

**ACADEMIC ADVISORS DISPLAYING TRANSFORMATIONAL
LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS PERCEIVED EFFECTS ON STUDENT
MOTIVATION**

by

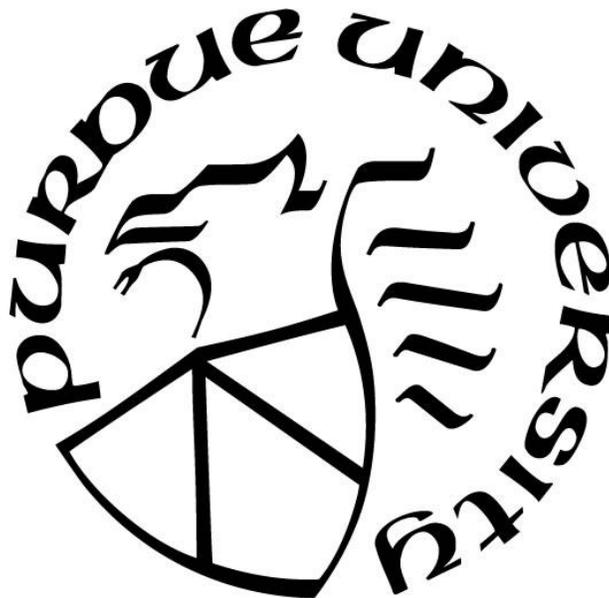
Christopher L Pine

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THE PURDUE UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL
STATEMENT OF COMMITTEE APPROVAL

Dr. Marcia Dixon, Chair

Department of Communication

Dr. Gordon Schmidt

Department of Organizational Leadership

Dr. Paresh Mishra

Department of Organizational Leadership

Approved by:

Dr. Steven Carr

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ABSTRACT

Academic Advising is shown to have the ability to greatly impact student success, however, motivation in the academic advising context is largely ignored in research and modern advising philosophies. This study examined the relationship and impact of transformational leadership behaviors on student motivation in the academic advising setting. Results show a statistically significant positive correlation between transformational leadership components (e.g., idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation) and motivation. Utilizing stepwise linear regression analysis, inspirational motivation was indicated as a significant predictor of student motivation.

The findings of this study add to the literature suggesting the beneficial impact of transformational leadership. By applying transformational leadership behaviors, primarily idealized influence, in academic advising sessions, academic advisors can better assist student success. Limitations of the current study, and implications for future studies are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Academic advising plays a key role in student success, which inevitably affects the success or failure of Higher Education institutions. With overall graduation rates at 60% (U.S Department of Education, 2019), it is imperative to examine institutional best practices in an attempt to increase student success rates. Academic Advising, commonly referred to as one of the best strategies for increasing student retention (Habley, 1981), shows great potential to effectively increase student success.

Academic advisors play many roles in the success or failure of students, though motivator is often not listed as one of these roles. As student motivation plays a large role in the success or failure of students, academic advisors should strive to enact motivating behaviors in their advising meetings. Transformational leadership strives to increase motivation in both the follower and the leader, increasing the likelihood of positive benefits resulting from its use by academic advisors. By utilizing transformational leadership behaviors, academic advisors can help build on the motivational level of students, and effectively increase the levels of student success across higher education institutions.

By exploring the effects transformational leadership behaviors may have on student motivation, academic advisors can better tailor their advising style to ensure higher levels of student retention and graduation. To better understand the need to incorporate motivation into academic advising, it is imperative to examine the literature on advising, student motivation, and transformational leadership.

Importance of Academic Advising

According to White (2015), the primary function of academic advising is to assist the student in achieving a high level of confidence in their educational abilities, while also enabling them to utilize these abilities. The definition of academic advising has greatly evolved over time, and can be different for each academic advisor or article published (see NACADA, 2003). One prominent definition used in literature, along with the definition adopted for this paper, was introduced by Kuhn (2008) stating academic advising consists of a member or representative of the institution giving guidance to a college student about academic, social, or personal matters. The premise of this guidance may be to “inform, suggest, counsel, discipline, coach, mentor, or even teach” (Kuhn, 2008, p.3). Drake (2011) also states academic advising combines educational abilities with abilities required outside of education to enhance and extend the value and duration of the learning process beyond college years. Through these interactions with students, both professional advisors and faculty acting in an advising capacity can impact students like no other representative of the institution can, being the only structured activity in which students can meet one-on-one with a member of the institution (Drake, 2011; Nutt, 2003).

Due to this unique ability to impact students, ample research has concluded the positive benefits academic advising can have for students (Barbuto et al., 2011; Cuseo, 2002; Drake, 2011; Light, 2001). The level of effectiveness of academic advising is shown to positively impact graduation rates and retention (Cuseo, 2002; Habley & McClanahan, 2004; Levitz, 2017; Nutt, 2003) two primary components in the success or failure of a higher education institution. Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) found that faculty and staff interactions, including academic advisors, with students outside the classroom contribute to student outcomes, including persistence and educational attainment, as well as cognitive and social development, regardless of student demographics or institutional size. The many benefits and impacts academic advising

can have on students led Light (2001) to conclude that the positive effect of academic advising is likely more underestimated than any other characteristic of a student's successful college experience.

Prescriptive and Developmental Advising

Prescriptive advising. Literature regarding academic advising focuses primarily on two styles: prescriptive and developmental. Prescriptive advising, as the least complex and most time-efficient style of academic advising, is also likely the most commonly used (Barbuto et al., 2011). Describing prescriptive advising, Crookston (1972/1994/2009) compared the student to a patient and the advisor to a doctor with the authoritative power of determining the student's issues and prescribing the remedy. Similarly, He and Hutson (2016) discuss advisors in prescriptive advising as the experts in which communication with the student is often one-way; the student comes to the advisor in need of information often regarding institutional policies or regulations, in which the advisor offers with little to no need for decision making by the student. This one-way communication most often occurs when a student is asking about which specific classes are required to complete their degree or the ramifications of dropping one or more classes. Degree requirements and institutional policy leave little to no flexibility, only the advisor clarifying the policy to the student. With the introduction of general education courses, in which the student has a choice between a group of courses, the advisor has the choice to simply suggest a course best suited to the specific degree, or work with the student to determine the best option, moving beyond prescriptive advising and into the realm of developmental advising.

Developmental advising. With two separate publications in 1972, academic advising was revolutionized from the predominantly prescriptive nature to a student-centered, holistic approach. O'Banion (1972/1994/2009) proposed a notion of academic advising as more than

simply offering course scheduling and institutional policy knowledge. By focusing on helping the students answer the question of “How do I want to live my life?” O’Banion (2009, p.83) stated academic advisors would help students achieve their maximum potential. This question would be answered through a specific academic advising process postulated by O’Banion. This 5-step process included exploring the life goals and vocational goals of the student, choosing a program or major, choosing courses to fit the major and the student, and to enroll students in these courses through scheduling (O’Banion, 2009). This 5-step process went well beyond the traditional style of academic advising, greatly expanding the definition of what academic advising is and entails.

As opposed to meeting with a student who has already chosen a degree, and expressing the requirements of the degree, O’Banion (1972/1994/2009) suggested discussing the life goals and aspirations of the student to determine the appropriate major. This approach may result in a very brief conversation between the advisor and student that has a profound impact on the success of the student. For example, a student with an aversion to marketing and accounting who is pursuing a business degree may drop out, whereas a brief discussion with a professional or faculty advisor may result in steering the student to a degree more directly related to the aspirations of the student.

In a separate publication, basing his article on student development theory, Crookston (1972/1994/2009) proposed not only the concept of academic advising as teaching, but also that academic advising should view the student more holistically. Taking Chickering’s seven vectors of student development and Perry’s model of intellectual and ethical development into consideration (He & Hutson, 2016), Crookston (2009) proposed advising be a shared responsibility between advisor and advisee, and to include enhancing student’s abilities far

beyond simply learning degree requirements or even course material for a test. According to He and Hutson (2016), the first operational definition of developmental advising appeared when Winston, Miller, Ender, and Grites (1984) described it as focusing on utilizing all available resources, institutional and community, to assist the student in achieving educational, career, and personal goals while also assisting the student in achieving a high quality of life. Kramer (1999) suggests six steps to advisors to advise developmentally: know/apply student development theory, focus on students and their needs over an extended period of time, challenge students to achieve, help students articulate what is important to them in academic and personal lives, and set short-term and long-term goals.

Chickering's seven vectors of student development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993) was first introduced in 1969. Utilized in developmental advising, Chickering's seven vectors is now a well-known and often utilized theory for student affairs professionals (Walker, 2008). The seven vectors, including developing competence, managing emotions, moving through autonomy toward independence, developing mature interpersonal relationships, establishing identity, developing purpose, and developing identity, describe the developmental tasks of students. Unlike Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory in which an individual must meet the basic need to move into higher needs, students will not necessarily transcend the vectors in hierarchal order. Chickering also postulated that students may work through vectors concurrently, but with a particular vector as the center of focus.

By understanding these vectors, academic advisors are better able to steer the advising meeting with the student in ways more beneficial to the student. Often, simply through casual conversation with the student during advising meetings, the advisor familiar with the seven vectors will be able to discern a general idea of which one or two vectors the student is likely in.

The advisor can then use this knowledge to better aid the student with the questions being asked, along with questions the student doesn't know to ask or is too embarrassed to ask.

The other prominent theory influencing Crookston's developmental theory, Perry's (1970) model of intellectual and ethical development, outlined three stages of development. These three states were then broken down further into nine positions that students transition through sequentially. Students in the first stage, dualism modified, initially see the world and problems as absolutes, right or wrong, black or white, however, begin to see knowledge as contextual and relative in the second stage (Walker, 2008). In the third stage, commitments in relativism developed, students begin to understand different perceptions exist and knowledge is relative to different frames of reference, or lenses.

Since the initial development of developmental advising, multiple other theories have been introduced that have an important role in student development theory (Creamer & Creamer, 1994; Walker, 2008). These theories can be summarized as four schools of theory: psychosocial, cognitive and moral development, typology, and person-environment.

Psychosocial theories examine the content of development, looking at important issues in students' lives such as defining themselves and their relationships (Walker, 2008). These theories may cause an advising session to focus on how the student views themselves and their relationships, common with first-year freshman struggling with prior relationships no longer seen as conducive to success and overcoming the hurdles caused by maturing and growing as an individual. Cognitive and moral development theories examine how students grow cognitively and morally and how their interpretations of the world evolve. Dealing with the way students think, an advisor can utilize knowledge of these theories through assisting the student with discovering new ways of thinking through new information and issues, and assisting in new

methods of problem solving. Typology theories examine how students view and relate to the world. Advisors are urged to take these theories into account to explain differences between students, and approach the advising session based on how the individual student views and relates to the world. For example, a student viewing the asking of help as shameful or embarrassing may need additional focus on the benefits of available resources. Finally, person-environment theories examine the relationship with the student and the environment. Common issues seen by advisors relative to these theories can include institution size, separation from parents, learning to deal with roommates, etc. All of these schools of theory play an important role in making up student development theory (Walker, 2008). By understanding these theories involved in student development theory, the academic advisor can better discern the needs of the student and more effectively address them.

Developmental academic advising, utilizing multiple student development theories, focuses on a well-rounded development of the student, with a focus on student growth related to, and beyond, cognitive factors (He & Hutson, 2016) to go far beyond the scope of prescriptive advising. It allows the student and advisor to work together in a problem-solving role not present in prescriptive advising (Kramer, 1999; Vander Schee, 2007), stimulating student growth and ability vital during the student's academic years and beyond. By working together with the advisor, the student develops self-reliance, allowing the student to better make responsible decisions (Jordan, 2000). The increased level of self-reliance and problem-solving strategies are vital to improving academic performance (Vander Schee, 2007).

While Crookston was highly ambiguous on what advising as teaching meant, his conceptualization of developmental advising continues to dominate the field of advising as the preferred method of advising by faculty and students alike (Hale, Graham, & Johnson, 2009;

Winston & Sandor, 1984). Several additional styles of advising have been formulated in recent years, with many being viewed as a sub-style of developmental advising or meant to be utilized in conjunction with developmental advising.

Additional Styles of Advising

Learning-centered advising. The basis for Crookston (1972/1994/2009) proposing a developmental approach to advising, came largely from his belief that academic advising is a teaching interaction. However, according to Lowenstein (2005), Crookston intentionally avoided the subject of what was meant when stating advising is teaching. Lowenstein (2005) proclaimed the cause of this intentional omission arose from the notion that the current paradigm of developmental advising simply could not be perceived as teaching, marking a distinction between holistic development of developmental advising and a focus on learning processes. Lowenstein (2005) argued that a learning-centered paradigm is more effective in advising than the developmental paradigm seen in developmental advising. By applying the concept Lowenstein (2005) titles *logic of the curriculum*, advisors focus on the student's entire curriculum to help him or her understand the importance of the curriculum, and how each part of the curriculum fits together. A common occurrence of this occurring during advising sessions is when a student asks about being required to take a general education course seemingly unrelated to his or her major. The advisor can also focus on introductory classes that may seem irrelevant to students wanting to get into specific classes as a foundation that is required to fully understand the knowledge to be gained in later classes. The advisor also focuses on improving the learning skills of the student during the advising session. This can be accomplished through the advisor offering some guidance to the student, while allowing the student to think through difficult

situations and make difficult decisions. Through this process, the student learns how to be successful in education and beyond.

Proactive advising. Another prominent style of advising found throughout literature is proactive advising. Proactive advising is aimed less towards introducing the “how” of advising, and more towards the “who” and “when.” Designed to prevent or limit problems that may arise, this style of advising is often used with at-risk students, whom the institution deem are most in need of services to be successful (He & Hutson, 2016). As Molina and Abelman (2000) state, proactive advising is highly personal in nature rather than authoritative, and focuses more on how the information is given to the student rather than what information is given. Proactive advising, often also referred to as intrusive advising, aims at the advisor developing a relationship with at-risk students through frequent communication to prevent potential issues, and offer immediate support for issues that do arise.

With the focus of proactive advising being on pre-emptively addressing potential problems, this style of advising allows a great deal of incorporation of other styles used in conjunction to provide the best service and advisor/advisee relationship with the student. Advisors are easily able to integrate proactive advising into other advising styles such as developmental advising. By engaging in proactive advising, the advisor does not necessarily change the goals or the way the advising session occurs, instead, they simply change the nature of initiating the advising meeting, and perhaps the number of meetings throughout the school year.

Whereas developmental advising may be scheduled to occur once or twice a semester, or simply when the student needs assistance, proactive advising occurs through the advisor initiating the meeting. This will often occur as a result of identifying students as at-risk, based

upon GPA or midterm grades of the current semester. This style of advising aims to focus the advising meeting towards introducing institutional resources such as tutoring to the student, though this is at the discretion of each individual advisor.

Appreciative advising is a style of advising gaining traction in advising literature. This style of advising utilizes aspects of each particular student to boost the chance for success. Appreciative advising consists of six phases enacted by the advisor (Bloom, Hutson, & He, 2008). The first phase, disarm, refers to the advisor presenting themselves and their workspace as welcoming and warm, to allow the student to feel comfortable. The second phase of discover sees the advisor using open-ended questions to attempt to fully understand the perspective of the student. Next, in the dream phase, the advisor asks more open-ended questions guided specifically towards the dreams and goals of the student which are then used in the next phase of design. In this phase, advisors assist the students in designing a plan to accomplish the dreams and goals listed in the phase before. The deliver phase occurs as the student enacts the plan created by themselves and the advisor. Finally, the sixth phase of appreciate advising described by Bloom, Hutson, and He (2008) is the don't settle phase, in which the advisor persuades the student to strive to dream bigger and make new goals.

An academic advisor engaging in appreciative advising can still utilize many aspects of developmental advising. The primary difference in the two styles of advising lies in the initial focus of the advisor, while allowing the two styles to work congruently. Whereas developmental advising focuses on the general holistic development of the student, appreciative advising begins the advising session by focusing on determining the individual uniqueness and goals of the student. Once the advisor has determined the goals of the student, he or she can easily include

aspects of developmental advising to develop competence and confidence in the student towards achieving those goals.

Strengths-based advising, like appreciative advising, utilizes aspects of each individual student to garner student success. Whereas appreciative advising focuses on appreciating the uniqueness of a student, strengths-based advising uses the strengths and natural talents of the students to increase confidence and more easily obtain the needed knowledge and skills to be successful in higher education (Schreiner & Anderson, 2005). This style of advising focuses on the strengths and talents of the student, as opposed to the weaknesses and deficits the other types of advising often focus on.

Just as appreciative advising works well with developmental advising, strengths-based advising does the same. By simply shifting the focus of the meeting towards the natural talents and strengths of the student, the advisor can still demonstrate many aspects of developmental advising. While developmental advising focuses on developing all facets of the student, strengths-based advising can largely do the same, though placing more emphasis on developing and acknowledging the strengths of the student. It is at the discretion of the advisor as to how much time and effort in the advising meeting is dedicated towards developing the strengths, as opposed to taking a more well-rounded holistic approach typical to developmental advising.

Table 1 provides a summary of the styles of academic advising commonly being utilized in the field of academic advising. Table 2 provides a summary of possible ways advisors can integrate the additional styles of advising into the developmental advising approach. Developmental advising remains the prominent advising style throughout advising literature. However, while these different styles of advising contain different focuses and methods, academic advisors can benefit from understanding each style, and utilizing aspects from multiple

styles in their approach to advising. While developmental advising is shown to be preferred by over 95% of students (Hale, Graham & Johnson, 2009), an advisor should still be expected to know degree requirements and institutional policies, functions of prescriptive advising. A primary tenet of student development theory is to acknowledge each student as an individual. As such, advisors must analyze the developmental needs of each student and adjust his or her advising style to meet those needs in an effort to increase student motivation to succeed. The holistic development of the student is likely to benefit most students, though coupled with the focus of the other advising styles such as strengths or individual goals and dreams, or a focus on learning processes can greatly increase success.

Academic advising is one area of campus the institution can focus on in an effort to increase student success. Due to the many positive benefits of advising listed previously in this paper, it has the potential to greatly assist in at least diminishing many of the issues regarding student retention and successful completion of degrees. Academic advisors should utilize the many different styles of academic advising to enhance their chances of creating a successful college experience for students. Advisors must be able to discern the needs of the student, and properly display aspects of the most effective style of advising to satisfy these needs. However, while these styles of advising focus on the confidence and competence of abilities required for educational success, they can sometimes neglect to focus on increasing student motivation.

Table 1: Major academic advising styles

<i>Advising Style</i>	<i>Focus</i>	<i>Method</i>
Prescriptive Advising	Information giving of academic matters such as course registration, institutional policies and regulations, etc.	Advisor gives one-way communication of information.
Developmental Advising	Holistic approach to student development based largely on student development theory	Advisor-advisee shared advising interactions to promote cognitive and non-cognitive student growth.
Advising as Teaching	Advising interactions designed to be learning experiences for advisee to develop independent cognitive learning skills.	Advising interactions involve active learning activities and communication and follow good teaching practices.
Proactive Advising	Early intervention to prevent potential issues	Advisor initiated contact often with at-risk student population.
Appreciative Advising	Recognizing students as unique individuals	Advisor identifies and affirms unique characteristics and backgrounds of students to apply to difficulties and challenges.
Strengths-Based Advising	Utilizing student strengths to maximize success	Advisor identifies and affirms strengths of student to apply to difficulties and challenges.

Table 2: Integrating advising styles into developmental advising approach

<i>Advising Style</i>	<i>Integration into Developmental Advising Approach</i>
Prescriptive Advising	Used in addition to developmental advising to discuss institutional policies and regulations
Advising as Teaching	Advisor focuses on utilizing learning activities and communication into developmental advising practices
Proactive Advising	Advisor initiates contact with at-risk students and utilizes developmental advising to prevent possible difficulties hindering likelihood of success
Appreciative Advising	Advisor utilizes uniqueness and individual goals and dreams of students along with developmental advising to increase likelihood of success
Strengths-Based Advising	Advisor utilizes natural talents of students along with developmental advising to increase likelihood of success

Motivation

When examining causes of success or failure, motivation plays a prominent role (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Williams & Williams, 2011). Mitchell (1982) defined motivation as the desire and choice to engage in a particular activity and willingness to expend effort towards these activities. Motivation is the driving force behind actions toward accomplishing a goal or task.

Motivation in Education

Motivation plays a critical role in student success. Ormrod (2008) described motivation in education as an internal state that arouses learners, steering them in certain directions, and keeping them engaged in certain activities. Listed as probably the most important factor to target

to improve student learning by Vero and Puka (2017), motivating students should be a primary concern of all higher education administrators and faculty. As one of the most important aspects of academic development (Steinmayr & Spinath, 2009; Yilmaz, Sahin, & Turgut, 2017) and seen as a pre-requisite and necessary element for student engagement in learning (Saeed & Zyngier, 2012), it is no surprise students that are academically motivated view activities related to school and learning as beneficial and enjoyable (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). While motivation greatly enhances the chance for success, lacking motivation causes students to put forth less effort and energy towards school and learning related activities (Scheel, Madabhushi, & Backhaus, 2009). Williams and Williams (2011) state that very little, if any, learning can occur without motivation. A student's level of motivation will determine the extent a student will persist towards their educational goals (Mazumder, 2014). Without motivation, success in higher education is likely not possible (Mazumder, 2014). While multiple theories of motivation aim to predict and explain differences in motivation and why some students show a greater willingness and desire than others to achieve educational tasks such as learning, perhaps none do more so than self-determination theory. Self-determination theory uses student motivation to explain the behaviors of students (Maurer, Allen, Gatch, Shankar, & Sturges, 2013), and has made substantial contributions to understand success in the domain of education (Kusurkar, Asperen, & Croiset, 2011; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009).

Self-Determination Theory

Deci and Ryan (2008) describe self-determination theory as a macrotheory of human motivation based on empirical results. It addresses such basic issues as “personality development, self-regulation, universal psychological needs, life goals and aspirations, energy and vitality, nonconscious processes, the relations of culture to motivation, and the impact of

social environments on motivation, affect, behavior, and well-being” (p.183). Self-determination theory in education describes students’ value of education, while also looking at the student’s inherent desire to learn, and the student’s capabilities to deal with belongingness and competence in a university setting (Deci & Ryan 1985).

A fundamental concept of self-determination theory states two types of motivation exists: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation refers to the desire to do an activity for the sake of the activity itself, while extrinsic motivation refers to the desire to do an activity to accomplish an external goal or receive an award (Maurer, et al., 2013). Extrinsically motivated students show a desire to complete their goals, though they can be inclined to exert the minimum effort needed to receive the reward (Pew, 2007). They are also at greater risk of performing lower academically than students motivated intrinsically (Vero & Puka, 2017). Intrinsically motivated students are more likely to exert more effort towards a goal or task and to obtain and retain information more efficiently and effectively (Pew, 2007) and to partake in doing things that hold their interest that can benefit them by helping them learn and develop as students (Ryan & Deci, 2002). While both extrinsically and intrinsically motivated students show a degree of motivation (see Table 2), the theory posits a clear connection between intrinsic motivation and higher levels of student success.

Along with discerning different types of motivation, self-determination theory also identifies three psychological needs of competence, relatedness, and autonomy that are required for personal well-being, growth, and development (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Competence refers to the need of individuals to feel that they can comprehend their environment or task at hand (Sviniki, 2016). Students must feel capable of understanding the information and the ability to complete assignments. Relatedness, or belongingness, refers to the need to have close personal

relationships and a sense of belonging. In a university setting, belongingness can refer to feelings of belonging to multiple sets of individuals, from the specific classes they are in to the university as a whole. Finally, and perhaps most important of the three requirements, autonomy is required for intrinsic motivation to occur. Students must feel in control of their learning, their education in general, and their surrounding environment.

Table 3: Intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation to learn

<i>Type of Motivation</i>	<i>Source of Motivation</i>	<i>Result on learning</i>
Intrinsic Motivation	Desire to learn/curiosity. Sees value in completing task or learning material.	Student obtains deeper understanding of material. More likely to retain information.
Extrinsic Motivation	External rewards such as grades. Sees no value in task itself, only rewards obtained for completing it	Student exerts minimum effort required to receive desired reward. More likely to forget material after receiving grade.

Without this control over their own actions and choices, the other two requirements are unlikely to incur motivation (Sviniki, 2016). Deci and Ryan (1985) expanded on intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation by presenting two sub-theories within self-determination theory. Cognitive evaluation theory (CET) aims at discerning and explaining variations in intrinsic motivation. It attempts to do this by looking at factors, both social and environmental, that are conducive to increasing intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

While competence and autonomy are both essential for intrinsic motivation to occur, CET states that autonomy must accompany competence for competence to enhance intrinsic motivation. This displays an emphasis on the importance of perceived locus of causality, or in

other words, who is responsible for the behavior. CET states that intrinsic motivation is inherent to humans, and will be present in individuals when in situations or conditions that do not diminish it (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The other sub-theory presented by Deci and Ryan (1985) was organismic integration theory (OIT). OIT describes extrinsic motivation in its different forms and discusses factors that help or hurt an individual seeing value of a task and perceiving it as their own choice to complete the task (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Figure one shows the self-determination continuum breaking down the four extrinsically motivated behaviors and including amotivation, with the level of self-determination increasing along the continuum from left to right.

Beside amotivation on the far left of the continuum is external regulation, behaviors performed to satisfy an external source to obtain a reward or avoid a punishment (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). Motivation is typically lost as soon as the outside source dissipates. The second type of extrinsic motivation is introjected regulation. Introjected regulation refers to actions or behaviors committed to avoid guilt or anxiety, or enhance ego or self-esteem (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The third type of external motivation, identified regulation, refers to activities that are perceived to contain a level of importance or value. Niemiec and Ryan (2009) give the example of this as a student studying anatomy for future competence in medicine. While showing value, studying anatomy is still driven by the desire to obtain competence in another, outside area. The final type of external motivation on the self-determination continuum is integrated regulation. Integrated regulation refers to behaviors that agree with the needs and values, though are still done to obtain outcomes other than inherent enjoyment (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

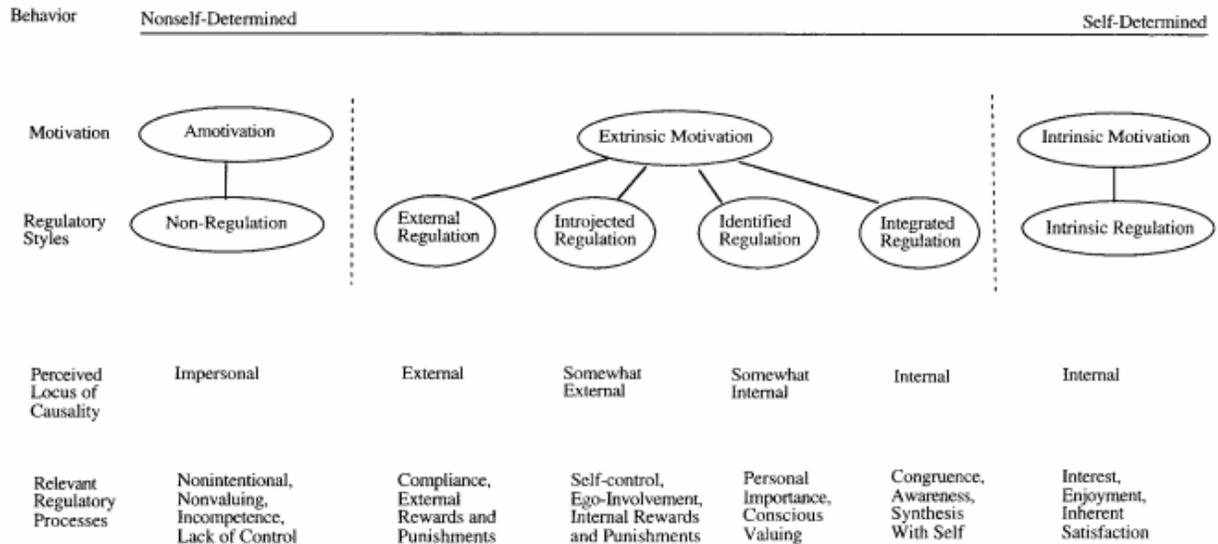


Figure 1: The Self-Determination Continuum Showing Types of Motivation With Their Regulatory Styles, Loci of Causality, and Corresponding Processes (Ryan & Deci, 2000)

Academic advisors can utilize self-determination theory to challenge students, and to gradually build their competence, relatedness, and autonomy through advising. Advisors can utilize this theory to better cater to the individual needs of each student, just as is desired in developmental advising. Through focusing on increasing and improving competence, relatedness, and autonomy of a student, the advisor can utilize aspects of developmental advising and self-determination theory alike to holistically develop the student. An examination of transformational leadership behaviors shows great promise as a foundation for advisors to utilize to increase intrinsic motivation, described in self-determination theory, in students by directly affecting competence, relatedness, and autonomy of the students and to assist in the student's development.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is a style of leadership that implements change through creating a higher level of motivation in both subordinates and supervisors. Transformational leadership

emerged as Burns (1978) analyzed political leaders and the effect they had on their constituents. He found a common style of leadership, along with behaviors associated with this style of leadership, that would move the leader and follower to increased levels of motivation and morality. Burns (1978) believed effective leaders were those able to create change in society or an organization, something transforming leadership excelled at, while the transactional style of leadership maintained the status quo. Burns defined a transforming leader as someone who engages the full person of the follower, attempts to satisfy higher needs, and looks for motives in the follower. Burns described transforming leadership in contrast to transactional leadership in which leader and follower act for the purpose of an exchange of valued things, with the two leadership styles being mutually exclusive, and leaders exhibiting behaviors associated with one or the other.

Bass (1985) would later expand, evolve, and popularize the concept of transformational leadership. While Burns (1978) described transformational leaders being separate and directly contrasting to transactional leaders, Bass claimed all leaders act somewhere along a continuum while enacting behaviors from both categories. This belief led Bass and Avolio (1994) to develop the Full Range of Leadership Model. This model included transformational leadership while also breaking down transactional leadership into two categories known as contingent reward and management by exception, along with adding another category of laissez-faire leadership. Contingent reward refers to the leader rewarding the follower for work done. Northouse (2001) describes management by exception as occurring when the leader only enacts leadership when necessary, often when the follower is in need of correction which can be offered through corrective criticism or negative feedback. Laissez-faire leadership refers to a lack of

leadership. These are leaders who avoid decision making and giving feedback, among other aspects typically associated with leadership (Northouse, 2001).

Bass (1995) described transformational leadership as shifting the concerns of followers on Maslow's need hierarchy. By elevating the need hierarchy, it causes workers to work harder than they originally expected they would and generates extraordinary results from those typically providing ordinary results (Rao, 2013). This is done through four categories of leader behaviors as presented by Bass (1985), along with a multitude of other studies in the literature involving transformational leadership. These four categories are:

1. **Idealized Influence:** Leaders provide a vision desirable to the followers, and show total commitment towards the vision. They express values and follow these values, generating trust and respect from followers due to consistent actions (Bass, 1985).
2. **Inspirational Motivation:** Leaders inspire followers through communicating with enthusiasm and optimism about the work to be done, along with high expectations of the follower's abilities. The optimism, encouragement, and high expectations causes followers to accept the vision to a high degree, allowing greater willingness to exert effort towards achieving the vision (Bass, 1985).
3. **Individual Consideration:** Leaders treat followers as individuals, focusing on the distinct needs and issues of each follower. Leaders offer feedback and learning opportunities specifically in regards to the individual worker (Bass, 1985).
4. **Intellectual Stimulation:** Leaders strive to cause followers to determine new ways to solve problems and encourage rethinking long held thoughts and beliefs. Leaders promote thought and creativity, allowing new ideas to emerge (Bass, 1985).

While Bass claims charisma is the largest component of transformational leadership, Bass and Avolio (1994) chose to substitute the original term of charisma for idealized influence due to the negative connotations associated with the term charisma (Bass, 1995).

Multiple benefits of transformational leadership can be found throughout organizational literature. Bass and Avolio (1993) found an increase in motivation and self-efficacy within employees under a manager displaying transformational leadership. These increases were due largely to the leader establishing a culture of employee empowerment (Harrison, 2011) through transformational leadership. Munir, Rahman, Malik, and Ma'amor (2012) and Hamidifar (2009) both found that with leaders exhibiting a higher level of transformational leadership, employee job satisfaction rose greater than all leadership styles without leaders displaying high levels of transformational leadership. Increased job satisfaction is likely to lead to a number of other positive benefits towards completing the goals and tasks of any profession.

Sparks and Schenk (2001) also found an increase in job satisfaction among followers of leaders displaying transformational leadership, and also saw an increase in unit cohesion and employees perceiving their work to be of higher purpose. All of which have strong potential to motivate the employee to work harder towards accomplishing the job by increasing intrinsic motivation.

Conger, Kanungo, and Menon (2000) found positive results stemming from a leader's use of transformational leadership behaviors, also noting these results are found at higher levels than that of leaders employing transactional leadership behaviors. They reported having a positive direct relationship between transformational leadership and each of the following: the ability of the leader to garner respect amongst followers, the ability to create a sense of belongingness and cohesion in the group, and increase group performance in a positive and beneficial manner,

making the followers believe the work being done is worthwhile. Multiple components of work engagement are also shown to be positively impacted by leaders displaying transformational leadership behaviors (Hayati, Charkhabi, & Naami, 2014). While work engagement in general was found to have a positive correlation to transformational leadership, three components of work engagement were also all found to be positively related: absorption, vigor, and dedication. Absorption refers to the level the worker focuses his or her full attention and concentration towards the task at hand. Vigor refers to the level of energy and excitement felt regarding the work, while dedication is the level of attachment or pride towards completing a task. These three components can prove highly beneficial to any leader attempting to garner greater results from workers in many fields and disciplines, and in particular, education.

Transformational Leadership in Education

With the amount of research showing the positive effects of transformational leadership, it is no surprise educational institutions are seeking to explore its effects in the educational realm. Literature shows transformational leadership behaviors displayed by teachers creates numerous positive effects on students mirroring the results of transformational leadership in general discussed above (Korkmaz, 2007). Looking at transformational leadership in the educational setting, Pounder (2008) concluded that students with instructors displaying transformational leadership behaviors displayed effort at higher levels than students without. Students also gained a higher level of perceived instructor effectiveness and satisfaction with the instructor.

Harvey, Royal and Stout (2003) found transformational leadership components as the primary predictors of student trust and respect of teachers along with rating the overall performance of instructors higher when displaying the behaviors, as opposed to not, largely due to the charismatic nature of transformational leadership behaviors. Pounder (2008) also

concluded that students were more satisfied by their instructors when they displayed transformational leadership behaviors, and were viewed by students to be more effective.

Transformational leadership does not only affect the teacher/student relationship, but also shows beneficial results when looking at the principle/teacher relationship. Transformational leadership displayed by a principle is shown to play a significant role in increasing teacher commitment, extra effort, and willingness within the context of educational reform (Friedman, 2004), all likely to filter down to the students and improve their educational experience. Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) found a direct link between transformational leadership behaviors and teachers' levels of motivation, which was found to effect student success. These positive findings have resulted in applying transformational leadership to the academic advising field also.

Transformational Leadership in Academic Advising

Transformational leadership in academic advising has seen very little empirical research. Barbuto, Story, Fritz, and Schinstock (2008) introduced the concept of full range advising by applying the Full Range of Leadership model to academic advising. Since then very little new research has been conducted to investigate the results of transformational leadership on the academic advising process and its effectiveness. Barbuto, Fritz and Story (2011) found positive relationships between all four components of transformational leadership and advisees' extra effort, satisfaction with the advisor, and advising effectiveness. By finding a positive correlation between idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and inspirational motivation, the authors of the study found an initial instance of transformational leadership behaviors in advising having highly beneficial results on students. Students with advisors displaying these behaviors reported exerting extra effort in regards to their education,

being more satisfied with their advisor, and perceived their advising as being more effective than those not experiencing transformational leadership behaviors from their advisor. More research is necessary to expand on the findings of Barbuto et. al to further clarify the leadership behaviors most effective in increasing positive student outcomes through academic advising.

Barbuto, Fritz, and Story (2011) also discovered a higher use of certain types of behaviors, noting that intellectual stimulation was used substantially less than the other three types of behaviors. This differing amount of use amongst the types of transformational leadership behaviors may result in a transformational leader being more or less effective in increasing student motivation.

Rationale for Research Question and Hypothesis

Transformational leadership shows many positive benefits to followers and organizations, and shows the ability to increase intrinsic motivation in subordinates across many disciplines and types of organizations, including higher education institutions. Current academic advising styles focus on developing the student as a whole person, though often neglect a focus on motivation, which is essential to success in any realm. Applying transformational leadership to academic advisors allows the advisor to continue with the appropriate advising style of choice, while simply incorporating behaviors of transformational leadership, and could greatly increase student motivation and success. Using the four defining types of behaviors of transformational leadership, this paper will aim to apply transformational leadership to the academic advisor setting to determine the perceived effect on student motivation from the use of transformational leadership in the advisor/advisee context. As multiple studies have shown positive effects, including increased levels of motivation, from transformational leadership in multiple disciplines and professions, it is imperative to determine if the same holds true in academic advising, a

university function of great importance to student success. As such, to better understand the link between transformational leadership and increased motivation in the academic advising setting, the following hypothesis is postulated:

H₁: Students' reports of advisors' use of transformational leadership behaviors will be significantly and positively correlated with their reports of motivation to succeed in college.

While examining the correlation of student motivation and transformational leadership in its entirety is highly important for improving academic advising practices, it is also vital to explore the relationship between each of the four types of transformational leadership behaviors to determine if certain behavior types have a greater impact on motivation than others. The reasoning for examining this distinction between the different types of behaviors of transformational leadership comes from Barbuto, Story, and Fritz (2001) determining certain behavior types are used more than others. Reasoning for more or less frequency of certain behaviors may be simply from advisors not having adequate time to display all four types of behaviors. Allen and Smith (2008) discuss the lack of time allotted for academic advisors, particularly faculty advisors, to meet with each individual student. With caseloads in the hundreds, many advisors are likely forced towards the prescriptive advising side of the paradigm of advising, in which the vital information is shared and the meeting is ended to begin the next. As such, if only a certain number of behaviors can be exhibited in academic advising meetings with the student, it is vital to better understand if the different types of behaviors have a differential impact on student motivation. To explore this, the following research question is proposed:

RQ₁: Does any type of transformational leadership behaviors (e.g., idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) better predict a change to student motivation versus others?

An increase in student motivation should be a high priority of all academic advisors, and higher education administration and faculty alike. Through better understanding the relationship between transformational leadership behaviors in advising and student motivation, student affairs personnel and faculty come one step closer to determining the best methods for increasing student success.

METHODS

Participants

The target population for this study included all students at a midsized regional university and large regional university, both in the Midwest United States. To obtain data from a large, diverse population, no exclusion criteria were set. A total of 81 valid participant responses were received. Table 4 shows a breakdown of the demographic data. Demographic data collected revealed that 65.4% (n=53) of participants were female, while 34.6% (n=28) were male. The age ranges of the participants consisted of 14-17 (n=7, 8.6%), 18-24 (n=60, 74.1%), 25-34 (n=10, 12.3%) 35-44 (n=2, 2.5%), and 45-54 (n=2, 2.5%). In terms of educational grade level, the largest group of participants (n=21, 25.9%) was freshman. The remaining grade levels reported in order of frequency were Graduate Student (n=19, 23.5%), Senior (n=19, 23.5%), Sophomore (n=10, 12.3%), Junior (n=8, 9.9%), and Other (n=4, 4.9%). Fifty-eight (71.6%) participants identified as white, 9 (11.1%) as black or African American, 9 (11.1%) as Asian, 1 (1.2%) as Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, and 4 (4.9%) identified as Other.

Instruments

Two questionnaires were administered to collect data to define the relationship between transformational leadership behaviors from academic advisors and students' self-perceived level of academic motivation. Qualtrics software was utilized for distribution of the surveys and participant demographic questions (See Appendix A).

The Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) is a “comprehensive and widely used instrument for assessing motivation based on the self-determination theory” (Lim & Chapman, 2015, p. 331). Created by Vallerand et. al. (1992), the AMS-College Version (See Appendix B) consists

Table 4: Demographic breakdown of participants

	<i>N</i>	%
Sex		
Female	53	65.4
Male	28	34.6
Class Standing		
Freshman	21	25.9
Sophomore	10	12.3
Junior	8	9.9
Senior	19	23.5
Graduate Student	19	23.5
Other	4	4.9
Age		
14-17	7	8.6
18-24	60	74.1
25-34	10	12.3
35-44	2	2.5
45-54	2	2.5
Ethnicity		
White	58	71.6
Black or African American	9	11.1
Asian	9	11.1
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	1	1.2
Other	4	4.9
Parent One Highest level of Education		
Less than high school	2	2.5
High school graduate	26	32.1
Some college	12	14.8
2 year degree	8	9.9
4 year degree	20	24.7
Professional degree	10	12.3
Doctorate	3	3.7
Parent Two Highest level of Education		
Only one parent in household	12	14.8
Less than high school	3	3.7
High school graduate	21	25.9
Some college	13	16.0
2 year degree	5	6.2
4 year degree	19	23.5
Professional degree	6	7.4
Doctorate	2	2.5

of 28 items grouped into 7 subscales – intrinsic motivation- to know (behaviors to understand the world around us, e.g., “Because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things”), intrinsic motivation- toward accomplishment (behaviors perceived to achieve or accomplish, e.g., “For the pleasure I experience while surpassing myself in my studies”), intrinsic motivation-to experience stimulation(behaviors perceived to stimulate or engage the environment, e.g., “For the pleasure that I experience when I read interesting authors”), extrinsic motivation-identified (behaviors perceived as having value, e.g., “Because eventually it will enable me to enter the job market in a field that I like”), extrinsic motivation-introjected (behaviors performed to avoid guilt or enhance ego or self-esteem, e.g., “Because I want to show myself that I can succeed in my studies”), extrinsic motivation-external regulation (behaviors performed to obtain a reward or avoid punishment, e.g., “In order to obtain a more prestigious job later on”), and amotivation (lack of motivation e.g., “I can’t see why I go to college and frankly I couldn’t care less”) with Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for this study of .89, .91, .89, .71, .84, .80, and .88 respectively. Questions on the scale are rated using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1- Strongly agree, to 7- Strongly disagree. The 28 items of the scale refer to the common question of “Why do you go to college?” All studies written in the English language that reported internal consistency values of the AMS reported acceptable level ranging from .70 to .86 with a mean .82, with only one study not reporting (Lim & Chapman, 2014). The Cronbach α of the 28-item scale for this study was .89.

Transformational leadership was measured using an adapted version of the Transformational Leadership Scale (See Appendix C). The original Transformational Leadership Scale, (Ali, Manjunath, & Yadaz, 2013) along with the adapted version, consists of four subscales of transformational leadership including: idealized influence (provide positive vision

and generate trust among followers, e.g., “My advisor fulfills what he or she promises”), individualized consideration (treat followers as individuals, e.g., “My advisor involves me in making decisions that affect me”), inspirational motivation (inspire through positive communication and high expectations, e.g., “My advisor motivates me to work hard”), and intellectual stimulation (inspire thought and creativity, e.g., “My advisor encourages me to generate alternative solutions to problems”). Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for idealized influence, individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation subscales for this study were .89, .91, .89, and .92 respectively. The survey questions were modified to more directly relate to academic advising from a student’s viewpoint. For example, the original statement, “I encourage colleagues to express their opinion” was changed to “My advisor encourages me to express my opinion.” A 5-point Likert scale was utilized to rate items on the questionnaire ranging from 1-Very rarely, if ever, to 5-As often as possible. To limit survey fatigue, 48 of the 90 items on the original Transformational Leadership Scale, 12 from each sub-scale, were randomly selected. Worthington and Whittaker (2006) suggest response rate is greatly reduced in surveys above the 15-minute completion mark, with a greater reduction in response rate as completion time rises. The alpha coefficient for the complete 90 item Transformational Leadership Scale is reported as 0.79 or greater (Vallerand et. al., 1992), and is .96 for the 48-item version of the scale used in this study.

Procedure

Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approval was requested and granted at each of the two universities utilized for this study. Due to different approval requirements, data collection procedures varied among the two institutions. Following IRB approval at the first institution, an email was sent to academic advisors and select department chairs and directors of colleges on

campus asking for their participation in forwarding the Qualtrics electronic survey link to their students or faculty to send to students. The departments and colleges selected were chosen to represent a diversity of types of majors: one in the arts, one engineering/technical, a humanities, an applied social science, and a natural science. Following IRB approval at the second institution, an email was posted to the university's email distribution system. This system allowed students to opt-in or opt-out of categories of emails such as parking, athletics, surveys, etc. The survey was sent to all students who had opted in to the survey category. The student survey contained a question regarding prior completion of the survey, with skip-logic ending the survey immediately if the student marked previous completion of the survey. This helped to account for students that received the survey participation request more than once.

Once the data was collected, frequency, mean, and standard deviation descriptive statistics were calculated. Pearson product-moment correlation was used to examine the relationships between the study variables to answer the first research hypothesis (H_1 : Students' reports of advisors' use of transformational leadership behaviors will be significantly and positively correlated with their reports of motivation to succeed in college). Multiple regression analysis was utilized to determine the ability of the four behavior types of transformational leadership to predict student motivation to answer the research question (RQ₁: Does any type of transformational leadership behaviors (e.g., idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) better predict a change to student motivation versus others?

Variance inflation values were observed to test for multicollinearity. Three of the four variables came back above or near the suggested limit of 10 with idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration scoring values of 11.121, 10.431, and

9.794 respectively. Stepwise multiple linear regression was used to account for the high variance inflation values to examine all possible models of the regression analysis to analyze the research question.

RESULTS

H₁: Students' reports of advisors' use of transformational leadership behaviors will be significantly and positively correlated with their reports of motivation to succeed in college.

Scale items were reverse scored where necessary to ensure higher scores represented higher levels of motivation and transformational leadership. Means and standard deviations of the study variables were calculated (See Appendix D). Results show a high level of perceived transformational leadership behaviors exhibited by academic advisors with a mean of 3.75 measured on a five-point scale. Of the four transformational leadership behavior sub-scales, idealized influence is reported with the highest mean at 3.93. Students also reported high levels of motivation with a mean of 5.65 measured on a seven-point scale, with a mean score of 5.28 for intrinsic motivation and 5.89 for extrinsic motivation.

To test the hypothesis, Pearson's correlation coefficient was utilized to measure the relationship between perceived transformational leadership behaviors and student motivation (See Appendix E). Overall, a moderate significant positive correlation was found between transformational leadership and motivation ($r(79)=.52, p < .01$). A moderate positive correlation was found between transformational leadership and intrinsic motivation ($r(79)=.50, p < .01$), with a slightly less correlation found between transformational leadership and extrinsic motivation ($r(79)=.37, p < .01$). All transformational leadership behavior types were found to have a statistically significant positive correlation to motivation, supporting the hypothesis.

Inspirational motivation showed the highest level of correlation with motivation overall ($r(79) = .54, p < .01$), while intellectual stimulation showed the lowest ($r(79) = .46, p < .01$). Inspirational motivation also showed the highest level of correlation with intrinsic motivation

($r(79) = .53, p < .01$), while idealized influence showed the highest correlation with extrinsic motivation ($r(79) = .39, p < .01$).

RQ₁: Does any type of transformational leadership behaviors (e.g., idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) better predict a change to student motivation versus others?

Table 5 shows the multiple linear regression analysis for the predictor variables and dependent variables.

Table 5: Summary of multiple linear regression analysis

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	3.181	.434		7.337	.000	2.318	4.045
	TLII	.480	.359	.416	1.337	.185	-.235	1.195
	TLIC	-.403	.318	-.370	-1.268	.209	-1.035	.230
	TLIM	.664	.335	.597	1.982	.051	-.003	1.330
	TLIS	-.109	.218	-.108	-.500	.618	-.543	.325

a. Dependent Variable: Motiv

Stepwise linear regression was utilized due to high variance inflation values. One model summary returned as significant, revealing inspirational motivation as the only predictor of motivation when examining all predictor variables (See Table 6). Inspirational motivation is shown to account for 30% of variance of student motivation.

Table 6: Summary of stepwise regression analysis for variables predicting motivation

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients
		B	Std. Error	Beta
1	(Constant)	3.363	.395	
	Inspirational Motivation	.607	.103	.547***

Note. $R^2=.30$, *** $p<.001$

DISCUSSION

This study set out to explore the relationship between the perceived use of transformational leadership behaviors exhibited by academic advisors and the level of perceived student motivation along with determining if a particular type of transformational leadership better predicted student motivation. As transformational leadership is generally expected to increase performance across many disciplines and professions, the correlation results of this study came as expected, showing a positive correlation between transformational leadership and motivation. Also expected is a higher correlation between transformational leadership and intrinsic motivation, as was confirmed in this study. However, correlation research should be viewed as a starting point for research, with regression analysis seen as expanding on the effectiveness of data provided by correlation. While a positive correlation shows a relationship between transformational leadership and motivation, only one behavior type is indicated to predict the other. Stepwise linear regression indicates inspirational motivation as the only predictor of motivation. The seemingly contradictory results can result from the correlation simply looking at a relationship between the two (i.e. if one goes up does the other) while looking at the variables as interchangeable, while multiple linear regression model specifies predictor variable/s and holds the other variables constant. By specifying the independent variable, the regression analysis eliminates the possibility that the relationship is due to motivation impacting perceived use of transformational leadership. Correlation data, while beneficial, has a higher possibility of an unseen variable affecting the relationship between the two measured variables of the study.

Participants of this study reported a higher mean score of extrinsic motivation than that of intrinsic motivation. This implies the participants of the survey are largely motivated by factors

outside of academic advising as three of the four types of transformational leadership were not statistically significant in predicting motivation, regardless of high correlation, while the significant variable (inspirational motivation) accounted for 30% of the variance of motivation. External regulation (M= 6.09) showed the highest reported mean of all of the motivation variables. This shows students primary source of motivation to succeed in education is to receive the rewards of a higher paycheck and the chance to live the “better” life. While the results of this study display a weak relationship between transformational leadership and external regulation, when controlling for other variables, inspirational motivation does show to be beneficial in predicting motivation. These results show inspirational motivation as beneficial, while the other three behavior types are not and should be limited in advising interactions aimed at motivating the students.

This information can be vital in increasing the effectiveness of the results discovered in this study. By understanding the motivation-predicting behavior of inspirational motivation often revolves around the advisor showing enthusiasm and optimism, along with the motivating factor for most students being external motivation, advisors can utilize this knowledge to create a more direct approach of their optimism towards the rewards of the education and degree. With external regulation (i.e. behaviors performed to obtain a reward or avoid punishment) questions for this study specifically relating to a higher salary, more prestigious job, and to have the “good” life later on, advisors can utilize this information when creating a vision to students. However, catering advising sessions to external regulation goes against many of the suggestions of previous literature on effective student success strategies as described in the literature review of this paper.

As mentioned, results from this study also show intellectual stimulation, idealized influence, and individualized consideration do not predict motivation. Academic advisors can use this information to adjust behaviors displayed during advising sessions. Focusing on inspirational motivation behaviors, while reducing the other types of behaviors, is predicted to better enhance motivation in the student. Also, focusing on inspirational motivation geared towards the rewards of succeeding in school is likely to be highly beneficial.

However, academic advisors should be aware of the arbitrary nature of external regulation (i.e. rewards). For example, an advisor utilizing this information to focus on a higher paycheck for the student may be better suited determining the reason for wanting a higher paycheck. If the student desires a higher paycheck to enhance ego or travel, this can shift the advisor's focus. Desiring a higher paycheck could also be the result of a perceived boosted ego within the student, also shifting the focus from a simple reward (i.e. the paycheck), to an introjected regulation type of motivation (i.e. ego enhancement). As such, while transformational leadership and external regulation had a low correlation, and inspirational motivation was the only transformational leadership behavior able to predict motivation, better clarifying the types of motivation could present different results, and create a different suggested focus for academic advisors in using transformational leadership to enhance motivation.

Limitations

Numerous limitations are present in this study that could affect the accuracy of the results. Beyond low sample size and the research being conducted at only two universities in the United States Midwest, the primary limitations of this study pertain to instrumentation type and the data collection method. Multiple aspects of common method bias as seen in Podsakoff et. al (2008) likely affected the accuracy of the results. Data collected for this study utilized self-

perceived responses from the participants. Many factors can arise from self-assessment as the primary method of data gathering such as remembering advising sessions and advisor behaviors accurately, along with a possible bias to claim a higher level of motivation (i.e. social desirability bias) than is actually present. Consistency motif, as described in Podsakoff et. al (2008), likely contributed to the high alpha coefficients of the scale by causing participants to maintain consistency in answering questions. Another aspect of common method bias likely present comes from common scale format to measure both constructs. Participants are likely to relate one scale to the other in answering the questions. For example, participants in this study could link the transformational leadership questions to the motivation questions, impacting the way the question is answered.

The characteristics of the sample showed a highly homogenous group of motivated students when examining self-perceived levels of motivation. This finding is not surprising due to the voluntary nature of the survey. By distributing the survey anonymously through email, and with no benefit for completion, it is highly possible students completing it will be more educationally engaged and more motivated. This homogenous response of primarily motivated students risks limiting generalizability by greatly eliminating the less-motivated students from the findings. Additionally, self-reported measures of motivation could be influenced by the often very high financial commitment of the student and family and any family or cultural/societal pressures to go to college. This influence could create a sense of claiming a high level of motivation as the “right” answer, regardless of the actual level of motivation. Concurrently, self-reported levels of advisors’ transformational leadership behaviors could be greatly influenced by the overall opinion the student has of the academic advisor (i.e. leniency bias), causing the student to rate perceived good behaviors higher if they generally like the advisor along with

rating bad behaviors lower, or vice versa if they do not have a favorable opinion of the advisor. Another similar limitation resulting in self-reported data stems from different perceptions of the scoring frequency of advisor activities (i.e item ambiguity). For example, an advisor calling a student by his or her name once in every advising meeting may be interpreted as “rarely, if ever” occurring by one student, or as “frequently, if not always” by another.

Ideally, many of these limitations could be reduced by administering a scale during a class period, greatly reducing the volunteerism aspect possibly biasing the responses. While interviews often eliminate the anonymous aspect meant at improving honesty and accuracy from participants, qualitative research could utilize self-perception of participants while allowing for clarification of advisor behavior frequency and aim at better determining the relationships between the actions perceived as transformational leadership and student motivation.

Implications

Future research should aim at improving the results of this study and expanding upon them. The significant, positive correlations indicate a beneficial nature to further research regarding transformational leadership in education. By increasing the sample size and demographic range of participants, increased accuracy of the results could be shown to confirm these findings and increase generalizability. While this study further confirmed the statistically significant positive correlation between transformational leadership and student motivation in the academic advising setting, inspirational motivation emerged the only predictor of student motivation. With correlation levels similar among the four types of transformational leadership, it would not be surprising to see different results from the multiple regression analysis with a larger sample size. Limiting common method bias by utilizing different data reporting/gathering methods such as GPA for motivation could also be utilized to confirm accuracy and validity of

the results. Also, further exploring the effect of inspirational motivation could increase the effectiveness of predicting/impacting student motivation. Research should explore inspirational-motivation-type behaviors, along with additional sources of external regulation, to better understand how to effectively utilize and administer the link between the two in day-to-day advising interactions.

Results of this study indicate transformational leadership in general shows a low ability to predict motivation to succeed in education. However, inspirational motivation should be utilized as it is shown to positively predict motivation and account for 30% variance of the change. Academic advisors should utilize this information to incorporate behaviors associated with inspirational motivation into academic advising sessions. However, advisors should not simply ignore other transformational leadership behaviors, as positive correlations were found and many of these behaviors may be beneficial to increasing student success in general. While the other behavior types are not shown to predict motivation in this study, they could still allow the advisor to better direct the student toward success. For example, individualized consideration may allow the advisor to better assist a student in selecting a major. While this is not shown to increase motivation in this study, it is likely to increase the student's success rate regardless. Academic advisors should not intentionally eliminate transformational leadership behaviors not related to inspirational motivation, but instead realize inspirational motivation should be used when trying to increase motivation in students.

Research including additional variables should also be highly considered to further explore causal effect of the measured variables of this paper (i.e. transformational leadership and motivation). By determining the predictability of additional possible variables (i.e. parental education status, sex/gender, etc. findings could be greatly improved.

CONCLUSION

Academic advising has evolved a great deal since the founding of Harvard College, in which the president of the college was tasked with advising all enrolled students (Cook, 2009). When Crookston proposed the notion of developmental advising in 1972, it was with the clear intent to urge academic advisors to adapt a developmental, and essentially a holistic, style of advising. Future research should further investigate the need to urge another revolution in advising towards motivating the student towards success while still providing the beneficial aspects of developmental advising. As Lowenstein (2005) stated, academic advising should always have a goal that aims at being more than providing information to students. While what this goal should be may always be debated, a good start would be to look at the leading factors and limitations in student success.

Just as developmental advising was not aimed at eliminating prescriptive advising; transformational advising, specifically inspirational motivation, does not aim to eliminate other styles of advising. Academic advisors and students can benefit greatly from a mix of the many styles of advising currently in use depending on the specific situation of the advisor/advisee interaction. By adding a motivational component to advising through the use of transformational leadership behaviors, other theories used in academic advising are still just as relevant and are supported by theories of motivation and transformational leadership. To ensure student success, it is vital to incorporate all aspects, especially the prominent aspects of student success in academic advising. Without motivation, all other factors typical of enhancing student success are likely irrelevant. With the focus on advising literature beginning to focus on developing a normative theory of advising, simply sticking with the same student development theories becomes impossible. Viewing these theories only aims to predict or explain advising

interactions, which a normative theory does not do. These theories will remain highly valuable, however, when describing what academic advising ought to be, as a normative theory does, motivation must be included to provide the greatest potential academic advising has to offer.

This study found potential specifically in inspirational motivation geared towards external regulation. However, it is vital to continue to incorporate other beneficial aspects of advising to ensure student success. While most literature strongly encourages building on intrinsic motivation, this study suggests also leaving time in student interactions to incorporate extrinsic motivation.

The specific purpose of academic advising will likely always differ among institutions and academic advisors; however, student success should always remain a central tenant. Furthermore, how to most effectively generate student success will also vary, though through research, advisors and higher education institutions can better understand the many different options at their disposal.

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APPENDIX A: SURVEY DEMOGRAPHICS

Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this survey exploring the relationship between transformational leadership behaviors in academic advising and student motivation. The survey will take approximately 20 minutes to complete and results will remain completely anonymous. Please click next to begin.

Have you previously completed this survey?

- No
- Yes

Student Demographics

Please select the appropriate response.

Are you?

- Male
- Female
- Other

What is your class standing?

- Freshman
- Sophomore
- Junior
- Senior
- Graduate Student
- Other

What is your age?

- 14-17
- 18-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- 65 years or older

APPENDIX B: ACADEMIC MOTIVATION SCALE (AMS-C 28) COLLEGE VERSION

ACADEMIC MOTIVATION SCALE (AMS-C 28) COLLEGE VERSION

*Robert J. Vallerand, Luc G. Pelletier, Marc R. Blais, Nathalie M. Brière,
Caroline B. Senécal, Évelyne F. Vallières, 1992-1993
Educational and Psychological Measurement, vols. 52 and 53*

WHY DO YOU GO TO COLLEGE ?

Using the scale below, indicate to what extent each of the following items presently corresponds to one of the reasons why you go to college.

Does not correspond at all 1	Corresponds a little 2	Corresponds moderately 3	Corresponds a lot 4	Corresponds a lot 5	Corresponds exactly 6	Corresponds exactly 7
---------------------------------------	------------------------------	--------------------------------	---------------------------	---------------------------	-----------------------------	-----------------------------

WHY DO YOU GO TO COLLEGE ?

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Because with only a high-school degree I would not find a high-paying job later on. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. Because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. Because I think that a college education will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. For the intense feelings I experience when I am communicating my own ideas to others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. Honestly, I don't know; I really feel that I am wasting my time in school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. For the pleasure I experience while surpassing myself in my studies. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. To prove to myself that I am capable of completing my college degree. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. In order to obtain a more prestigious job later on. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9. For the pleasure I experience when I discover new things never seen before. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. Because eventually it will enable me to enter the job market in a field that I like. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. For the pleasure that I experience when I read interesting authors. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12. I once had good reasons for going to college; however, now I wonder whether I should continue. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13. For the pleasure that I experience while I am surpassing myself in one of my personal accomplishments. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14. Because of the fact that when I succeed in college I feel important. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15. Because I want to have "the good life" later on. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

16. For the pleasure that I experience in broadening my knowledge about subjects which appeal to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Because this will help me make a better choice regarding my career orientation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. For the pleasure that I experience when I feel completely absorbed by what certain authors have written.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I can't see why I go to college and frankly, I couldn't care less.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult academic activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. To show myself that I am an intelligent person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. In order to have a better salary later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Because my studies allow me to continue to learn about many things that interest me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Because I believe that a few additional years of education will improve my competence as a worker.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. For the "high" feeling that I experience while reading about various interesting subjects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I don't know; I can't understand what I am doing in school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Because college allows me to experience a personal satisfaction in my quest for excellence in my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Because I want to show myself that I can succeed in my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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APPENDIX C: TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP SCALE- ACADEMIC ADVISING

Transformational Leadership Scale-Academic Advising

Please select the appropriate response. Responses will be anonymous and there is no right or wrong answer.

1. My advisor fulfills what he or she promises

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

2. My advisor involves me in making decisions that affect me

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

3. My advisor establishes clear priorities

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

4. My advisor breaks down problems into smaller components

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

5. My advisor demonstrates the same priorities he or she describes

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

6. My advisor makes me feel important when speaking

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

7. My advisor sets specific standards for task achievement

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

8. My advisor encourages me to generate alternative solutions to problems

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

9. My advisor makes eye contact while speaking to me

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

10. My advisor considers different student having different needs

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

11. My advisor motivates me to work hard

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

12. My advisor asks questions before considering ways to solve a problem

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

13. My advisor addresses me by my name

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

14. My advisor listens with great curtesy when I speak

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

15. My advisor establishes clear standards of expected performance

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
--	--	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

16. My advisor stimulates me to find news ways to problems

Very rarely, if ever <input type="radio"/>	Not very often <input type="radio"/>	Sometimes <input type="radio"/>	Pretty often <input type="radio"/>	As often as possible <input type="radio"/>
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17. My advisor involves me in decisions made about me

Very rarely, if ever O	Not very often O	Sometimes O	Pretty often O	As often as possible O
------------------------------	------------------------	----------------	-------------------	------------------------------

18. My advisor asks me about my individual interests

Very rarely, if ever O	Not very often O	Sometimes O	Pretty often O	As often as possible O
------------------------------	------------------------	----------------	-------------------	------------------------------

19. My advisor demonstrates a passion for excellence in everything they do

Very rarely, if ever O	Not very often O	Sometimes O	Pretty often O	As often as possible O
------------------------------	------------------------	----------------	-------------------	------------------------------

20. My advisor encourages me to look at problems from different angles

Very rarely, if ever O	Not very often O	Sometimes O	Pretty often O	As often as possible O
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21. My advisor encourages me to express my opinion

Very rarely, if ever O	Not very often O	Sometimes O	Pretty often O	As often as possible O
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22. My advisor helps me clarify non-academic problems

Very rarely, if ever O	Not very often O	Sometimes O	Pretty often O	As often as possible O
------------------------------	------------------------	----------------	-------------------	------------------------------

23. My advisor encourages exceptionally high standards of performance

Very rarely, if ever O	Not very often O	Sometimes O	Pretty often O	As often as possible O
------------------------------	------------------------	----------------	-------------------	------------------------------

24. My advisor suggests new ways to accomplish my goals:

Very rarely, if ever O	Not very often O	Sometimes O	Pretty often O	As often as possible O
------------------------------	------------------------	----------------	-------------------	------------------------------

Scale adapted from Ali, M. S, Manjunath, L., & Yadav, V. S. (2014). A scale to measure the transformational leadership of extension personnel at lower level of management. *Research Journal of Agricultural Sciences*, 5(1), 120–127.

**APPENDIX D: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF STUDY
VARIABLES (N=81)**

	M	SD
Transformational Leadership	3.75	.66
Idealized Influence	3.93	.65
Individualized Consideration	3.83	.69
Inspirational Motivation	3.78	.68
Intellectual Stimulation	3.47	.75
Motivation	5.65	.74
Intrinsic Motivation	5.28	1.02
IM-To Know	5.63	.88
IM-Towards Accomplishment	5.24	1.14
IM-To Experience Stimulation	4.97	1.26
Extrinsic Motivation	5.89	.68
EM-Identified	5.94	.62
EM-Introjected	5.62	1.01
EM-External Regulation	6.09	.83
Amotivation	1.93	1.07

Note. Transformational leadership variables measured on 5-point scale
Motivation variables measured on a 7-point scale

APPENDIX E: SIMPLE CORRELATIONS AMONG STUDY VARIABLES

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	Transformational Leadership	(.96)	.96**	.96**	.97**	.94**	.52**	.50**	.53**	.44**	.46**	.37**	.33**	.40**	.18**	-.40**
2	TL-Idealized Influence		(.89)	.94**	.92**	.83**	.52**	.48**	.47**	.43**	.46**	.39**	.31**	.41**	.22**	-.49**
3	TL-Individual Consideration			(.91)	.90**	.83**	.47**	.43**	.44**	.36**	.41**	.37**	.25**	.43**	.18**	-.38**
4	TL-Inspirational Motivation				(.89)	.90**	.54**	.53**	.55**	.46**	.49**	.37**	.34**	.36**	.22**	-.48**
5	TL-Intellectual Stimulation					(.92)	.46**	.49**	.57**	.44**	.40**	.31**	.39**	.39**	.10**	-.28**
6	Motivation						(.89)	.93**	.83**	.89**	.88**	.84**	.68**	.77**	.63**	-.64**
7	Intrinsic Motivation							(.95)	.90**	.95**	.94**	.62**	.54**	.62**	.37**	-.47**
8	IM-To Know								(.89)	.81**	.75**	.55**	.53**	.54**	.28**	-.46**
9	IM-Toward Accomplishment									(.91)	.85**	.58**	.51**	.60**	.32**	-.40**
10	IM-To Experience Stimulation										(.89)	.60**	.46**	.57**	.42**	-.47**
11	Extrinsic Motivation											(.87)	.72**	.87**	.86**	-.43**
12	EM-Identified												(.71)	.42**	.51**	-.50**
13	EM-Introjected													(.84)	.61**	-.29**
14	EM-External Regulation														(.80)	-.33**
15	Amotivation															(.88)

**p<.01