder (Bass, 2000). A transactional leader mainly focuses on past works, performance, and seeks to use factors from these works and performance to further improve in the future. Nguni, Slegers, and Denessen (2006) pointed out that these leaders are often not interested in the personal development of employees. The leaders prefer policies and standards that preserve the current situation. According to Bass (2000), four dimensions characterize transactional leadership. The four dimensions of transactional leadership are active management by exception, passive management by exception, laissez-faire, and conditional or contingent rewards.

Bass (2000) stated that the first dimension of transactional leadership is active management by exception. This dimension involves recognition and acceptance that goals set out to be realized by managers are not met, and thus, corrective measures should be instituted. In active management by exception, the leader observes the employees' work performance and corrects their mistakes (Bass, 2000). Also, the leader keeps a watch on the progress of the task, but rarely makes an intervention unless it is essential to avoid costly mistakes (Bass, 2000). Active management by exception is used with insufficient staff, time to concentrate on all issues, or if the subordinate is inexperienced in the matters at hand.

The second dimension of transactional leadership is passive management by exception, whereby a leader in authority only intervenes to correct an anomaly when a goal is not met. A leader does not intervene in the organizational problems unless the

situation becomes serious or they do not take any action unless a mistake occurs. A leader uses passive management by exception when the staff is competent, mature, and experienced (Bass, 2000). This style permits them the latitude to take appropriate actions and use their authority usefully.

The third dimension in transactional leadership, according to Bass (2000), is laissez-faire, whereby a leader gives room for employees to complete duties in their time frames. Laissez-faire gives complete autonomy to an employee. The ones in authority work by the conditions of workers. Cemaloglu, Sezgin, and Kilinc (2012) also defined laissez-faire as a form of leadership in which the leader does not in any way interfere with the administrative processes and gives their subordinates limitless freedom. Laissez-faire leadership style is a delegated and nonauthoritarian style in which the leader gives limited guidance to the subordinates. This type of style is the basis that people respond to and perform well when left alone to handle their responsibilities. In this style, the leader has to use other means of control, such as little guidance and complete freedom, for the subordinates to solve their problems and make decisions. This style is effective when the subordinates are highly skilled and motivated. The leader remains available to the subordinates for advice and feedback. This style is not useful when the group members lack the necessary knowledge, experience to make the decisions, or when they cannot manage their deadlines. In addition, this style can lead to the low productivity. For this style, the leader has to create trust and confidence with his or her employees.

The fourth dimension of transactional leadership is conditional or contingent rewards that are given to employees who have excelled in their areas of work. The rewards motivate employees intrinsically to continue working hard and realize the organization's professional growth. Contingent or conditional implies a mutual transaction in which the leader attempts to motivate subordinates through promises and rewards (Nguni et al., 2006). In intrinsic motivation, the contingent reward system is a motivation-based system that provides positive reinforcement to a person and encourages him or her to be effective in the completion of their task. This system is likely to make the good performers more motivated and even the less motivated employees will become motivated with the proper feedback and guidance. The reward options have to be of interest to the employees to be effective. Commissions and monetary bonuses are the most common rewards of this type, but free trips and vacations can also be effective. Variable pay is a good means of providing such rewards. The contingent reward system must be of value to the people and encourage them to meet their goals. These should be structured properly to be of value to the employees. Such reward systems work best when the leaders focus on enhanced performance and positive behaviours. It is the psychological needs of people who need to be satisfied through their work experience. People value the rewards that satisfy their particular needs. This satisfaction will be exhibited if the leader's relationship with them is through trust and transparency.

Leadership Styles and Employee Motivation

Leadership is linked to motivation. Researchers have defined the term *to lead* in many ways, such as to conduct, to guide, to show the way, to escort, to steer, to cause to

follow, to induce, to tend toward a particular goal or result, to direct or to point the way by being the first to go, or by setting an example (Majeed, Bhatti, Nemati, Rehman, & Rizwan, 2010). All of these definitions imply some form of motivation. Majeed et al. (2010) stated that the ability of any institution to motivate its staff to higher levels of performance is linked to the organization's reward systems. It is important to recognize the efforts toward achieving superior performance and the different types of rewards offered to employees who have different needs or attitudes. To achieve strategic goals and superior performance, Majeed et al. emphasized that organizations must undergo transformational change. This change requires new behaviors and traits among the employees and their leaders. For the management and leaders of the organization or institution, it requires different leadership styles, as well as strategies that will lead subordinates toward superior organizational performance (Majeed et al., 2010).

Any leader of a given organization needs to be aware that they play a vital role in the success or failure of the organization. The leadership approach plays a role in motivating employees toward good performance and attaining organizational goals. In addition, leadership needs to be flexible enough to motivate employees and achieve an increase in performance. Majeed et al. (2010) stated that for leaders to motivate employees, they must practice the following three types of leadership: participative leadership, supportive leadership, and directive leadership.

Participative Leadership

Majeed et al. (2010) believed that a participative leadership style has a positive effect on the expectancies, valences, and instrumentalities of employees. This kind of

leadership is executed by inducing the subordinates' ideas, views, opinions, and encouraging these individuals to participate in the decision-making processes, as well as management. The researchers further emphasized that allowing subordinates to participate in decision-making increases their knowledge and awareness of expectations (Majeed et al., 2010). In addition, subordinates' performance directly correlates to the rewards, as well as the support obtained from putting in extra effort (Majeed et al., 2010). Their involvement also enables employees to have an understanding of what they need to do to receive various rewards and for management to understand the rewards employees value most. Moreover, subordinates are more motivated to resolve organizational problems if they have involvement in the process of seeking solutions to problems that affect the organization. Majeed et al. stated that participative leadership is a crucial management practice in strategic alliances, as well as relational exchange arrangements. These alliances and arrangements should increase motivational levels because of the belief among employees that a higher level of effort will result in desirable outcomes. Majeed et al. illustrated that participative leadership in which the management allows subordinates to take part in decision-making results in increased motivation. Blasé and Blasé (2000) reported the collaboration between teachers and principals through participative communication increased teachers' motivation and their performance. Participative leadership devolves levels of decision-making that further promotes transparency. Through this leadership style, stakeholders get to understand each other better, which ensures the proper coordination of activities and learning in schools. According to Blasé and Blasé, allowing teachers the opportunity to participate in

decision-making builds trust, support, as well as their confidence. This practice also makes teachers feel that their judgment is of value and they matter to the institution. Soliciting teachers' advice is important in identifying issues that are otherwise impossible to identify if using other methods of leadership, such as dictatorship.

Supportive Leadership

According to Majeed et al. (2010), a supportive type of leadership can increase motivation as it initiates, increases persistence, and intensifies work-related behaviors among employees. A supportive leader is trustworthy as they encourage, initiate close and mutually satisfying relationships with their subordinates, and create a favorable environment for interaction (Majeed et al., 2010). A supportive leader does not only recognize the subordinate's needs, but also responds to these needs by providing support, enhancing the subordinate's instrumentality and valences. As indicated by Majeed et al., this has the potential to increase the level of effort an employee puts in executing various tasks associated with the leader. This supportive leadership increases motivation among employees. Afshari et al. (2011) found that supportive leadership encourages creativity through empowerment of followers, intrinsic motivation, and a supportive work environment. The researchers further noted that supportive leaders influence inspirational motivation and play a role in nurturing intrinsic motivation (Afshari et al., 2011). This kind of leadership is crucial in motivating teachers, especially in achieving intrinsic motivation, which is most vital to their performance.

Directive Leadership

Directive leadership is an effective approach to planning, organizing, coordinating and controlling the work-related activities of employees (Majeed et al., 2010). This leadership is the established institutionalization and formalization of explicit rules, standards, and operating procedures used to govern how activities are ran within the organization. Leaders use these structures to distribute tasks and performances among subordinates. According to Majeed et al. (2010), when leaders ask employees to follow stated guidelines, they may make those who engage in unstructured or ambiguous tasks feel a certain way. In complying with the guidelines presented by the leader who has more expertise in the service or product, the employees will be more successful in accomplishing the performance goals and objectives. The employees should gain adequate knowledge regarding what they are required to do and how to do it. Employees will exert more effort to attain those rewards that are consistent with their expectations, as well as their needs (Majeed et al., 2010).

Theoretical Foundation

Theorists have proposed many theories of motivation. In this study, I used those theories that link motivation to leadership. This study involved the following theories as a framework: (a) Herzberg's (1968) two-factor theory and (b) Bass's (1985) full range leadership theory.

Effect of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory on Employee Performance

The presence of the hygiene factors satisfies employees, but does not increase their overall motivation and productivity. Maslow (1943) postulated that a person cannot

seek higher goals until after he or she has achieved the goals at hand. Herzberg (1968) defined *motivation* as the process of getting people to work at realizing set targets. I used motivational theory in this study for two types of workers: (a) the neo-mechanistic, instrumental man or woman who is a detached specialist in the modern computerized society, and (b) the consumer whose aim is immediate consumption (Davies, 2007).

Herzberg's (1968) two-factor theory entails that motivation consists of the hygiene factors—extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. The hygiene factors, also called maintenance factors, cause dissatisfaction and are comprised of status, interpersonal relations, supervision, company policy, working conditions, job security, and salary (Herzberg, 1968). Motivators are the factors that can lead to job satisfaction and higher motivation (Herzberg, 1968). These motivators include challenging work, achievement, personal growth, responsibility, advancement, and recognition (Herzberg, 1968). The hygiene factors can satisfy people, but not motivate them, whereas the motivators can also satisfy people (Koontz & Weihrich, 1990).

The basis of Herzberg's (1968) two-factor theory of motivation was establishing factors that affect satisfaction and motivation among employees at the workplace. I found that certain factors, when present at the workplace, tend to motivate employees and called these factors motivators (e.g., focused leadership from senior staff; Herzberg, 1968). Herzberg established another group of factors that deterred employees from being dissatisfied with their work and named them hygiene factors too (e.g., lack of clear coordination from the managers). Motivators inspire employees to work hard in order to achieve the organizational goals. These motivators result in increased efficiency and

ultimately job satisfaction. Motivators consist mainly of those factors that enable employees to grow and develop. When present and effectively implemented, motivators increase job satisfaction. In their absence or small quantities, the motivators prevent satisfaction, but have no effect on dissatisfaction (Davies, 2007). Motivators include factors such as recognition, responsibility, challenges, achievement, and opportunity for growth as well as development (Nelson & Quick, 2008). Figure 1 displays a comparison of Herzberg's theory to Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

MASLOW		HERZBERG	
Self-actualization	→	MOTIVATORS	Challenging work
Esteem/status	→		Achievement
Affiliation/acceptance	→	MAINTENANCE	Growth in job
Security/safety	→		Responsibility
Physiological needs	→	FACTORS	Advancement
			Recognition
			Status
			Interpersonal relations
			Quality supervision
			Company policy
			Working conditions
			Job security
			Salary

Figure 1. Comparison of Maslow’s and Herzberg’s theories of motivation. Adapted from comparison of Maslow’s and Herzberg’s theories of motivation (Source: Koontz & Wehrich, 1990).

Herzberg's (1968) hygiene factors are similar to Maslow's (1943) physiological and security needs that satisfy, but do not motivate people. In addition, motivators are similar to Maslow's higher needs of affiliation, esteem, and self-actualization. Hygiene factors stop employees from being dissatisfied as compared to Maslow, who promoted the process of self-actualizing personality while promoting criticism. These factors have no effect on satisfaction, but when absent they elevate dissatisfaction that increases inefficiency (Nelson & Quick, 2008). According to Herzberg, the purpose of hygiene factors is not to motivate employees, but rather to prevent them from getting disappointed with their work. These factors include the supervisor's approach, interpersonal relations, salary, working conditions, and company policies (Tosi, Mero, & Rizzo, 2000). Herzberg explained that the presence of hygiene factors implies that employees will show contentment with their work, but they will not necessarily be satisfied.

Herzberg's (1968) theory provides a framework for the study as it can be used to determine the role of leadership in ensuring that employees are not only motivated, but also satisfied (Herzberg, (1968). Herzberg explained the various factors that cause satisfaction and those that cause dissatisfaction.

Full Range Leadership Theory

Bass (1985) noted that charismatic and inspirational aspects of leadership were not empirically distinguishable. Based on recent research, some additional factors have been included. The full range leadership theory consists of five transformational, three transactional, and one nontransactional leadership factor (I-Harn, 2012). Since this study pertained to leadership, the full range leadership theory developed by Avolio and Bass

(1991) guided this research. The full range leadership theory is a construct that illustrates three leadership typologies: transactional, transformational, and nontransactional laissez-faire leadership. According to Chipunza et al. (2011), these three forms of leadership behaviors have a direct effect on individuals as well as organizational performance.

Through an investigation of five principals regarding the types of leadership they offer in their institutions, Kao (2009) found each principal had different styles of leadership. Balster (2002) described the transactional form of leadership as leadership behavior that entails the use of contingent rewards, management by active exception, and management by passive exception. Transformational leadership is leadership behavior that involves inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, idealized influence, and intellectual stimulation (Jansen, 2000). Table 1 presents the initial conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership, which includes seven components.

Table 1

The Seven Components of Transformational and Transactional Leaders

Leadership Component	Description
Charismatic leadership	Employees view charismatic leaders as heroes by an organization, which are given mandates to make necessary changes in order to ensure that the organization in which they work achieves its objectives (Bass, 1985).
Inspirational motivation	Leaders who have inspirational motivation usually challenge others with clear goals (Avolio & Bass, 1991). The extent to which a leader expresses an objective may be appealing and motivating to others (Avolio & Bass, 1991).

Leadership Component	Description
Intellectual stimulation	The extent to which a leader challenges and willingly takes risks and motivates others to follow his or her idea (Yukl, 1999). Typically value learning, most unforeseen situations are treated as opportunities to learn (Yukl, 1999).
Individualized consideration	The extent to which a leader focuses on each follower's wants, acts as a coach to the follower, and listens to the concerns and needs of the followers (Bass, 1985). In such situations, the followers tend to have the will and ambitions for self-development as well as intrinsic motivation in their responsibilities (Bass, 1985).
Contingent reward	The motivational strategy aim is to motivate employees because only the employees who meet their targets receive rewards.
Management by exception	An approach through which management dedicates ample time to investigate situations where actual output differs significantly with the intended output.
Nontransactional leadership	This is the most ineffective leadership style where leaders do nothing. In nontransactional leadership styles, leaders tend to be more passive and are less involved with the performance of the employees.

Motivation Concept

Many organizations understand and take employee motivation seriously.

According to Samuel and Chipunza (2009), comprehending and implementing employee

motivation has become a concern for many organizations and leaders. Employee motivation is the determining factor in the work performance as well as the success of an organization in achieving its goals. The achievement of success requires employers to understand the significance of employee motivation. This understanding is crucial to improving productivity. Motivating employees is, therefore, the most critical of all leadership functions.

Various authors view the definition of employee motivation in different ways. Hellriegel, Slocum, and Woodman (2001) described motivation as the force acting within an individual that causes him or her to act or behave in a certain manner that is goal-directed. The success of the effort is the key in the quest to exploit the full potential of worker. These efforts are to ensure the quality of services or products and, ultimately, the success of the organization or institution as a whole. Kimball and Nink (2006) described motivation as internal forces that drive an individual to engage his or her ability willingly toward accomplishing a set of goals. Taloo (2007) defined motivation as a force that impels a person to take action and continue engaging in that action enthusiastically.

Other authors, however, view motivation as a process. Domeyer (1998), for example, defined motivation as an inspirational process that enthuses members of the group to combine their individual weight collectively. In addition, Domeyer stated motivation is to complete the responsibilities that they have accepted as individuals and as a group. Other definitions include the view of motivation as factors in the working environment. Ryan and Deci (2000) described motivation as the creation of working environments, stimuli, and incentives that allow employees to effectively carry out their

assignments. Mullins (2010) suggested that the most important aspect of motivation is to provide employees with what they expect or want from what they do. In return, employees will provide good performance as far as service, quality, and productivity.

Motivation is a force that provides people with reasons to continue acting in a certain manner (Brown, Barry, Horst, Finney, & Kopp, 2009). According to Brown Barry, Horst, Finney, and Kopp (2009), motivation has three main behavioral dimensions: choice, persistence, and intensity.

The human psychological processes result in the outcomes of attention, choice, and task strategies, which are the patterns of behavior to reach a particular goal (Brown et al., 2009). Attention includes a focus on particular issues, people, or tasks and stimulates an employee to put in efforts (Brown et al., 2009). This focus is a kind of arousal that initiates action by a person's need or desire for something that is missing. Direction refers to the path employees take in accomplishing the goals they set for themselves and the choice of decision between different mutually exclusive courses of action (Brown et al., 2009). Direction is an essential behavioral outcome that leads to the exploration to achieve anticipated outcomes. This outcome may involve risk-taking and a willingness to incur losses.

Persistence is whether a person changes or maintains the initially chosen behaviour or action (Brown et al., 2009). Persistence refers to a behavioural pattern of maintaining a chosen course over time. This pattern is an aspect of behavioural outcomes that determines long-term work productivity. According to Brown et al. (2009), persistence prevents a person from deviating from the goal-seeking behaviours. The

choice is to prioritize for oneself the order of one's needs. Determination and persistence make it more meaningful.

Intensity signifies how hard a person works, or the amount of effort he or she puts into the job (Brown et al., 2009). Often measured as task effort or task performance, intensity is the most frequently explored outcome of motivation. Intensity is the vigor and amount of energy employees put into this goal-directed work performance (Brown et al., 2009). The level of intensity is the most important and difficult of goals. The intensity of the behavior decides the final effect of the move. The behavioral dimensions in students are highest during the adolescent stage (Martin, Tipler, Marsh, Richards, & Williams, 2010). According to Webb (2007), the need to understand that motivation has distinctive characteristics can be successfully implemented within an organization. Motivation is a psychological notion dealing with internal forces that act within the mind of an individual (Graham & Weiner, n.d.). Motivation is dynamic, as it involves people who keep changing to fit in different situations (Rantz, Scott, & Porter, 2007). Kimball and Nink (2006) pointed out that, in spite of its importance, understanding motivation is difficult as it is a complex concept. Managers and organizational leaders play the most significant role in motivating workers. Motivation should not be confused with satisfaction, as motivation refers to the process of inspiring others or stimulating them toward undertaking a desired action or decision. Satisfaction, on the other hand, is contentment. Motivation is, therefore, one of the factors that result in satisfaction (Rantz et al., 2007).

Motivation is a cyclic process (Rantz et al., 2007). The desire to have a need satisfied brings about an inner tension, which prompts or drives an individual into action to satisfy the need and reduce the tension. Once the tension has gone away because of satisfying the need, the individual is enthused to exert efforts toward a particular direction. This results in the re-evaluation of the situation and the conception of new needs (Rantz et al., 2007). Motivation is the outcome of the interaction between an individual's needs and desires, and the incentives provided to satisfy those needs.

Motivation is a cyclic process (Rantz et al., 2007), as shown in Figure 2.

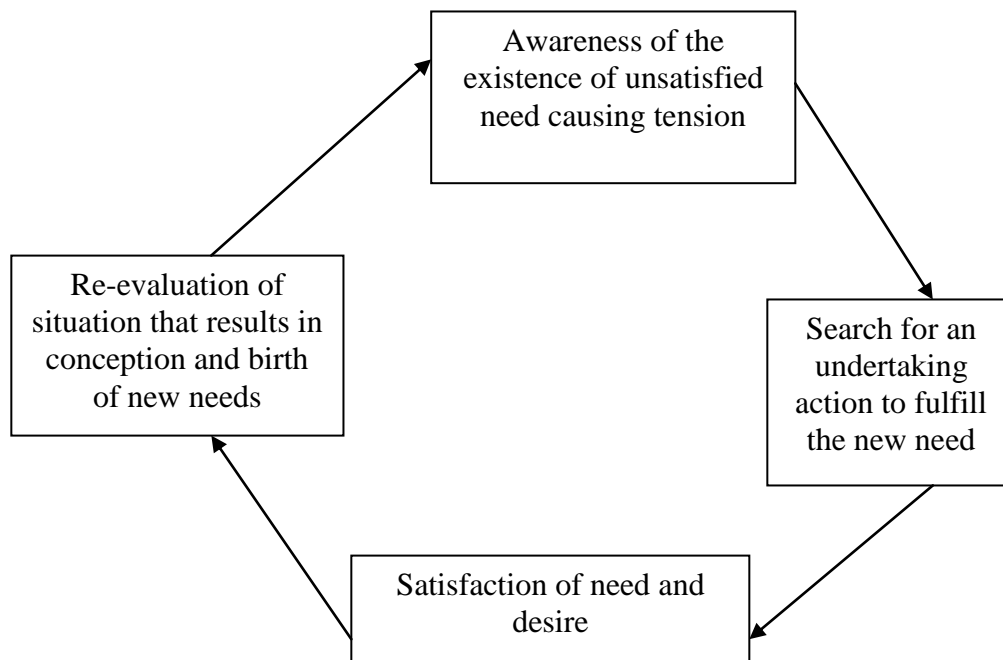


Figure 2. The cyclic process of motivation. Adapted from the cyclic process of motivation (Source: Rantz et al., 2007).

Motivation prompts values expected from undertaking a particular action and the discernible chance that the action will bring about these values (Tjepkema, 2002). Based on this view, Tjepkema (2002) stated that motivation is fundamental to directing, managing, and leading functions. Managers and organizational leaders need to instill and sustain within their subordinates the enthusiasm, as well as the desire, to work toward attaining the defined and specific objectives. Motivation is a catalyst that triggers the employees' eagerness, causing them to work easily without supervision.

Types of Motivation: Intrinsic and Extrinsic

According to Mullins (2010), motivation influences three main areas: amount, direction of performance, and quality. Motivation is considered to be either intrinsic or extrinsic. Motivation influences the brain activities, behaviors, and day-to-day individual differences. People have different goals in life that they seek to realize (Mullins, 2010). Motivation provides satisfaction to a person, as it is the driving force behind all goal-directed behaviours. Motives require an awareness of needs, as well as the goals, in order to satisfy these needs (Herzberg, 1968).

In the perspective of Maslow's (1943) theory of hierarchy of needs, people are mainly motivated once their unmet needs are met. According to Maslow, people are motivated by their unsatisfied needs, considering that the lower needs must be satisfied before their higher needs. Motivated employees seek better ways to improve their performance in quantity and quality and are more likely to produce better quality work. Motivational behavior is as an approach in which a person wants to experience a positive outcome. On the other hand, one avoids motivation when he or she wants to avoid

experiencing a negative outcome. Avoidance motivation is the more powerful of the two (Maslow, 1943). Push or pull motivation also has an influence on people. For example, in the tourism sector, the push factors are the demand, while the pull factors are the supply (Maslow, 1954). Push factors represent the required dispositions of the people. The individual energized by such drives will then develop a motive. In addition, it may happen that the push and pull factors influence the consumer simultaneously as the pull factors reinforce the push factors (Maslow, 1954). Push motivations are related to internal or emotional aspects: the desire for relaxation, fitness, adventure, or just family togetherness (Maslow, 1954).

Motivation plays a role in student learning as it affects how students behave in working toward their goals and achieving a better performance. Interest and a desire to learn are motivators for a student, and when linked together, this result leads to success. Often the success in an endeavor leads to more interest, an increased desire to learn, and creating a spiral of motivation toward an established goal (Maslow, 1954).

Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation is that which originates from within, such as the team, organization, individual, or group (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The execution of intrinsic motivation results in higher production as well as self-actualization. Intrinsic motivation involves taking an action to satisfy some inherent desire or need rather than for a certain reward. Factors that trigger intrinsic motivation include challenge, control, recognition, and cooperation. Ryan and Deci (2000) stated that intrinsic motivation includes psychological rewards, such as recognition and appreciation. Ryan and Deci explained

that managers and leaders should instill intrinsic motivation within their employees, as it is more sustainable than extrinsic motivation. The researchers also emphasized that leaders play a role in developing intrinsic motivation, particularly regarding the recognition and involvement of employees, which are key to motivating employees (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Intrinsic motivation, as defined by Dornyei (2001), is performing an action or behavior for its sake to experience the satisfaction and the pleasure of undertaking that particular activity. Praver and Oga-Baldwin (2008) stated that a relationship exists between this internal motivation and skilled teaching. The internal desire to impart knowledge on people and make them achieve academically is vital to the teaching profession. The successful transmission of skills and knowledge is the intrinsic reward that most teachers desire (Praver & Oga-Baldwin, 2008). Intrinsic motivation is one of the hardest motivators to achieve, as it has to come from within the individual.

Administrators can inculcate this motivation by giving more autonomy to the teachers and making them self-reliant. Intrinsic motivation can happen if teachers are free to make decisions regarding their role and performance. In addition, if the teachers have the liberty to use their creative efforts at the design and execution of the programs, the teachers will feel committed to the cause. Leaders can help create such motivation through their supportive behavior toward the subordinates. Praise, respect, and recognition are more important at higher levels of work than money (McGregor, 1966). According to Praver and Oga-Baldwin (2008), this motivation can occur through creating a positive working environment for the teachers in which they are free to explore and

reflect on their teaching practices. Based on this, Praver and Oga-Baldwin believed that teachers who feel a sense of accomplishment and connection report feelings of increased desire to continue teaching to achieve the same kind of success.

Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation is external in that it comes from sources other than an individual, team, or organization (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The fulfillment of extrinsic motivation leads to social rewards. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), this kind of motivation causes an individual to perform an action to gain some tangible rewards, such as job security, promotion, pension, higher salary, and a good working environment. However, extrinsic motivation is difficult to sustain as it often diminishes once the reward is not available or is reduced in value.

Extrinsic motivation occurs through external factors. According to Praver and Oga-Baldwin (2008), some positive external motivators include a good salary, insurance coverage, pension, and other fringe benefits regarded to be contributors to motivation and job satisfaction. Maslow (1943) reported that while monetary and other fringe benefits are less significant in motivating workers, some researchers believe that these rewards are important, especially in meeting the lower needs of employees, such as safety, shelter, food, and health, as described in Maslow's (1943) theory of motivation. In addition, factors demotivate teachers. According to Praver and Oga-Baldwin (2008), some external factors play a role in demotivating teachers. This demotivation is because other workers in other industries look down upon teachers as being inferior compared to some professions, such as physicians (Praver & Oga-Baldwin, 2008). Some of the identified

factors that demotivate teachers include high stress levels, disagreement of teaching methods, job insecurity because of job losses, and heavy workloads. Principals must deal with these factors immediately to keep teachers motivational levels high (Praver & Oga-Baldwin, 2008).

While extrinsic motivation is not as important as intrinsic motivation, as it usually does not last long, efforts must be made to achieve it (Darling-Hammond, 2000). In addition, some teachers are not interested in the profession, but care about the little knowledge they get out of it (Darling-Hammond, 2000). These teachers can be motivated to perform better, so that they can reap earning promotions (Darling-Hammond, 2000). According to Darling-Hammond (2000), extrinsic motivation can increase improvement in task functioning. Factors that increase extrinsic motivation also prevent teachers or workers from being dissatisfied with their work. Darling-Hammond further stated that external factors, such as educational policies, conditions of service (e.g., job security), and reforms in policies play a vital role in teacher satisfaction. In addition, the physical conditions of the school and facilities, resources available for teaching, fringe benefits, and amount of work all influence the motivation of a teacher and administrators should address these factors to increase performance (Darling-Hammond, 2000).

Overview of Leadership and Motivation

Leadership plays a role in motivating employees and increasing organizational performance. For many, motivation is a factor that gets people to work when discussing motivation in terms of monetary factors, such as fringe benefits, rewards, and higher

salaries (Kovak, 1995). Others understand it in terms of nonmonetary factors, such as good working conditions, recognition, promotions, and other related factors (Kovak, 1995). For others, motivation is a management exercise.

Leadership has a direct effect on the motivation levels of employees. According to Chipunza et al. (2011), the approach to teacher leadership has two implications. The first is the concern with the behavior of school principals to their subordinates (employees). The second is the concern with principals' approaches to management, communication, relationships, and involvement of employees in decision-making. Leadership styles, whether autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, or the contemporary approaches—transformational, charismatic, and transactional—have an effect on employee performance as they determine the kind of relationship the principals have with the employees. The effect of leadership on motivation can be either positive or negative, depending on the approach used by the principal of the school (Barbuto, 2005).

Various definitions of leadership exist. According to Chipunza et al. (2011), leadership refers to the quality of inspecting and examining work to ascertain that efforts are not being wasted. In this context, leadership is a skill for identifying priorities and organizing resources to attain worthwhile goals. This definition of leadership can be unreasonable as the primary task of supervisors is to determine what is important in achieving the organizational goals. Leaders are expected to nurture tomorrow's goals and forget about yesterday. Bishop (2011) stated that delegation is crucial in leadership. Bishop found that leaders should only undertake tasks after confirming that such duties cannot be delegated to subordinates. Bishop explained that it is through delegation and

responsibilities that employees feel valued, trusted, and willing to commit to their tasks so that they do not disappoint their leader. Leadership, in this case, is the art of recognizing mistakes and correcting them early on before they affect the organization.

Various authors have adopted different approaches while describing what a leader should be. According to Walumbwa and Hartnell (2011), leaders are individuals who must regularly ask themselves, and members of their teams, to dedicate themselves to the roles and purpose of the organization. The leader is responsible for clarifying the organization's goals and objectives, and reminding the team of meeting those goals. To achieve success, the researches believed that a leader must ensure that the team understands the goals as well as the strategy for achieving them (Walumbwa & Hartnell, 2011). The leader should be a team player. Powerful leaders who make unilateral decisions that affect many people no longer exist. Management has become too complicated a task to allow for such autonomy. This belief of management is especially true in schools and other educational systems where the principal serves as a liaison between governing offices, staff, and students (Lester & Bishop, 2000). Leaders must motivate people to attain increasingly costly and complex goals (Walumbwa & Hartnell, 2011). This role is more complex in the public sector where most schools fail because of limitations that result from legal and regulatory requirements, economics, society, and technology (Lester & Bishop, 2000). Leaders must use leverage to realize their goals and objectives in the same way craftsmen use their tools to complete their work.

When comparing current employees with employees from 20 years ago, many differences exist. Chipunza et al. (2011) observed that employees are different from

employees 2 decades ago. Many people are pleasure seekers and only a few enjoy spending extra time at their desks. People take now vacations, sick leave, have health insurance, and other fringe benefits that are available. The ultimate fear of losing a job is cushioned by severance pay, golden handshakes, unions, assurance of unemployment insurance, equal employment opportunity, social security, and due process (Chipunza, Samuel, & Mariri, 2011), as all of these are a part of the employees' rights.

Different management specialists refer to the definition of the modern worker in various ways. Herzberg (1968) defined motivation as the process of getting people to work in realizing set targets. The world of work and the modern worker have undergone a transformation in the last few decades. This transformation occurred because of the technological revolution and the redesign of tasks from the development of information technology (Georges, 2003). A increased need for skilled laborers resulted. In addition, because of globalization, a decline in local manufacturing of goods exists. This decline has led to a change in the demographic profile of the domestic worker. In the management of employees, leaders do not use the employee engagement practices of *just-in-time* and team working (Georges, 2003). In addition, changes in the hiring and reward systems have occurred. Wages are now a concern of the employees, causing a shift in employee attitudes.

According to motivational theory, two varieties of workers exist: (a) the neo-mechanistic or instrumental man or woman who is described as a detached specialist in the modern world's computerized society, and (b) the consumer whose aim is immediate consumption (Davies, 2007). No matter what definition is used to describe the workers,

leaders need to understand employee goals to motivate them. People's goals differ, as illustrated by Herzberg's (1968) definition of consumers whose immediate needs are the use of goods and mechanistic ones and aim to manage personnel to make profits.

Leaders must establish what an individual likes and needs in his or her work for motivation to occur. Identifying what people specifically want from their work is not an easy task, as most often people respond using generalizations. According to Davies (2007), employees like the following features of their work:

1. Recognition and appreciation from their leaders, supervisors, and colleagues;
2. Achievement or being able to see something come out of their efforts, such as increased sales and profitability, or better results;
3. Their work and what it entails;
4. Increased responsibility, such as expanding the job to reflect the individual's capabilities;
5. Promotion and advancement within the organization; and
6. Growth and opportunity to learn new things through training.

Davies also identified the following as factors that people dislike about their work:

1. Restrictive policies;
2. Poor supervision from a manager who is incompetent or not supportive;
3. Poor interpersonal relations;
4. Poor working conditions, such as uncomfortable temperatures, poor lighting, and noisy surroundings;

5. Poor salary: it is not the primary factor, implying that nonmonetary incentives play a greater role in motivating employees than money does; and
6. Lack of security as well as low job status.

According to Herzberg's (1968) theory, leaders must address hygiene factors concerning the job environment to avoid the dissatisfaction and demotivation of workers. To satisfy the worker, motivational factors, also referred to as growth factors, must be provided. The hygiene factors offered at the job must satisfy and challenge the workers. According to Nelson and Quick (2008), creativity is the most valuable trait in a worker. Nelson and Quick maintained that creativity is more important than reliability or technical competence as a creative individual tends to be self-motivating and only needs feedback, technical help, and orientation regarding the organization's goals. That is, it is easier to motivate a creative person than one who is not. Rue and Byars (2005) pointed out the importance of recognizing that people have ideas and minds of their own and should be allowed to exercise their initiatives and creativity. Otherwise, they will be frustrated with their work. This recognition should not be limited to high achievers but should be applied to all employees. Rue and Byars further emphasized that managers or supervisors should not get used to directing their workers in ways that can kill their creativity or initiative. Most employees know how to make their work easier, more interesting, comfortable, and challenging. The supervisor should not, however, ignore their role to develop standard procedures or initiate change.

Management of self-motivated individuals can be a complex undertaking for various reasons. According to Dessler (2005), managing the self-motivated individual is

a work of art as one can easily be frustrated because of over-management. It should, however, never be assumed that high achievers do not require an evaluation. Dessler also pointed out that high achievers who are self-motivated require feedback as well as reassurance about their effectiveness and their performance. This feedback is a way of recognition that acts as a motivational factor, propelling them to put in more effort.

In the perspective of effective leaders, the leaders can be beneficial to the organization where they work for various reasons. According to Robbins and Decenzo (2004), effective leadership encourages creative change, as this is the ultimate motivator for employees. However, this only applies as long as the changes proposed are desirable and are not executed for the sake of the employees. Rue and Byars (2005) stated that an innovation is crucial during change implementation as it provides an opportunity to make a contribution to the institution through testing, trying, and implementing the proposed changes. This innovation enables the employees to grow on the job, achieve some tangible goals, and receive recognition for their efforts. Achievement, growth, and recognition are key elements that make employees like and want to remain committed to their jobs (Rue & Byars, 2005). Team leaders must pay attention to these crucial factors. According to Webb (2007), Argyris, who built the obsolescence phenomenon, made a contribution to the field of motivation. Argyris' was mainly concerned with the problem of repetitive tasks in organizations (Webb, 2007). Argyris found that it was difficult to achieve motivation under such circumstances (Webb, 2007). Most workers in organizations believe that management has no interest in their jobs. For these types of workers, the only motivation is higher wages.

Argyris, however, found that motivating alienated employees was costly to an organization (Webb, 2007). To address this problem, Argyris concentrated on giving more responsibility to the workers by assigning full responsibility rather than responsibility for single sections (Webb, 2007). Argyris found an initial drop in production, which later picked up alongside employee morale and motivation (Webb, 2007). Argyris demonstrated that the price for poor motivation was poor morale and, ultimately, higher costs for the organization (Webb, 2007). Argyris also emphasized that employees need feedback on their performance as well as their effect on the organization (Webb, 2007). If the pride and respect for their work is lost, they will direct their energies elsewhere. Institutions must, therefore, prevent the resulting obsolescence by stopping the mistrust that permeates the organization, starting with leadership, seeping through the management levels, and then to the lower level employees (Bishop, 2011).

Since some tasks are difficult to make more challenging or interesting, employees find it hard to enjoy performing such tasks. According to Bishop (2011), leaders can implement certain techniques to motivate workers who perform these tasks. Bishop, however, pointed out that these techniques have not been effective in motivating employees. The techniques include job rotation, which has suggestions in ways to help employees cope with tasks that are repetitive. Researchers previously found job rotation to be useful, but at times it exposes workers to a variety of pain (Cosgel & Miceli, 1998). Specialization and division of labor increases workers' productivity. A switch from one task to another does not imply any difference unless one of the jobs involves engaging the employee to use his or her skills or experience to execute the task. Bishop (2011)

stated that one of the most effective ways of managing employees in such situations and increasing their motivation is to give them additional responsibility. In teaching, this is equivalent to giving teachers some autonomy. Such autonomy includes giving them the responsibility of deciding how they are going to teach, involving them in creating the syllabus, and additional responsibilities, such as being in charge of departments and other educational activities (Lester & Bishop, 2000).

Motivation is a worldwide problem. Researches have used different approaches to convince people to take certain actions. These approaches include the application of psychology, offering money incentives, training, and using different communication techniques, while other companies use threats. According to Webb (2007), motivated individuals perform well because they believe that good performance is not only important to the institution but to themselves as well. Motivation does not arise from threats or even benefits. Rather, it comes from the feelings, attitudes, and ideas that the employees have regarding their jobs. Webb pointed out that for leaders to motivate their workers, they must ensure they challenge the employees. In addition, leaders need to allow worker involvement in decisions that determine how to achieve their respective tasks and correct placement (Webb, 2007). This involvement means that the employees' jobs must match their skills and experience, as employees tend to get demoralized and unmotivated when they confront tasks with which they have no skills or experience. Webb added that fringe benefits, security, salary, and good working conditions are all important factors in motivating employees. These factors, when present, prevent employees from being dissatisfied and unmotivated. Such factors rarely motivate

employees when they are acting by themselves and, in their absence, make the motivation of an individual more difficult (Webb, 2007).

In order for a leader to be effective in motivating employees, various conditions have to be met. Strickler (2006) observed that, for motivation to be successfully achieved, the leaders must select those people who are not only qualified, but also interested in the job. I advised against the selection of overqualified individuals or the selection of individuals who are not capable of growing with the job as it changes and evolves (Strickler, 2006). Strickler also advised that leaders and supervisors should not frustrate their efforts of creative and self-motivated employees through over-management. Instead, the leaders should ensure they give feedback regarding employee performance on a regular basis and communicate the organizational goals clearly, so that these individuals direct their efforts toward meeting those goals. Majeed et al. (2010) pointed out that this is only possible through good leadership.

Leadership Styles' Influence

Educational leadership at the administrative level can affect student achievement, though indirectly, because it provides an environment that fosters teacher growth, stability, and continuous improvements (Slater, 2011). Administrators can influence teacher practices and pedagogy through support of various professional development opportunities and peer collaboration. Cultural dimensions, such as individualism versus collectivism, underpin educational administration leadership styles (Slater, 2011). Because of the cultural dimensional differences between an internationally born administrator and American born teacher, leadership styles may develop a strain between

the two parties. The perceptions of either administrator or teacher may misconstrue the value and purpose of particular leadership styles, especially when the cultural dimensions are not made aware by one or both parties (Slater, 2011).

Another way administrators influence teaching methodologies is allowing for autonomy, which is one of the key factors in successful teaching for most teachers. According to Praver and Oga-Baldwin (2008), teachers prefer to be allowed to plan their lessons and choose their method of teaching. In addition, teachers prefer the chance to create their syllabi and pick the resources to use in teaching. When teachers are allowed this academic freedom, as well as the power to choose, many individuals decide to choose this profession. As described in the sections above, motivation determines the choices made by an individual. Ushioda (2003) pointed out that motivation is often a matter of choice, such that the more choices and freedom an individual is allowed, the more willing he or she will be to work. Therefore, a person who can decide on what he or she wants and how to complete the work is better able to set his or her goals. In addition, in cooperating with others, this will show more intrinsic motivation as well as self-actualization (Ushioda, 2003). These decisions are biased toward the theory of transactional versus transformational leadership.

Praver and Oga-Baldwin (2008) suggested that school principals should allow teachers increased freedom to create their goals. This freedom will motivate the teachers toward achieving institutional goals by using the approach they believe best suits the students they are teaching. In addition, it showed that teacher empowerment by the school principal increases teachers' motivation by allowing them more choices in

executing their work (Praver & Oga-Baldwin, 2008). Teachers were more motivated in schools where principals gave the teachers more decision-making powers. While autonomy showed no significant effect on job satisfaction or job-related stress, it has an effect on enhancing a teacher's motivational levels (Praver & Oga-Baldwin, 2008).

Summary

The organization's management and leadership styles play the largest role in motivating employees. Employee motivation is the most vital managerial function. The type of leadership style adopted by the organization has an effect on the motivation level of the employees. As Walumbwa and Hartnell (2011) stated, leaders and their teams should dedicate themselves to the role and purpose of the organization. The leader should clarify the organization's goals and objectives constantly for achieving success. This clarification is true in various educational systems where the principal is the interface between the governing body and the students. Various reasons why people dislike their work are restrictive policies, poor supervision, poor working conditions, low salary, or lack of security of the job. Praver and Oga-Baldwin (2008) stated that a relationship exists between intrinsic motivation and skilled teaching. The desire to impart knowledge onto people and make them achieve academically is central to the teaching profession. In addition, the successful transmission of skills and knowledge is the intrinsic reward that most teachers desire.

Many scholars have identified transactional and transformational types of leadership as the most effective in motivating teachers and employees in general. The transactional leadership style motivates many teachers to give their all in their jobs. On

the other hand, the transformational leadership style gives room for experimenting to determine the best methods of management. Transformational leaders are often referred to as risk-takers. Schools in which principals use a laissez-faire type of leadership tend to perform poorly, as this approach to leadership does little to motivate teachers (Cemaloglu et al., 2012). This leadership style does not provide supervision of employees.

Sometimes, employees who are new in an organization are likely to imitate negative employees who can be catastrophic in terms of management. In this study, I used Herzberg's (1968) motivational theory for two types of workers: (a) the neo-mechanistic and instrumental person who is a detached specialist in the modern computerized society, and (b) the consumer whose aim is immediate consumption (Davies, 2007). Researchers who have studied the influence of the leadership style used by principals on teacher motivation have found that teachers show motivation when allowed some autonomy at their work site (Adeyemi, 2010; Cemaloglu et al., 2012; Walumbwa & Hartnell, 2011). The involvement of teachers in goal setting, syllabi, and making other decisions that affect their work elevates intrinsic and extrinsic motivations to perform better and meet institutional goals.

Cultural dimensions that underpin personal beliefs can influence educational administration leadership styles. Because of the dimensional differences in cultures between an internationally born administrator and American born teacher, the administrator's leadership style may create conflict without intention to cause harm between him or her and the teacher. A gap in the research literature appears with regard to the leadership styles and the motivational characteristics of perceived leadership styles

for teachers working in various cultural contexts. Teachers may misconstrue the value and purpose of particular leadership styles, especially when the cultural dimensions are not understood.

The following chapter, Methodology, provides the methodology and study design. The chapter details the rationale behind the choice for the design and the reliability of instruments used to investigate leadership qualities. Furthermore, the chapter presents the sample population and statistical analysis of the data coming from the chosen population in order to substantiate the reliability of the results.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether an association exists between leadership styles and motivation among U.S. teachers in the United States and internationally. In this chapter, I outline the research design and rationale for choosing the given approach. The chapter also includes a delineation of the population of interest, subsequent sampling procedures, instrumentation, operation of research variables, and data analysis procedures. The chapter concludes with threats to validity, limitations of the research, and ethical issues.

Research Design and Rationale

Research design encompasses the overall strategy chosen by a researcher to logically and coherently address the problem underlying his or her investigation. The research design outlined what I did during the research process. A researcher must follow the research design once it has been established (Kumar, 2005).

I used a quantitative, correlational survey design. The quantitative design is appropriate when the researcher wants to examine the relationship between numerical measures and constructs (Howell, 2010). Creswell (2003) noted that the quantitative research method is usually most appropriate for researchers who seek to establish what factors or variables affect the outcome. Any quantitative research design has to derive from a theory and then be tested as a cause and effect in order to ensure that the researcher understands the phenomenon under study. Quantitative researchers collect and analyze data by use of various statistical techniques (Ethridge, 1995). Because of the

nature of the research, applying a qualitative approach via personal interviews and observations would not provide the credibility or dependability of anonymous surveys.

Participants filled out series of questionnaires, specifically connected to leadership and motivation. I chose this survey design because it is effective, easy to conduct, and relatively inexpensive. Survey designs are also useful because they provide a snapshot of the target population and allow for the researcher to examine the participants' attitudes at particular points in time. In using this approach, I asked closed-ended questions based on a preestablished hypothesis. The study involved a correlational approach because I examined relationships between variables of interest (Creswell, 2005).

The dependent variables in this study were teachers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels as measured by the WEIMS. The independent variables were teachers' leadership levels, as measured by MLQ and location of instruction in the United States or internationally. Using statistical tools, such as linear regressions and a MANOVA, I examined the relationships between leadership style, motivation, and teaching demographic.

Research Questions

In this study, the hypothesis was that leadership styles have an effect on developing motivation among American teachers in the United States and internationally. From this hypothesis, I aimed to answer the following questions:

RQ1: Do leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally?

H₀1: Leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, do not have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally.

H_a1: Leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally.

RQ2: Are there statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and WEIMS, between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally?

H₀2: There are no statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and WEIMS, between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally.

H_a2: There are statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors

(intrinsic and extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and WEIMS, between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally.

Methodology

Population

Research population refers to any collection of items or grouping of people from which or whom a researcher takes samples for measurement. My targeted population was American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally. The United States has more than 3.7 million teachers. It would have been impossible to survey all of them in this study. Therefore, I selected a sample size that was representative of the available population of American teachers from the United States and internationally.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

Teacher participants were varied in terms of their race, nationality, ethnicity, age, gender, location, level of education, and number of years taught. I first used a stratified sampling technique to select a representative sample from the corresponding teaching locations. A stratified random sample helps to reduce bias by ensuring that all parts of the population are represented in the sample to increase efficiency. The individual strata corresponded to American teachers in the United States and American international teachers. American teachers answered questions about teaching in the United States, and American international teachers answered questions about teaching abroad. Afterwards, I used a random sampling technique to gather individual participants for the study within each corresponding strata. Finally, no manipulation of variables occurred to generalize

the population of the study from the sample. Data generated from this research filled a part of that gap.

Sample Size

I needed to use a large pool of participants in order to conduct my analyses. This study involved both multiple linear regressions and a MANOVA. The MANOVA has a more stringent sample size requirement; thus, it determines the minimum overall sample size. Two groups and five dependent variables were included in my analyses.

Additionally, I expected to discover a generally accepted medium effect size (Cohen, 1988). A generally accepted power of .80 and an alpha value .05 allowed me to say with 95% certainty that the significant findings were not because of random chance alone.

Following these delineated parameters, I used G*Power 3.1.7 to calculate an appropriate sample size to assure empirical validity. Based on these calculations, a sample of at least 212 participants was deemed sufficient for the study (Faul et al., 2014).

Data Collection Procedures

I obtained permission from school administrators to place a flyer (see Appendix D) on school bulletin boards inviting teachers to participate in the study and recruited through word of mouth. These participants were selected to see if leadership styles motivate teachers and if similarities existed in preferred leadership styles of American teachers in the United States and internationally. Participants received an invite via e-mail by sending it to various teachers through their school or personal e-mails. I notified participants that no extrinsic rewards for participating were included in the study. The motivation of the participants to participate came from intrinsic motivation. From the

school or personal e-mails, teachers were directed to an anonymous questionnaire located on www.surveymonkey.com. Once the participants reached the site, they read and reviewed the informed consent form, and indicated through a checkbox that they gave their consent to participate in the project and proceeded to the questionnaire. The questionnaire remained open for a period of 3–4 weeks. Participants were notified of the voluntary nature of their participation and no follow-up was made after completion of the questionnaire. In addition, participants were informed that they could choose at any time not to participate in the study.

Instrumentation

The primary data formed a significant part of the study and were collected using the self-completion MLQ-5X (see Appendix A) and the WEIMS (see Appendix B). The questions covered various aspects that related to the leadership styles and motivational factors of American teachers in the United States and internationally. I used simple language and technical terminologies in the explanation to respondents to reduce nonresponse bias. In these closed-ended questions, respondents were expected to answer by choosing one of the alternatives given to the questions. The MLQ includes a 5-point behavioral scale, ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*frequently-if not always*). The WEIMS includes a 7-point Likert-scaled response with anchor points of 1 (*Does not correspond at all*) to 7 (*Corresponds exactly*).

I combined and administered the MLQ and WEIMS via an online service link, Survey Monkey. The MLQ contained 45 questions and the WEIMS contained 18 questions. Respondents spent an average of 25 minutes to answer all questions.

Participants had a specific timeframe to respond to the questionnaires to ensure that the responses were collected within the set deadline. An online link was appropriate because of the low costs involved, as opposed to face-to-face and telephone interviews. This process enabled me to collect data from a large number of American teachers in the United States and internationally in a shorter time and with less effort.

The questions were split up into three sections. The first section comprised demographic questions (see Appendix C), such as nationality, ethnicity, age, gender, location, and the number of years taught. These demographic questions were relevant as they helped establish if the source of the data was valid and reliable. No identifying data, such as name, phone number, email, or social security, were collected or reported. Moreover, the questions ensured that participants were at ease prior to responding to the research questions regarding the subject of study. The second section of the research questionnaire corresponded to questions regarding leadership within the MLQ. The third section of the research questionnaire corresponded to questions regarding intrinsic and extrinsic motivation within the WEIMS. After the administration of the questionnaires, I encoded the mass of gathered data into SPSS version 22.0 for Windows. I organized the survey data by the variables of interest and conducted inferential analyses (multiple regression and MANOVA) to answer the research questions.

Reliability and Validity of the Research Instruments

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Bass and Avolio (1990) initially developed and examined the MLQ-5X Rater Form. The MLQ-5X Rater Form instrument is copyrighted by Bass and Avolio and published by Mind Garden (Bass & Avolio,

1990). The researchers created the instrument to measure elements of transformational, transactional, as well as non-leadership styles together with the outcomes of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The MLQ-5X Rater Form has 45 items that consist of satisfaction, extra effort, and effectiveness, contingent reward, management by exception (active), and management by exception (passive), idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, and laissez-faire leadership.

Inspirational motivation, idealized influence, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation refer to transformational leadership style scales, evaluated by the MLQ-5X Rater Form. In other words, two variables are measured, the dependent variables and the independent variables. Kothari (2005) defined the independent variable as the variable that does not change because of changes of the other factors in the research. The researcher manipulates or varies the independent variables, and most of the time they refer to the cause. The dependent variables change because of changes in other variables. The dependent variables include the response measured after the manipulation of the independent variables by a researcher, and most of the time are referred to as the effect (Kothari, 2005).

In this study, the results generated composite scores for transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. I determined transformational leadership scores by taking an average of the subscales: idealized influence (attributed) idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. I determined transactional leadership scores by taking an average of the

subscales: contingent reward and management by exception (active). I determined laissez-faire leadership scores by taking an average of the subscales: laissez-faire and management by exception (passive).

In the MLQ technical report by Bass and Avolio (1990), the researchers discussed the construct validation process linked with MLQ-5X Rater Form. I opted to use the MLQ-5X Rater Form in this study because the data indicated the reliability and validity of the instruments. Validity refers to the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences in which the research results are derived (Kumar, 2005). Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results after repeated trials. I established content validity of the research instruments to ensure they reflected the content of the study concepts. I went through the research questions to ensure that they contained all necessary information to address the objectives of the study. Expert input from the chair and committee members was sought to scrutinize the relevance of items on the research instruments against the set objectives.

Workplace Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale. The WEIMS instrument was adapted using factors from the Blois Inventory of Work Motivation (Vallerand, 1989). The 18-question instrument was created to examine motivational factors, including intrinsic motivation, integrated regulation, identified regulation, introjected regulation, external regulation, and amotivation. Vallerand (1989) conducted an exploratory factor analysis conducted to validate the six-factor structure of the WEIMS.

Cronbach's alpha coefficients were evaluated in prior studies for the six subscales of the WEIMS. Reliability coefficients for the scales suggested adequate levels of

internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from .64 to .80 (intrinsic motivation = .80, integrated regulation = .83, identified regulation = .67, introjected regulation = .70, external regulation = .77, and a motivation = .64).

Operationalization of Constructs

Transformational Leadership: The transformational style of leadership is when the leader and the followers support one another to exemplify high levels of morality and motivation. This leadership is focused, collaborative, supportive, and intellectually stimulating, and presented on a continuous level variable, as measured by the MLQ.

Transactional Leadership: The transactional style of leadership is when the leader uses disciplinary power and a collection of incentives to motivate employees to perform at their peak. This leadership is a continuous level variable, as measured by the MLQ.

Laissez-faire Leadership: The laissez-faire style of leadership is when the leader gives the rights and power to the employees. Team members receive freedom regarding how they complete their work. This leadership is a continuous level variable, as measured by the MLQ.

Intrinsic Motivation: Intrinsic motivation corresponds to the stimulation that drives individuals to change or adopt a behavior for their own internal fulfillment or satisfaction. This motivation is a continuous level variable, as measured by the WEIMS.

Extrinsic Motivation: Extrinsic motivation corresponds to the drive to action that stems from outward influences instead of from one's own feelings. This motivation is a continuous level variable, as measured by the WEIMS.

Data Analysis Plan

I compiled data using SPSS version 22.0 for Windows. Descriptive and inferential statistics allowed for analysis of sample demographics and research variables. After completion of questionnaires, I categorically organized the raw data in a manner that simplified analysis. Descriptive statistics in the form of frequency tables helped to describe the data in terms of demographics, leadership styles, and motivational factors. The use of graphics to represent data is valuable and supplemental to statistical analysis (Kothari, 2005). Demographic distinctions were analyzed using frequencies and percentages for all variables.

Preanalysis Data Screen

I screened data for completion, consistency, and to communicate the findings in a logical and sequential way for cultivating conclusions. The analysis involved examination of outliers through the calculation of standardized values, or z -scores. Standardized values correspond to the standard deviations a data point lies from the average. Data points that lie outside of the range $z = \pm 3.29$ standard deviations away from the mean were considered outlying responses, thus were removed from further analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Large portions of missing data or nonrandom data were also removed from inferential analyses.

Reliability

I conducted Cronbach's alpha test of reliability and internal consistency on the scales (transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation). The Cronbach's alpha provides mean correlation coefficients between each pair of items and the number of items in a scale (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2006). The alpha values were interpreted using the guidelines suggested by George and Mallery (2010), where $\alpha > .9$ Excellent, $\alpha > .8$ Good, $\alpha > .7$ Acceptable, $\alpha > .6$ Questionable, $\alpha > .5$ Poor, and $\alpha \leq .5$ Unacceptable.

Research Questions

RQ1: Do leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally?

H_01 : Leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, do not have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally.

H_a1 : Leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, do have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally.

In order to address Research Question 1, I conducted six multiple linear regressions to determine whether particular leadership styles have a significant predictive

relationship between motivational factors for American teachers and international American teachers. A multiple linear regression is the appropriate analysis to conduct when the goal is to assess if a relationship exists between a set of predictor variables and a continuous dependent variable (Pallant, 2010). The continuous independent predictor variables were the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style scores. The continuous dependent variables were intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. The analysis included three multiple linear regressions pertaining to American teachers teaching in the United States and three multiple linear regressions pertaining to American international teachers teaching abroad. The assumptions of the multiple regressions were assessed prior to analysis—normality, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity. I assessed normality by viewing a P-P scatter plot. The assumption was met if the points did not vary strongly from the normality line. I assessed homoscedasticity by examining a plot between the residuals and the predicted values. The assumption was met if the points did not display any pattern (e.g., linear increase or decrease, conic, or parabolic). Multicollinearity is a statistical phenomenon in which significant associations exist among the predictor variables of interest. Presence of multicollinearity can often lead to incorrect conclusions regarding the association between the independent and dependent variables. Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) quantified the severity of multicollinearity. The VIF values higher than 10 suggested that multicollinearity was present among the predictor variables, thus the assumption was violated (Stevens, 2009).

I assessed the regression model with the F test. This test assessed if the set of predictor variables accounted for a significant portion of the variance in the dependent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The overall model statistic assessed if transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership have a significant relationship with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. If the model statistics are significant, the analysis involved an examination of the individual predictors. I conducted the t test for each predictor variable. The individual predictors were compared to each other for similarities in the slope strength and direction.

RQ2: Are there statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and WEIMS, between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally?

H_02 : There are no statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and WEIMS, between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally.

H_a2 : There are statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and WEIMS, between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally.

To address Research Question 2, I conducted a MANOVA to determine whether significant differences existed in leadership styles and motivational factors between

American teachers instructing domestically and internationally. The MANOVA is an appropriate statistical analysis when the goal of the researcher is to examine whether simultaneous mean differences exist on two or more continuous dependent variables by two or more grouping variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). The five continuous dependent variables in the analysis corresponded to transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation. The independent grouping variable corresponded to American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally. Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the MANOVA—normality, homogeneity of variance, and homogeneity of covariance. Normality assumes that the five continuous variables are normally distributed (symmetrical bell shaped) for both instructing locations. Normality was assessed with a Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. Homogeneity of variance was assessed using Levene's test and assumed that both groups have equal error variances. Homogeneity of covariance matrices is the multivariate equivalent to homogeneity of variance and was tested using Box's M test (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2008).

The MANOVA uses the F test and creates a linear combination of the dependent variables for a grand mean, and researchers use this to determine if significant differences exist by curriculum type. The null hypothesis is rejected if an obtained F is larger than the critical F . If the MANOVA model is statistically significant, then the researcher interprets the individual ANOVAs (one per dependent variable) and conducts pair-wise comparisons to determine where the significant differences lie (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

Threats to External Validity

Threats to external validity correspond to portions of the sample that cause bias to the situational specifics of the study data collected or the measured results. Furthermore, several confounding variables may account for or augment the relationships among the variables of interest (Howell, 2010). It is unfeasible to account for the variation of every potential covariate; thus, I accepted and acknowledged this during the results interpretation. I cautiously interpreted the study's findings and did not assume that these results could be extrapolated to the entire population of interest (Creswell, 2005).

Threats to Internal Validity

Several potential limitations exist within the scope of quantitative studies. First, quantitative researchers can examine the research questions and subsequent hypotheses; however, they are unable to fully measure the underlying experiences and depth of the participants' perceptions. As a result, I substituted the richness inherent within a qualitative study for a degree of statistical certainty that these significant relationships were not created by chance alone (Pagano, 2009).

In order to attain internal validity, causal inferences must be presented. Causal inferences can occur when a cause and effect relationship exists, or when no realistic explanation exists regarding why the effect exists. Consequently, key threats to internal validity can occur when the cause and effect sequence are misinterpreted or when selection bias exists within the sample.

Ethical Considerations

For research finds to be valid, the researcher must observe ethical standards while conducting research (Elliot, 2005). A researcher conducting a study that involves human subjects has an inherent responsibility to protect and inform participants (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). I adhered to the moral and ethical guidelines outlined by U.S. Federal regulations and the Institutional Review Board (IRB). The following paragraphs detail the plan to provide informed consent and a discussion on data storage and destruction to protect participants' confidentiality. This study observed three ethical issues—approval, informed consent, and privacy.

Approval

Prior to the commencement of the study, I sought permission from all relevant authorities, including Mind Garden to use the MLQ and individual permissions to use the WEIMS. In addition, I sought permission and approval from Walden's University Institutional Review Board (IRB) committee before conducting research and collecting research data.

Informed Consent

All of the participants were requested to read and check *yes* or *no* for agreeing to the informed consent in participating in the study before starting. The informed consent appeared at the beginning of the online questionnaire. This informed consent acknowledged that the rights of the participants remained protected during the collection of data (Creswell, 2003). I contacted school administrators to see if they were willing to provide participant information for the survey (see Appendix D). In addition, teachers

were contacted from different schools' websites through teacher e-mails in the United States and internationally. Those who responded to the e-mail participated in the study.

The informed consent detailed the nature, purpose, and procedures of the study, as well as information about obtaining a copy of the study and how their individual privacy would remain confidential. Each participant received all of this information before engaging in completing the questionnaire. Prior to filling out the surveys, an e-mail clearly stated that participants would not receive a reward and participation was strictly voluntary. I did not force or persuade any respondent to be a part of the research; all respondents who participated in the research did so of their own will. Participants could withdrawal from the research at any time, without any explanation.

Privacy

Researchers who conduct studies involving human subjects have an inherent responsibility to inform and protect the participants (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). When conducting this study, I adhered to the moral and ethical guidelines conferred by federal regulations and the IRB. Guidelines for confidentiality and privacy were followed, and participants had the option of disclosing their institutions. However, I treated identities of participants and their personal information as confidential, private, and did not disclosed it to any third parties. Participants received a numerical identity number that appeared in the survey output, instead of real names. Furthermore, online questionnaire software assisted in coding data provided by respondents to ensure anonymity and confidentiality of the questionnaire was maintained in the process of data collection, analysis, and reporting. The results of the data are password-protected on a flash drive

that will remain locked in the filing cabinet of the researcher's home office. The data will remain on file for a period of 5 years, and I will destroy the data after that time.

Summary

The purpose of the study was to describe and understand how leadership styles motivate American teachers in the United States and internationally. I took a comparative approach to achieving this goal. The sample included 212 teachers from the United States who teach or have taught in the United States or internationally. The MLQ-5X Rater Form questionnaire (see Appendix A) and the WEIMS (Appendix B) took approximately 25 minutes to complete. The participants also completed demographic questions (see Appendix C). The demographic variables considered were controls in the regression analysis, and included age, gender, ethnicity, location, level of education, and the number of years taught. Craven and Kao (2011) stated that these demographic factors may influence leadership styles and motivation of teachers.

This chapter presented the following: the research methodology, research design, rationale for using quantitative design, and techniques used in conducting the study. I discussed the sample population, sampling technique, reliability and validity, ethical issues, limitations of the study, data analysis, data collection, role of the researcher, and research instrumentation. Chapter 4 presents the results and analysis of the quantitative data collected.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether an association exists between leadership styles and motivation of American teachers in the United States and internationally. In this chapter, I address the following research questions and hypotheses:

RQ1: Do leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally?

H_01 : Leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, do not have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally.

H_a1 : Leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, do have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally.

RQ2: Are there statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and WEIMS, between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally?

H_02 : There are no statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors

(intrinsic and extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and WEIMS, between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally.

H_{a2}: There are statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and WEIMS, between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally.

I entered data into SPSS version 22.0 for Windows. Data were first screened for completion and outlying responses. Demographic data were then presented, followed by descriptive statistics for continuous variables, and a reliability analysis for the scales. Statistical analysis for the research questions included multiple linear regression and a MANOVA. The analyses were evaluated for statistical significance at the widely accepted significance level, $\alpha = .05$.

Data Collection

I obtained permission from school administrators to place a flyer (see Appendix D) on school bulletin boards inviting teachers to participate in the study. I also recruited via word of mouth. Participants received an invitation via e-mail to participate in an online survey hosted by Survey Monkey. I sent the e-mail invitation to teachers through their school or personal e-mails. The questionnaire was open on Survey Monkey for a period of 3–4 weeks. I invited 317 participants to complete the survey questionnaire. Among these individuals, I received responses from 264 teachers, corresponding to a response rate of 83.28%.

Preanalysis Data Screen

I removed three participants for not indicating the country in which they were teaching. In addition, 15 participants were removed for not responding to the MLQ or the WEIMS. The analysis involved examination of outliers by calculation of standardized values, or *z*-scores. *Z*-scores higher than + 3.29 or less than – 3.29 standard deviations away from the mean were treated as outlying responses, and these participants were removed from further analysis, following Tabachnick & Fidell's (2012) guidelines. Two outliers were removed for low intrinsic motivation scores. One outlier was removed for a low extrinsic motivation score. The final analyses included 243 participants, which was higher than the power analysis minimum of 212 participants.

Results

Demographic Data

In all, 243 teachers participated in my study. Of that total, 24 (10%) teachers had only taught in the United States. Of the participants, 54 (22%) teachers had only taught in a foreign country. In addition, 165 (68%) teachers had taught in the United States and internationally. The distribution for the number of years teaching experience combined for domestic and international teachers ranged widely among the different response categories, with 33 (13.6%) teachers having 0–3 years' experience, 105 (43.2%) teachers with 4–6 years' experience, 46 (18.9%) teachers with 7–9 years' experience, and 59 (24.3%) teachers with 10–15 years' experience. The majority of teachers had 4–6 years of teaching experience.

Domestic teachers ($n = 128$). Among domestic teachers, a majority of participants were female ($n = 86, 67\%$). Many teachers were aged 42 years or older ($n = 40, 31\%$). Most of the participants were African American ($n = 61, 48\%$). Most participants had obtained either a bachelor's degree ($n = 56, 44\%$) or a master's degree ($n = 50, 39\%$). Most domestic teachers had taught between 4–6 years ($n = 42, 33\%$) or 10–15 years ($n = 41, 32\%$).

International teachers ($n = 115$). Among international teachers, a majority of the participants were female ($n = 85, 74\%$). Many teachers were aged 24–29 years old ($n = 28, 24\%$) or 30–35 ($n = 28, 24\%$). Most of the participants were African American ($n = 54, 47\%$). Most participants had obtained either a bachelor's degree ($n = 65, 57\%$) or a master's degree ($n = 41, 36\%$). A majority of teachers had taught between 4–6 years ($n = 63, 55\%$). Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics for the demographical data.

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of Study Participants (N = 243)

Demographic category	Domestic (<i>n</i> = 128)		International (<i>n</i> = 115)	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
Gender				
Male	42	33	30	26
Female	86	67	85	74
Age				
18–23	12	9	19	17
24–29	24	19	28	24
30–35	28	22	28	24
36–41	24	19	22	19
42 or more	40	31	18	16
Ethnicity				
White	42	33	42	37
African American	61	48	54	47
Latino/Hispanic	15	12	15	13
Asian	6	5	4	4
Other	4	3	0	0
Highest level of education				
Associates	18	14	8	7
Bachelors	56	44	65	57
Masters	50	39	41	36
PhD	4	3	1	1
Years of teaching experience				
0–3	16	13	17	15
4–6	42	33	63	55
7–9	29	23	17	15
10–15	41	32	18	16

Note. All percentages may not sum to 100% due to rounding error.

Descriptive Statistics of Continuous Variables

Composite scores were generated for the scales by computing an average of the corresponding survey items from the MLQ and WEIMS for transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation. I computed transformational leadership by taking an average of 20 items, with possible scores ranging from 1.00 to 5.00. I computed transactional leadership by taking an average of eight items, with possible scores ranging from 1.00 to 5.00. I computed laissez-faire leadership by taking an average of eight items, with possible scores ranging from 1.00 to 5.00. Higher scores on the leadership variables suggested that participants exhibited the traits of the corresponding leadership style.

I computed intrinsic motivation by taking an average of three items, with possible scores ranging from 1.00 to 7.00. I computed extrinsic motivation by taking an average of 15 items, with possible scores ranging from 1.00 to 7.00. Higher scores on the motivation variables suggested that participants had increased amounts of intrinsic or extrinsic motivation. I examined leadership styles and motivation levels for both domestic teachers and international teachers. Table 3 presents descriptive statistics of continuous variables.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for Continuous Variables

Continuous Variables	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max.</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Domestic teachers				
Transformational leadership	1.60	5.00	3.65	0.77
Transactional leadership	1.75	5.00	3.03	0.84
Laissez-faire leadership	1.00	5.00	2.30	1.13
Intrinsic motivation	2.67	7.00	5.85	0.87
Extrinsic motivation	2.40	7.00	5.23	0.76
International teachers				
Transformational leadership	1.05	5.00	3.48	0.96
Transactional leadership	1.50	5.00	2.96	0.58
Laissez-faire leadership	1.00	4.50	2.26	0.95
Intrinsic motivation	2.67	7.00	5.69	0.96
Extrinsic motivation	3.07	6.33	4.99	0.82

Reliability

To evaluate reliability for the leadership and motivation scales, I evaluated Cronbach's alpha tests of reliability and internal consistency. The alpha values were interpreted by using an incremental criteria in which $\alpha \geq .9$ excellent, $.9 > \alpha \geq .8$ good, $.8 > \alpha \geq .7$ acceptable, $.7 > \alpha \geq .6$ questionable, $.6 > \alpha \geq .5$ poor, and $\alpha \leq .5$ (George & Mallery, 2010). Results for transformational leadership ($\alpha = .95$) indicated excellent reliability. Results for laissez-faire leadership ($\alpha = .88$) indicated good reliability. Results for intrinsic motivation ($\alpha = .79$) and extrinsic motivation ($\alpha = .78$) indicated acceptable reliability. Results for transactional leadership indicated questionable reliability ($\alpha = .66$). Table 4 presents the reliability statistics for the leadership and motivation scales.

Table 4

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Statistics for Composite Scores

Scale	No. of Items	A
Transformational leadership	20	.95
Transactional leadership	8	.66
Laissez-faire leadership	8	.88
Intrinsic motivation	3	.79
Extrinsic motivation	15	.78

Detailed Analysis

RQ1: Do leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally?

H_01 : Leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, do not have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally.

H_a1 : Leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, do have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally.

To address Research Question 1, I conducted a series of multiple linear regressions to examine the relationship between leadership styles and motivational

factors. A multiple linear regression is used when the goal of the researcher is to measure the predictive strength between a group of predictors on a continuous criterion variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The continuous independent predictor variables corresponded to transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. The continuous dependent variables corresponded to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. I conducted multiple linear regressions for American teachers teaching in the United States and conducted two multiple linear regressions for international teachers. Prior to analysis, the parametric assumptions of a multiple linear regression were assessed—normality, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity.

Leadership Styles on Intrinsic Motivation (Domestic Teachers)

Normality assumption. I used a P-P scatterplot to test the normality assumption (see Figure 3). The assumption of normality was met because the points closely followed the normality trend line (Howell, 2010).

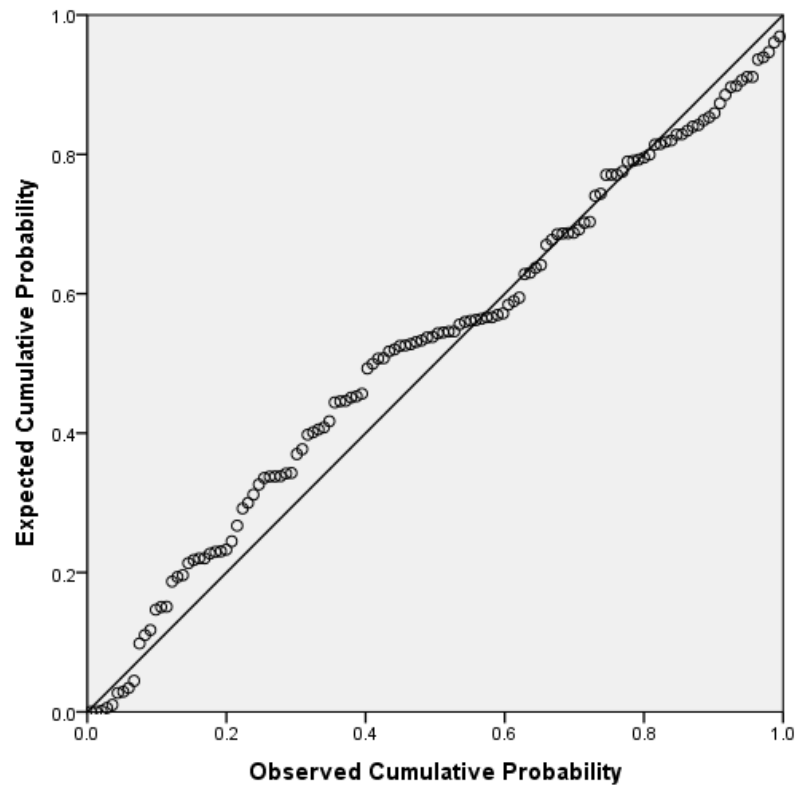


Figure 3. Normal P-P scatterplot to assess normality for levels of leadership predicting intrinsic motivation (domestic teachers).

Homoscedasticity. I used a residuals scatterplot to test the homoscedasticity assumption (see Figure 4). The assumption was met because the points resembled a rectangular distribution and no clear pattern existed in the data (Stevens, 2009).

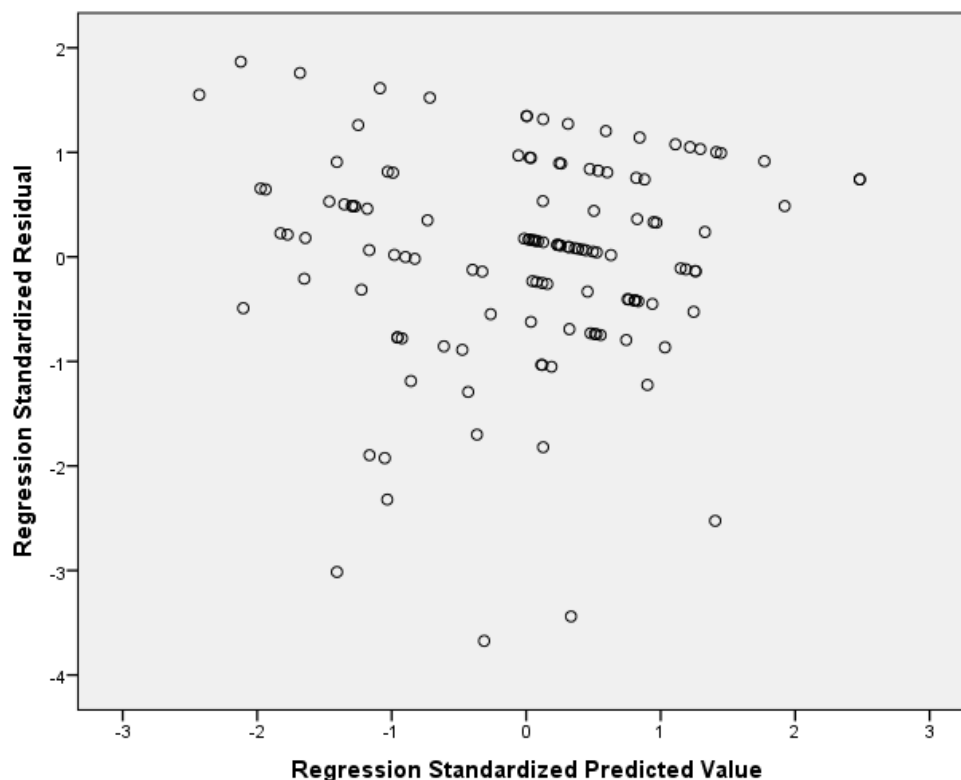


Figure 4. Residuals scatterplot for homoscedasticity for levels of leadership styles predicting intrinsic motivation (domestic teachers).

Absence of multicollinearity assumption. The absence of multicollinearity assumption verifies that no close association exists between the predictor values. I tested the assumption by examination of VIFs. The assumption was met because all the VIF values were less than 10 (Stevens, 2009).

Results of multiple linear regression. The results of the multiple linear regression were not significant, $F(3, 124) = 2.53, p = .060, R^2 = .058$, suggesting that the leadership subscales do not significantly predict intrinsic motivation among domestic teachers. None of the individual predictors were significant in the model. Table 5 presents the results of the multiple linear regression.

Table 5

*Multiple Linear Regression with Subscales of Leadership Predicting Intrinsic Motivation
(Domestic Teachers)*

Source	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
Transformational leadership	0.22	0.13	0.20	1.75	.082
Transactional leadership	0.09	0.16	0.08	0.55	.585
Laissez-faire leadership	-0.04	0.11	-0.05	-0.35	.731

Note. $F(3, 124) = 2.53, p = .060, R^2 = .058$.

Leadership Styles on Intrinsic Motivation (International Teachers)

Normality assumption. I used a P-P scatterplot to test the normality assumption (see Figure 5). The assumption of normality was met because the points closely followed the normality trend line (Howell, 2010).

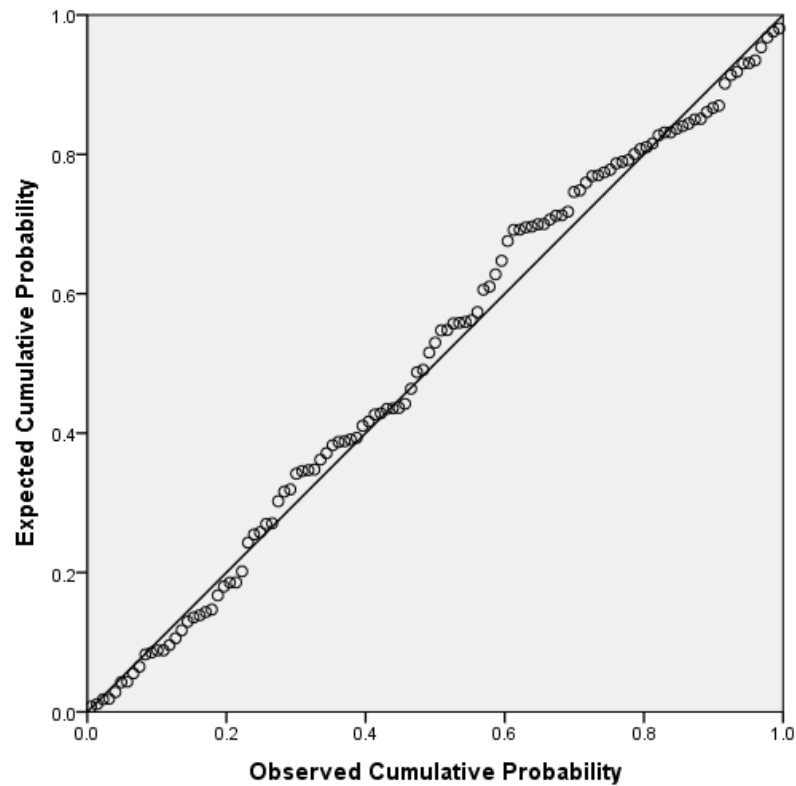


Figure 5. Normal P-P scatterplot to assess normality for levels of leadership predicting intrinsic motivation (international teachers).

Homoscedasticity. I used a residuals scatterplot to test the homoscedasticity assumption (see Figure 6). The assumption was met because the points resembled a rectangular distribution and no clear pattern existed in the data (Stevens, 2009).

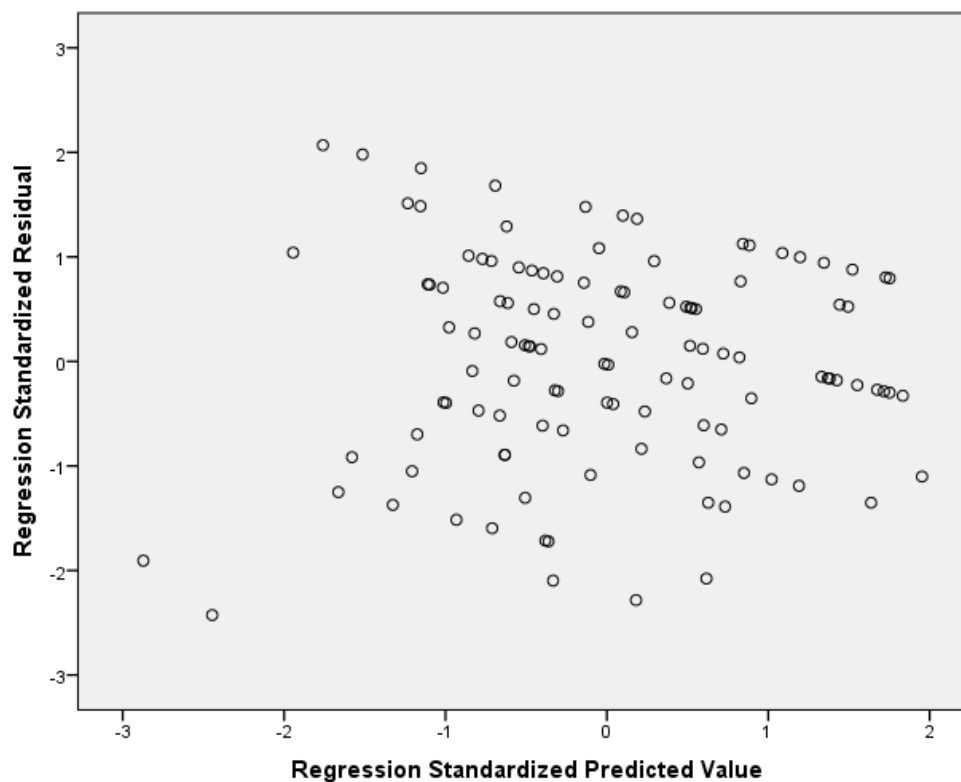


Figure 6. Residuals scatterplot for homoscedasticity for levels of leadership styles predicting intrinsic motivation (international teachers).

Absence of multicollinearity assumption. The absence of multicollinearity assumption verifies that no close association exists between the predictor values. The assumption was tested by examination of VIFs. The assumption was met because all the VIF values were less than 10 (Stevens, 2009).

Results of multiple linear regression. The results of the multiple linear regression were significant, $F(3, 111) = 4.99$, $p = .003$, $R^2 = .119$, suggesting that transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership accounted for approximately 11.9% of the variance in intrinsic motivation among international teachers. In comparison to the first nonsignificant regression model,

transformational leadership had a stronger relationship with intrinsic motivation among international teachers when compared with domestic teachers. Transformational leadership ($t = 3.42, p = .001$) was a significant predictor of intrinsic motivation, suggesting that a one unit increase in transformational leadership scores corresponded to a 0.46 unit increase in intrinsic motivation among international teachers. Transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership were not significant predictors in the model. Table 6 presents the results of the multiple linear regression.

Table 6

Multiple Linear Regression with Subscales of Leadership Predicting Intrinsic Motivation (International Teachers)

Source	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
Transformational leadership	0.46	0.13	.46	3.42	.001
Transactional leadership	-0.18	0.18	-.11	1.00	.319
Laissez-faire leadership	0.15	0.12	.15	1.27	.208

Note. $F(3, 111) = 4.99, p = .003, R^2 = .119$.

Leadership Styles on Extrinsic Motivation (Domestic Teachers)

Normality assumption. I used a P-P scatterplot to test the normality assumption (see Figure 7). The assumption of normality was met because the points closely followed the normality trend line (Howell, 2010).

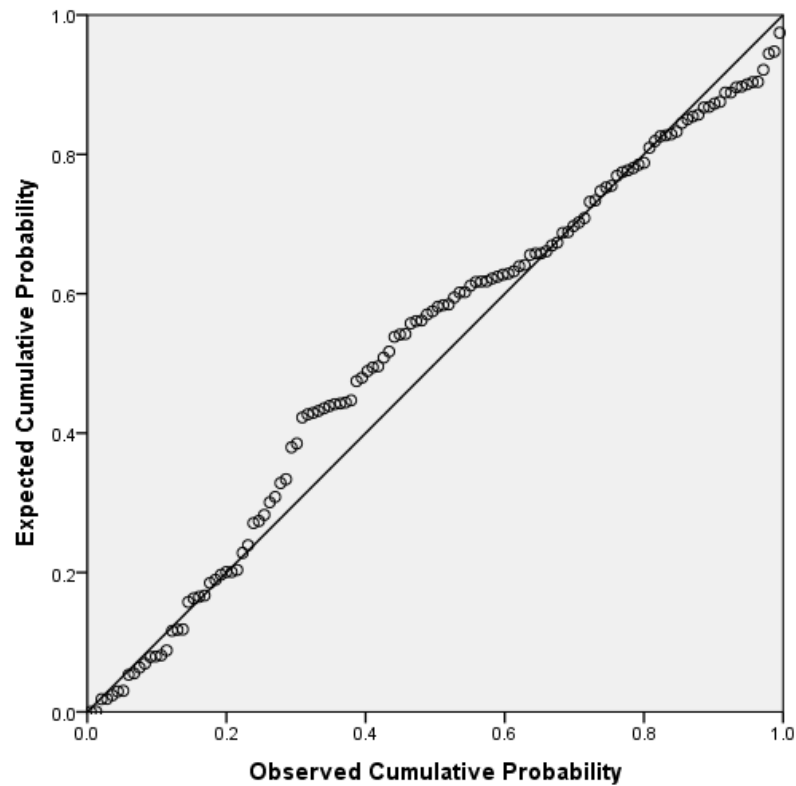


Figure 7. Normal P-P scatterplot to assess normality for levels of leadership predicting extrinsic motivation (domestic teachers).

Homoscedasticity. I used a residuals scatterplot to test the homoscedasticity assumption (see Figure 8). The assumption was met because the points resembled a rectangular distribution and no clear pattern existed in the data (Stevens, 2009).

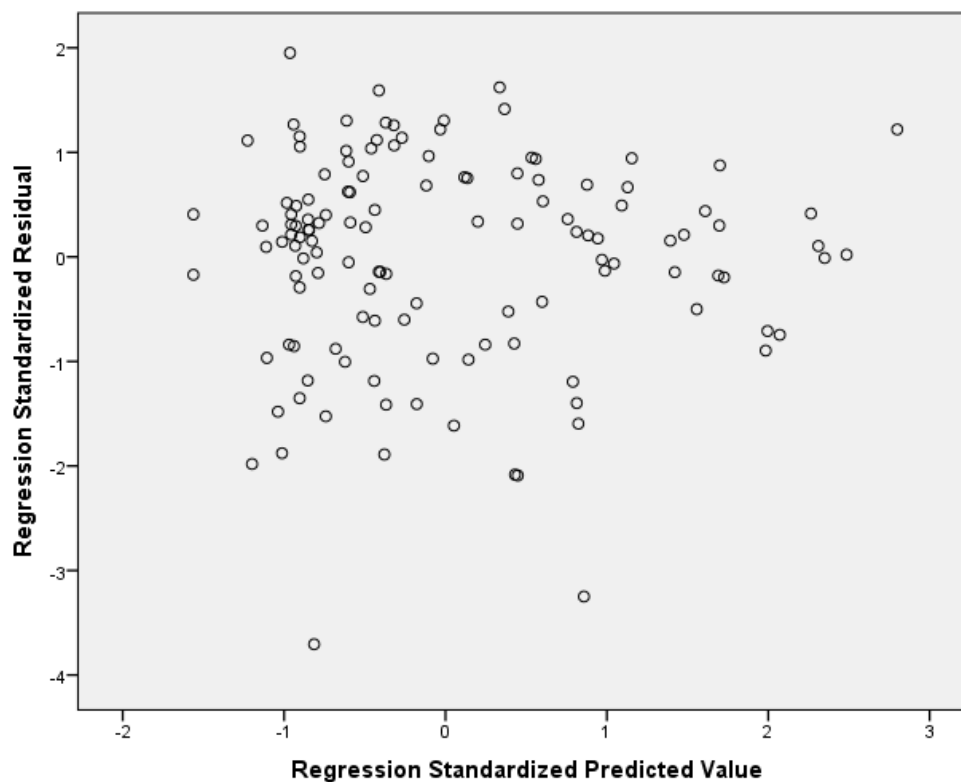


Figure 8. Residuals scatterplot for homoscedasticity for levels of leadership styles predicting extrinsic motivation (domestic teachers).

Absence of multicollinearity assumption. The absence of multicollinearity assumption verifies that no close association exists between the predictor values. The assumption was tested by examination of VIFs. The assumption was met because all the VIF values were less than 10 (Stevens, 2009).

Results of multiple linear regression. The results of the multiple linear regression were significant, $F(3, 124) = 9.59, p < .001, R^2 = .188$, suggesting that transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership accounted for approximately 18.8% of the variance in extrinsic motivation among domestic teachers. In comparison to the first nonsignificant regression model, laissez-

faire had a stronger relationship with extrinsic motivation when compared to intrinsic motivation among domestic teachers. Laissez-faire leadership ($t = 4.13, p < .001$) was a significant predictor of extrinsic motivation, suggesting that a one unit increase in laissez-faire leadership scores corresponded to a 0.36 unit increase in extrinsic motivation among domestic teachers. Transformational leadership and transactional leadership were not significant predictors in the model. Table 7 presents the results of the multiple linear regression.

Table 7

Multiple Linear Regression with Subscales of Leadership Predicting Extrinsic Motivation (Domestic Teachers)

Source	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
Transformational leadership	0.17	0.10	.17	1.66	.099
Transactional leadership	-0.14	0.13	-.16	-1.11	.270
Laissez-faire leadership	0.36	0.09	.54	4.13	< .001

Note. $F(3, 124) = 9.59, p < .001, R^2 = .188$.

Leadership Styles on Extrinsic Motivation (International Teachers)

Normality assumption. I used a P-P scatterplot to test the normality assumption (see Figure 9). The assumption of normality was met because the points closely followed the normality trend line (Howell, 2010).

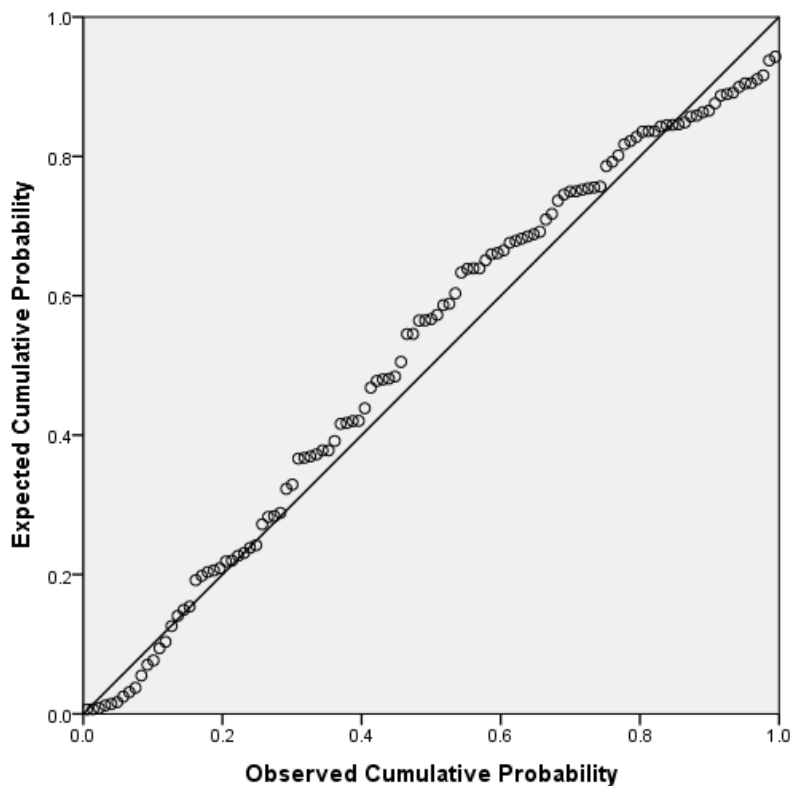


Figure 9. Normal P-P scatterplot to assess normality for levels of leadership predicting extrinsic motivation (international teachers).

Homoscedasticity. I used residuals scatterplot to test the homoscedasticity assumption (see Figure 10). The assumption was met because the points resembled a rectangular distribution and no clear pattern existed in the data (Stevens, 2009).

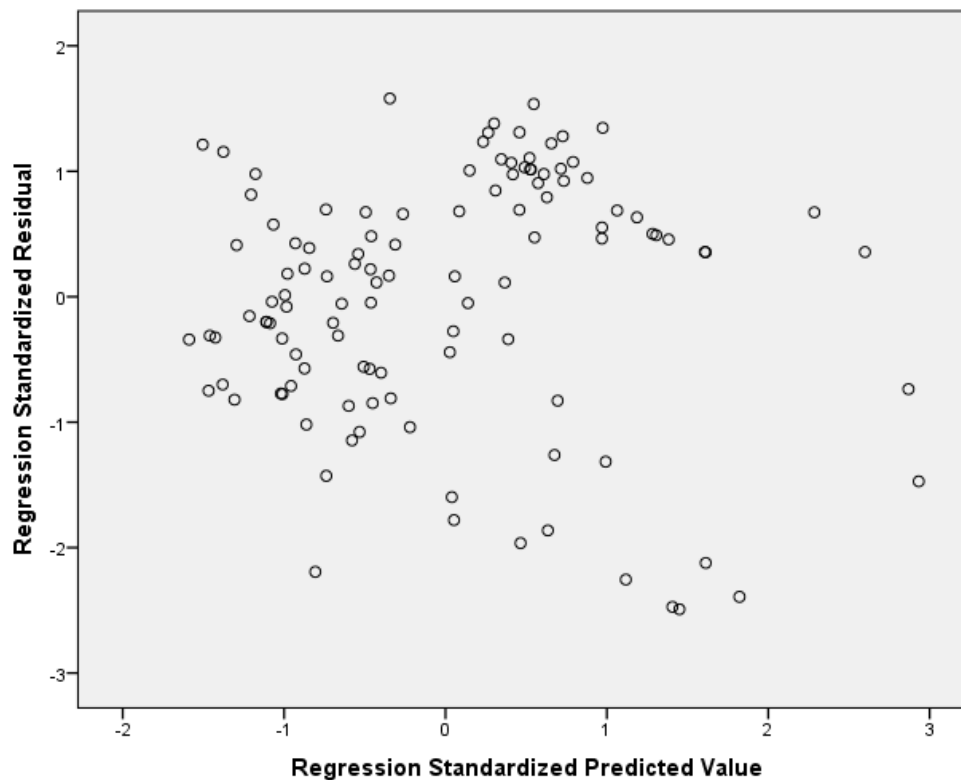


Figure 10. Residuals scatterplot for homoscedasticity for levels of leadership styles predicting extrinsic motivation (international teachers).

Absence of multicollinearity assumption. The absence of multicollinearity assumption verifies that no close association exists between the predictor values. The assumption was tested by examination of VIFs. The assumption was met because all the VIF values were less than 10 (Stevens, 2009).

Results of multiple linear regression. The results of the multiple linear regression were significant, $F(3, 111) = 7.55, p < .001, R^2 = .169$, suggesting that the transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership accounted for approximately 16.9% of the variance in extrinsic motivation among international teachers. In comparison to the first nonsignificant regression model,

laissez-faire had a stronger relationship with extrinsic motivation when compared to intrinsic motivation among international teachers. Laissez-faire leadership ($t = 3.97, p < .001$) was a significant predictor of extrinsic motivation, suggesting that a one unit increase in laissez-faire leadership scores corresponded to a 0.40 unit increase in extrinsic motivation among international teachers. Transformational leadership and transactional leadership were not significant predictors in the model.

Because three of the four regression models indicated significance, the null hypothesis (H_01) for Research Question 1 was rejected. Sufficient evidence showed that leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally. Table 8 presents the results of the multiple linear regression.

Table 8

Multiple Linear Regression with Subscales of Leadership Predicting Extrinsic Motivation (International Teachers)

Source	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>
Transformational leadership	0.09	0.11	.11	0.82	.412
Transactional leadership	-0.01	0.15	-.01	-0.08	.938
Laissez-faire leadership	0.40	0.10	.46	3.97	< .001

Note. $F(3, 111) = 7.55, p < .001, R^2 = .169$.

RQ2: Are there statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and

extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and WEIMS, between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally?

H₀2: There are no statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and WEIMS, between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally.

H_a2: There are statistically significant differences in leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic), as measured by the MLQ and WEIMS, between American teachers teaching in the United States and internationally.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance

To address Research Question 2, I used a MANOVA to determine if significant differences existed in transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation between domestic and international teachers. A MANOVA is an appropriate statistical tool when determining if simultaneous mean differences exist on multiple continuous dependent variables between independent grouping variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The dependent variables in the analysis corresponded to transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation. The independent variables in the analysis corresponded to teaching location (domestic vs. international). Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of normality, homogeneity of variance, and homogeneity of covariance.

Normality assumption. To assess for normality, I assessed the KS test on the five dependent variables—transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation. The results of the KS tests indicated significance for all five dependent variables and the assumption was not met (all $p < .001$). However, the ANOVA is a robust analysis for violations of assumptions, and non-normality has little effect on a Type I error (Howell, 2010).

Homogeneity of variance assumption. I assessed the homogeneity of variance assumption with a series of Levene's tests for leadership styles and motivational factors. Results of Levene's test did not indicate significance for intrinsic motivation ($p = .073$) or extrinsic motivation ($p = .076$); thus, the assumption of normality was met for motivational factors. Results for Levene's test did indicate significance for transformational leadership ($p < .001$), transactional leadership ($p < .001$), and laissez-faire leadership ($p = .027$). The assumption of equal variances was not met for leadership styles ($p < .05$). Because of the violation for leadership styles, the significance level for the individual ANOVAs was conducted at $\alpha = .025$ ($.05/2$) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The assumption of equal variances was met for intrinsic motivation ($p = .073$) and extrinsic motivation ($p = .076$).

Homogeneity of covariance assumption. I used Box's M test to assess the homogeneity of covariance assumption. Results of the test were statistically significant at $\alpha = .001$, so the assumption was not met (Pallant, 2010). Because of this assumption not being met, I exercised caution when interpreting the results of the MANOVA.

Results of the MANOVA. The results of the MANOVA did not indicate overall significance differences by teaching location, $F(5, 273) = 1.76, p = .122, \eta^2 = .036$. I further examined the individual ANOVAs for the five dependent variables. Results of the individual ANOVA for extrinsic motivation indicated significant differences by teaching location, $F(1, 241) = 5.73, p = .017, \eta^2 = .023$. No other significant differences were found by examination of the individual ANOVAs. Because the overall model did not indicate significant group differences, the null hypothesis (H_0) for Research Question 2 could not be rejected. Table 9 presents the results of the MANOVA and the individual ANOVAs. Table 10 presents the means and standard deviations for levels of leadership and motivational factors by teaching location.

Table 9

MANOVA for Differences in Leadership Styles and Motivational Factors by Teaching Location

Source	MANOVA <i>F</i> (5, 237)	ANOVA <i>F</i> (1, 241)				
		Transformational leadership	Transactional leadership	Laissez-faire leadership	Intrinsic motivation	Extrinsic motivation
Teaching location	1.76	2.28	0.46	0.08	1.90	5.73*

Note. * $p \leq .050$. ** $p \leq .010$. Otherwise $p > .050$.

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations for Leadership Style and Motivational Factors by Teaching Location

Variable	Domestic teachers		International teachers	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Transformational leadership	3.65	0.77	3.48	0.96
Transactional leadership	3.03	0.84	2.96	0.58
Laissez-faire leadership	2.30	1.13	2.26	0.95
Intrinsic motivation	5.85	0.87	5.69	0.96
Extrinsic motivation	5.23	0.76	4.99	0.82

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether an association existed between leadership styles and motivation of American teachers in the United States and internationally. The chapter first presented demographic data, followed by descriptive statistics of continuous variables.

Results of a multiple linear regression indicated that no collective significant relationship existed between leadership styles and intrinsic motivation among domestic teachers. Results of a multiple linear indicated that a collective significant relationship existed between leadership styles and intrinsic motivation among international teachers. In this model, transformational leadership was a significant predictor of intrinsic motivation among international teachers. Results of a multiple linear regression indicated that a collective significant relationship existed between leadership styles and extrinsic motivation among domestic teachers. In this model, laissez-faire leadership was a significant predictor of extrinsic motivation among domestic teachers. Results of a multiple linear regression indicated that a collective significant relationship existed between leadership styles and extrinsic motivation among international teachers. In this model, laissez-faire leadership was a significant predictor of extrinsic motivation among international teachers. Because three of the four regression models indicated significance, the null hypothesis (H_0) for Research Question 1 was rejected. Sufficient evidence showed that leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) do have a statistically significant impact on the motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) of American teachers in the United States and internationally.

Results of the MANOVA did not indicate collective significance for differences in leadership styles and motivational factors between domestic and international teachers. Examination of the individual ANOVAs determined that significant mean differences existed in extrinsic motivation between domestic and international teachers. Because the overall model did not indicate significant group differences, the null hypothesis (H_0) for Research Question 2 could not be rejected.

The next chapter details these findings further and presents connections back to existing literature. I also link the statistical findings to the theoretical framework selected for the study. The chapter provides suggestions for future research.

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative causal comparative study was to examine U.S. and international teachers' preferred leadership styles regarding school administrators. Researchers have studied leadership qualities and how they affect teacher motivation in American teachers and in teachers in other countries (Elzahiri, 2010; Roth, 2014; Slater, 2011). However, whether American teachers teaching nationally or internationally differ in terms of preferred motivational leadership styles has not been studied, based on my review of the literature. Leadership styles in schools affect student outcomes and enhance the learning process. In this study, I identified, analyzed, and related the results to how different leadership styles can affect the motivation level among teachers.

In this study, I outlined the leadership styles that demonstrated maximum effect in a different context. In addition, through the results of the study, I attempted to ascertain the variables that reward teachers in the classroom. Such an approach is intended to ensure that teachers continuously engage in professional teaching practices that are effective. I also intended for this approach to ensure institutions of learning engagement and retention of effective teachers (Ingvarson, 2009). The goal of this study was to identify differences between the leadership approaches used by American teachers in the United States and internationally. The inclusion of the international context in this study was crucial because I wanted to validate the effectiveness of a given leadership style in different school environments other than those in the United States. Moreover, the inclusion also ensured that the results from the study are applicable not only in the United States but also to other countries in the world.

The study involved a quantitative correlational approach to compare preferred leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) for school administrators of American and international teachers. Inferential analyses helped to ascertain any statistically significant relationships between the leadership styles. The survey method allowed for the collection and analysis of research data from the population. Through use of a multiple linear regressions and a MANOVA, I was able to answer the research questions. The use of the MLQ and the WEIMS instrument allowed me to collect demographics, teaching experience, leadership style preferences, and motivational factors from the participants. The main statistical tool to analyze responses was SPSS. The quantitative paradigm of the study involved the positivist approach that leadership and motivational theories interrelate. The results from the study provided information regarding the relationship between leadership styles and motivation.

I used a power analysis via a MANOVA to determine the minimum sample size requirement. G*Power 3.1.7 calculated an appropriate sample size to assure empirical validity. Based on the power analysis calculations, a sample of at least 212 participants were deemed sufficient for the study (Faul et al., 2014). This sample size guided the researcher to collect the diverse data and increased the reliability of the results (Bartlett et al., 2001).

Interpretation of the Findings

The results indicate that a lack of a collective significant relationship existed between leadership styles and intrinsic motivation among domestic teachers. This lack means that self-motivation for teaching among domestic teachers does not change based on the type of

leadership style. This self-motivation is true considering that intrinsic motivation comes from within an individual and is not enforced by external factors (Anderson et al., 2016).

Alternatively, multiple linear regression results indicate that a collective significant relationship existed between leadership styles and intrinsic motivation among international teachers, and I observed that transformational leadership was a significant predictor of intrinsic motivation among international teachers. According to Currie and Lockett (2007), a transformational leader helps transform situations and employees, which explains why the research findings showed that U.S. teachers who teach internationally prefer transformational leadership when it comes to being motivated intrinsically. Therefore, those teachers prefer a leader who will help resolve a situation, but also help transform them into better employees in the process. Additionally, according to Bass (2000), the transformational leadership style enhances the effectiveness of leadership beyond the levels achieved with transactional leadership.

By interpreting the findings, I found that working in a different country that is away from home or in a different geographical location can deplete or increase the self-motivation of a teacher in relation to leadership style prevalent in the institution of learning in the foreign country. Based on this postulation, transformational leadership was observed to increase the intrinsic motivation of teachers working abroad. Therefore, such teachers' self-motivation is boosted when they work with leaders who are also working towards a transformational course or goals.

Teachers and professors prefer working abroad for various reasons. Sorrenti (2015) described seven reasons that motivate teachers to relocate to other countries. First, earning

money is the primary objective of the teachers who relocate to other countries. According to Sorrenti (2015), other countries pay high salaries for the services of the external teachers. Therefore, these professionals find it favorable to work abroad where they do not only earn “fast money” but they also attain social recognition and respect from their leader (Sorrenti, 2015). Second, exploring and learning new skills is another motivator to relocate to outside countries. People find it easier to learn new skills in outside countries than they do in their home countries (Sorrenti, 2015). A transformational leader allows the professional to learn new skills; therefore, the teachers have coinciding interests with the leaders.

Ewert and Kominski (2014) explained that a section of the U.S. society is languishing in poverty because of lacking professional teachers to motivate the students to pursue successful careers. The two scholars explained that a quarter of the U.S. adult population lacks proper education (Ewert & Kominski, 2014). The demotivation is directly linked to a poor leadership style that is authoritative and does not allow renovations and change in the teaching industry. Therefore, to achieve higher motivation, leaders play a critical role in motivating teachers to work with U.S. students. Leaders must make the professionals understand the importance of working with their students to create a unifying bond between the students and teachers (Constanzo & Koppenfels, 2013).

According to Anderson et al. (2016), laissez-faire leadership style is a style that allows individuals to perform their duties according to their best method and accomplish the job without motivation. The laissez-faire style develops from minimal managerial interference in workers duties. Minimal supervision creates trust and confidence in employees, leading to better performance and quality results (Anderson et al., 2016). In both domestic and international

contexts, a collective significant relationship exists between laissez-faire leadership and extrinsic motivation among the teachers.

Laissez-faire theory contradicts with the initial leadership style, which implies that the transformational and transactional leadership styles affect motivation the most (Bal, Campbell, Steed, & Meddings, 2012). According to Bal, Campbell, Steed, and Meddings (2012), the exercise of power and control of employees aids in the attainment of better motivation in employees. However, according to current research, the laissez-faire leadership style involves more motivational factors than the typical transactional and transformational leadership style. This leadership style means that letting teachers take their own course in instructing learners, free from school management intervention, is a source of external motivation. In addition, U.S. teachers working locally and internationally prefer leadership styles that do not prescribe rules from above, but rather include them in making major decisions pertaining to delivery of instructions to the learners (Constanzo & Koppenfels, 2013).

Limitations of the Study

One of the research limitations was although the sample size requirement was met as calculated by G*Power 3.1.7, a larger sample size would have allowed for more accurate extrapolation of the findings to the greater population. To assess the credibility of the research, I conducted the present study by using a sample of 243 participants, who were U.S. teachers working domestically and internationally, compared to roughly a hundred thousand of them who did not participate in the survey. Considering that I calculated some inferential statistics, which were meant to generalize sample findings to the entire population of U.S. teachers, it is possible that errors occurred in the interpretation of findings, meaning that the validity and reliability of

the research inferences could have been affected in the process. Thus, the use of a small sample relative to the entire population in which the research problem was applicable served as one of the major limitations in this study.

In addition, there are several unaccounted confounding variables that may alter the strength of relationships between the variables of interest (Howell, 2013). Variables such as schools taught, gender, and length of teaching were considered, but were ultimately not selected to focus the research on domestic and international teachers. It was not possible to control for the potential effect of all these covariates; therefore, this limitation is acknowledged in the interpretation of the statistical findings.

In the literature, Gibbs et al. (2008) suggested that leadership in the classroom is contextual and varies with culture, geographical location, and subject, among other factors. However, in the present study I only surveyed U.S. teachers working domestically and internationally as the context for the research. Therefore, the study was only based on geographical location because working internationally does not necessarily mean that the culture of a teacher changes, though in some cases it does imply so. Because of this, some elements of confusion occurred in the research, which serves as a limitation of the study, based on the understanding that a teacher working internationally was considered as a cultural context, though this may not necessarily have been the case. Instead, a more explicit cultural context could have been attained by inclusion of European, East Asian, and African born teachers in the sample.

Recommendations

Typically, good leadership entails delegating the management duties to other people. Thus, to achieve success in the management of teachers' motivation based on leadership styles,

managers need to adopt a leadership style that is both dynamic and reliable. After a careful analysis of the current research, the results indicated that a good leadership style should have a clear vision of the objectives (Buj, 2012). The objectives should be properly explained, and the stating of the objective should contain a clause to allow the teachers to select their best operational options. Furthermore, the styles should allow the teachers to fully apply their strengths by allowing them to use their talents and skills in performing their tasks. Although the laissez-faire leadership style conflicts with the typical power rule leadership style, both styles should be used together to achieve the best teacher performance (Buj, 2012). Schools leaders should achieve this process by balancing the freedom and management of the teachers' motivations (Northhouse, 2010). While maintaining a free will to solve the tasks, the teachers should operate within a particular jurisdiction.

Furthermore, good leadership styles begin with the manager's initiative to implement a viable management process. According to Northhouse (2010), if a company or an organization is to achieve success, it must allow its employees to operate within their free will. Therefore, it is imperative for the teachers' leaders in the U.S to allow the teachers to act of their free will. As much as some researchers would like to argue that the migration of teachers to other countries is because of personal reasons, the leadership styles play a significant role in the matter (Northhouse, 2010). The United States must focus on the positivity and the dynamics of the current society to aid in planning for the future leadership styles of the teaching industry.

Additionally, to improve the research project, future researchers should conduct an extensive analysis of the leadership styles to provide the participants with more knowledge pertaining to the topic. As Kasten (2015) explained, providing sufficient material in a research

study does not only aid in enhancing the quality and quantity of the corrected data, but it also provides a clear outline of the report which creates a better understanding of the paper's objective. Thus, future researchers should propose to provide sufficient information regarding the leadership styles and theories. Kasten proceeded to explain that the time allocated to conduct a particular study is essential in determining the credibility of the research.

Moreover, the qualitative method may help in attaining a subtle result. According to Woods (2011), examining the subject of study by use of the qualitative methods assists the researcher in assessing the future of the society by determining the quality of the current study and the preferences of the leadership styles. For instance, the quality of teachers in this research should be examined to determine the future of U.S society regarding the education level and motivation of teachers. The qualitative method will allow deeper analysis of the importance and quality of the U.S. leadership style to both teachers and students. Furthermore, by use of the qualitative method, researchers could determine the current quality of education provided to the students (Woods, 2011).

Additionally, increasing the research in the future is another crucial recommendation. A researcher obtains better results when allocating sufficient time to conduct the research. More time enables the researcher to gather enough data and eliminate the irrelevant material from the data. Therefore, one can obtain the quality and type of leadership styles with minimal interference (Parry & Leviton, 2010). Furthermore, the analysis performed on the corrected data will be more accurate than the present because of the elimination of the irrelevant material.

Implications

This study contributes to the research literature through expanding upon school administration leadership types that are positively received by teachers. Furthermore, the study expands on previous research pertaining to teacher motivation regarding leadership and leadership effectiveness. Finally, I examined teachers from differing cultural backgrounds and performed an analysis of the relationship between teachers in the United States and internationally. The information gained from this study may benefit educators and administrators in ascertaining the effectiveness of approaches to leadership, which may help teachers from different cultural settings to better understand leadership expectations. The findings of this study can be used to enhance learning that is responsive to societal and cultural differences. The benefits of discovering leadership styles that American and international teachers prefer may provide invaluable knowledge to administrators and American teachers in the United States. This information may also provide the administrators and teachers with better ways to motivate students from different cultures coming to the United States for education.

Based on the findings of this study, different types of leadership styles effect teachers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivations differently and have practical implications for school administrators and managers. The leaders need to be cognizant of the nationality of the teachers in their institutions as cultural backgrounds influence their compatibility with different types of leadership styles. According to Ingvarson (2009), employee commitment fosters the success of any organization. As such, if employees are not committed because of a lack of leadership styles that motivate them both intrinsically and extrinsically, they are likely to be less productive, and may fail to realize desirable academic goals in delivery of instructions to the learners.

Based on research findings, it emerged that U.S. teachers working both locally and internationally are motivated by the laissez-faire leadership style. The practical implication of this inference is that school administrators should not control the teachers, but should rather empower them to make the right decisions independently, as long as the decisions are inclined towards the academic goals of the learning institution. Since controlling is a management function, it means that teachers' preference of the laissez-faire leadership is an indication that good leadership in learning institutions goes beyond management, just as postulated by Kolak (2010). The same implication is drawn from the reported observation that transactional leadership is a motivator to U.S. teachers working overseas, which implies that good leadership should also incline towards transforming the teachers into better employees in the process, and not simply managing them to attain institutional goals and objectives.

Conclusion

The current research focused on the leadership styles in the United States that motivate the teachers to deliver quality results. Quality leadership styles should emphasize developing and implementing the laissez-faire leadership style that allows teachers to have a free choice in performing their duties. The laissez-faire style is a perfect example of how the current leadership should operate (Anderson et al., 2016). However, while implementing the laissez-faire leadership style, it is important to balance the freedom of the teachers and obedience of the national laws. The compliance with the law is not an act of authority and control of the teachers but rather it is a portrayal of good management and coordination of the employees. Therefore, based on the present argument, the research gained a better understanding of the current society and the leadership styles.

I also examined the motivation of American teachers teaching internationally. Typically, many motivators exist to immigration from the United States, which aids in the teachers' relocation to other countries (Constanzo & Koppenfels, 2013). While most of the motivators are intrinsic or personal reasons, some of the motivational factors are external and are caused by the country's leadership styles that do not allow sufficient freedom to the teachers. Thus, the teachers migrate to other countries in search of better teaching conditions (Bal et al., 2012). Furthermore, I identified that internal teachers who are negatively motivated affect the education of U.S. students. Usually, the students are demotivated to attend classes if the teachers are not motivated to teach. I identified that the authoritative leadership style played a significant role in the students' demotivation. Thus, changing the leadership style is a fundamental recommendation from this research.

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Appendix A: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form-5x)

Leadership Style	Question Numbers
Transformational leadership style	
Idealized influence (attributed)	Q10, Q18, Q21, Q25
Idealized influence (behavior)	Q6, Q14, Q23, Q34
Inspirational motivation	Q9, Q13, Q26, Q36
Intellectual stimulation	Q2, Q8, Q30, Q32
Individual consideration	Q15, Q19, Q29, Q31
Transactional leadership style	
Contingent reward	Q1, Q11, Q16, Q35
Management by exception (active)	Q4, Q22, Q24, Q27
Laissez-faire leadership style	
Laissez-faire leadership	Q5, Q7, Q28, Q33
Management by exception (passive)	Q3, Q12, Q17, Q20

Note. Not at all = 1, Once in a while = 2, Sometimes = 3, Fairly often = 4, Frequently if not always = 5.

Appendix B: Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale

Using the scale below, please indicate to what extent each of the following items corresponds to the reasons why you are presently involved in your work. The Likert-scaled response ranges from:

1 = Does not correspond at all, 4 = Corresponds moderately, 7 = Corresponds exactly

- 1) Because this is the type of work I chose to do to attain a certain lifestyle.
- 2) For the income it provides me.
- 3) I ask myself this question, I don't seem to be able to manage the important tasks related to this work.
- 4) Because I derive much pleasure from learning new things.
- 5) Because it has become a fundamental part of who I am.
- 6) Because I want to succeed at this job, if not I would be very ashamed of myself.
- 7) Because I chose this type of work to attain my career goals.
- 8) For the satisfaction I experience from taking on interesting challenges.
- 9) Because it allows me to earn money.
- 10) Because it is part of the way in which I have chosen to live my life.
- 11) Because I want to be very good at this work, otherwise I would be very disappointed.
- 12) I don't know why, we are provided with unrealistic working conditions.
- 13) Because I want to be a "winner" in life.
- 14) Because it is the type of work I have chosen to attain certain important objectives.
- 15) For the satisfaction I experience when I am successful at doing difficult tasks.
- 16) Because this type of work provides me with security.
- 17) I don't know, too much is expected of us.
- 18) Because this job is a part of my life.

Appendix C: Demographic Questions

1. What is your age?

- A. 18–23
- B. 24–29
- C. 30–35
- D. 36–41
- E. 42 or more

2. What is your gender?

- A. Male
- B. Female

3. What is your ethnicity?

- A. Caucasian
- B. African American
- C. Latino/Hispanic
- D. Asian
- E. Other

4. What is your highest level of education?

- A. Associate
- B. Bachelor
- C. Masters
- D. Ph.D.

5. What state(s) have you taught in?

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6. What country(ies) have you taught in?

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7. How many years have you been teaching?

- A. 0–3
- B. 4–6
- C. 7–9
- D. 10–15

8. What school do you teach at or taught in the past? (Optional)

Appendix D: School Administrator Contact Flyer

Dear Mr./Ms.,

My name is Katrina Franklin and I am a student at Walden University. Presently, I am working toward a Ph.D. degree in the Department of Psychology. Over the past 3 years, I have been conducting research for my dissertation. The purpose of this letter is twofold: (1) explain concisely what the teachers from your school will be participating in for my study, and (2) to ask that this flyer be placed on your school bulletin boards and be e-mailed to the teachers.

The purpose of my research study is to explore if there is a relationship between leadership styles and the motivation of American teachers in the United States and internationally. Gaining more knowledge about how leadership styles motivate teachers could help principals better understand how to motivate their teachers to produce the ultimate performance from the students in their classroom. In addition, the results from this study could help teachers communicate more effectively to get desired outcomes from their students.

In this study, there are no physical or psychological risks associated with completing the survey. The questionnaire will take no more than 45 minutes to complete. The participants will not receive any type of incentive for participating in the study. Their participation in the study is strictly voluntary. The participants may decide not to participate in the study at any time and for any reason. Participants' identities will not be identified or reported. The findings from this study will not refer to any participants and all results will be based on group data. All aspects of this study will be approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Walden University.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at [redacted] or e-mail me at [redacted]. Your consideration and cooperation in this matter would be greatly appreciated.

Best regards,

Katrina Franklin

Appendix E: Authorization to Use Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

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Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire™ Instrument (Leader and Rater Form)

and Scoring Guide (Form 5X-Short) by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass

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Appendix F: Authorization to Use Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale

To
[redacted]
Today at 7:24 PM

----- Forwarded message -----

From: <[\[redacted\]](#)>
Date: Wed, Jul 8, 2015 at 7:56 AM
Subject: Re: Fwd: Use of the WEIMS for dissertation purposes
To: <[redacted] >

Hello, you can certainly use the WEIMS for research purposes as part of your studies. Simply properly reference it and keep me informed of the obtained results. Thanks for your interest in our work.

Best regards,
[redacted]

> Hello,

>

> The other e-mail would not work.

>

> ----- Forwarded message -----

> From: <[redacted] >
> Date: Fri, Jul 3, 2015 at 12:04 AM
> Subject: Use of the WEIMS for dissertation purposes
> To: [redacted]

>

>

> Hello Ms. [Redacted],

>

> I am a Ph.D. student in Organizational Psychology at Walden University.
> I'm doing my dissertation on Leadership Styles and Motivation: A
> comparison of United States teachers in the U.S. and Internationally.
> Thank you for creating an invaluable instrument to assess motivation

Appendix G: National Institutes of Health Certificate

