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Behavioral Motivation of High School Leadership Organizations

Jake Kloeppel
Lindenwood University

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by

Jake Kloeppel

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Shelly Fransen — Dr. Shelly Fransen, Dissertation Chair — 1-8-2021 — Date

Randy Caffey — Dr. Randy Caffey, Committee Member — 1-8-2021 — Date

Jodi Elder — Dr. Jodi Elder, Committee Member — 1-8-2021 — Date

Declaration of Originality

I do hereby declare and attest to the fact that this is an original study based solely upon my own scholarly work at Lindenwood University and that I have not submitted it for any other college or university course or degree.

Full Legal Name: Jake E. Kloeppel

Signature:  Date: 1-8-21

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Abstract

This quantitative research study examined the perceptions of ninth through 12th grade leadership students and facilitators, regarding their motivation to project-based learning scenarios. Electronic surveys requesting approximately 180 participants were sent to five school districts from three counties in Central Missouri. A total of 203 participants chose to respond to the survey, *Motivation Questionnaire* (MQ; Phillips & Gully, 2013), consisting of 15 Likert-scale items and one optional, open-ended question, which was designed using McClelland's Human Motivation Theory (1987). The results of this study showed there were only minimal differences in the motivation to project-based learning scenarios between members of multiple or single leadership organizations, various National and Central Missouri leadership organizations, and adult leadership facilitators, versus students of high school leadership organizations.

A majority of high school leadership organizations were significantly motivated by achievement motives, followed by power motives, and essentially lacked affiliation motives. Leadership facilitators displayed negligible higher achievement motives than students of leadership organizations. Leadership organizations with a hierarchal structure displayed members more motivated by power than organizations without hierarchal structures. Last, individuals involved in multiple leadership organizations also displayed more power motives than those in one leadership organization. The lack of leadership curriculum, training, and assessments to determine individual student motivations in leadership organizations were considered the top deficiencies in identifying and reaching higher motivation.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Today's educators from every facet of the scholastic spectrum "have been and continue to be combated with student motivation issues" (Stephens, 2015, p. 1). The same struggle of limited motivation within the regular classroom has also been observed in high school leadership settings (Aminitehrani, 2017). Leadership organizations often operated on the premise of students being motivated in project-based learning scenarios and building foundational leadership skills from these settings (Matthews, 2015). Hmelo-Silver (2004) noted when students lacked motivation, educators and sponsors of school organizations found successful project completion often to be unattainable. One reason for this may have been because many students and facilitators found difficulty in understanding motives towards tasks, resulting in lowered motivation and achievement in projects (Galassi & Akos, 2004). The aim of this study investigated the relationship between high school leadership organizations and motivation and seeks to identify these associations through conditioned behavioral motives (McClelland, 1987; Phillips & Gully, 2013).

The results from many empirical studies in the United States concluded students involved in clubs and organizations that provided opportunities for developing character and leadership greatly contributed to the post-secondary success of these students (O'Sullivan & Dallas, 2010; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014; Matthews, 2015). Administration at post-secondary institutions also found many students coming into their programs were lacking in motivation needed to work through authentic problems (Walker & Gresham, 2014). Numerous stakeholders and educational policymakers believed there should be a drive towards increasing the amount of motivational understandings of those

organizations that build fortitude and character of students through leadership education (Matthews, 2015).

While leadership organizations have offered many students valuable skills, there have not been national designated trainings or curriculums that identified or attempted to increase behavioral motivation (Matthews, 2015). This study aimed to examine Central Missouri leadership organizations; however, information regarding these programs has not been guided by Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) and Annual Performance Report (APR) evaluations (Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education [MODESE], 2019). According to Karaginanni and Montgomery (2018), there has not been an identifying motive format used for leadership students that addressed conditional preferences, while reflecting on organizational strategies, partly because leadership instruction has been interpreted so broadly. Therefore, this study aimed to uncover relationships between high school leadership organizations and conditioned motives to elicit viable motivational information (McClelland, 1987; Phillips & Gully, 2013).

High school leadership organizations were those that established sets of character norms or requirements for individuals to be a part of and through which to serve (Matthews, 2015). These leadership organizations generally were composed of students seeking opportunities to offer meaningful change and to learn through paradigms of service (Benner, Brow, & Jeffery, 2019). Many adult facilitators of these leadership organizations have been offering these services to students through the work of project-based learning scenarios (Capraro, Capraro, & Morgan, 2016). While leadership organizations (Matthews, 2015), motivation (McClelland, 1987), and work within project-based learning (Capraro et al., 2016) have numerous studies as individual

variables, latent observations of behavioral motives to working in project-based learning scenarios, in the context of high school leadership organizations merits further study. For the resolutions of this observation, leadership organizations served as the independent variable. Earlier attempts were made to measure motives (Braunstein & Steers 1976) by analyzing individual conditioned needs through organizational work as an attempt to identify trends (McClelland, 1987). While project-based learning work and leadership organizations were different, the relationship that occurred within these two variables were categorized in Phillips and Gully's (2013) organizational motivation assessment (p. 216).

Background of the Study

Educators have found motivating high school students has continued to be an ongoing goal and continues to be an elusive target without understandings of intrinsic origins (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Within the contexts of leadership programs in public high schools, there has been limited literature available for educators relating to equitable practices for facilitators to use (Craft, 2012). Pont, Nusche, and Moorman (2008) reported a majority of these leadership organizations had been presented in a manner requiring students to complete projects without applicable educational understandings.

Sarikas (2018) suggested from the work of renowned educational theorist, Vygotsky, student knowledge and performance were reflective of the instruction provided by educators. Sarikas (2018) noted, not only have students been evaluated on their abilities to complete tasks, but the facilitators of those leadership programs ultimately faced scrutiny in how well students completed projects. Matthews (2015) discussed the need for students to do well participating in the work of project-based

learning scenarios, as this teaching strategy has been crucial for student education and also important for projects' success, student organizations' facilitators, and students' leadership growth. With the conflicting information on the source of motivation for leadership students, the question that continually resurfaced has been what behavioral motivations high school leadership organizations needed to successfully complete the work of project-based learning scenarios (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014)?

Twenge (2013) found school officials and society have set increased requirements for students to do more and to become more civically involved than ever before. Twenge (2013) discussed that extra student involvement potentially created diminished motivation by spreading student time and allocation. Matthews (2015) also noted there has been an increased need for high school students to be more civically engaged, but also to be better leaders. As there has become an increased amount and leadership organizations, leadership opportunities, and pressures for students to be a part of them, clarity of their objectives and what was best for student motivation has not been defined (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). Many of these leadership programs have involved the students in project-based and non-curricular learning activities void of student learning preferences and motivational identifying techniques (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014).

Student growth often has been quantified as academic achievement and focused on the core subjects, such as science, social studies, reading, and math (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). The public educational institutions of Missouri Kindergarten through 12th grade annually have been evaluated under Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) and Annual Performance Report (APR), which measured schools on (a) academic achievement, (b)

subgroup achievement, (c) English language arts, (d) mathematics, (e) attendance, and (f) graduation, (g) college and career readiness, pressuring educators to seek additional motivating techniques (MODESE, 2019). As this study occurred in Central Missouri, there were no state mandated assessments, AYP, and/or APR accountability for leadership student motivation education. While there was emerging evidence that motivation was linked to success in many educational areas to include leadership, no guidelines or studies explored the conditional project-based learning motives of high school leadership students.

Aminitehrani (2017) stated, in regard to assessing projects of leadership programs, the outcome of the project has been the only assessment tool. Previously, the process used to evaluate student projects, which focused on school body inclusiveness, student rewards, humanities, and culture, was determined by students' completion of the project (Technology Student Association [TSA], 2012). The TSA (2012) stressed this process was ineffective because, waiting until the completion of a project to evaluate success did not give leadership facilitators opportunities to remediate issues of student motivation. Addressing these issues of motivation with subsequent behavioral preferences could have enhanced the students' experiences and made their learning processes more effective (TSA, 2012). The component that has been left out of most leadership student project-based learning studies and has continued to be an issue, was the evaluation of motive variables and leader preferences throughout the implementation of the student projects (Duch, Groh, & Allen, 2001). As Matthews (2015) and Duch et al. (2001) described, the research and curriculum surrounding leadership education has not been cohesive or effective for assessing motives toward motivation in students' work.

Matthews (2015) highlighted the concerns of vague representations of educational leadership and the vast training methods associated with each. Leadership for high school students has been broadly represented as students' abilities to manipulate a group, a test of physical fitness, or attainment of high academic marks (Matthews, 2015); leadership has continued to be comprehensive and difficult to quantify (Matthews, 2015). Matthews (2015) described the creation of a broad standard of elements known to increase motivation towards project-based learning scenarios aided in refining a curricular direction for leadership. The relevance and importance of this evaluation could have helped to remediate potential issues as they occurred, specifically in terms of the time taken, steps to identify motivation, leadership roles of differing demographics, and inferences made amid student leadership projects (TSA, 2012). The TSA (2012) emphasized addressing project-based learning scenarios with curriculum has more potential to be effective, while giving students greater control of project outcomes, as students have been better able to adapt to handling complex leadership roles now and in the future.

Kokotsaki, Menzies, and Wiggins (2016) determined project-based learning, as a general topic, has still not been developed adequately, and even more so in leadership, because a "causal link between project-based learning instruction and positive student outcomes cannot be established with certainty" (p. 1). Kokostsaki et al. (2016) further described the successful implementations of project-based learning have not been observed in leadership settings due to the lack of consistency in instructional methods. The application of project-based learning as a teaching tool has been used in many teaching applications, yet it has not been tested in the general educational setting of

leadership realms (Kokostaki et al., 2016). While project-based learning has not been evaluated effectively in leadership education, it has been proven to aid in "real-world educational connections" (Simkins, Cole, Tavalin, & Means, 2002, p. 33). Simkins et al. (2002) stated the utilization of project-based learning has:

> Shifted the assessment paradigm away from a focus of superficial assessment of rote learning. Through alternative methods, such as student portfolios, oral presentations, multimedia presentations, and review by experts and peers, assessment of project-based learning provides a more complete picture of student achievement, helping teachers and students monitor and improve progress. (p. 6)

Through project-based learning scenarios, leadership students accomplished real-world problems, while preparing to be successful within post-secondary leadership settings (Walker et al., 2015). Project-based learning at a high school level has allowed many students to fully engulf themselves within scenarios fundamentally applicable to issues within their future (Walker et al., 2015). Facilitators' understanding of whether a project was completed proficiently had usually been determined by end results (Duch et al., 2001; TSA, 2012; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014) although a dire function missing in leadership education has been the process to build appropriate student motivation to projects using their interests and preferences of work motivation (Duch et al., 2001).

In this study, the main objectives were to determine whether there were common effectual behavioral motives and variables of high school leadership students' motivation in project-based learning scenarios. Also, adding literature on how these behavioral motive variables could predict individual capacities to work within organizational settings (Phillips & Gully, 2013). Data were collected with the intent to discover

behavioral motives from students, as testing variables in teaching methods has been extremely difficult and "unreliable as they must be observed" (Shaver, 1983, p. 3); although, Braunstein and Steers (1976) validated behavioral motives as causation to individual motivation. This study aimed to identify the motivation of leadership organizations, not to apply prescriptive motivational techniques. However, hypotheses regarding relationships of the independent variable—leadership organizations, and dependent variable—motivation, are addressed in Chapter Two and measured in Chapter Four for reader clarity. As data regarding the independent and dependent variables was collected by participant instructors, hypothesizing effective behavioral motive preferences were not applied or validated without direct observation (Shaver, 1983). However, through this research process, the main objective was to ascertain information and additional literature from high school leadership organizations on the topic of motivation in project-based learning scenarios.

Purpose of the Study

A driving purpose of this research was to determine the motives of work experienced by students in high school leadership programs from the context of their predilections of working in project-based learning activities. Further detailed, this study investigated the perceptions of students and instructors regarding achievement, power, and affiliation as behavioral preferences in the Motivation Questionnaire (MQ; Braunstein & Steers, 1976; Phillips & Gully, 2013). This study may give new breadth to the research on motivation, specifically with students participating in high school leadership programs, but could also extend beyond to all classroom settings regarding work. To address the research questions, quantitative data were provided to determine

conditioned variables (Phillips & Gully, 2013) that motivated high school leadership organization students to work. The outcome of this study demonstrated a prospective application to close gaps in the curriculum and understandings related to the topic of student motives to project-based learning scenarios within leadership organizations.

Statement of the Problem

In the contexts of high school leadership organizations, there has been a persistent void in understanding the motivation of these leadership students (Aminitehrani, 2017). Knapp and Hopmann (2017) discussed high school leadership as a subject that has continued to be left without curricular and motivational development. Leadership facilitators have been attempting to meet project demands without current curriculum and content (Glatthorn, Boschee, Whitehead, & Boschee, 2019); limiting leadership students' work output due to lack of prescriptive curricular materials (Glatthorn et al., 2019). If facilitators and students had been able to recognize elements most likely to increase motivation to work in project-based learning scenarios, leadership facilitators could have then implemented these preferences into developmental leadership curriculum with further research (Sahli, 2018).

The analysis of motivation found to be most effective in leadership organizations elicited from this study could inferentially add to the existing gaps in the literature related to high school leadership organizations (Aminitehrani, 2017). This study aimed to recognize the most effectual conditioned motives of leadership organizations towards project work, to understand potential behavioral preferences in regard to leadership organization type, discover differences in behavioral motives of individuals in multiple leadership organizations, and relationship of adult facilitators' perspectives on students'

behavioral motives to create more intuitive learning for students (Matthews, 2015; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014).

Research questions and hypotheses. The following key questions guided this study:

1. What difference, if any, exists between leadership organizations and motivation of adult leadership instructors?

$H1_0$: There are no differences between leadership organizations and motivation of adult leadership instructors.

$H1_a$: There are differences between leadership organizations and motivation of adult leadership instructors.

2. What are the significant motivational effects of individuals in two or more leadership organizations?

$H2_0$: There are no significant motivational effects of individuals in two or more leadership organizations.

$H2_a$: There are significant motivational effects of individuals in two or more leadership organizations.

3. What are the significant differences among high school leadership organizations and motivation in project-based work settings?

$H3_0$: There are no significant differences among high school leadership organizations and motivation in project-based work settings.

$H3_a$: There are significant differences among high school leadership organizations and motivation in project-based work settings.

Significance of the Study

This study aimed to identify behavioral motives of high school leadership organizations in project-based learning scenarios through examination of the Motivation Questionnaire MQ (Phillips & Gully, 2013). Harris (2013) found there were varied methods to identify and increase motivation in most students, but little of this information focused on high school leadership students. Matthews (2015) described the information provided to instruct high school leadership students has been vague and lacking in concrete curricular examples. Leadership instructors generally have had difficulty steering students in a direction as not only were lessons limited, but appropriate motivational constructs have not been clarified (Matthews, 2015).

Educators of leadership programs often have been left deciphering through arbitrary leadership training information to model lessons for high school students' leadership curriculum (Karagianni & Montgomery, 2018). Karagianni and Montgomery (2018) noted the majority of leadership students' educations were spent in classrooms; simultaneously, many students during this time were being educated with inept or inappropriate motivational materials. Aminitehrani (2017) wrote, there has not been a methodological or educational flow to high school leadership organizations apart from understanding that leadership experiences have been beneficial for students in the present and the future.

A majority of educational subjects have been guided by national and/or state standards to reinforce student learning (Ciccone & Freiberg, 2013). However, by examining the void in high school leadership resources, there has not been national or state guidance for instructors of leadership curriculum, which identified or measured

motivation (Ciccone & Freiberg, 2013). Ciccone and Freiberg (2013), Wiseman and Hunt (2014), Matthews (2015), and Karagianni and Montgomery (2018), all made the case that high school leadership organizations had significantly positive impacts on students' futures; however, they also expressed the disconnect in identifying motives, training material, and educating students toward leadership success.

An additional goal of this study was to identify behavioral motivation in leadership students and create a guideline of information for success in project-based learning scenarios for facilitators. The objectives of this study attempted to fill the specific voids in high school leadership education, while adding to gaps in literature and available curriculum. Karagianni and Montgomery (2018) found in attempts to deepen the literature surrounding leadership programs, researchers stepped further away from a homogenous leadership measurement as specific assessments were often not utilized. A means for assessing student motivation in leadership organizations has not been developed, due to the lack in sound, consistent, and testable practices, which were especially required for project-based learning scenarios (Ciccone & Freiberg, 2013).

There has not been a singular testing or survey format to use for leadership students that has identified conditioned behavioral motives while reflecting on weaknesses, partly because leadership instruction has been interpreted so broadly (Karagianni & Montgomery, 2018). Some educators viewed leadership as conformity or adaptability, while others viewed leadership as the methods used to manipulate a group (Matthews, 2015). Matthews (2015) discussed how leadership educators struggled with the idea of modeling from the top down or utilizing student-empowerment to build from the bottom up. This point of view has further led leadership education toward taking on

many different forms for different instructors, which created an uneasiness in leadership instructors' willingness to utilize current literature or training (Ciccone, 2013).

This study aimed to clarify specific literature based on behavioral motivation of McClelland's (1987) motivational theory to identify a base for motivational development. With the use of Phillips and Gully's (2013) assessment, information was provided regarding motivation of leadership organization members. Not only did this study provide motivational information for leadership organizations; but, it also provided insight into a viable assessment for motivational identification and measuring (Phillips & Gully, 2013).

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations were identified in this study:

Surveying devices. As the survey devices (paper and digital) were distributed throughout differing leadership organizations, it was possible that the proctoring protocols were misunderstood or administered incorrectly by leadership facilitators.

Sample demographics. The data collected were not a full representation of all students throughout the region, but rather a cross-section of all students and facilitators in leadership organizations of the participating districts.

Time. The scope of the survey only included leadership organizations during the working 2019-2020 School Year.

The following assumptions were accepted:

1. It was assumed the testing procedure was to be given to only high school students and facilitators in leadership positions in grades nine through 12.
2. Participating school district officials provided the research survey to only high school students of valid leadership organizations.

3. Students answered the prompts honestly and accurately as all directions and procedures were explained according to the provided instructions.
4. Each school facilitator correctly gathered data and returned it in a manner that accumulated accurate information from students who answered to the best of their abilities.

Definition of Key Terms

For this study, the following terms were defined:

Achievement Motivation. Achievement motivation was considered motivation in which an individual's competence is at issue (McClelland, 1987); individuals with needs of achievement showed individuals who had calculated the risk where they had become slightly over-extended by challenges that were still attainable (McClelland, 1987).

Affiliation motivation. Affiliation motivation has been described as having a formal connection and the main objective of individuals in work settings (McClelland, 1987).

Apathy. Apathy was described as the mindfulness and enthusiasm in students' performances (Chasteen, 2019).

Facilitators. Facilitators were described as pivotal members of the academic–practice partnerships, and they played key roles in promoting positive outcomes for both students and practice by making processes easier (Staffileno, Murphy, Hinch, & Carlson, 2019). For the purposes of this dissertation, it will be used as the individuals facilitating leadership organizations (Staffileno et al., 2019) .

Non-curricular. Non-curricular was described as void of educational curriculum or standard educational practices (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014).

Power motivation. Power was defined as the motivation to be successful, dominant over others, or to be able to complete tasks (McClelland, 1987).

Project-based learning. Project-based learning referred to any programmatic or instructional approach that utilized multifaceted projects as a central organizing strategy for educating students (*Glossary of Education Reform*, 2013). For this dissertation it was the confines to which motivational work was measured in (*Glossary of Education Reform*, 2013).

Student empowerment. Student empowerment was defined as the process or outcome where students of any age gained the ability, authority, and agency to make decisions and to implement changes in their own schools, learning and education, and in the education of other people, including fellow students of any age and adults throughout their educations (Fletcher, 2019).

Student leadership. Student leadership was described as the ability of the student body to influence major decisions about its quality of education and learning environment (Rodríguez & Villarreal, 2003).

Testable practices. Testable practices were considered the teaching areas that were able to be assessed for effectiveness and quality (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014).

Void. Void was defined as the quality or state of being without instructional educational information (Quaye, Harper, & Pendakur, 2020)

Summary

This study aimed to test and to analyze the relationships of variables: leadership organizations, and motivation. Future high school leadership organization success should be able to benefit from this type of study as a means to understand and to increase work

from individuals (McClelland, 1987; Phillips & Gully, 2013). Research questions, as well as key terms, were discussed in this chapter to provide the reader with enhanced understandings of the concepts that were utilized. Furthermore, the distinctive variables have been explained as to their individual significance and relationship in "subsequent behavioral preferences of motivation" (Braunstein & Steers, 1976, p. 255; Phillips & Gully, 2013).

In Chapter Two, the literature review will include an overview of information in regard to motivation, origins of project-based learning, and high school leadership organizations. Also, in the chapter, leadership organizations as the independent variable and motivation as the dependent variable were connected to the theoretical framework for this study. The literature review concludes with a discussion of the academic responses of inhibitors and enhancers of motivation with differing aspects between diverse educational strategies, environments, and conditioning relevant to high school leadership students to highlight the importance.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Introduction

Finding ways to motivate students has been an ongoing struggle that many educators have found themselves continually combating (D'Elisa, 2015). A prevailing deduction from educators in the context of motivation has been the lack of training, curriculum, and standards available to identify and guide students' motivation in leadership organizational settings (Matthews, 2015). Furthermore, Matthews (2015) discussed the common implicit bias from many educators in assuming students in leadership organizations were more commonly motivated than non-leadership involved students. Yet, these students required the same, if not more, instruction to be invested and aligned within their educational pursuits (Matthews, 2015). Not only have many educators been concerned about student motivation, but researchers and policymakers have increasingly focused on students' low achievement, boredom, alienation, and high dropout rates caused by the misapprehensions of student motivation (Fredricks, Reschly, & Christenson, 2014).

While it has been important to increase motivation in students, understanding origins in individuals must have been analyzed before these developments can take place (D'Elisa, 2015). This study focused on examining the variables of motivation of high school leadership students as they participated in project-based learning scenarios as means to identify motives. The MQ was the instrument used in this organizational investigation to reveal trends in the independent and dependent variables of this investigation.

As there has not yet been a research-based leadership curriculum or assessments established, homogenous leadership training has not been available to educators for student instruction (Aminitehrani, 2017; Matthews, 2015; TSA, 2012). This study was conducted in school districts in Missouri, which did not have a state-mandated leadership curriculum, standards, pacing guides, or expectations for educators or leadership facilitators to follow at the time this research study was launched (MODESE, 2019). Through this investigation, identified motives then could have been used in later examinations regarding leadership motivation.

As this study focused on the relationship of high school leadership organizations and the individual members' motives as motivation towards project-based learning tasks. This chapter established a theoretical framework and discussed the theories explaining how leadership organizations, behavioral preferences, and project-based learning scenarios constructed individual motivation. Literature related to high school leadership, foundations of project-based learning, composition of high school leadership organizations, and educational motivation elements have been reviewed and evaluated. This chapter also will include the development of the used motivation assessment employed while also identifying its origins.

High School Leadership

The aim of this study was to identify the behavioral preferences (Braunstein & Steers, 1976), which have increased motivation in project-based learning scenarios in the contexts of high school leadership organizations. Two primary goals of this study were to improve and to add to the research on high school leadership programs and to identify behavioral motivation that may have been useful for further analysis in leadership

instruction. Many educators have noted high school leadership training techniques and educational materials have been absent in the wake of increased societal leadership demands (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). Aminitehrani (2017) believed high school leadership organizations have been used as "superficial props and have offered little sense of purpose" due to the lack of focus on leadership guidance and curricular needs (p. 4). Not every student should have had to join a high school leadership organization, but educational institutions concerned for future leaders should have provided every opportunity for high school students to be successful (Aminitehrani, 2017).

Importance of high school leadership. Covey (2012) wrote today's students have been living in a global economy that has sped the complexity at which the world needed adaptable leaders. Post-secondary institutions' administrators have developed entrance protocols that have required more leadership and community involvement from applicants wishing to join their associations (Greenwald, 2010). Policymakers and educational establishments also have increased pressure on high school students to be a part of leadership educational organizations before entrance to post-secondary institutions (Leithwood et al., 2004). In recognition of post-secondary demands for leadership experiences in high school students, many high school officials have provided more opportunities for students to develop leadership understandings (Aminitehrani, 2017). Tactlessly, in response to these demands, high school administrators created superficial programs void of student motivational leadership understandings (*The Princeton Review*, 2019).

A belief that leadership experiences for high school students were tied to the future successes of these students has been a common tenet in education (Leithwood et al., 2004). Covey (2012) described the constant and ever-changing educational standards, desired skills, and technology (Covey, 2012); yet, a continued pursuit for leadership traits in students, has remained in the focus of education. With the constant demand for leadership skills in high school students, school officials and facilitators have been tasked to provide opportunities for these students to be successful (Parlar, Emin, & Ramazan, 2017). Fostering leadership qualities in high school students has been shown to develop valuable skills, such as (a) problem-solving, (b) goal-setting, (c) decision-making, (d) group skills, and (e) communication skills, not found in other educational areas (Parlar et al., 2017). Wiseman and Hunt (2014) discussed that these same skillsets have been effective for adaptive life-long learners and successful leaders.

The composition of high school leadership organizations. Matthews (2015) described high school leadership organizations as a broad array of individual interpretations that had diluted a singular identity of leadership. In an attempt to determine what leadership meant, Winston and Patterson (2006) examined 160 articles and over 1,000 constructs covering leadership. As a result of the review, Winston and Patterson (2006) were successful in creating a "90-plus dimensional integrative definition of leadership" (p. 6). However, notably distinguished in their efforts to quantify leadership, they became more adamant in relating leader to the confines of what a specific organization desired (Winston & Patterson, 2006). Kumar, Adhish, and Deoki (2014) further wrote, "Leadership cannot be described simply in terms of the behavior, rather leadership involves a collaborative relationship that leads to collective action

grounded in the shared values of people working together to effect positive change" (p. 82).

To direct the purpose of this study and to clarify direction, parameters were developed to define high school leadership. Parlar et al. (2017) noted high school teachers identified leadership in students as a set of skills students performed in class and out of class to accomplish goals. Leadership organizations were the settings where structured and focused extracurricular groups purposed with preparing students for life skills and developing advanced problem-solving capacities using simulations and real-world scenarios (Parlar et al., 2017). Parlar et al. (2017) determined educators recognized communication skills, problem-solving skills, responsibility, honesty, and goal setting as the foundations of leadership. Leadership was about making an "organization a high-performing organization that continuously produces outstanding results with the highest level of human commitment to success" (Kumar et al., 2014, p. 83).

Leadership in a high school setting could be further defined as a set of general skills one has developed and used toward a functioning purpose or organization (Kumar et al., 2014; Parlar et al., 2017; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Participants of high school leadership organizations were asked to define their perspectives regarding their motives related to the work of project-based learning scenarios in their respective leadership organizations. Participants from this study recorded 12 unique high school leadership organizations, and, according to Parlar et al. (2017), these organizations defined leadership specific to their needs.

Leadership Focused Organizations. While there have been many leadership opportunities available for high school students, narrowing the focus was important to

refining the aim of this research. This study attempted to determine perspectives of high school students and leadership facilitators not involved in athletic or curricular settings. Athletic teams, as an example of one type of leadership organization, have been known to help students develop leadership traits (Ghildiyal, 2015); yet, their focus was on competition and honing sport-specific skills, not necessarily on universal leadership attributes (Ghildiyal, 2015). Another example, curricular leadership organizations, such as advanced placement, Speech and Debate teams, Mu Alpha Theta Delta, and dual enrollment courses also have fostered leadership tendencies (Cassidy, Keating, & Young, 2017). However, these curricular organizations have developed overwhelming academic focuses not viable for this study (Cassidy et al., 2017). Although athletic and curricular leadership organizations have comprised large portions of leadership opportunities in high schools (Burtka, 2018); the focus of this study was to utilize organizations with more universal attention on leadership, civic duty, and work settings quantifiable by the MQ instrument. As mentioned, this section outlined each of the 12 recorded organizations for reader clarity.

National Honors Society (NHS)—Has elevated a school's commitment to the values of scholarship, service, leadership, and character (National Honor Society, 2020). These four pillars have been associated with membership in the organization since its inception in 1921 (National Honor Society, 2020).

Family, Career and Community Leaders Association (FCCLA)—Leadership has been a primary focus of FCCLA (FCCLA, 2020). As students take responsibility for planning, implementing, and evaluating chapter projects and activities, they have

developed the skills needed to take the lead in their families, careers, and communities (FCCLA, 2020).

Junior Reserve Officers' Training Corps (JROTC)—Has prepared students for leadership roles, while fostering awareness of their rights, responsibilities, and privileges as American citizens (Army & Navy Academy, 2020).

Student Council (STUCO)—Has sought to provide a valuable leadership partnership between students and their schools. It has created the opportunity for students to become effective leaders, thus encouraging and influencing positive school climates (National Student Council, 2020).

Freshman Mentor Program (FMP)—Has set expectations for students as mentors to include the further development of leadership skills, encouraging attitudes, and acting like role models for all students (N. Jarman, Freshman Mentor Program, Personal Communication, March 13, 2020).

Future Farmers of America (FFA)—Has served as dynamic youth organizations that have changed lives and prepared members for premier leadership, personal growth, and career success through agricultural education (National FFA Organization, 2020).

Future Business Leaders of America (FBLA)—Has inspired and prepared students to become community-minded business leaders in a global society through relevant career preparation and leadership experiences (FBLA-PBL, 2019).

Beta Club—Has promoted the ideals of academic achievement, character, service and leadership among elementary and secondary school students (National Beta Club, 2020).

Future Teachers of America (FTA)—Has been an extra-curricular public-school organization operated as a school "club" (National Today, 2020). The organization FTA encouraged young people to choose teaching as a career and provided a means for students to participate in realistic educational activities (National Today, 2020).

Key Club—Members around the world have learned how to lead and to stand for what's right through service and volunteerism, in partnership with their local Kiwanis club (Key Club International, 2020). High school students in Key Club have made a positive impact as they served others in their schools and communities (Key Club International, 2020).

Old School Hornets Leadership (OSH)—Old School Hornets was a leadership organization at one participating school district which offered all students the ability to help serve as leaders in their schools and communities without having to meet other academic requirements (R. Caffey, *Old School Hornets,* Personal Communication, November, 2019).

Distributive Education Clubs of America (DECA)—Has prepared emerging leaders and entrepreneurs for careers in marketing, finance, hospitality, and management in high schools and colleges around the globe (DECA Inc. 2020).

While it was apparent that many of these organizations had slightly different concentrations, all have developed a framework around service and leadership (Cassidy et al., 2017). Using school districts that had different requirements, standards, and criteria for leadership organizations may have helped to indicate a more encompassing representation of behavioral motives in project-based learning scenarios (Parlar et al., 2014). However, all of the organizations, besides Old School Hornets (OSH), were

recognized as national and state leadership affiliations. By utilizing as many leadership organizations that were relevant to the study parameters, detection of a greater representation of the dependent variable—motivation would aid in discerning: (a) achievement, (b) power, and (c) affiliation as students' conditional behavioral preferences (Bolman & Deal, 2014; Phillips & Gully, 2013).

Foundations of project-based learning in leadership organizations. While education has continued to undergo various reformations, educators have been tasked with the fluid target of constant effective teaching (Covey, 2012). Authenticating students' educations to expand outside the realms of the classroom and to endure through their lives has been considered a fragmentary attribute of effective learning (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Many educational stakeholders have commended the use of state curriculum and standards in schools, yet some educators have been left without these targets and/or utilization of authentic instructional strategies (National Research Council, 2012). Matthews (2015) continued this sentiment regarding the current ambiguity of educating leadership students towards tangible or anticipated results.

Implementation of the varying dynamics of teaching has been a challenging proposition, and, thus, some educational researchers have recognized the authenticity of teaching using inductive project-based learning scenarios (Thomas, 2000). Dewey, an educator over a century ago, has been assumed as the originator to the authentic pedagogical approach of teaching known as project-based learning (Pieratt, 2010). While it has gone through changes, Dewey's project-based approach was rooted in the process of learning by doing (Pieratt, 2010). Pieratt (2010) discussed project-based learning scenarios as the "educationally relevant approach that has enduring value throughout

students' lives" (p. 52). Pieratt (2010) furthered this idea by describing project-based learning scenarios as one of the few teaching strategies that required individuals to solve problems through collaborative hands-on means.

Larmer, Mergendollar, and Boss (2015) further correlated Hattie's (2012) four most visibly effective learning strategies: (a) student expectations, (b) response to intervention, (c) formative teacher evaluations, and (d) feedback to the basic concepts of project-based learning scenarios. Walters and Sirotiak (2011) found in their review of research on project-based learning scenarios indicated "there was a statistically significant improvement in the student's ability to set goals, identify, and organize activities to best accomplish goals as well as being most suited to teach non-technical competencies of leadership abilities" (p. 1).

High school leadership organizations regularly have participated in projects-based scenarios as a means to apply unique and effective teaching methods to groups (Funk, 2002). These project-based learning scenarios drill further than deductive approaches as they require the students to identify, devise a plan, and work through authentic problems (Prince & Felder, 2006). Harlacher and Marzano (2015) reported that functioning collaborative groups when effectively facilitated, increased student achievement and retention when compared to traditional teaching methods. Several researchers noted the subjective educational competencies of leadership and as such, have understood project-based learning scenarios more accurately addressed real-world learning for these groups (Matthews, 2015; Sirotiak, 2011). Many researchers have suggested project-based learning scenarios were most effective to assess leadership organizations (Walters & Sirotiak, 2011); however, intentionality cognizant of students' preferences, desires,

variables, and attributes by facilitators must have been present to attain the benefits of this pedagogical practice (Harlacher & Marzano, 2015; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014).

Overview of Student Motivation

Student motivation has been classified as one of the top essential factors in educating students (Kumar et al., 2018). Wiseman and Hunt (2014) wrote that most students who were motivated fostered academic achievement, generated goodwill, respected others, and cooperated for productive learning. Consequently, how teachers should have motivated and sustained motivation in students has been consistently vague in training techniques (Griffin & Bolkan, 2018). While exploring the elements of student motivation and how individuals became motivated, understanding specific students' needs has been fundamental (Bolman & Deal, 2016; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). When students were motivated, not only functioning classroom culture has evolved, but also a connection and understanding of the student within efficient learning environments has emerged (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014).

Many researchers have attempted to define student motivation without congruence as it changed depending on the setting (Middleton & Perks, 2014). Adding more ambiguity, student motivation was a term widely transferred or interrelated with other forms of motivational doctrine not fitting for leadership education (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Student motivation was different from other motivational definitions, because it focused on the elements involved within the organizational learning environments and not just work environments (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). The *Merriam-Webster Dictionary* (2019) defined motivation as a motivating force, stimulus, or influence. *Webster's* (2019) definition was relevant, yet, it did not quantify the

propositions associated with student motivation. Matthews (2015) and Winston and Patterson (2006) elaborated that *student motivation* was a fluid term for it must have been applied in particular settings to be defined.

Wiseman and Hunt (2014) built an in-depth repertoire of student motivation definitions from various sources that derived meanings from the observant lens of educators. Burden (as cited in Wiseman & Hunt, 2014) defined student motivation as "the processes that can arouse and initiate student behavior, give direction and purpose to behavior, help behavior to persist, and help the student choose a particular behavior" (p. 7). Wiseman and Hunt (2014) found student motivation was an "energizing or activating of behavior, a directing of behavior, and a regulating persistence" of behavior focused on a specific task (p. 9). They added student motivation had been considered a state that stimulated one to action, pushed one in a particular direction, and kept one engaged in certain activities (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). In this light, student motivation has become clearer dependent variable for this study, which has not underestimated the contextual complexities found in *Webster's Dictionary* definition (Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006). However, in order to manipulate motivation in individuals the first operation must have been the identification of behavioral conditionings of motivation (McClelland, 1987).

Factors that enhance student motivation. This section of the literature observed the known enhancements to student motivation and how these enhancements were recorded in the contexts of educational leadership perspectives. Wiseman and Hunt (2014) confirmed there was not one catch-all strategy that increased student motivation, but how the educators utilized strategies was a method to show consistent promise. Freeman and Scheidecker (2009) described the common practice of placing full

responsibility for motivation on students has encouraged misguided student learning. Brown, Armstrong, and Thompson (2013) stated education must "contrast from the conventional psychological view of motivation as a stable individual trait with one which recognizes the role of teaching in motivating students" (p. 15). Students were considered as motivated and as driven as the facilitators who were giving instructions (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009). However, within the context of student motivation, Freeman and Scheidecker (2009) explained there was not a single teaching strategy that covered all students' lack of motivation as the root was specific to each individual. Yet, being cognizant and aware of when to augment strategies has produced the best success in developing student motivation (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009). Karaginanni and Montgomery (2018) further wrote facilitators who were conscious of the varied learning preferences and instructional desires of students were more likely to experience classrooms with deeper learning.

Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. The settings in which students operated effectively have been impacted by the students' extrinsic and intrinsic motivations (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009). Extrinsic motivation has been quantified as either obtaining rewards, avoiding punishments, or combining both to complete tasks (Brown et al., 2013). School officials have relied heavily on extrinsic factors, as society has in general, to encourage the completion of tasks (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009). Freeman and Scheidecker (2009) explained, just as famous athletes were awarded medals, students in grade school often were given golden stars when they did well.

Harlacher and Marzano (2015) wrote while ideal educational settings tended to desire intrinsic motivational constructs, most educational facilitators have been trained to

work and to teach using external motivators. Freeman and Scheidecker (2009) described externally motivated students were more concerned with rewards than with learning. The consensus was that extrinsic motivation produced long-term, negative effects on student motives (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009; Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Extrinsic motivation held momentary promise in achievement as students generally wanted, needed, or desired outcomes contingent on their performances (Brown et al., 2013). Sansone and Harackiewicz (2000) determined extrinsic motivation eventually dulled the desires of students to be motivated, while it increased the students' needs for external affirmations. As McClelland (1987) described understanding the conditional causation of motivation in individuals was the most effective way to identify and to increase these constructs.

The desired motivation commonly highlighted in educational literature has been intrinsic motivation (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Sansone and Harackiewicz (2000) defined intrinsic motivation within educational leadership settings as a complex component of motivating factors not associated with biological needs, securing rewards, or avoiding punishments. Student-motivational literature has continued to be a popular topic as there generally has been a universally sound educational ambition in having intrinsically motivated students (Provitera, 2012). This same concept could have been applied to educational leadership organizations (Provitera, 2012); a common goal has been to have students completing tasks effectively, learning, and becoming better leaders through intrinsic motivational conditionings (Matthews, 2015; Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014).

As Provitera (2012) explained, there was a fine line between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation that must be carefully observed. Intrinsic motivation improved self and was not a form of punishment or reward (Provitera, 2012). Intrinsic motivation has been considered a belief in self and desire, thus, being intrinsically motivated was a deliberate cultivation of character (Provitera, 2012). Most educators have desired their students to be intrinsically compelled to come to class, to work hard, to be involved, and to embrace the learning atmosphere (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Freeman and Scheidecker (2009) wrote having every leadership student intrinsically motivated has not been the case with current educational understanding and inept motivational procedures.

What has become a critical issue of intrinsic motivation and fostering the growth of motivation within the classroom towards the desired goal has been a lack of understandings and training strategies for facilitators (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009). As extrinsic motivation required punishments and rewards, intrinsic motivation was defined as self-growth in individuals and difficult to teach or to assess (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009). Wiseman and Hunt (2014) discussed a series of "intrinsic practices educational facilitators were to facilitate regularly to create a motivationally reflective teaching environment" (p. 54). These practices, as Wiseman and Hunt (2014) described; were: "(a) communicate importance of assigned work, (b) make curricular connections, and (c) make home-to-school connections with assignments" (p. 54). Although these practices addressed intrinsic teaching efforts, the remaining problem was they were also broad in their strategical applications (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Most importantly, noted by Wiseman and Hunt (2014), was the understanding the facilitators should have been

continually conscious of how to elicit effective conditionings from students regarding their learning experiences.

Factors that inhibit student motivation. Educators have used a myriad of strategies in traditional educational settings to increase students' motivations (Lindsey, Nuri-Robins, & Terrell, 2019). Just as there were many methods, practices, and strategies to be used for building motivation in students, there were as many, if not more, factors that inhibited student motivation (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). This section outlined experiences by educational environments or conditioning that have inhibited motivation. This study intended to further the development of effective educational strategies for leadership facilitators; consequently, it was important to narrow inhibiting factors controllable by the facilitator (Hattie, 2012). Furthermore, this research study also was designed to add to the research surrounding student motives when addressing project-based learning tasks and how these conditionings may construct behavioral motive preferences (McClelland, 1987).

Classroom Management. The importance of classroom management has been an essential component of scholastic training for nearly every field of education (Sanetti, Williamson, Long, & Kratochwill, 2018). Many educators have found and continued to report behavior and classroom management as one of their greatest challenges in motivating and educating students (Reinke, Stormont, Herman, Puri, & Goel, 2011). Several researchers described effective classroom management has presented students the settings to become and to sustain highly motivated (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009; Sanetti et al., 2018; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Learning environments without effective management strategies have failed to prevent problem behaviors impeding students'

motivation levels (Sanetti et al., 2018). Epstein, Atkins, Cullinan, Kutash, and Weaver (2008) laid out validated motivational management practices to be organized into "five critical areas: (a) maximizing structure and predictability, (b) establishing and teaching expectations, (c) engaging students in observable ways, (d) using a continuum of strategies to recognize appropriate behaviors, and (e) using a continuum of strategies to recognize inappropriate behaviors" (p.13). Equally added to the strategies was the direct correlation of poor management to decreased markers in motivation, academics, social, and positive behavioral outcomes (Epstein et al., 2008). Epstein et al. (2008) further detailed the importance of management not only for student motivation but for the effectiveness of educational facilitators and their practices.

Activities. Learning activities and environments have continued to have major implications in student motivation (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Several researchers described that students who had spent more time on learning activities were more motivated in instruction than students not invested in learning activities (Razinkina et al., 2018; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Wiseman and Hunt (2014) discussed issues and decreases in motivation when conscious and adaptable teaching strategies were not followed by educators. (Razinkina et al. (2018) explained "Decreasing student involvement within the educational process—specifically within projects—decreased cognitive motivation, personal development, and student satisfaction" (para. 1). Within the classroom, a policy of high expectations should have been matched with consistent logical and realistic responses to ensure equitable educational standards were met (Capraro et al., 2016). Motivation also was inhibited when there was student confusion and disorganization by instructors when presenting learning tasks and project-based

learning scenarios (Capraro et al., 2016). Although student dictation of educational activities has not been an effective learning strategy, the implementation of higher quality learning projects, relatable materials, and concise direction for learners has contributed greatly to motivation in students (Razinkina et al., 2018).

Content. Updated and relevant educational content has shown to have significant effects on student motivation (Albrecht & Karabenick, 2017; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Many educators have questioned "relevancy of curriculum to students as educators have been pressed into connecting content to students' lives" to build motivation (Albrecht & Karabenick, 2017, para. 1). Students have shown significant dissatisfaction with current learning standards and content in leadership education, because too often it has not been applied as a project relevant to real-life learning situations (Razinkina et al., 2018). To maintain motivation, educational content needed to capitalize on students' interests, desires, and skills not only for the moment, but also for the future (Koshkin, Abramov, Rozhina, & Novikov, 2018).

Environment. Motivation has been strongly affected by the environments, personas, and cultures of the school and its organizations (Riley et al., 2002). These environments and experiences are the factors that conditioned individuals' motives and abilities to work effectively (McClelland, 1987). Positive or negative experiences from students in educational settings have been crucial in the students' connections to organizations (Riley et al., 2002). Feelings of mistrust and disengagement have occurred when students and parents questioned the ineffective or punitive practices of schools and attitudes of teachers (Riley et al., 2002). Teachers' personalities and, thus, a culmination of schools' personalities often have been understood to be one of the most important

aspects of student motivation within education (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009). Riley et al. (2002) described these findings as inhibited motivation in students and their parents that have intentionally disengaged from the schools' cultures (Riley et al., 2002). Freeman and Scheidecker (2009) added teachers who were unmoved by student disaffection and students' needs were causes of inhibited student motivation. A large proponent in inhibiting motivational factors of students and school turnaround loosely discussed how schools collectively made productive cultures a priority (Hines et al., 2017). A productive culture in schools was viewed as teachers and facilitators working together to ensure student needs and voices were being met as a precursor to motivated student learning (Hines et al., 2017).

Academic benefits of motivation. Freeman and Scheidecker (2009) described motivation as one of the most desired student elements by educators. Students who had shown to be excited to work and focused on the lessons were engaged, because they had been motivated to be engaged (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009). Botvinick and Braver (2015) examined motivation's control over cognitive development, as it was the beginning stage of academic learning. Botvinick and Braver (2015) described motivation as the measurement for gauging how individuals learned and understood new material. There have been many motivational constructs and theories proving academic success, and analyzing all of them in this section was not a viable option (Botvinick & Braver, 2015). However, in this section, the study aimed to determine how motivation has benefited academics, but more specifically outlining motivation as an asset in high school project-based learning scenarios.

Behaviors. In observing the behaviors of motivated and unmotivated students, educational researchers have found crucial aspects within the theory of expectancy and value (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Educational facilitators have been confronted with students with varied behaviors and personality traits, which dictated the management and student motivation of the classrooms (McClelland, 1987; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Educators needed to be cognizant not only of student behaviors, but also methods to relate, to connect, and to inspire a wide range of students through the use of expectancy and value (Goetz & Hall, 2013). Students who have acquired behaviors emphasized by behavioral motives had intrinsic desires to learn and to accomplish academic goals (Goetz & Hall, 2013). In regard to expectancy, the students have understood the expectations (Goetz & Hall, 2013); just as with value, the students' behaviors have reflected concerns for putting forth academic efforts inside and outside of the classrooms (Goetz & Hall, 2013). Under the expectancy and value constructs, students who were conditioned in believing tasks were important with an educators' fostered beliefs in student success created the optimal academic settings (Groben & Hyde, 2017).

Expectancy and value. Academic success has been shown to increase as highly motivated students were found to adhere to academic reinforcements of expectancy and value (Geotz & Hall, 2013). Motivated students have displayed greater interactions with the learning process when they understood what was expected of them and valued the consequences of poor performances (Goetz & Hall, 2013). Many students understood the relevance of their lessons when they viewed their facilitators' expectations as satisfying and within their abilities (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Academic success increased as

students observed transparency in educators' expectations and found greater value in the learning process (Hattie, 2012).

Cognition. The cognitive approaches and developments in students were found to adhere to academics of motivated students (Goetz & Hall, 2013). Under further examination of the cognitive process, motivated students took a more intrinsic stance on observing their futures and the actions needed to achieve desired goals (Goetz & Hall, 2013). Motivated students have attempted cognitive approaches, which reduced dissonance in their academics by altering attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors more frequently than non-motivated students (*Lumen Society*, 2019). A major factor in "cognitive approaches within motivated students has been the mastery, control, and proficiency in attaining personal goals" (*Lumen Society*, 2019, para. 1). The cognitive process of motivated students has involved viewing the future and simultaneously evaluating their abilities and actions in preparation for the events ahead (Goetz & Hall, 2013). Under these confines, the motivated student was not only deciphering how to accomplish current academics, but also understanding how their actions at the moment affected the outcomes of their futures (Goetz & Hall, 2013).

Self-directed learning. According to Strom (2013), "Self-directed learning supports the motivation of individual students to discover the satisfaction of learning and continue personal development after formal education was completed" (p. 220). Self-directed learning has been an important aspect of motivated students, as they were intrinsically driven to fulfill their own educations (Strom, 2013). Self-directed students were observed as having greater academic curiosity, but also for doubting in their understanding of educational concepts (Strom, 2013). When students "doubted and posed

curiosity of self, often they have intrinsically initiated self-directed learning" (Strom, 2013, p.133). Self-directed learning was viewed as an asset in the education of higher thinking students, as they continually evaluated their levels of understanding (Strom, 2013). Nasri (2017) described self-directed learning as a higher-order thinking skill, which empowered students to take responsibility and leadership over their learning. Several researchers have noted the educational variables that initiated self-directed learning correlated to student motivation, amplifying students' life-long educational abilities (Morgan, 2018; Nasri, 2017; Strom, 2013).

Drive. Many leadership facilitators have found one of the most difficult aspects of teaching leadership was initiating student involvement in projects (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009). Facilitators and educators, alike, have witnessed motivated students as more driven and remained to educational tasks (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Increased motivation in students has created a sense of urgency for students to grasp concepts at every tangent of the learning process (Kelleher, 2015). Goetz and Hall (2013) wrote that students who were initiated at the beginning of projects were better prepared and adapted for potential difficulties. Once initiation has been attained in the beginning stages of projects, students generally have received greater academic success throughout their projects' progression (Goetz & Hall, 2013). Facilitators, alike, have observed less time being spent on management corrections when students were involved in the projects more quickly, and found students better at meeting and adapting to the educational demands within their future (Goetz & Hall, 2013).

Self-driven. Students who were academically motivated were found to spend more time completing quality work at higher educational levels than non-motivated

students (Goetz & Hall, 2013). Goetz and Hall (2013) determined students who were motivated created their own favorable learning conditions, and they have intrinsically acquired the appropriate resources to support their learning. Self-drive has been distinguished in motivated students, as it gave students greater opportunities to make their educations purposeful (Morgan, 2018; Strom, 2013). Several researchers discussed self-driven students developed deeper academic understandings and successful educational experiences (Morgan, 2018; Wiseman & Hunt 2014). Hodge, Wright, and Bennett (2018) conferred students who invested greater amounts of effort on learning and completing projects—regardless of their intellects—were more academically successful. Students motivated to advocate for their own academic goals devoted more time to become academically productive than non-motivated students and, thus, compounding their learning (Hodge et al., 2018).

The perceptive processing of motivated students has been observed on a deeper level of understanding and adherence to educational demands (Goetz & Hall, 2013). The initiation of projects and adherence to continually working on tasks has been demonstrated to be at greater depths and at higher levels in students who were highly motivated (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Motivation has caused students to be self-directed and to understand their actions in the present in preparation for future endeavors (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Discussed by several researchers, there have been countless positive academic, educational, leadership, and project-based learning benefits from having highly motivated students (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009; Goetz, 2013; Morgan, 2018; Wiseman, 2014).

Activities that stimulate student motivation. Wiseman and Hunt (2014) described that motivation was an essential variable in providing academic purpose, character building, and leadership development in students. While it has been difficult to understand what activities have motivated all students and how to maintain motivation, the following researchers highlighted several known variables that have stimulated most students' educational motives (Goetz & Hall, 2013). This section will articulate several of the most significant variables leading towards motivated students and why these methods have produced increased student achievement (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009; Strom, 2013; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Known motivators have given facilitators the ability to manage the learning environments for the most successful student educational settings as well as conditioning of positive outcomes (McClelland, 1987: Wiseman & Hunt, 2014).

In valuing the educational process of an appropriate classroom climate, the student and teacher have built the foundations for positive relationships where students have been motivated to be involved in learning projects (Rucinski et al., 2018; Sousa, 2016). Rucinski et al. (2018) further wrote that facilitators who have actively engaged in developing and maintaining positive relationships with students have stimulated the learning climate for increased motivation in students. Rucinski et al. (2018) suggested because facilitating a functional climate was such a stimulating descriptor for motivation, it should have been a mandatory element of educator training. Many researchers have concluded the climates of the classrooms encompassed several different tangents of motivational stimulation as a means to better educate and to train leadership students (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009; Rucinski et al., 2018; Strom, 2013; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014).

Expectations. Freeman and Scheidecker (2009) wrote once an effective classroom climate was attained, the next motivating activity was to create expectations of normalcy within students' behavior and students' work. Effective classroom expectations were those that guided classroom instruction, management, and required quality student work (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Strom (2013) described students who had been made aware of what was expected in the classroom gave students an educational direction and purpose. High expectations placed on learners has produced students with a sense of adulthood and belonging essential for educational autonomy (Strom, 2013). As Donohoo, Hattie, and Eells (2018) described, a collective set of procedures that have been practiced regularly by students reflected high expectations of themselves and their educations.

Relationships. Strayhorn (2018) highlighted student educator relationships as critical dimensions of academic achievement, adjustment, aspirations, and persistence to future endeavors. Educators have spent a great extent of time with students, and it has been important that time has been spent building appropriate and functional relationships (Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009; Strayhorn, 2018). Educational facilitators have been tasked with educating some students troubled backgrounds and previous inept human connections inhibiting relationship building (Sousa, 2016). Many educators have found combating the issue of student and teacher relationships to be a highly important factor in developing a functional classroom management style to increase student motivation (Sousa, 2016). Positive student and educational facilitator relationships not only have impacted classroom management, but also have fostered the foundations for students to build healthy relationships in the future (Sousa, 2016). As Matthews (2015) also wrote, educator and student relationships have built the framework for all learning interactions

for the quality of students' works in educationally grouped settings. Educational facilitators who have taken the time to establish trusting relationships with students have utilized effective strategies for increasing students' academic achievements (Sousa, 2016).

Modeling. Freeman and Scheidecker (2009) also discussed keeping students educationally invested and how these efforts required the facilitators to understand the importance of consistency and professional modeling within their classrooms. Academic success has been shown to increase when facilitators conceptualized the importance of their behaviors and how they effected students' motives (Nash, 2013). Because educational facilitators have been the role-models in their classrooms, it has been critical for them to actively and to continually address their behaviors, speech, and attire for students to respect guidelines and to emulate actions fostering high motivational outcomes (Nash, 2013).

Accountability. The accountability of the educational facilitator should be ever-present and ingrained in the educator as a motivationally stimulating variable (Applegate & Lacefield, 2018). Freiberg (1983) discussed the use of collaborative efforts from educators, which set systematic limits to deter undesired attributes. Addressing consistency in the classroom has been an important aspect, which educational facilitators understood as an effective activity of motivation (Donohoo et al., 2018; Freiberg, 1983; Nash, 2013). If educators utilized consistent procedures and modeling in the learning environment, they may have accelerated predictably high academic outcomes from increased motivation (Nash, 2013; Wong & Wong, 2019).

Instruction. Within all the multifaceted duties educational facilitators have been responsible for, keeping students academically successful through effective instructional strategies has inherently affected student learning the most (Mertler, 2018). Mertler (2018) described students at every level of education as desiring learning information that was intuitive, functional, and correlated to their future endeavors. Leadership students have been understood to have an even greater desire for functional and usable organizational conditions structured around purposeful instruction (Aminitehrani, 2017; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Matthews, 2015). Many educational facilitators have concluded that using instruction validated by accurate assessments was an effective measuring technique, while being a highly motivating activity (Mertler, 2018).

Outlined by Matthews (2015), testable and accurate instructional conditions have not been clearly defined in the realm of high school leadership students. Merlter (2018) wrote another important element of motivational stimulation included instructional activities observed by the facilitators' understandings of classroom content, delivery, and assessment. A majority of leadership students have been involved in project-based activities that required them to work through authentic problems that have increased the need for working motivation (Blumenfeld et al., 1991). Wiseman and Hunt (2014) have further asserted, effective instructional practices were positive elements of students' academics and working motives.

Affirmation. Student academic affirmation and efficacy has been discussed as an element that improved the earlier mentions of expectancy and values in education (DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, & Many, 2016; Hulleman, Barron, Kosovich, & Lazowski, 2016). Nash (2013) discussed this same idea of instructional affirmation and how it was

used not only as a way to direct students in current settings, but also as an active way to build upon students' future academic achievements. Several researchers have correlated the impact of teacher feedback and expectation of student success as one of the most powerful motivational activities to increase academic understandings (Donohoo et al., 2018; DuFour et al., 2016; Hulleman et al., 2016).

Feedback. When facilitating project-based learning scenarios, encouraging students to see their potentials, while having clearly defined goals, has actively provided motivational stimulation in leadership students (Nash, 2013: Priest et al. 2018). Nash (2013) also noted that feedback given by teachers to students should have been clearly provided and informationally rich. Affirmation and feedback were activities used to give students directions, to make corrections at the moment, and to attain a clear understanding of what to do next (Hattie, 2012; Nash, 2013). Through affirmation, cultivated relationships of efficacy were built around the students' endeavors and efforts towards goals within facilitated educational directions (Nash, 2013). However, many researchers discussed without first identifying individuals' behavioral preferences, facilitating effective working conditions was an erroneous effort (McClelland, 1987; Phillips & Gully, 2013).

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework guiding this study was Bolman and Deal's (2016) human resource lens. The human resource lens, as cited by Bolman and Deal (2016), was intensely related to the relationship and alignment of organizations and human needs. With a focus on individuals' needs and preferential interactions to serve organizational goals, Bolman and Deal's (2016) human resource framework served as the analytical

paradigm to observe motives of individuals in leadership organizations. Organizational needs and individual preferential needs as a relationship were key elements of the human resource lens and directed the research for this study.

As this study also observed individuals' working motives, Maslow's theory, also known as the Hierarchy of Needs, developed in 1943 and helped to explain general human motivation (Lazaroiu, 2015). Maslow's theory was centered on the idea that meeting basic needs was related to an individual's ability to complete specific tasks (Lazaroiu, 2015). Guided from Maslow's theory, McClelland developed the Human Motivation Theory centering around achievement, power, and affiliation as the conditional motives for individuals (Lazaroiu, 2015). McClelland's Human Motivation Theory has been viewed as a refinement of Maslow's theory for organizations, as it assumed all physical and psychological safeties were met in individuals (Lazaroiu, 2015).

The three categories of McClelland's theory were based on the premise that individuals had already met conditions under the physical and emotional needs of Maslow's hierarchy (Lazaroiu, 2015). Lazaroiu (2015) described McClelland's theory had developed a framework to understand work engagements and project motivators. The human resources lens framework described by Bolman and Deal (2016), which helped to develop the study, was focused mainly around individuals' motives to projects and tasks in relation to leadership organizations.

Human resource lens. The human resource lens recognized human interaction, social desires, and relationships of individuals while in groups (Bolman & Deal, 2016). Applicable to McClelland's theory, the human resource framework placed an emphasis on group discourse, affirmation, and group allocation to address personal drives, just as

McClelland's theory addressed the motivation within achievement, affiliation, and power (Miner, 2015). The human resource lens has been associated to current high school leadership students as it observed motivation as a measurement to outline student achievement, affiliation, and power within organizational settings through work interactions of project-based learning scenarios (Bolman & Deal, 2016). McClelland (1987) further wrote, motivation of individuals was affected by the conditional social constructs of interaction and communication. The human resource lens was used in this study to analyze leadership organizations as the observed groups to which individuals as members were meeting the organizational needs—as motivation to work—through project-based learning scenarios (Bolman & Deal, 2016, McClelland, 1987).

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory set the underpinning for McClelland's motivation theory, as Maslow determined the order for which individuals would complete tasks (Shunk, 2016). Maslow's theory was not utilized directly within the study, yet it contributed to the foundation of McClelland's theory on motivation (Shunk, 2016). Maslow continually provided that before individuals completed tasks, their physiological and psychological needs must have been met (Shunk, 2016). In the hierarchy, Maslow's basic needs included: (a) physiological—described as food and water, (b) safety and security—described as feelings of comfort, (c) belongingness and love—described as care or affection, (d) self-esteem—described as competence and confidence, and (e) self-actualization—described as meaning of life (Shunk, 2016). Shunk (2016) wrote, each level of Maslow's theory was constructed upon the next level, and individual satisfaction depended on the prior level. According to

McClelland (1987), observations past emotional and biological needs were key to determining conditional variables.

McClelland's theory of motivation. According to Hattie (2012), students in all educational settings have needed examples and clear feedback on their progress and faults as a technique to increase motivation. As Bolman and Deal (2016) described, communication as feedback has become the responsiveness to individuals' needs within their organizational settings. Communication of needs, desires, and dislikes by the members of an organization were the actions that attempted to increase the efficiency of the operable coexistence between members and groups (Bolman & Deal, 2016).

McClelland's theory on motivation described three functional motives of individuals: (a) achievement, (b) power, and (c) affiliation, which have motivated individuals within organizations to work (McClelland, 1987). McClelland's theory, tested by Braunstein and Steers (1976) in their Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ) has given insight into the positive organizational associated variables that have motivated individuals to work. Specifically, Braunstein and Steers' (1976; MNQ), "determined (a) achievement, (b) power, and (c) affiliation indicated individuals' commitment to groups and organizations while autonomy—as a motive—inversely related to organizational commitment" (p. 259). From Braunstein and Steers' (1976) investigation on McClelland's motives, Phillips and Gully (2013) created a Likert scale to "better understand organizations by motivating individuals and teams" in their motivational assessment (p. 4).

As Phillips and Gully's (2013) objective was to understand motivation of organizational commitment, excluding autonomy questions directed the motives to (a)

achievement, (b) power, and (c) affiliation (p. 216). As the MQ was the evaluating device to determine the positively related motives (Phillips & Gully, 2013), it proved viable in "determining commitment and attachment to organizations; and the effects of working characteristics on performance" (Braunstein & Steers, 1976, p. 258). As Phillips and Gully's (2013) MQ assessed organizational commitment and conditioned motives of individuals, it was a vital part of the theoretical framework for this study. Utilizing the human resource framework as a guide to understanding the motivational relationships of project-based learning scenarios, students, and facilitators could help in providing understandings of curricular guides, instructions, and foundations for future leadership education.

The focus of the study was on leadership organizations and the members' motivations within project-based learning scenarios as a means to clarify and to further the current motivational literature. The theoretical framework for this leadership study was examined under the human resource frame (Bolman & Deal, 2016). In this study, the human resource frame indicated what was required to make organizations operate productively and successfully by understanding individuals' behavioral motives in project-based learning scenarios (Bolman & Deal, 2016). Organizations with individuals who operated effectively often were classified as groups of highly motivated members (Bolman & Deal, 2016). To quantitatively measure the motives of individuals in groups, McClelland's human motivation theory was also utilized to disseminate conditioned behavioral motives (Phillips & Gully, 2013). McClelland's theory (1987) helped to organize the relationships between individuals' motives and the required working conditions of project-based learning scenarios in organizations). The two theoretical

frameworks that effectively guided this study were McClelland's human motivation theory and the use of Bolman and Deal's (2016) human resource frame.

Achievement as motivation. Wingfield and Eccles (2002) defined "achievement motivation as motivation in which an individual's competence is at issue" (p. 1). Miner (2015) wrote achievement motivation was considered "a misnomer for it has constantly been undergoing developmental changes," diluting its dominant focus of the individual's efforts since the 1950s (p. 36). Miner (2015) further explained, "Achievement motivation as a construct has stretched to include not only hope of success but also fear of failure and even fear of success" (p. 36). McClelland claimed those individuals with a strong need for achievement have pursued outcomes through their own means and would rather not rely on chance (as cited by Miner, 2015). Situations normally chosen by individuals with needs of achievement showed individuals who calculated the risk where they have become slightly over-extended by challenges that were still attainable (McClelland, 1987). Those individuals driven by achievement must have had clear definitions of what success and failure was before becoming motivated in what McClelland called "anticipation of future possibilities" (as cited by Miner, 2015, p. 37).

Power as motivation. Fodor (2009) described the power motive as an intrinsic need "to influence, control, or impress other people and, as a corollary, to achieve recognition or acclaim for one's power-oriented actions" (p. 1). Power motivated individuals derived motive from other strong individuals as a means to empower themselves (Miner, 2015). Miner (2015) also found power motivated individuals were encouraged to help insubordinates as these situations clearly defined who was superior. In relation to aiding insubordinates, Braunstein and Steers (1976) confirmed that

individuals with high power motives were encouraged to perform for organizations as it created the basis for their superiority. Bass (2009) noted power motivated individuals have been well-known to be adept at influencing others' decisions, because they were proficient in differentiating and integrating abstract information into favorable communicable situations. Although power motivation often has had negative connotations, many researchers have noted power motivated individuals were more successful at accomplishing tasks (Bass, 2009; Fodor, 2009; Miner, 2015).

***Affiliation as motivation*.** Motives of affiliation were described as peoples' desire to attain positive relationships through working settings (Miner, 2015). Spangler, Tikhomirov, Sotak, and Palrecha (2014) stated those driven by affiliation motivation had been accepted by their peers as compassionate and understanding individuals. Generally, affiliation motivated individuals intrinsically thrived on communications and interactions within individual and group settings (Spangler et al., 2014). Sustaining relationships and fostering the involvement of an organization often have been deemed as more important than procedural guidelines to those motivated by affiliation (Miner, 2015). Both Bass (2009) and Miner (2015) articulated affiliation motives were important aspects of leadership qualities. Yet, these motives also have subverted known and effective policies in favor of maintaining relationships (Miner, 2015).

McClelland believed all three motive areas were learned behaviors as individuals had associated positive or negative experiences with each motive (McClelland, 1987). Miner (2015) wrote, all individuals learned the three motives, yet they designed an intrinsic hierarchy for which motive became their greatest potential for rewards. Bass (2009) described the importance of understanding what motives have driven success

within a work setting, as this comprehension could be used to evaluate organization effectiveness and productivity (Phillips & Gully, 2013). Understanding what motivated project attainment was important for understanding effective leadership and future successes of individuals and organizations (Bass, 2009; Phillips & Gully, 2013).

Summary

The theories and assessments selected for this study supplemented each other, as well as built a foundation for examining project-based learning scenarios in the context of high school leadership students' motivation levels. Maslow's theory set the foundation of basic understandings for motivation in individuals to progress into the specific behavioral motives of McClelland's motivation theory (Lazaroiu, 2015). Bolman and Deal's (2016) human resource frame offered insight into the parameters by which this study aimed to examine the organization dynamics of high school leadership organizations to individual member work preferences and conditional behaviors as motivation (Beare, Caldwell, & Millikan, 1989). Phillips and Gully's (2013) MQ specifically addressed individuals' behavioral motives within leadership organizations. Through the utilization of Phillips and Gully's (2013) assessment, McClelland's Human Motivation Theory (1987), and Bolman and Deal's (2016) human resource lens, high school leadership organizations and the motivation of these members may be further developed (Horner, 1997).

With a societal increase in academic standards and student rigor, students have had to be more educationally successful to be competitive in the future workforce (Pochhacker, 2014). Understanding motivation within students have been dire needs for all educational organizations relating to present and future success (Pochhacker, 2014). In Chapter Two, a review of available literature has confirmed motivation as the

encompassing dependent variable in leadership organizations' academic work success. Many of the researchers described that there were a multitude of variables within the educational spectrum which could elicit the conditional behavioral motives of McClelland's theory and identifying the motives was essential to development (Braunstein & Steers, 1976; Phillips & Gully, 2013; McClelland, 1987).

Important to resolve, addressing motivation was an essential endeavor for educators that must begin with understanding individuals' behavioral motives (Braunstein & Steers, 1976; Phillips & Gully, 2013). The three research questions which guided this study outlined participants' selected variables highlighted in Chapter Two through identified Likert markers of the MQ in Chapters Four and Five. Most of the literature reviewed related to how motivation fostered other positive academic behaviors found in proficient learning and project work settings. The methods and procedures utilized in this study, as well as participant demographics, will be reported in Chapter Three.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Introduction

The objective of this study was to identify behavioral motives of the independent variable—high school leadership organizations—to better understand the relationship between the dependent variable—motivation—toward work in project-based learning scenarios. This research was based on a quantitative Likert-type assessment exploring high school students' behavioral preferences when working in selected leadership organizations (Phillips & Gully, 2013). This study was formed using a convenience sample that specifically assessed variables of individuals in leadership organizations within five rural Central Missouri high schools consisting of at least 173 high school leadership students and six leadership instructors per G-Power Program (Erdfelder et al., 2009). The replication of the MQ was utilized to discover if there were common project-based work variables as Likert-markers elicited from leadership organizations that calculated and classified conditional motivations of McClelland's Human Motivation Theory (Phillips & Gully, 2013).

A significant goal of this study was to discover common elements of behavioral motives and differences in selected demographics in high school leadership students. The demographics of observation that were compared were: (a) the 12 specific leadership organizations elicited from participants, (b) individuals in more than one leadership organization versus individuals in only one, and (c) adult facilitators' perspectives versus students' perspectives. Understanding the motive variables and relationships of these groups have led to increasing students' successes in classroom project-based learning scenarios and students' success in developing leadership skills through higher motivation

(Freeman & Scheidecker, 2009). The data for the study were specifically gathered from Central Missouri high school leadership students, as well as responses from Central Missouri high school leadership adult facilitators. Both groups were asked the same questions to gather varied and possibly differing perspectives to answer the research questions (Bolman & Deal, 2016). The remainder of this chapter outlined specific details of this study and how it was conducted.

Problem and Purpose Overview

Motivation has been a term long discussed in the educational field, as educators continually attempted to identify and increase motivation in students (Harackiewicz, Smith, & Priniski, 2016). Classrooms full of motivated students have been viewed as the optimal teaching settings, yet there has not been specific research detailing how to directly identify this in leadership learners and organizations (Pino-James, 2015). Motivation has been widely discussed as highly important for all students (Wiseman & Hunt 2014); however, individual methods for assessing motive variables have not been effectively addressed in leadership organizations (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Bolman and Deal (2016) described understanding interpersonal needs and preferences of individuals who set the stage for the required undertaking in achieving individual and group motivation. Furthermore, Ross (2015) highlighted the implicit bias that leadership students were considered to already be motivated individuals, as they attached their identities to leadership organizations. As Ross (2015) continued, assuming all leadership students were similarly motivated was often a misconception, as these students needed the same attention to motivation as all students and organizational groups.

Matthews (2015) wrote that many student leadership organizations were represented by projects and activities devoted to service. With the rise of project-based learning implemented in leadership organizations, many leadership students have been identified and assessed more critically without behavioral motive understandings (Matthews, 2015; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). The advancement in this type of high school leadership assessment created a void in the manner in which high school leadership students learned, as well as the way curriculum was developed and delivered for their instruction (Matthews, 2015). In regard to Matthews' statements, most educators have agreed students should be self-motivated and engaged, especially when acting in leadership roles (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Alternatively, this was not always the standard, as students in leadership roles still needed guidance, specific curriculums, assistance to maintain, and rigor that contributed to identifying their motivation (Larmer & Mergendoller, 2010). Most educators understood all students required educational, motivational, and engaging assistance to be successful in projects and school (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). However, several unknown issues have developed from the methods in which facilitators of leadership programs presented, guided, and assessed the information leadership students needed to be successful throughout projects (Matthews, 2015). Wiseman and Hunt (2014) described the most common assessments used to evaluate levels of motivation students exhibited when participating in projects were formative and summative assessments that addressed the conclusions of projects. This method of assessing students, while commonly used, did not identify motivation or behavioral preferences, but rather measured the final products (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014).

Through this research study, the attempt was made to identify and examine motivational perceptions of high school leadership students versus facilitators within the project-based learning scenarios. Also observed were students in one leadership organization compared to students in more than one leadership organization, to determine whether there were alternative behavioral motives and/or relationships. The final examination was to identify behavioral motives of the 12 elicited leadership organizations, as well as their relationships. General affirmations of motivation, under Phillips and Gully's (2013) assessment guided by McClelland's motivational theory, was utilized to evaluate McClelland's Three Conditional Motives; also known as: (a) achievement, (b) power, and (c) affiliation (McClelland, 1987). The perceptions of high school leadership students and the facilitators of these organizations were used to identify the specific motivation of each observed group in the leadership organizations (Bolman & Deal, 2014; Phillips & Gully, 2013).

Research Questions

The following research questions and hypotheses guided this study:

1. What difference, if any, exists between leadership organizations and motivation of adult leadership instructors?

$H1_0$: There are no differences between leadership organizations and motivation of adult leadership instructors.

$H1_a$: There are differences between leadership organizations and motivation of adult leadership instructors.

2. What are the significant motivational effects of individuals in two or more leadership organizations?

$H2_0$: There are no significant motivational effects of individuals in two or more leadership organizations.

$H2_a$: There are significant motivational effects of individuals in two or more leadership organizations.

3. What are the significant differences among high school leadership organizations and motivation in project-based work settings?

$H3_0$: There are no significant differences among high school leadership organizations and motivation in project-based work settings.

$H3_a$: There are significant differences among high school leadership organizations and motivation in project-based work settings.

Quantitative Research Design

This was a quantitative study that collected responses in amounts and numerical fashion (Fraenkel et al., 2016). While qualitative responses were not major data sections in this study, a single qualitative question was provided for participants to express their perspectives on motives and to maintain validity to Phillips and Gully's (2013) assessment (p. 216). Qualitative data included the use of varying information collected and categorized by similarities (McKim, 2015). Qualitative data were used when placing numerical values to information, which was either irrelevant or not applicable (McKim, 2015). Only 0.98% (n=2) participants offered viable qualitative information.

Quantitative methods were used when information could be ordered numerically in ranges or orders of greatness (McKim, 2015). Quantitative data that was important as information was quickly displayed and more discrepancies in question interpretation could have been avoided (McKim, 2015). Fraenkel et al. (2016) determined using

quantitative methods “establish generalizations that transcend the immediate situation or particular settings” (p. 11). Fraenkel et al. (2016) further explained, the “use of quantitative research is that of a detached observer” (p. 11). A detached observer was an important element to this research as the goal was to elicit information from students regarding leadership organizations’ motivations.

This study was measured within project-based learning scenarios; utilizing McClelland’s Human Motivation Theory was the paradigm of the MQ and used to measure the dependent variable—motivation—within projects (Phillips & Gully, 2013). The MQ questions were a descriptive quantitative approach to research, as they provided the participants’ numerical scores as Likert-markers, calculated motives, and prompted the participants to give one short answer (Phillips & Gully, 2013). Phillips and Gully (2013) offered “15 survey questions, and one short answer question about motivation in work project settings, preferences to projects, and group roles, while addressing engagement to organizational tasks” (p. 216). Survey statements 1, 4, 7, 10, and 13 were designed to answer the achievement motive (Phillips & Gully, 2013). Survey statements 2, 5, 8, 11, and 14, were designed to answer the power motive (Phillips & Gully, 2013). Last, survey statements 3, 6, 9, 12, and 15 were designed to answer the affiliation motive (Phillips & Gully, 2013). The instrument was made available to high school students in grades nine through 12 in five different Central Missouri high schools. The Central Missouri high schools’ superintendents of five available school districts permitted access to the teachers and students in leadership organizations.

After superintendents of the high schools granted permission for the research, contacts were made to high school building administrators for their permission. The five

building-level administrators granted permission for the research to be conducted and for contacts to be made to facilitators who then addressed students within their leadership organizations. The administrators of participating schools were given availability to physical copies of the survey, electronic links to the survey, guardian permission Lindenwood Consent Forms, Adult Consent Forms, and student Informed Assent Forms, which were all used in the study.

Participating leadership facilitators were asked to take and to administer the survey to the participating students, using a digital data collection tool recommended by Lindenwood University, called *Qualtrics*, or the physical copy provided once appropriate forms were submitted. Participating leadership students under the age of 18 were asked to submit the permission form as the Informed Consent document and Informed Assent Form to their facilitators before their facilitators released the survey link. Each school official was provided with a description of the study, adult Informed Consent Form, Informed Assent Form, and Informed Consent Form permission slip for all students under the age of 18 to have their guardians review and sign.

Each participant who agreed to take the survey first answered the forced responses in *Qualtrics*, stating they had correctly completed all adult Informed Consent Forms and Informed Assent forms prior to viewing the survey. Survey participants were then instructed to complete digital or physical formats of the MQ concerning a current organizational project (Phillips & Gully, 2013). The MQ included 15 closed-ended, Likert scale questions, as participants were electronically scored using *Qualtrics* on a 5-point scale of agreement: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree, according to what compelled them to work within their

organization (Phillips & Gully, 2013). Scores were displayed on graphs in regard to each research question, as a way to quickly answer research questions and show whether the hypotheses would be nullified or support the alternative. Additionally, the MQ also offered survey participants item 16, as the opportunity to express their own self-beliefs' by responding to a single open-ended question on the form (Phillips & Gully, 2013).

Facilitators and teachers of the participating leadership organizations were given the same survey instrument to complete, except their instructions were slightly different than students. The facilitator version of the survey was based on the facilitators' perspectives of what they believed compelled students to complete tasks. The objective in assessing the adult sponsors and facilitators of leadership organizations was to gather their opinions on what behavioral motives were most prevalent in students and facilitators during project-based learning scenarios. Using the information from both students and facilitators shed light on the consistencies or discrepancies in students' compared to instructors' perceptions of motivation to work in project-based learning scenarios (Fraenkel et al., 2016). While approximately 5.00% (n=10) of participants were adult facilitators, it was considered an inferential limitation as they may not have been a quality representation of the entire population (Trafimow & MacDonald, 2016). They were also essential in helping to answer Research Question One.

Research Bias

Bias has occurred in research when the collected information has positioned towards a desired outcome and reflected assessments and collected data to result as such (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2016). Fraenkel et al. (2016) suggested avoiding bias writing; the objective was to triangulate between investigative disciplines and writing,

positioned on exploration, and not defending. Utilizing one method of research has shown to strengthen biased results as it limited all the data collection to simply one interpretation (Fraenkel et al., 2016). This limited type of bias has been known as observer bias, or a narrowed view on the collection type, size, and interpretation of data (Fraenkel et al., 2016). However, Fraenkel et al. (2016) described, when the data collection was strictly quantitative, researchers should have detached from the information, as quantifiable results were a reflection of numerical information. When using only qualitative information, researchers had little room for reader interpretation and assessment of the full scope by comparison (Fraenkel et al., 2016). For this study, the hope was to overcome data collection bias by using the descriptive quantitative approach to collect data, as well as using Phillips and Gully's (2013) survey's original open-ended question. Data bias was limited as information was collected from leadership students' perspectives, but also the facilitators' perspectives expanding the data to two different sources. As Fraenkel et al. (2016) suggested, gathering multiple approaches (paper and digital) from multiple participants yielded data with broader scopes of information.

Another bias addressed in the study was researcher data collection bias that could have occurred from directed questioning or questions yielding desired answers (Fraenkel et al., 2016). Fraenkel et al. (2016) explained, questions being used for data collection were extremely detrimental to the study if they were posed in a way that directed participants' answers in specific directions. Since the study used a quantitative approach, there was an optional qualitative portion to collect data for participants who disagreed with the assessment where a prompted question: "Do you think this is true for you? If not, provide an alternate motivator for yourself" (Phillips & Gully, 2013, p. 216) While

this study did not follow a singular quantitative approach, it did not yield measurable qualitative information in this research, as 0.98% (*n*=2) participants offered a differing response.

Fraenkel et al. (2016) suggested researchers use a strict set of guidelines and consistent questions to ask when using quantitative and qualitative means. By using a set procedure, each participant experienced the same treatment (Fraenkel et al., 2016). For this data collection, these circumstances were avoided by having a survey instrument with a consistent and defined set of procedures designed by published researchers (Bolman & Deal, 2014). Specifically, this study utilized Phillips and Gully's (2013) motivational questionnaire, which was designed to measure motivation of organizations using McClelland's Human Motivation Theory as the Likert scale portion of the research (p. 216). Fraenkel et al. (2016) discussed that the use of known data collection devices reduced the chances of researcher bias, while adding validity to the data.

Population and Sample

The sample targeted for this study were high school students in grades nine through 12 and leadership facilitators in five different Central Missouri high schools from three counties of Missouri. The Central Missouri high schools were chosen due to their geographical proximities of convenience and representation of Central Missouri demographics. The sizes of the participating schools varied somewhat. The largest of the districts was reported to have more than 1,600 high school students, while the smallest of the schools had approximately 170 high school students. These five Central Missouri high schools were selected as a quality representation of the varied rural schools in Central Missouri and the convenience of their locations. The facilitators of the leadership

organization sponsors of the five school districts in the study were e-mailed electronic surveys, using *Qualtrics*, and provided physical copies for those not able to complete the *Qualtrics* survey. Adult facilitators in the leadership organizations were instructed to complete the survey from their own perspectives and to distribute to participating high school students who submitted appropriate forms.

The demographics of the counties in Central Missouri selected were similar in (a) unemployment, (b) poverty rates, (c) total population, and (d) socioeconomic status (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018). Figure 1 shows the 2018 population for each of the three counties in Missouri selected for the study. County A's primary employment opportunities came from retail trade and manufacturing (Data USA, 2018); the county also had a poverty rate of approximately 19.20% (see Figure 2). County B's primary source of employment was manufacturing and retail with a poverty rate of 19.30% (see Figure 2). County C's employment opportunities came from military public administration and retail trade (see Figure 2); the poverty rate was 14.60%, which was slightly lower than the other counties (Data USA, 2018). Three of the five school districts from Missouri selected for the study shared different quadrants of the same counties, as it was one of the largest rurally populated counties in the state (Data USA, 2018).

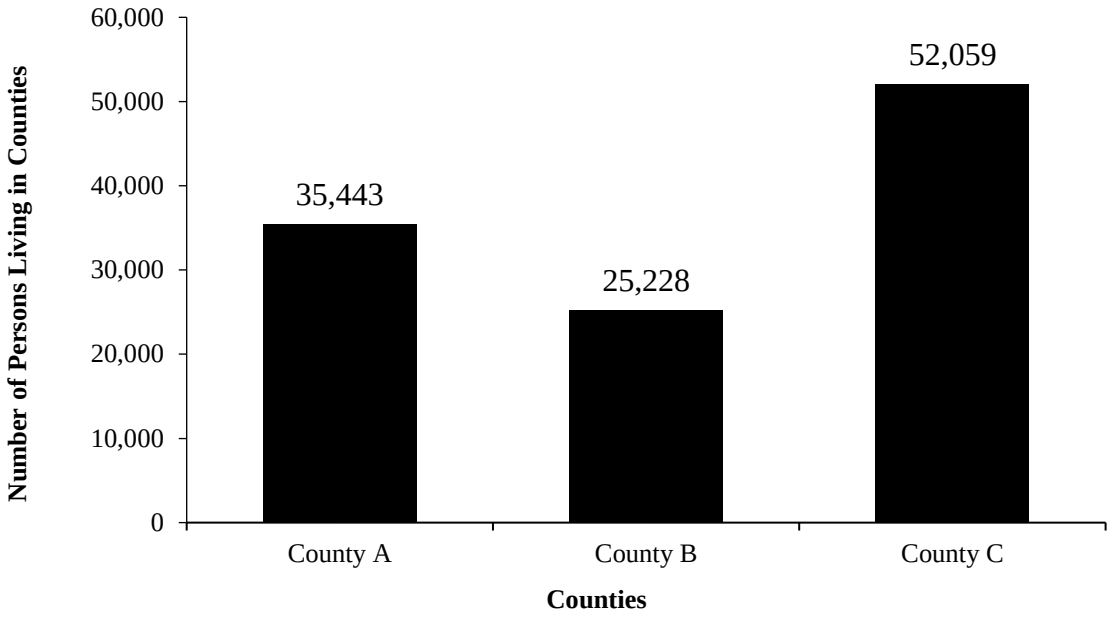

Figure 1. County populations from three counties in Missouri. Adapted from the Data USA Census Bureau, County Statistics (2018).

Figure 2 shows the poverty rates for all three Missouri counties used in the study. The poverty rate for the state of Missouri was included, as well, for comparison purposes. The state's average rate of poverty was just marginally below all of the counties selected for the study. Three of the counties selected for the research were are all within 1% of the same poverty rate. County C, with the lowest poverty rate, was directly related to the available military occupations within the county (see Figure 2).

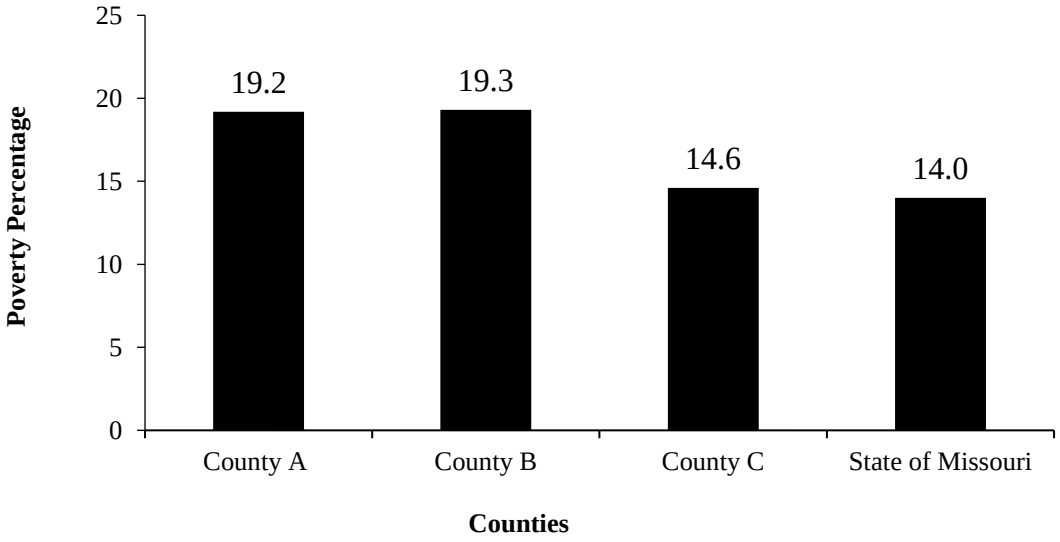

Figure 2. 2018 Poverty rates for the counties and the state of Missouri overall was pictured for comparison. Adapted from the Data USA Census Bureau, County Statistics, (2018).

The five school districts selected to serve as the sample from the population had similar populations of students eligible for free and reduced lunch programs in grades nine through 12. Figure 3 illustrates the percentages of students in Districts 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 who were eligible for free and reduced lunches in the 2018-2019 School Year. The state average of Missouri for free and reduced lunch programs during this same time was 53.1% (MODESE, 2019; see Figure 3).

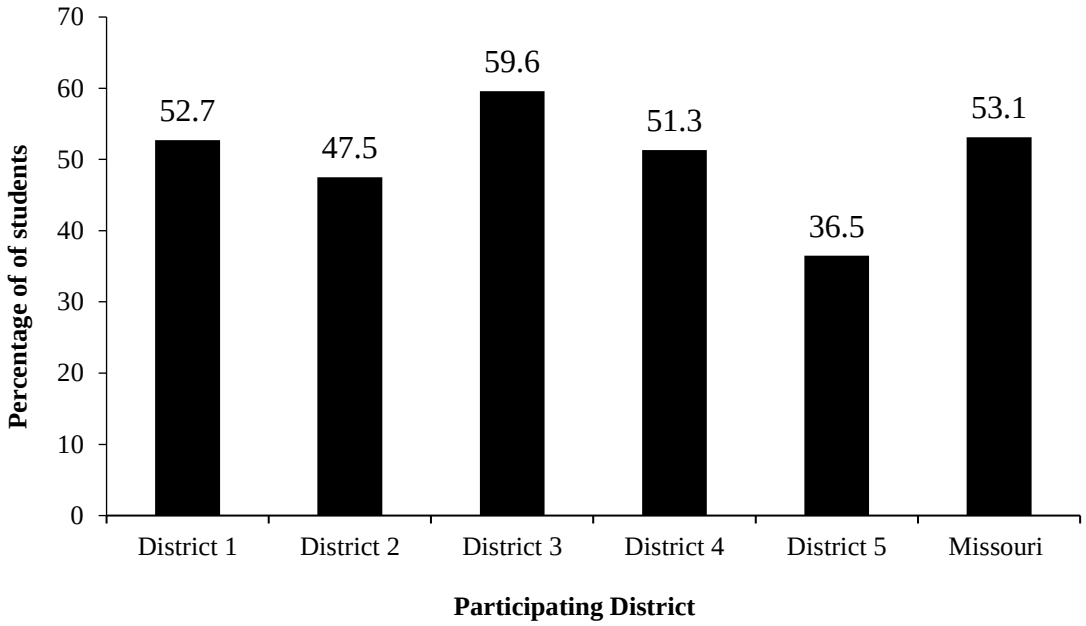

Figure 3. The school year 2018-19 free and reduced lunch percentages in selected districts in central Missouri. The information was adapted from the MODESE (2019b),

Figure 4 shows the total enrollment of ninth through 12th grade students for each of the school districts selected. Four of the five school districts were comparable in enrollment size (MODESE, 2019). The larger district encompassed a ninth through 12th-grade student population of 1,603. The four smaller district schools averaged 238 students in grades nine through 12 (see Figure 4).

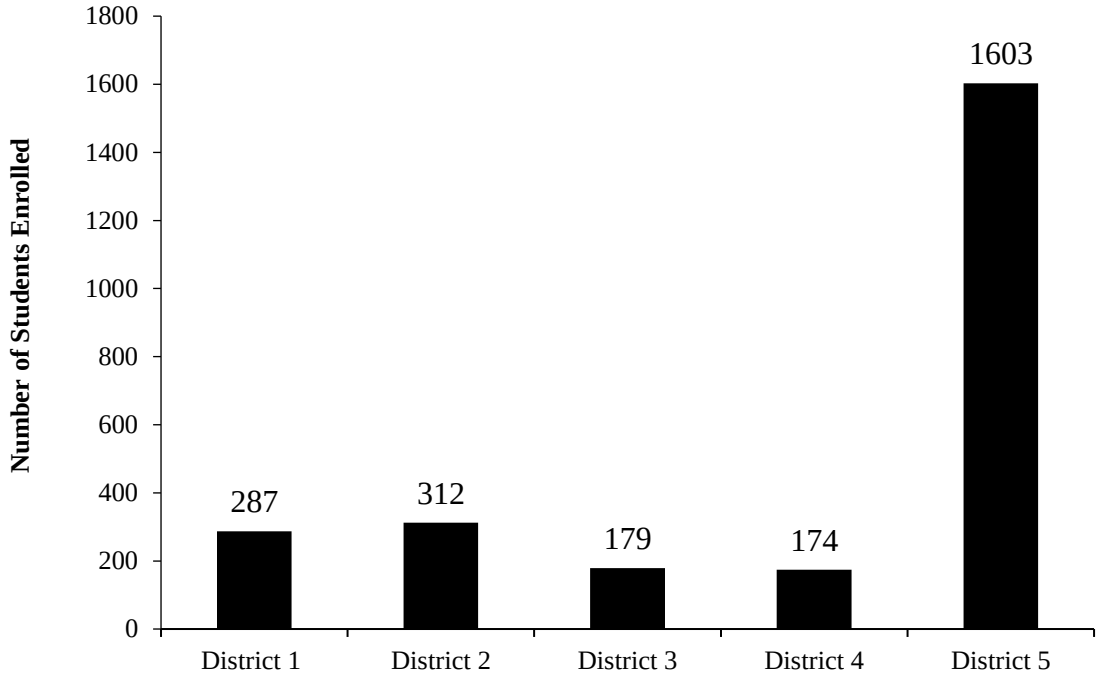

Figure 4. Total student enrollment of ninth through 12th grade for five school districts in Central Missouri. The information was adapted from the MODESE (2019b).

Specific high school leadership participant information, such as the following: (a) grade; (b) gender; (c) population of high school; (d) amount of leadership involved organizations; and (e) the participants' geological proximities, allowed the study to utilize purposeful and convenience sampling (Palinkas et al., 2015). Purposeful sampling was used in research when identifying a particular selection of information from a specific population (Palinkas et al., 2015). The high school students in the study were all involved in high school leadership programs; their responses were evaluated based on their motivational perceptions of project-based learning scenarios. The educators chosen for participation in the study were all facilitating leadership students in grades nine through

12. The leadership facilitators' input directly related to their personal experiences and observations of high school students' motivation, project attainment, and factors they believed were behavioral preferences to students. Using the facilitators' observations gave the study a view from professional adults who were familiar with complex motivational scenarios related to students in high school leadership organizations (Darling-Hammond, Flook, Cook-Harvey, Barron, & Osher, 2019). Utilizing many different leadership organizations from several districts postulated information from a wide array of sources in order to better determine any commonalities within leadership students (Palinkas et al., 2015).

Instrumentation

Information was collected using a digitally created survey through Lindenwood's recommended analysis program *Qualtrics*, which was also available as a physical copy to collect data from leadership students and leadership instructors. The survey completed by participants was an exact replication of Phillips and Gully's (2013) motivational questionnaire designed to elicit "behavioral motives in organizational commitment from individuals" in work settings (p. 216). Students' guardians were offered explanations of the research and made aware of the confidentiality of their children's information with the required permission forms as Lindenwood's Informed Consent Form and Informed Assent Form. Leadership facilitators, the adult participants in the study, also were made aware of their rights to confidentiality and the study details through the adult consent form. The digital format utilized *Qualtrics* (2019) to collect the information from students in grades nine through 12 and the facilitators of each leadership organization. The form was sent through an e-mail link and was shared directly with high school

leadership facilitators who could only submit to students' school email accounts, following approval from school district administrators and submission of appropriate consent and assent forms to facilitators.

Survey. Phillips and Gully's (2013) MQ survey used in this study was originally constructed from Braunstein and Steers' (1976) Motivational Needs Questionnaire (MNQ), and published to assess "organizational motives" (p. 216). Braunstein and Steers (1976) "created their survey as an instrument to reliably and quickly measure individuals' motives using behaviorally-based scales in a specific work setting" (p. 251). Phillips and Gully (2013) used Braunstein and Steers' (1976) work and created a modified version entitled the Motivational Questionnaire, which omitted the behavioral motive, autonomy, as "it was inversely related to organizational commitment" (p. 259).

As the applicable study measured high school leadership organization motives, Phillips and Gully's (2013) MQ was most applicable to eliciting motivational variables. As the utilized survey relied heavily on the work of Braunstein and Steers (1976) and replication of Phillips and Gully's (2013) survey, permission was requested and granted from both entities. Permission to utilize Braunstein and Steers' (1976) work was granted through e-mail communications with Are, the customer account specialist with Copyright Clearance Center, or the Rightslink Service Center (Braunstein & Steers, 1976; see Appendix H). The instrument from Phillips and Gully (2013), which consisted of 15 Likert questions, using a five-point Likert scale that represented 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly Agree, was granted through e-mail communications with Pierce, the customer support team member with Cengage (Phillips & Gully, 2013 p. 216; see Appendix I). The digital survey calculated what motive

participants were most driven by, in regard to McClelland's motivational theory (1987). While hard copies of surveys were available to adult facilitators, no physical surveys were submitted, and all participants used the on-line *Qualtrics* survey format. Once participants reviewed their scores, the survey participants were asked an optional, open-ended question about whether participants believed the survey determination to be true or whether participants had alternate motives (Phillips & Gully, 2013).

As the survey was published for organizational motivation identification (Phillips & Gully, 2013), it was not identified in research related to high school student-leadership, as little information was available regarding student-leadership organizational motivation (Palinkas et al., 2015). This research project may not only help to support the use of McClelland's theory (Palinkas et al., 2015), but also the development of literature and applicable data to be used by facilitators and students in high school leadership education (Matthews, 2015). Using Phillips and Gully's (2013) Likert scale helped to provide quantifiable data related to trends in high school leadership students' perceptions of what was conditionally motivating within project-based learning scenarios. This data also was able to be used by all educators, but was also specifically useful for facilitators and sponsors in leadership training programs (Palinkas et al., 2015).

The on-line surveys completed by leadership facilitators and students were electronically returned upon completion by participants' submissions through *Qualtrics* (Erdfelder et al., 2009). Approximately one week and two weeks after the initial e-mail contact with the teachers, reminders to take the survey were sent via e-mail, including the same directions and information to review (see Appendix J). Leadership facilitators also were encouraged to remind their students, in order to receive the link to the survey, their

guardians must have submitted their Informed Assent and Consent Forms. The electronic survey format was chosen due to the safety, reliability, and ability to access numerous participants effectively (Ponto, 2015). The research for the study was completed over three weeks, allowing additional time for all consent and assent forms to be signed by participants and the digital link to be provided by leadership facilitators.

In validating the reliability of the five-point, Likert-type survey used, two previous arguments were examined. Ponto (2015) discussed the reliability of evaluating research surveys to include the Likert scale. Ponto (2015) also described the use of Likert scales as the most applicable and legitimate survey tools when investigating individual perceptions. Ponto (2015) discussed Likert scales as helpful to participants defining constructs of personal interests that were not replicated in other surveying tools. Ponto (2015) found by using a Likert scale model as the survey tool, gathering characteristics about a specific population better reflected participants' interest.

Bickman and Rog (2009) noted the validity of a five-point Likert scale was described as an effective pre-coded tool for determining behaviors with a quantifiable result. Bickman and Rog (2009) wrote, using a five-point Likert scale generally allowed participants to score neutral opinions and two-directional opinions, this created an evenly measurable stance in either direction of agreement. Bickman and Rog (2009) stated Likert scales offered "respondent characteristics, combined with rating information, provided research-rich opportunities to compare the rating of one sub-group against another" (p. 445). Measuring McClelland's motivational theory as a five-point Likert scale ensured consistency and reliability to the objective of the original assessment (Bickman & Rog, 2009; Phillips & Gully, 2013). Both Ponto (2015) and Bickman and

Rog's (2009) argued in favor of a five-point Likert scale survey and the pre-designed MQ ensured a consistent flow for the data collection of this research.

Data Collection

Data collection began through e-mail contacts with superintendents of five school districts within the proximity of the geographical convenience (see Appendix A). The first contact with superintendents explained the research project, goals, and was the query to contact their high school leadership sponsors and students. Once approval from the superintendents was received, an e-mail (see Appendix B) was sent to the high school principal of each participating school. The e-mail informed the high school principals of the goal, what the research project included, and the fact that prior approval had already been granted by their superintendents. After approval was granted by all constituents, an e-mail (see Appendix C) was sent to the high school leadership facilitators in each district.

The e-mail explained the research to sponsors, students' guardians, and students. Since students under 18 were required to have guardian consent before taking the assessment, the e-mail was made available with a link, Quick Response (QR) code to the survey, and Lindenwood Informed Assent and Consent Forms. Leadership facilitators—as the adult participants in the study—were required to submit the adult Informed Consent Form, which was also a forced response in the survey (see Appendix F). Once leadership students submitted parental consent to their facilitator, they then received the assessment link from their leadership facilitators, and then they completed the survey response confirming permission. Leadership student and facilitator respondents were given three weeks, to complete the survey. At one week and two weeks after the initial e-

mail contact with the teachers and students was made, second and third e-mails were sent with the same information and survey link to serve as a reminder. At the end of three weeks, the link to the survey was no longer available for participants to access.

Confidentiality of all participants was ensured by keeping all collected data in confidence. All participants knowingly could have withdrawn at any time, and their responses or information would not be used in the collection. Facilitator participants were notified via e-mail regarding consent forms for themselves and students, as well as survey information details. Included in the initial e-mail contact with facilitators were the instructions for how to attain consent from guardians of leadership students and that students could not take the survey until parental consent was completed, and assent was submitted to facilitators. The Internet survey administered through *Qualtrics* was a secured, on-line platform recommended by Lindenwood University, with a forced assent and consent confirmation before viewing the assessment. The assessment on *Qualtrics* was protected by a confidential link only compatible and useable with this research study.

Internal validity. The validity, as described by Wiseman and Hunt (2014), was considered as the result of trustable and dependable information. Wiseman and Hunt (2014) further explained validity in regard to a study as not just the results of dependable information, but also the fidelity in pursuing the investigation. Internal validity was considered as the effects of a study and whether observed changes were attributed to the study, which had limited confounding variables (Web Center for Social Resources, 2006). Phillips and Gully (2013) published their Motivation Questionnaire with the intent to "better understand organizations by motivating individuals and teams while also identifying aspects about one's self to prepare for success" (p. 4). As there was not a

detailed motive survey previously designed for this study, the MQ was most suitable in discovering individual motives within leadership organizations. As the data collection was made through *Qualtrics*, percentages to each motive, as well as mean, standard deviation, and variance were provided for reader observation.

The survey for this study followed a five-point Likert scale, which Ponto (2015) found to be one of the most concise and efficient Likert-type scales. Since this survey was designed specifically for high school-aged students, it was important to utilize a survey that was short and user-friendly (Ponto, 2015; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Making the survey easy to access, to complete, and to submit aided in minimizing issues associated with sample collection (Ponto, 2015). As Ponto (2015) discussed, utilizing the five-point Likert scale gave respondents positive experiences, allowing neutrality and two directionally weighted answers of agreement.

Objectivity. Objectivity was to maintain fidelity in the research, as not doing so would have created invalid information (McKim, 2015). Lindenwood University required a coded system to identify participants and demographics of the study in the event individual information was reported. Names of participants were not collected or needed for the study, as each person remained anonymous. The person conducting the research was a district employee of one of the participating schools. However, leadership facilitators invited to take the survey did not work in the same building, did not share students, and/or did not work together in leadership organizations. The survey was used in a way that did not try to prove a concept or study, but rather to discover impartial motivational trends (Fraenkel et al., 2016). Earlier in this study, it was outlined that the

hypotheses were constructed around identifying relationships, further aiding the objectivity of the study (Fraenkel et al., 2016).

Ethical considerations. The research was facilitated with ethical considerations by ensuring all research was kept confidential (Fraenkel et al., 2016). All information collected on-line was stored in a protected location only accessible through the use of a secure user name and password, as instructed by the university, and will be stored for the required three years. At the end of the study's window of availability, all of the collected data on-line was printed and stored securely in a locked file cabinet, as well. None of the participants were in danger of being harmed—physically or mentally—in the process of completing the open-ended question or surveys. Research was conducted under the guidelines of the latest version of the Internal Review Board's (IRB) Social and Behavioral Research course to ensure modern expectations of data research were being followed (Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative, 2019).

Data analysis. When the survey window closed after three weeks, the Likert-type scale items were analyzed for trends and other relevant information. To analyze the descriptive quantitative information, the survey program *Qualtrics* was utilized to collect and configur data (Erdfelder et al., 2009). *Qualtrics* displayed the participants' answers, according to selected demographics in spreadsheets, and illustrated in pie charts and graphs. The question in the survey, "Do you think this is true for you? If not, provide an alternate motivator for yourself," which was open-ended, was grouped in chronological order by the *Qualtrics* program (Phillips & Gully, 2013, p. 216). Each qualitative answer submitted was reviewed and analyzed to discover themes or possible data trends of motivation particular to leadership demographics. While there were minor participant

adjustments to the agreement of their determined motives, a majority of participants, 96.55% (*n*=196), agreed to their selected motive conclusions and did not answer the qualitative question with alternative motives. The Likert-type scale items and open-ended responses were calculated and categorized, according to emerging trends based on the research questions. If trends were found, they were noted in Chapter Four and explored when possible.

Descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics, or descriptives, were used to interpret the data (Woodrow, 2014). Descriptive statistics allowed for data to be gathered and to be viewed in a numerical format for a simple and clear presentation (Woodrow, 2014). Woodrow (2014) noted descriptives were ideal tools in presenting information from Likert-style scales, further supporting the theoretical framework and motivation survey used for the study. Woodrow (2014) stated, "Descriptive statistics are important in a research study, because they form the basis for further analyses," which supported the purpose of identifying motivational elements of leadership organizations (p. 50). The information in the study was presented using a numerically graphed format and tables. Since a Likert-style survey was used, the assessment data were collected and presented as categorical subjects of questions, numbers in each category, and what items were most selected (Fraenkel et al., 2016). Using descriptive statistics allowed for the data to be placed in a format that was demographically graphed for a visual comparison (Fraenkel et al., 2016).

Inferential statistics. Additionally, incorporation of inferential statistics was used to utilize information from the study for populations outside the research group (Trafimow & MacDonald, 2016). In order to validate the study, using the G-Power

program to determine the appropriate number of participants was utilized (Erdfelder, et. al 2009). The G-Power Program calculated the number of required participants to make the study valid for inferences, which could have been made within general high school leadership organizations (Erdfelder et al., 2009). Trafimow and MacDonald (2016) described inferential statistics as a means to draw conclusions about an entire population and, therefore, to make confident assumptions, in this case about motivation of leadership organizations. Inferential statistics was used to describe potential relationships between motivation and high school leadership organizations for all high school leadership students and the facilitators within these types of organizations. By accumulating information from a large number of student participants and facilitators, predictions were able to be made about the general population of high school leadership students in Chapter Five (Trafimow, 2016).

Qualitative research. As this was a descriptive quantitative study, marginal qualitative research was used to allow participants opportunities to list personal motive information, which allowed categorization between similarities in responses to identify parallels in participants' information (McKim, 2015). The qualitative portion of this study also was mandatory, as it matched the original assessment source and concluded the last question of the Motivation MQ (Phillips & Gully, 2013). Since participants were subject to an open-ended portion of the survey, descriptive statistics were not utilized for this section (McKim, 2015). While 96.55% (n=196) of participants did not diverge from their selected response conclusions, 3.10% (n=8) disagreed, while 0.98% (n=2) offered minimal explanations. By providing a qualitative portion of the survey, preparations to disseminate alternative motivation to project-based learning scenarios in leadership

organizations were made available. McKim (2015) described the use of qualitative research as more difficult to tabulate, but effective in determining trends while comparing information. Fraenkel et al. (2016) explained the use of qualitative research as being a strong tool for data collection, as it created differing forms of information to determine if relationships existed. By using the open-ended question at the end of the survey, not only was the opportunity provided for participants to express themselves, but was necessary in keeping the survey to its original form.

Summary

This study was considered a descriptive quantitative study, however, with an additional and optional qualitative response. Using a descriptive quantitative method was chosen for this research, as it was efficiently guided by the variables of student motivation during project-based learning scenarios in ninth through 12th-grade students of leadership organizations (Fraenkel et al., 2016). As Phillips and Gully's (2013) MQ was used, matching the survey required the use of a descriptive quantitative approach. All participants were chosen from five different schools within three counties, based on convenience and purposeful sampling as the desired group was targeted for information based on proximity to Central Missouri (Frankel et al., 2016). Ninth through 12th-grade leadership facilitators from five school districts were recruited to participate in the study. Participants were presented an on-line survey to complete, and surveys participants completed were made available through an e-mail link to leadership facilitators. Data from the on-line surveys were collected on Lindenwood's recommended survey collection site, *Qualtrics*.

The problem and purpose of this study were described in Chapter Three. The theoretical framework and instrumentation used have been explained, as well as the data collection procedure. How the descriptively quantitative Likert-type questions and singular open-ended question were addressed was also clarified in Chapter Three. Also provided was an overview of the data analysis procedure and how survey results were categorized. In Chapter Four, the results of the data collection are displayed and discussed.

Chapter Four: Analysis of Data

Identifying student motivation has been a fluid target among various policymakers and educational institutions, as researchers continually have linked motivation to more successful learning environments (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). While motivation has been desired in learning environments, how to identify behavioral preferences and how to achieve conditional settings to increase motivation has not been effectively researched (Seeman, 2014). Drilling even further, the purpose of this study was to identify the conditional relationship of motivation in high school leadership students, while involved in project-based learning scenarios. To address this purpose, the instrument was given to various high school leadership organization facilitators to take for themselves and to distribute to students to compare preferential perspectives between students and facilitators. This information could have helped high school leadership organizations in developing motivational curricular guides and specifically project-based learning scenarios.

To investigate the observations of high school leadership students and leadership facilitators, a survey consisting of 15, five-point, Likert scale questions and one open-ended question was replicated from Phillips and Gully's (2013) organizational motivation questionnaire. The survey instructions specifically asked participants to relate the questions to their perspectives in a project-based learning scenario within their current leadership organization (Phillips & Gully, 2013 p. 216). Results were calculated in a numerical Likert scale that quantified the participants' behavioral motives under McClelland's motivational theory (Phillips & Gully, 2013). The information gathered was guided by and/or addressed the following three research questions:

Research questions and hypotheses. The following key questions guided this study:

1. What difference, if any, exists between leadership organizations and motivation of adult leadership instructors?

$H1_0$: There are no differences between leadership organizations and motivation of adult leadership instructors.

$H1_a$: There are differences between leadership organizations and motivation of adult leadership instructors.

2. What are the significant motivational effects of individuals in two or more leadership organizations?

$H2_0$: There are no significant motivational effects of students in two or more leadership organizations.

$H2_a$: There are significant motivational effects of students in two or more leadership organizations.

3. What are the significant differences among high school leadership organizations and motivation in project-based work settings?

$H3_0$: There are no significant differences among high school leadership organizations and motivation in project-based work settings.

$H3_a$: There are significant differences among high school leadership organizations and motivation in project-based work settings.

The research questions and hypotheses were assessed and measured under Phillips and Gully's (2013) MQ. As motivation was the dependent variable in this study and leadership organizations were the independent variable, the MQ concluded behavioral motives as the associated variables of each research question. Research Questions One

and Two were specifically evaluated and scored using the behavioral motive groups: (a) Achievement, (b) Power, and (c) Affiliation, as indicated in Figures 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, and 14. Research Question Three was evaluated and scored using the behavioral motive groups: (a) Achievement, (b) Power, and (c) Affiliation, and indicated in Figures 9, 12, and 15. Since Research Question Three specifically addressed individual leadership organizations, Tables 3 and 4 listed highest and lowest selections of behavioral motives to provide readers with maximal observation of variance. As this research sought to identify behavioral motives, additional testing results outside the MQ were not utilized to show correlations.

Demographics

The recruitment letters and the surveys were electronically sent to teachers or students in five, rural, Central Missouri school districts. Of the required 179 participants requested for voluntary participation, 113.40% (*n*=203) participants completed the on-line survey within the requested three-week window. The following demographic data were reported by the survey respondents. Of the respondents, 36.94% (*n*=75) were from the largest school district, while the remaining 63.05% (*n*=128) were from the four smaller districts. In this study, small school districts had a ninth through 12th-grade student population, averaging 238 students, while the large school district in the study had a student population of approximately 1,603 ninth through 12th-grade students. Out of the 203 respondents from all schools, 56.15% (*n*=114) were female, 41.87% (*n*=85) were males, with 2.00% (*n*=4) stated they would rather not report their sexual identification (see Figure 5).

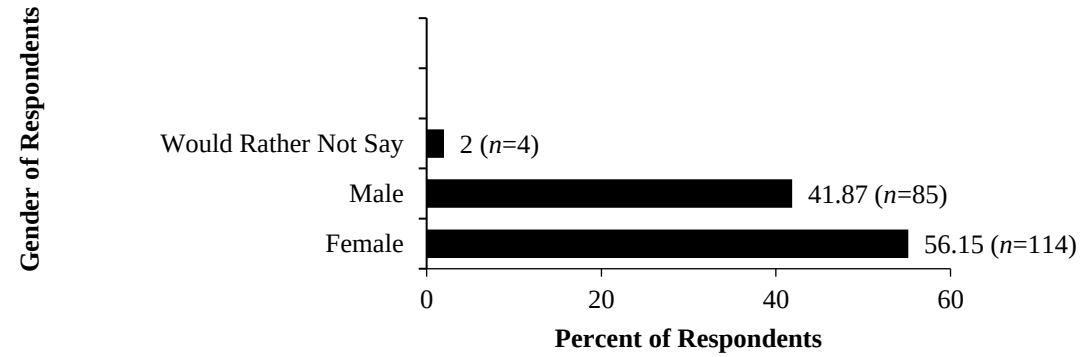

Figure 5. Participants' gender, as reported by each participants' survey. Data collected from survey demographic information.

Of the 203 respondents, 11.33% (*n*=23) were ninth grade students, 13.79% (*n*=28) were 10th grade students, 33.99% (*n*=69) were 11th grade students, 35.96% (*n*=73) were 12th grade students, and 4.92% (*n*=10) were adult facilitators (see Figure 6).

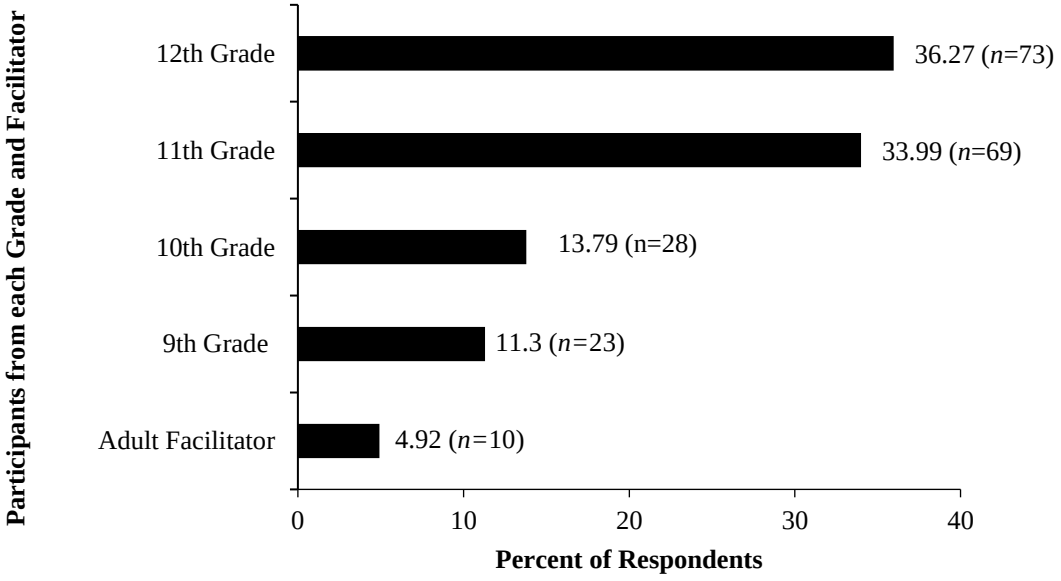

Figure 6. Participants' grade levels as reported by each survey. Data collected from survey demographic information.

The types of leadership organizations in which the participants were involved varied, as participants were requested to write the organization(s) in which they were actively involved. Of the 203 respondents, 11.33% (*n*=23) did not state at least one specific leadership organization in which they were involved. There were 31.52% (*n*= 64) student participants in only one leadership organization, and 57.14% (*n*= 116) student participants in more than one leadership organization (see Table 1).

Table 1

Participants Reported in One or More Leadership Organizations

Student Participants	*n*	Percentage
Not reported	23	11.33
More than One	64	31.52
Only One	116	57.14
Total	203	100.00%

Note. Data collected from survey demographic results.

From the respondent results, 12 different leadership organizations were recorded from 180 participants, fulfilling the validity of the study. While 11.33% (*n*=23) did not correctly state their leadership organizations, it was required their organizations were of leadership orient to receive the survey link. Their information, therefore, was still used to compare total motive variables throughout Chapter Four, as they were labeled as belonging to only one organization. Table 2 illustrates the results that all of the leadership organizations' participants were involved in, therefore, results yielded greater (*n*) and percentage than survey participants. The majority at 25.60% (*n*=47) were involved in National Honors Society, 21.31% (*n*=39) were Student Council members, 20.76% (*n*=38) were Family Career and Community Leaders Association (FCCLA), 20.76% (*n*=38) were Junior Reserve Officers' Training Corps (JROTC), 12.02% (*n*=22) were Future Business Leader Association (FBLA) members, 8.74% (*n*=16) were Freshman Mentor (FMP),

8.74% (*n*=16) were Future Farmers of America (FFA), 8.19% (*n*=15) were Beta Club members, 7.10% (*n*=13) were Future Teachers of America (FTA) members, 3.27% (*n*=6) were Key Club Members, 3.27% (*n*=6) were Old School Hornet Members, and 1.09% (*n*=2) were in the Distributive Education Club Association (see Table 2).

Table 2

Participants' Reported Leadership Organizations

Leadership Organization	*n*	Percentage from Total
NHS	47	25.6
STUCO	39	21.31
FCCLA	38	20.76
JROTC	38	20.76
FBLA	22	12.02
FFA	16	8.74
FMP	16	8.74
Beta	15	8.19
FTA	13	7.1
Key Club	6	3.27
OSH	6	3.27
DECA	2	1.09
Total Participants Calculated	180	100.00%

Note. Data collected from survey demographic results and reported in descending order of participants that correctly recorded a leadership organization.

Analysis of Survey Data

The results of the survey completed by ninth through 12th-grade leadership students and leadership facilitators were examined through total responses received and were further detailed through analysis of behavioral motive variables, leadership organizations, and facilitators' perceptions. Since the objective was to determine the motivation of all high school leadership organization individuals towards project-based tasks, supplementary data dissections were analyzed in further detail when needed. A total of 203 responses were recorded; 95.07% (*n*=193) were from students in grades nine

through 12, whereas 4.92% (*n*=10) were from adult facilitators (see Figure 2). Survey questions numbered one through 15 were closed-ended questions related to participants' perceptions of organizational project-based tasks, and respondents were limited to the five Likert-scale options. Depending on how participants selected their agreement or disagreement to specific questions, the survey results determined what participants' motive(s) were.

Question 16 of the MQ was a short qualitative response to allow participants to express alternative motivations; however, detailed information was not provided from the data. Of the 203 participants, only 3.94% (*n*=8) stated they did not agree and answered "No" to their selected motives. From the 3.98% (*n*=8), only 0.98% (*n*=2) offered an explanation as to why they did not agree with the survey. The qualitative explanations recorded from the two disagreeing participants offered very little information with one response being irrelevant to the question. Steber (2018) discussed that qualitative responses used as a concluding portion of a survey often yielded minimal responses, as these questions were considered immaterial to participants. Participants' lacking, short, and non-related responses were most likely due to survey fatigue, phone submission, and/or not facilitated by the person researching, as noted in previous chapters (Steber, 2018). Disagreeing Participant 1 stated:

> I do not agree with this. I would believe that my main motivation is to help people in their successes and all their goals. I learned this goal from my father, because he helps me with anything that I need in life, work, and school life.

Disagreeing participant 2 stated “No, I don’t feel the need to have power over other people. Instead, I enjoy working equally and sometimes behind others.”

Questions 1, 4, 7, 10, and 13 were specifically associated with the behavioral motive of Achievement (Phillips & Gully, 2013). The closed-ended questions 2, 5, 8, 11, and 14 were specifically associated with the behavioral motive, Power (Phillips & Gully, 2013). The closed-ended questions 3, 6, 9, 12, and 15 were specifically associated with the behavioral motive Affiliation (Phillips & Gully, 2013). Participants were a combination of one, two, or even all three motives and were grouped and discussed to provide insight into each research question. Figures following below represented each of the demographics and how each behavioral motive was selected by participants. Significant motives and further variable partitioning are summarized in Chapter Five.

The closed-ended survey questions were based on a five-point Likert scale. The five-point scale was tested for validity by the researchers, Braunstein and Steers (1976), and exactly replicated from Phillips and Gully’s (2013) organizational motivation research. To maintain consistency throughout the survey, the only five response options included: (a) Strongly Disagree—1, (b) Disagree—2, (c) Neither Agree or Disagree—3, (d) Agree—4, and (e) Strongly Agree—5. As the survey was digitally distributed, these response options were displayed above every fifth question to remind the participants of the possible selections. The purpose of the five-point scale was two-fold, as it kept the study valid to the source, and it also gave the participant two variances in directions of agreement (Braunstein & Steers, 1976; Phillips & Gully, 2013). The numerical representations of participant Likert selections were illustrated in figures to quickly show

readers similarities and/or differences in selections as they related to the research questions.

Achievement Motive. Achievement motive questions were distributed throughout the survey in the chronological order 1, 4, 7, 10, and 13 and were all Likert scale items (Phillips & Gully, 2013). The questions were:

Item 1. *I work very hard to continually improve my work performance.*

Item 4. *I enjoy difficult challenges. At work, I like to take on the hard jobs.*

Item 7. *When I am working, I like to know how I am doing; how the work is progressing.*

Item 10. *I typically set realistic goals. I tend to achieve my goals.*

Item 13. *I enjoy the satisfaction of successfully completing a difficult job.*

Figure 7 illustrates total participant selections involved in one leadership organization compared to that of individuals in more than one leadership organization. For Likert Items 1, 4, 7, and 10 the observed groups similarly chose Agree as their highest selection. However, their responses equally changed for the selection Strongly Agree on Likert Item 13. In regard to individuals in one organization to those in more than one leadership organization indicated identical behavioral preferences pertaining to achievement questions (see Figure 7).

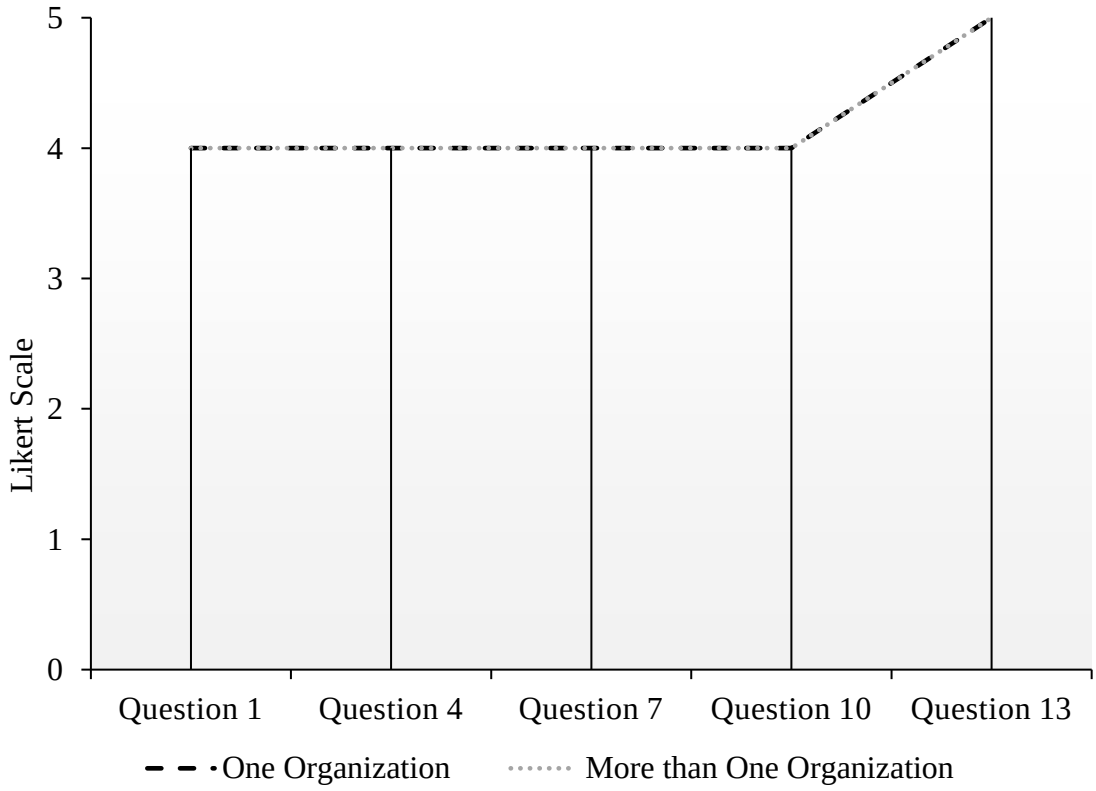

Figure 7. Data collected from survey results. One organization was represented by 139 participants and more than one organization was represented by 64 participants.

Figure 8 illustrates total participant selections that were either adult facilitators or were students. For Likert Items 1, 4, 7, and 10, the adult facilitators chose Strongly Agree as their highest selection and students alternatively chose Agree as their highest selection. For Likert Item 13, both groups similarly chose Strongly Agree as their highest selections. In regard to adult facilitator and student preferences, these participants only selected one question from the five analogously (see Figure 8).

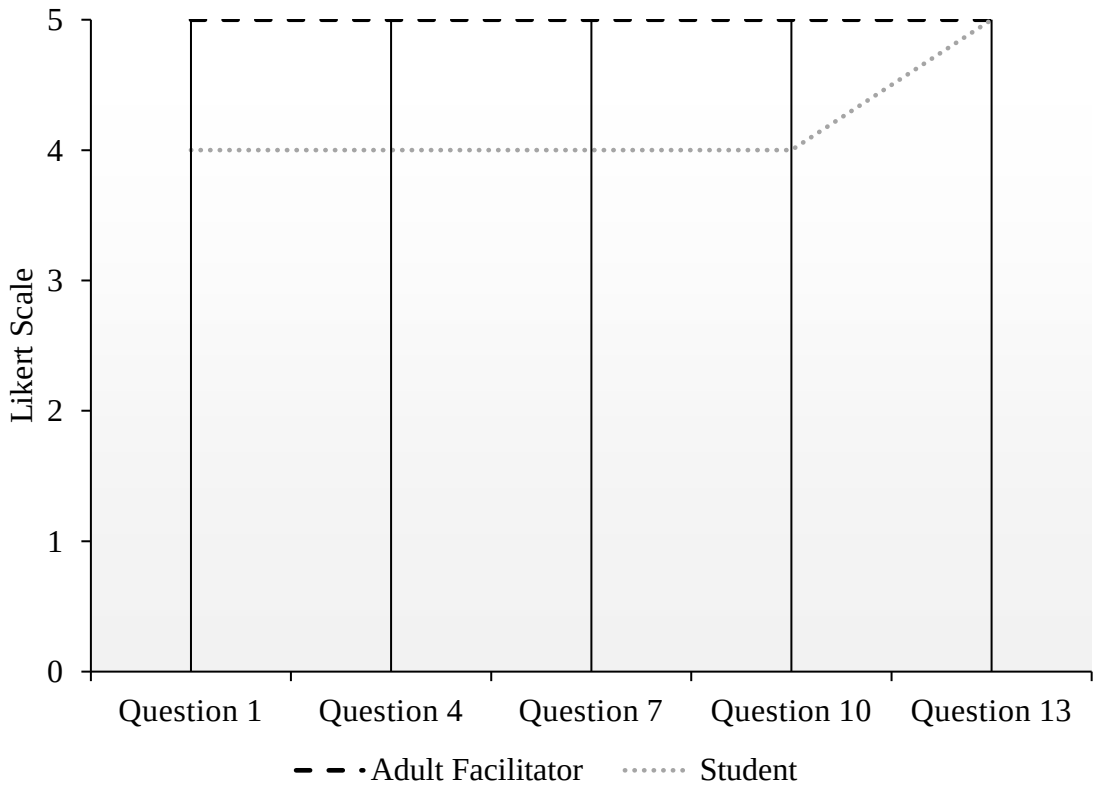

Figure 8. Data collected from survey results. Adult facilitators were represented by 10 participants and students were represented by 193 participants.

Figure 9 illustrates total organizations' selections of the study for reader comparison. For Likert Items 1, 4, 7, and 10, the observed organizations selected Agree as the highest selection. For Likert Item 13, the highest selection was Strongly Agree. While these results were the same as student participants, they were different from adult facilitators (see Figure 9).

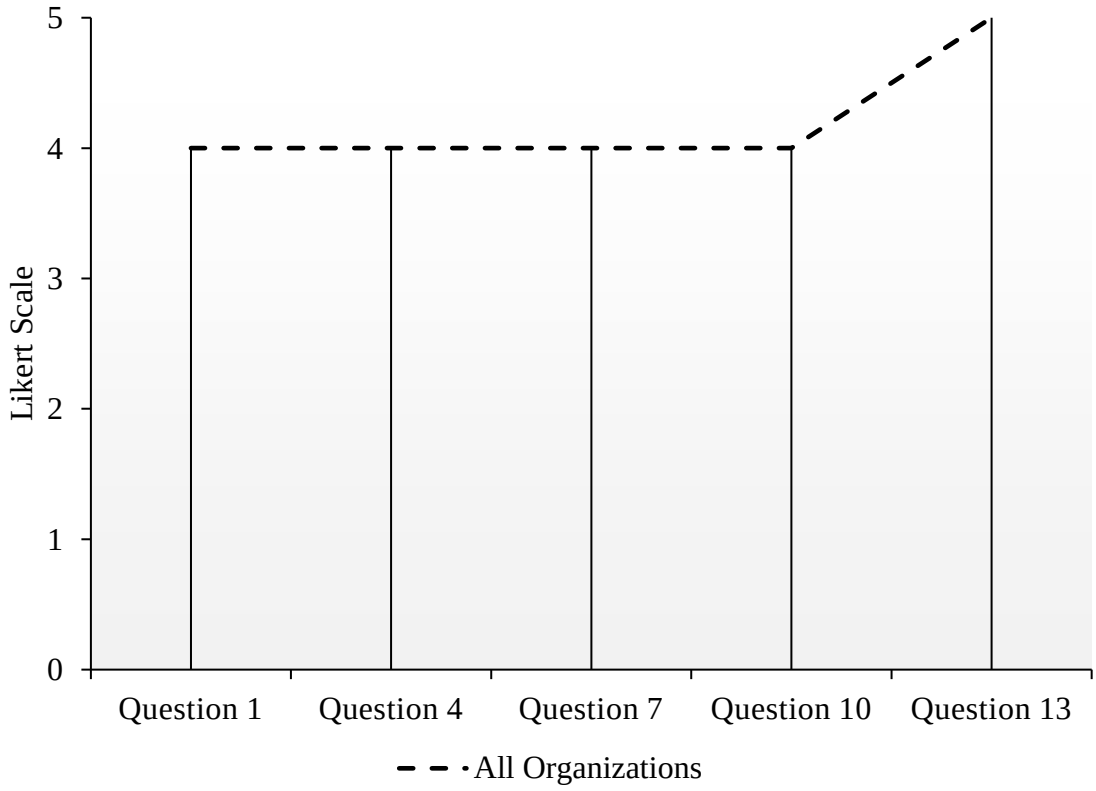

Figure 9. Data collected from survey results. All organizations were represented by the total 203 participants.

Power Motive. Power motive questions were distributed throughout the survey in the chronological order 2, 5, 8, 11, and 14 (Phillips & Gully, 2013). The questions were:

Item 2. *I enjoy competition. I like to win - in sports and other things I do.*

Item 5. *I enjoy being a manager. I like being in charge of things and people.*

Item 8. *If I disagree with someone, I let them know it. I am not afraid of disagreement.*

Item 11. *It is important to me to get people to agree with my ideas*

Item 14. *One of my important objectives is to get more control over events around me.*

Figure 10 illustrates total participant selections of the power motive that were involved in one leadership organization compared to that of individuals in more than one leadership organization. For Likert Items 2, 5, 8, and 14, the observed groups similarly chose Agree as their highest selection. However, their responses deviated on Likert Item 11, in which individuals in one leadership organization selected Neither Agree or Disagree as their highest selection. Participants in more than one leadership organization sustained their selection of Agree to Likert Item 11. In regard to individuals in one organization to those in more than one leadership organization, selections indicated similar behavioral preferences except for perspectives on getting others to agree with their ideas (see Figure 10).

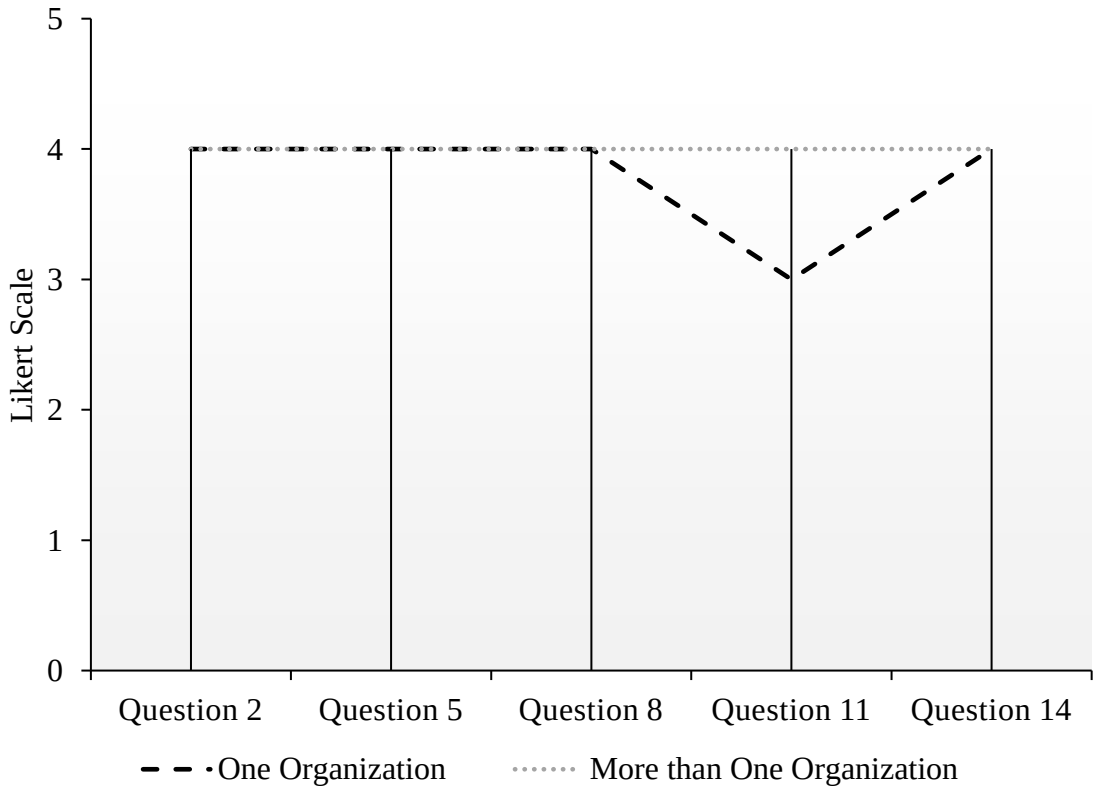

Figure 10. Data collected from survey results. One organization was represented by 139 participants and more than one organization was represented by 64 participants.

Figure 11 illustrates total participant selections of the Power Motive that were either adult facilitators or were students. For Likert Item 2 the adult facilitators and students similarly chose Strongly Agree, as their highest selections. Adult facilitators and Students selected the same responses again on Likert Item 8; however, their analogous selection was Agree. For Likert Item 5 adults selected Strongly Agree while students selected Agree. Adults selected Neither Agree or Disagree as their highest response to Likert Item 11, while students maintained Agree as their highest selection.

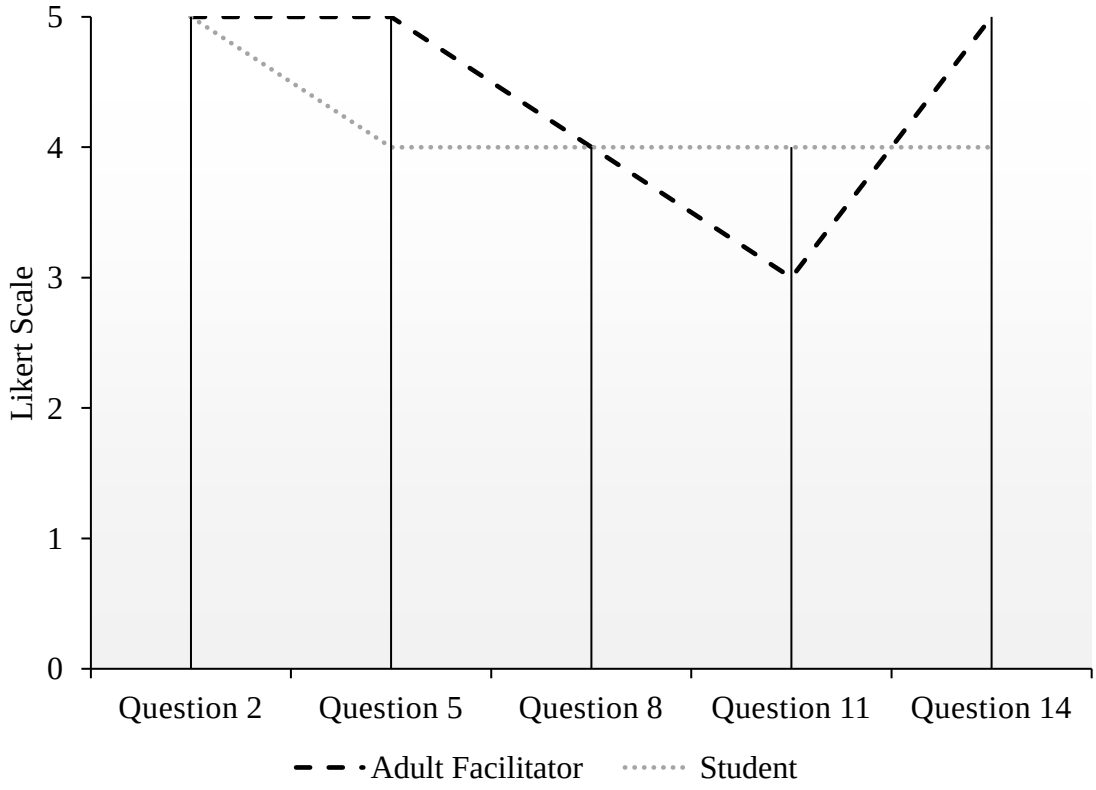

Figure 11. Data collected from survey results. Adult facilitators were represented by 10 participants, and students were represented by 193 participants.

For the final question, Likert Item 14, adults' greatest selection was Strongly Agree, while students selected Agree. In regard to adult facilitator and student

preferences, selections only showed similarities on two questions pertaining to enjoyment of competition and discussing disagreement with others (see Figure 11).

Figure 12 illustrates total organizations' power motive selections of the study for reader comparison. For Likert Item 2, the total organization response was Strongly Agree. For Likert Items 5, 8, and 14, the highest total responses were all Agree. For Likert Item 11, the highest selection was Neither Agree or Disagree. While these results were similar to student selections, they deviated from adult facilitators responses, one organization members', and more than one organization (see Figure 12).

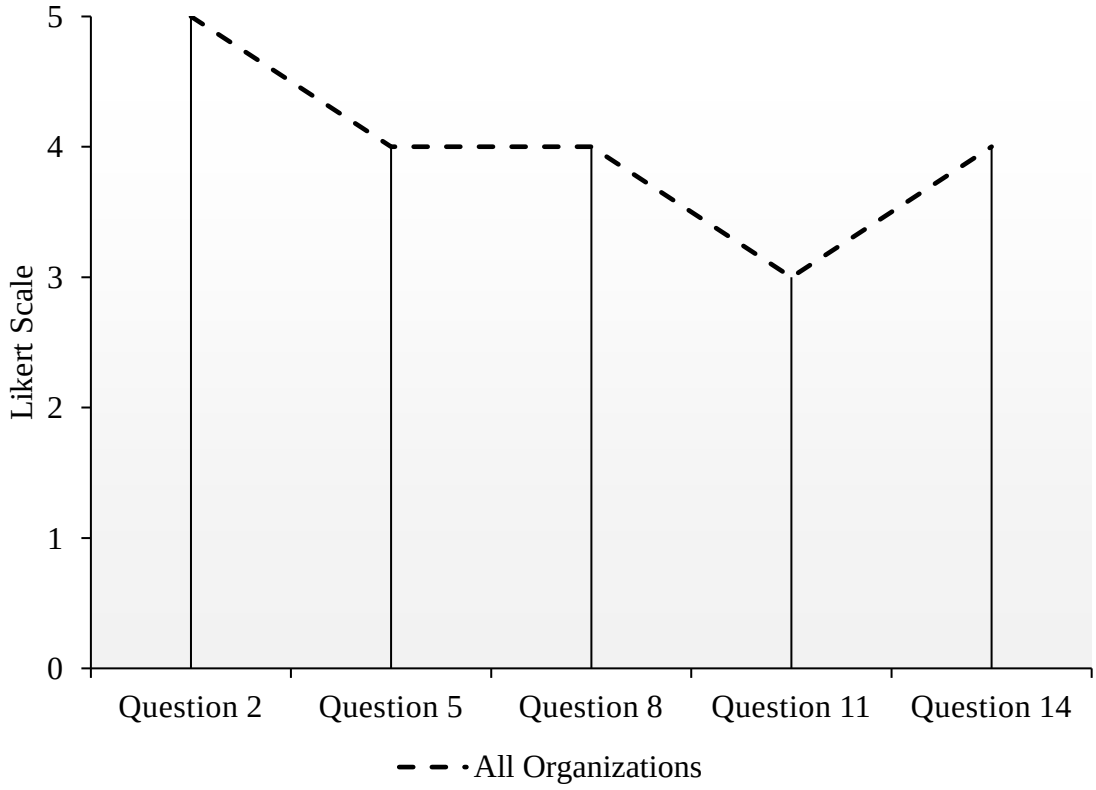

Figure 12. Data collected from survey results. All organizations were represented by the total 203 participants.

Affiliation Motive. Affiliation motive questions were distributed throughout the survey in the chronological order—3, 6, 9, 12, 15 (Phillips & Gully, 2013). The questions were:

Item 3. *When working, I often chat with fellow employees about non-work matters.*

Item 6. *It matters to me that people like me.*

Item 9. *Many of my co-workers are also my friends. I enjoy spending my leisure time with them.*

Item 12. *I enjoy belonging to clubs, groups and other organizations.*

Item 15. *I would rather work with other people than work alone.*

Figure 13 illustrates total participant selections of the affiliation motive who were involved in one leadership organization compared to that of individuals in more than one leadership organization. For Likert Items 3, 6, and 9, the observed groups similarly chose Agree as their highest selection. However, their responses deviated on Likert Item 12 in which individuals in one leadership organization selected continued with Agree as the highest selection. For participants in more than one leadership organization, their responses indicated a greatest selection in Strongly Agree to Likert Item 12. The selections on Likert Item 15 were also different; participants in one leadership organization selected Neither Agree or Disagree as their highest selection while those in more than one leadership organization had a highest selection of Agree. In regard to individuals in one organization to those in more than one leadership organization, selections indicated similar behavioral preferences except for perspectives on enjoyment of being in organizations and working with other people in groups (see Figure 13).

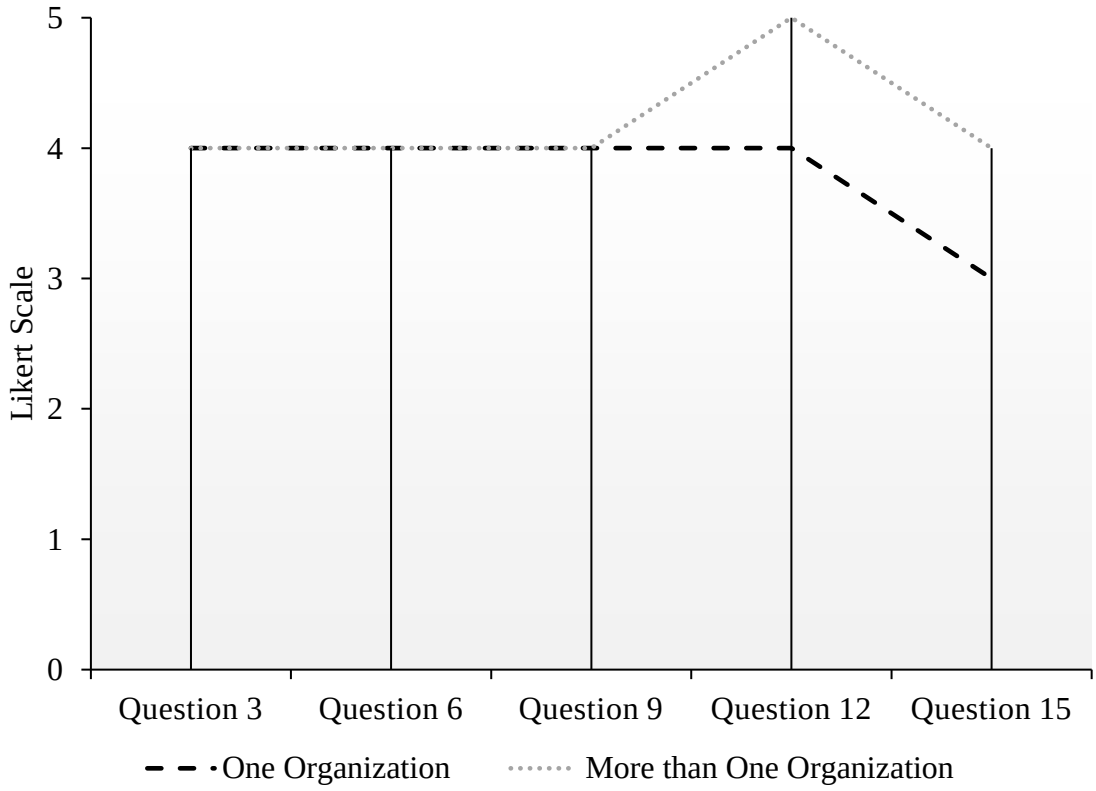

Figure 13. Data collected from survey results. One organization was represented by 139 participants and more than one organization was represented by 64 participants.

Figure 14 illustrates total participant selections of the affiliation motive that were either adult facilitators' or were students.' For Likert Items 3 and 9, the adult facilitators and students similarly chose Agree as their highest selection, these were the only two analogous selections between these groups. Adult facilitators selected Neither Agree or Disagree as their highest selection on Likert Items 6 and 12, while students selected differently. Students' highest selections for Likert Item 6 remained at Agree, while their highest selections for Likert Item 12 was Strongly Agree. For Likert Item 15 adults selected Agree, while students selected Neither Agree or Disagree as the highest response. In regard to adult facilitator and student preferences, selections only showed similarities on two questions pertaining to chatting with others within their organizations

and agreement of spending leisure time with those they worked with. While adults and students had similar responses, it was interesting to note the significant difference in agreement to Likert Item 12, which asked participants their enjoyment of being involved in organizations (see Figure 14).

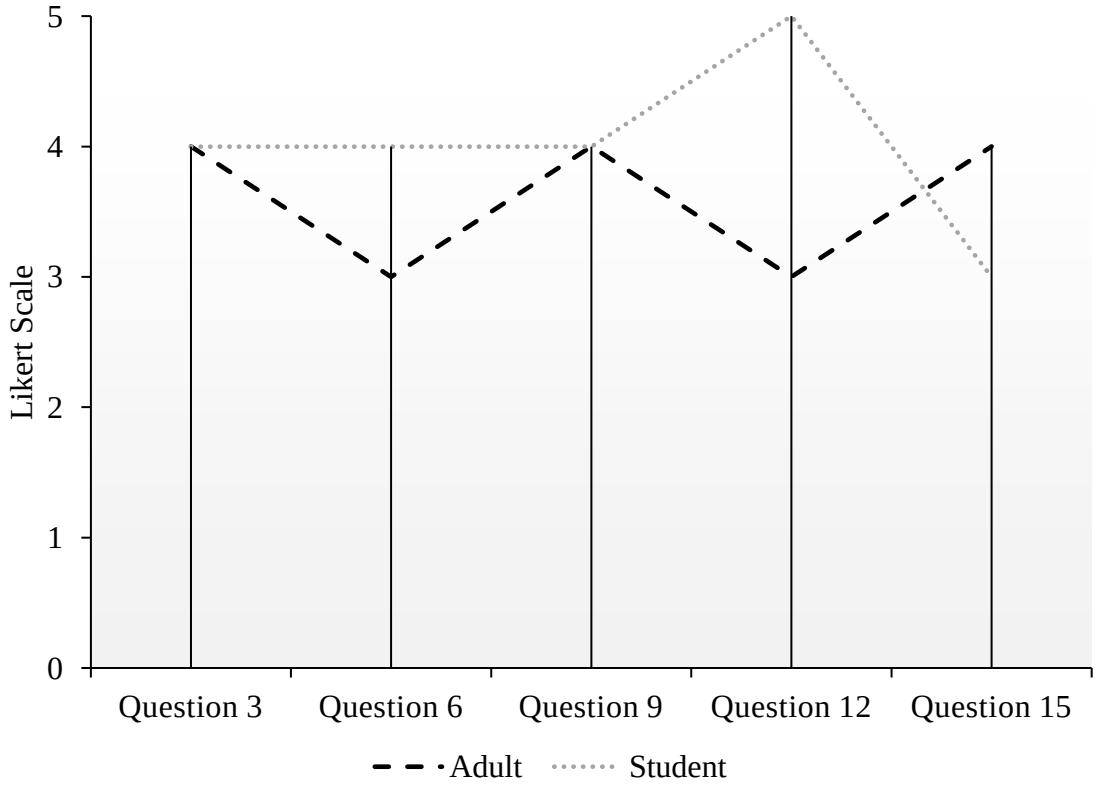

Figure 14. Data collected from survey results. Adult facilitators were represented by 10 participants, and students were represented by 193 participants.

Figure 15 illustrates total organizations' affiliation motive selections of the study for reader comparison. For Likert Items 3, 6, and 9, the total organization response was Agree. For Likert Item 12, the highest total response was Strongly Agree. For Likert Item 15, the highest selection was Neither Agree or Disagree. While these results were similar to student selections, specifically in Likert Items 3, 6, and 9, they deviated from adult

facilitators' responses, one organization members' responses, and more than one organization responses (see Figure 15).

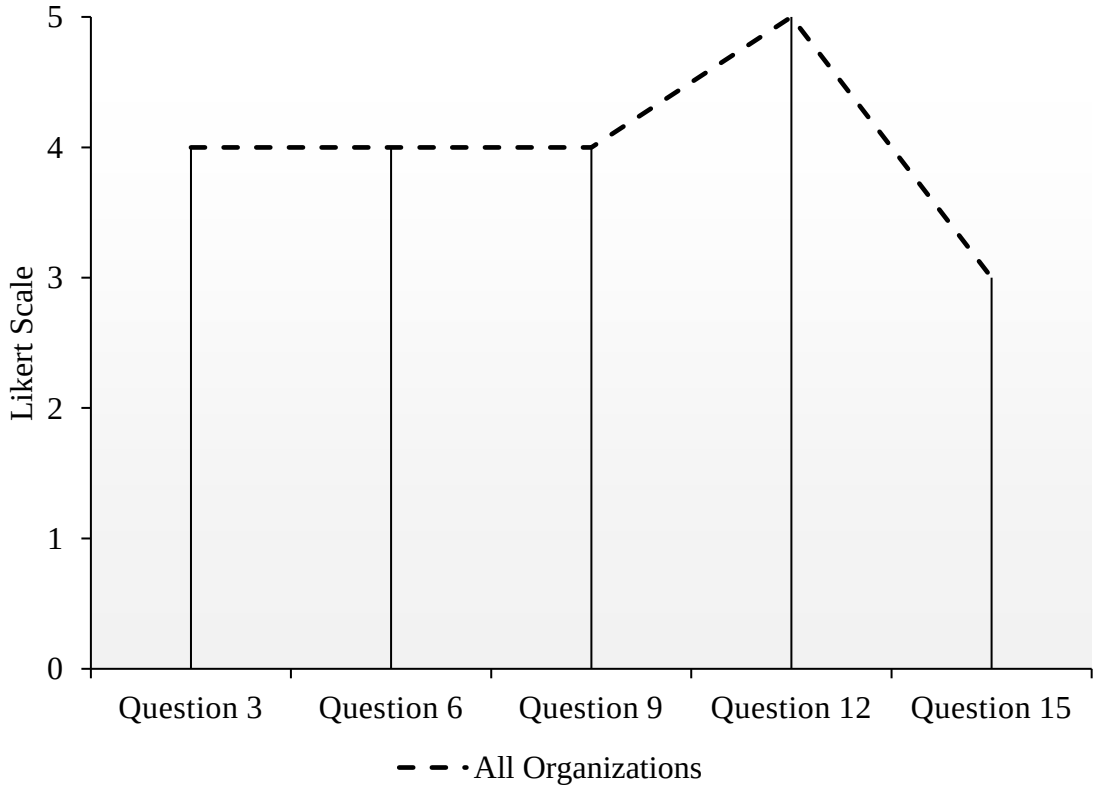

Figure 15. Data collected from survey results. All organizations were represented by the total 203 participants.

Individual Leadership Organizations

To begin the examination of individual leadership organizations as the independent variable and their individualized motivation levels as the dependent variable, research was conducted using the MQ by Phillips and Gully (2013). More directly, this allowed each of the 12 organizations' motives to be measured as the percentile that each motivation was experienced in current project-based tasks (Phillips & Gully, 2013). Achievement motives were overwhelmingly the most significant motivational construct within the 12 leadership organizations of this study. Power motives were generally the

second highest motivational constructs and then affiliation motives followed as the lowest motivational selection.

While the average percentile of each behavioral motive averaged similarly to the other demographics that were observed, there were several significant differences. These listed organizations selected "Power" as their second highest selection: (a) NHS, (b) STUCO, (c) JROTC, (d) FBLA, (e) Beta, and (f) Key Club, while "Affiliation" was the second highest selection of these following groups: (a) FCCLA, (b) FFA, (c) FMP, and (d) FTA.

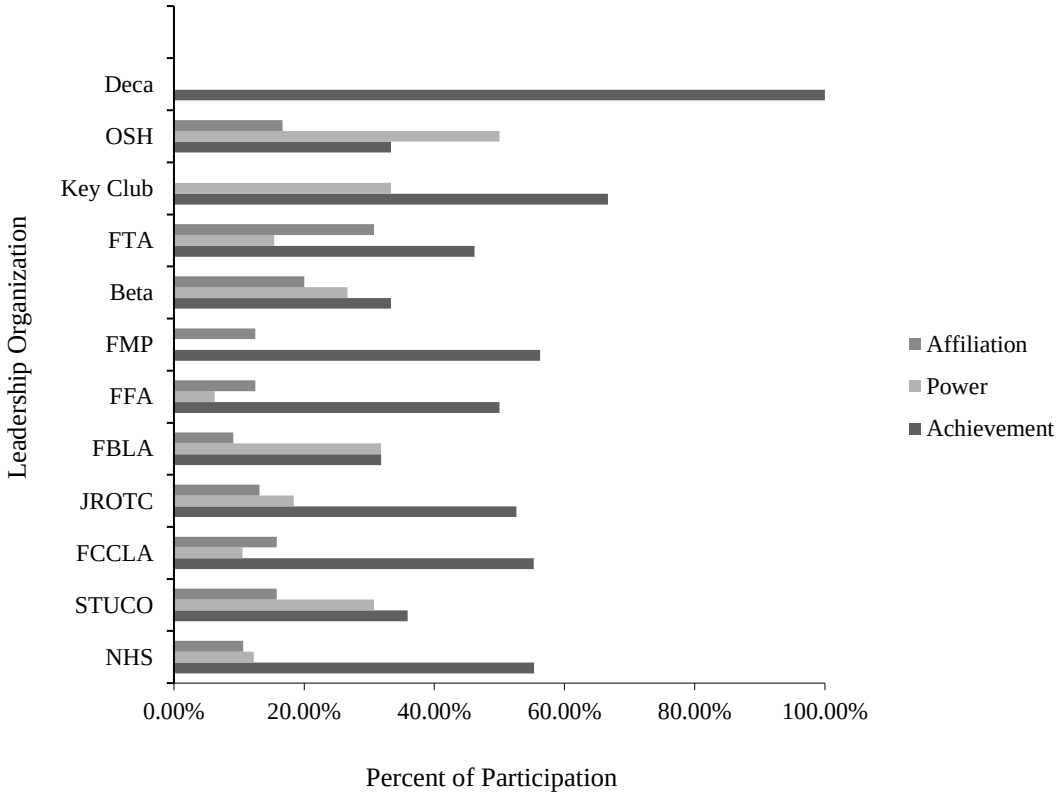

Figure 16. Data collected from survey results. The 12 leadership organizations were represented by 88.67% (n=180) of the (n=203) 100% participants.

The following organizations, DECA and OSH, were outliers in their selections. Deca was represented as only one selection—achievement, and OSH had a greatest

selection in power following with achievement and then affiliation (see Figure 16). While Deca and OSH did not follow the other leadership organizations' trends, they also were represented by the two lowest populations of participants which may have skewed the data (Steber, 2018). Detailed results are displayed in Figure 16.

Summary

In Chapter Four, the significant results from the data collection were presented. The data gathered from the survey were used to answer the three research questions of this study, as well as to compare hypotheses. Relationships, correlations, and differences of motives between leadership organizations, facilitators, students, and multiple organization members were descriptively discussed and displayed throughout Chapter Four, as tables and figures were provided to more easily observe trends. As listed in previous chapters as a limitation and displayed in this chapter, the qualitative question of the MQ did not yield applicable data to answer the research questions. The replicated descriptive quantitative portions of this study indicated only minor differences in behavioral motives between all the participants in the observed groups. However, common trends regarding achievement motives were present among a majority of the leadership organizations and demographics. In Chapter Five, alternative descriptive quantitative figures will condense MQ selections, and the findings of the data will be summarized for conclusions and further discussions. In addition, areas for future research on motivation in leadership organizations, as well as suggestions for education of high school students and/or in project-based learning scenarios, will be addressed.

Chapter Five: Summary and Conclusions

Overview

Having students motivated in their educational projects has been an ongoing struggle and a difficult goal for a majority of educators to achieve (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Sparks (2019) noted most educators understood how important high levels of motivation were for the classroom; however, understanding the importance alone did not give insight into the root of behavioral conditions (Sparks, 2019). The provided literature described there have been mixed reviews on how to identify and to increase motivation and that that there was a gambit of conditional influences (Covey, 2012; Matthews, 2015). However, there has been little conflict in understanding educators have needed more tactics to identify and to address the behavioral motive conditions of students (Sparks, 2019).

Consequently, high school leadership facilitators have been facing these same issues of motivation from students who were anticipated to understand their motives within working settings (Aminitehrani, 2017). The need for motivational understandings in students has continued to be an issue; simultaneously, the desire for broad leadership-based skills has been pressured by policymakers and educational stakeholders (Matthews, 2015). With the mounting demands on educators to increase and to produce students who were more adept at understanding their motivation, but also students with effective leadership skills has created further confusion in tactics to remedy both issues (Matthews, 2015).

In order to evaluate the conditional motives, this research study utilized Phillips and Gully's MQ throughout five Central Missouri districts. Through the replication of the

MQ, this study aimed to identify and to correlate students and adult facilitators as the members of leadership organizations behavioral motives as motivation towards projects. This chapter will review the purpose of the study, hypotheses, and research questions. Then, the findings from the study, trends, conclusions, and implications for educational practices will be discussed. Lastly, areas in the study for future research will conclude the chapter.

Furthermore, by completing this descriptive quantitative replication study, the aim was to accomplish the following: (a) examine the trends in behavioral motives, (b) analyze specific motivational constructs of the observed demographics, (c) investigate discrepancies and similarities between the motivation of leadership organizations, and to provide an educational literary base regarding motivation of leadership organizations. Through this investigation of the MQ on leadership organizations project-based tasks, the hope was possibly to identify specific motivational constructs to increase the effectiveness of high school leadership organizations. With further research, this study helped to set the directional foundations towards future motivation studies in high school leadership organizations.

Discussion

Research Question 1. What difference, if any, exists between leadership organizations and motivation of adult leadership instructors?

Results from the independent variable—leadership organizations—were represented in this analysis to identify the dependent variable—motivation—as all participants who did not label themselves adult facilitators and was earlier identified as all students (n=193) was compared to those who selected adult facilitator (n=10). As the

MQ disseminated information in three motivational groups to analyze each of McClelland's (1987) behavioral motives, subtle differences were identified. Overall, the dependent variable motivation averaged the same. Agreement towards each of the behaviorally conditioned motives, Likert-scores, and percentages of each group were different, and they were not significant enough to nullify the hypothesis. While Null Hypothesis ($H1_0$) was descriptively not rejected, it was not without concern and/or future implications for further study to better analyze this research question. As the percentages of leadership organization members compared to adult facilitators were marginally different, the mean scores were effective at displaying similarities.

Achievement

The behavioral motive, Achievement, showed differences in the level of agreement and the percentage of total members to each Likert-item as displayed in Chapter Four. Achievement motives were selected by 90% (n=9) of the adult facilitators and was only selected by 51.81% (n=100) of the leadership organization students. Interestingly, these two groups scored similarly on their overall averages and indicated comparable mean scores (see Table 3).

Table 3

Leadership Organization vs. Adult Facilitator Achievement Scores

Student/Adult	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
Student	20.80	2.83	8.03
Adult Facilitator	23	2.61	6.80

Note. Data collected from survey results.

Only minor differences were found between leadership organizations versus the adult facilitators in the achievement questions. This showed a possible inclination that a

majority of individuals involved in leadership organizations were driven by achievement motives. As listed in Chapter Two, achievement motivated individuals were those who thrived on settings in which they were mentally and/or physically extended, but also had control over these extenuated situations (McClelland, 1987).

Researchers referenced throughout Chapter Two also described that individuals within leadership situations tended to be motivated by their own intrinsic means, self-directed learning, and drives for success (Goetz & Hall, 2013; Strom, 2013). As motivation through the behavioral conditioning achievement was the greatest selection by all leadership organization members, it also indicated a specific motive within project-based learning tasks. Chapter Four further displayed that adult facilitators had a perspective that placed a greater agreement to the achievement motive, as well as smaller standard deviation and variance towards achievement motives (see Table 3).

These results addressed the importance of knowing leadership organizations' most common behavioral motives and how further research could support instruction to fill these conditions. It was clear that while there were stark similarities, differences in achievement motives may have required more collaboration between adult facilitators and leadership organization students. As adult facilitators and leadership organization students had very similar scores and outcomes towards achievement motives, descriptively rejecting the null hypothesis ($H1_0$), and H1 could not be substantiated.

Power

The behavioral motive Power showed differences in the level of agreement and the percentage of total members to each Likert-item as displayed in Chapter Four. Power motives were ultimately selected by 0% (n=0) of the adult facilitators and was the second

highest selection by leadership organization students at 15.54% (*n*=30). Although, this was a clear difference in selections, limited adult participants may have increased these percentile separations. Interestingly, participants in these two groups scored similarly on their overall averages and indicated equivalent mean scores towards power motivation (see Table 4).

Table 4

Leadership Organization vs. Adult Facilitator Power Scores

Student/Adult	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
Student	19.18	2.55	6.49
Adult Facilitator	19	1.95	3.80

Note. Data collected from survey results.

Only minor differences were found between leadership organizations versus the adult facilitators in the power motive questions. While the greatest motive selection was in achievement, both groups selected very similar mean scores in regard to the power motive. As cited earlier by Bass (2009), power motivated individuals were perceived to have negative implications, yet, were very effective in leadership roles.

These results may have indicated that power motives were not only prevalent in leadership organizations, but they also were highly represented by student members. As discussed in Chapter Two, power motivated individuals were those who were motivated by presuming dominance of situations and even individuals (Miner, 2015). While adult facilitators already assumed this dominance as the instructors, organizational members were subjects to the hierarchy at which these organizations were constructed.

Also highlighted in Chapter Two was the conditional need for student autonomy and societal drive for students to lead (Twenge, 2013). This was a direct link to the Likert-markers of the MQ in relation to (a) competition, (b) ownership, and (c) taking charge (Phillips & Gully, 2013). The data from Chapter Four indicated that adult facilitators did not perceive identical motivational power constructs as students, yet differences between these perceptions were not enough to descriptively nullify the hypothesis ($H1_0$).

Affiliation

The behavioral motive Affiliation showed differences in the level of agreement and the percentage of total members to each Likert-item as displayed in Chapter Four. Affiliation motives were selected by 10% (n=1) of the adult facilitators and was selected by 12.95% (n=25) of the leadership organization students. These two groups also scored similarly on their overall averages and indicated comparable mean scores (see Table 5).

Table 5

Leadership Organization vs. Adult Facilitator Affiliation Scores

Student/Adult	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
Student	18.93	2.84	8.06
Adult Facilitator	17.80	1.83	3.36

Note. Data collected from survey results.

Only minor differences were found between responses from leadership organizations versus the adult facilitators in the affiliation motive questions. While the adult facilitator participants were limited, the overall percentage between these groups was only a 2.95% difference in affiliation motives. Spangler et al. (2014) discussed in

Chapter Two that individuals with affiliation motives were motivated by commitment and belongingness to organizations.

Also cited previously was Miner's (2015) suggestion that these individuals could have been subject to subverting policy and requirements in favor of communicable relationships. These results may indicate that affiliation motives, in general, were not as prevalent in leadership organizations, as they may have been priorly fulfilled by the current involvement of their organization (Bolman & Deal, 2016). Therefore, motivation contingent on affiliation may have been presumed, increasing the percentile focused on achievement and power motives.

While Miner (2015) suggested that affiliation motivated individuals were not the most effective leaders, the data from Chapter Four also indicated this motivation was not as prevalent as the other motives in this leadership observation. As minimal differences in the data from Chapter Four indicated more adult facilitators did not perceive the exact same motivational affiliation constructs as students, it was the most comparable percentage data selection between these groups. Equally, these groups shared common data scores; thus, their differences did not descriptively nullify the hypothesis ($H1_0$).

Perhaps cooperation between the sentiments of motivation and instruction of leadership organizations could have led to specific literature, improved leadership success, and project-based task completion. The difference in these groups may have been anticipated due to the psychological conditioning differences as discussed in earlier chapters, as well as limited adult participants (McClelland, 1987). However, the differences between adult perspectives and organizational perspectives were minimal, but they were still noticeable. These results demonstrated to the consistency of which

leadership projects across all organizations have been facilitated to provide applicable motivational instruction. Addressing the differences from an adult facilitator perspective could be essential to refining the motivational issues of students in these leadership settings (Matthews, 2015)

These results addressed the importance of knowing leadership organizations' most common behavioral motives and how further research supported instruction to enhance these conditions. Results in Chapter Four also displayed that adult facilitators had a perspective that placed a greater agreement to the achievement motive and transcended closely to student scores on the other motivational constructs. Adult facilitators also selected power motives at 0%, yet the mean score was only .18 different on a 25-point scale and were only 2.95% different in the average affiliation motive. This indicated that adult facilitators were most likely addressing projects with instruction which was motivational and aligned to student needs. These results demonstrated to the consistency of which leadership curriculum across all organizations is facilitated to provide instruction of project-based tasks. It was clear that while there were stark similarities, differences in achievement motives may have required more collaboration between adult facilitators and organizations. The results of this motivational assessment possibly assisted leadership organization facilitators in preparing project-based tasks, as well as general education.

Research Question 2. What are the significant motivational effects of individuals in two or more leadership organizations?

Results for this research question were represented by two groups of participants within the independent variable—leadership organizations—to determine the dependent

variable—motivation. The two groups included 139 individuals 68.47% of the overall participants in one leadership organization, and 64 individuals 31.52% of the overall participants in more than one leadership organization. As the MQ disseminated information in three motivational groups to analyze each of McClelland's (1987) behavioral motives, differences were identified between these demographics (Phillips & Gully, 2013).

While the dependent variable—motivation—averaged the same, agreement towards each of the behaviorally conditioned motives, Likert-scores, and percentages of each group were different. While these differences provided information to assist leadership organizations, the Null Hypothesis ($H2_0$) was descriptively not rejected. As the percentages of one leadership organization members compared to more than one leadership organization members were marginally different, the mean scores were effective at displaying similarities.

Achievement

The behavioral motive, Achievement, showed differences in the level of agreement and the percentage of total members to each Likert-item as displayed in Chapter Four. Achievement motives were selected by 60.43% (n=84) of the one organization members and was only selected by 39.06% (n=25) of more than one leadership organization members. While these percentages illustrated a significant difference, these two groups scored similarly on their overall averages and indicated comparable mean scores (see Table 6).

Table 6

One Organization vs. More Than One Leadership Organization Achievement Scores

One/More	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
One	20.77	3.11	9.70
More than One	21.20	2.19	4.79

Note. Data collected from survey results.

No differences were found between one organization and more than one leadership organization members in the achievement motive questions for they selected identical agreement to these Likert-items (see Figure 7). This showed a plausible proclivity that the number of leadership organizations individuals were involved in would not alter their motivation. This also highlighted the researchers in Chapter Two which discussed that leadership-oriented individuals were drawn to these organizations for motivational fulfilment (Covey, 2012; Bolman & Deal, 2016).

Further discussed in Chapter Two, the sentiment of the vast majority of leadership organizations was similar in their goals yet highly specific in their classification of leadership (Winston & Patterson, 2006). Kumar et al.'s (2014) work may have clarified this result in demonstrating that "leadership involves a collaborative relationship that leads to collective action grounded in the shared values of people working together to effect positive change" not just the amount or type of organization (p. 82). Chapter Four indicated identical graphs as well as very similar mean scores in Table 8, which may have suggested that achievement structures of project-based learning tasks offered the greatest motivation to these groups.

However, differences were noticeable in the overall percentages, which implied that individuals in one organization may have been more motivated by achievement structures than those of more than one. It was evident that their similarities existed, but differences in achievement motives may have been as significant of a motivation for those in multiple leadership organizations. Since one organization members and more than one leadership organization members had very similar data sections in the achievement motive, descriptively rejecting the Null Hypothesis ($H2_0$) was not a viable option.

Power

The behavioral motive Power showed differences in the level of agreement and the percentage of total members to each Likert-item as displayed in Chapter Four. Power motives were ultimately selected by 13.66% (n=19) of the one organization members and was similarly selected by 17.18% (n=11) of more than one leadership organization members. Although this was a marginal difference in selections, these two groups also scored similarly on their overall averages and indicated equivalent mean scores towards power motivation (see Table 7).

Table 7

One Organization vs. More Than One Leadership Organization Power Scores

One/More	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
One	18.94	2.58	6.68
More than One	19.67	2.30	5.28

Note. Data collected from survey results.

Minimal differences were demonstrated in one organization members versus more than one leadership organization members power motive questions. Both of these groups selected achievement as their highest percentile and mean score while power motives were the following subsequent mean selections (see Table 7). Fodor (2009), as cited in Chapter Two, proposed that power motivated individuals were successful at manipulating situations into favorable communicable interactions, which may have been more difficult to accomplish in multiple organizations.

Fodor's (2009) research and this data may have suggested that those individuals involved in more than one leadership organization would not have inherited these power motivations as readily. Miner (2015) also highlighted the fact that power motive individuals at times attempted to control the situations or individuals around them as a means of intrinsic motivation that would have been more motivating to attain in multiple associations. The data from Chapter Four indicated that members of one leadership organization did not perceive identical motivational power constructs members in more than one leadership organization, yet differences were not enough to descriptively reject the Null Hypothesis ($H2_0$).

Affiliation

The behavioral motive, Affiliation, showed differences in the levels of agreement and the percentage of total members to each Likert-item as displayed in Chapter Four. Affiliation motives ultimately were selected by 10.07% (n=14) of the one organization members and was increasingly selected by 18.75% (n=12) members of more than one leadership organization. Although this was a marginal difference in the percentage

selections, these two groups also scored similarly on their overall averages and indicated equivalent mean scores towards affiliation motivation (see Table 8).

Table 8

One Organization vs. More Than One Leadership Organization Affiliation Scores

One/More	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
One	18.58	2.80	7.84
More than One	19.50	2.72	7.41

Note. Data collected from survey results.

There appeared to be a significant difference in percentages of members in each of these observed groups towards affiliation motivation. However, the data from Table 7 displayed how close these groups were in the alignment of their affiliative motivational perspectives. In Chapter Two, Spangler et al.'s (2014) research suggested that affiliation motive individuals were those whose motivation increased through the belongingness to groups and organizations.

As the data in Spangler et al.'s (2014) research matched the perspectives of individuals in this research, sustainment of relationships was still an important aspect for the motivation of these individuals. As affiliation scores were the lowest motives within this data section and noted for their tendencies to lack leadership propensities, could have suggested that attendance to organizations had previously filled this affiliative motivation. While the overall percentages were marginally different between these groups, they were not enough to quantify the descriptive rejection of the Null Hypothesis ($H2_0$).

The analysis of this data selection displayed several differences and similarities in each of the motives. Individuals in one leadership organization and members to more than one leadership organization distinctively found motivation through achievement conditions. Researchers throughout Chapter Two and the data in Chapter Four indicated that leadership opportunities offered these individuals the preeminent setting for achievement motivation. This provided an inclination that these leadership individuals would have more motivated tendencies in working settings, if they were designed with achievement structures (Braunstein & Steers, 1976).

The researchers cited in Chapter Two and the data shared in Chapter Four suggested that power motivations were significant factors in these observed groups. As power motivations were not the highest behavioral motive, they were the second highest mean score between the groups (see Table 10). However, individuals in more than one leadership organization slightly demonstrated more inclination to have power motivations. As noted, this may have been the drive at which they were attempting to take control over as many people and/or settings as possible (McClelland, 1987). Yet, those in one leadership organization may have had similar motives, they only displayed a 3.52% difference lower than more than one leadership organization individuals.

Interestingly, affiliation motivations showed the most alignment with other researchers in the data findings of Chapter Four. Spangler et al. (2014) discussed that affiliation motivated individuals were drawn to and experienced the greatest motivation from working in groups or organizations. As McClelland (1987) discussed, the ability to serve within and to serve for an organization is what brought motivation to these individuals. This also speaks to the idea that these individuals may not have been as

effective as leaders for they sustained the group relationships over the working tasks (Miner, 2015). As anticipated, individuals in more than one leadership organization indicated they were more motivated by affiliation structures as this was their second highest overall selection of motivation. This was also the lowest overall selection by one leadership organization members as their motivation was significantly found in their own actions and not in the relationship of others (Miner, 2015).

Individuals of one leadership organization versus more than one leadership organization displayed unique differences in motivation. However, as the methodology of this research used the MQ for assessment (Phillips & Gully, 2013), significant differences were not discovered through overall average selections. As some of the behavioral motive percentages varied moderately, they still were represented as the quantifiable average for each group. Minor and moderate differences were discovered in the varied motives and could have been used for further investigations and literature. Leadership organizations and the facilitators of these programs could have used this information to understand how the majority of these individuals were motivated, what behavioral motive conditions were not successful, and how ineffective conditions of instruction could have been reduced or revised.

Research Question 3. What are the significant differences among high school organizations and motivation in project-based work settings?

Results for this research question were represented by 12 groups of participants within the independent variable—leadership organizations—to determine the dependent variable—motivation. The 12 groups included individuals who notated a specific leadership organization in which they were actively involved were listed in Table 2 of

Chapter Three. These 12 leadership organizations were discussed and their leadership mission explained throughout Chapter Two. While each of these organizations had a specific mission, all of the organizations listed a broad leadership objective. As the MQ disseminated information in three motivational groups to analyze each of McClelland's (1987) behavioral motives, minimal differences were identified between these organizations (see Figure 16).

While the overall motivation of all these groups was centered around achievement conditions, there were interesting differences in the proceeding motives. As described in Chapter Two, each of these leadership organizations not only had a slightly different mission, they were also internally constructed differently. The data of Chapter Four illustrated that the organizations were more structured on a competitive hierarchy of individuals increasingly selected the power motivational constructs. In alignment, those organizations more associated with organizational objectives and less associated with individual hierarchy selected affiliation motivational constructs. This data is similar to Braunstein and Steers' (1976) research on this topic, as they found individuals in positions of superiority were highly motivated by these structures.

As a further correlation observed in Chapter Four, the organizations with higher power motives had a lower affiliation motive. Also highlighted in Figure 16 was the lack of power motives expressed by the individuals of organizations which were less tied to individual hierarchy. As McClelland (1987) discussed, individuals with affiliative motives received motivation from the social belongingness with other individuals. Chapter Two discussed the effectiveness of each motivation on the individual was tied to behavioral conditions and may be the attraction or fit of individuals to specific

organizations. If the leadership organization held more structure on the individual, the research and data suggested an inclination of individuals with behavioral conditioned power motives. The data from Chapter Four indicated very similar achievement motives, however, they did not perceive identical motivational power and affiliation constructs. Yet, these differences were not enough to descriptively reject the Null Hypothesis ($H3_0$).

Summary of Findings

The following was a discussion of the findings of this study as they related to the literature and research helping to explain the dependent variable motivation within the independent variable leadership organizations. The findings were useful to current and future classroom teachers, leadership facilitators, and students when determining the conditional behavioral motives in project-based working scenarios. The main impacts identified by this research were high school leadership organizations' motivations to work situations within group projects facilitated by their current organization/s. Each of the 15 survey questions of this study addressed these perceptions, while also answering the research questions designed for this study. While each of the null hypotheses of study were descriptively not rejected, each of the research questions provided pertinent data and information for this field. This study helped to set the foundations of other high school motivational and/or leadership organization studies.

Educational Implications

Research has continued to support the involvement of students in leadership organizations as a useful tool to enrich education (Matthews, 2015; Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). As there has been a push by policymakers and society, as a whole, to increase student involvement in leadership organizations, there also has been a surge in the

differing techniques to instruct these leadership organizations (Fredricks, Reschly, & Christenson, 2014). A majority of these high school leadership organizations have found educating leadership students with current and traditional means as ineffective, and project-based learning as the most applicable educating method (Rudolph & Wurdinger, 2009). However, in these leadership group projects, individual motivation to work is essential to the success of the organization (Phillips & Gully, 2013).

The purpose of this study was to apply McClelland's (1987) motivational theories using Phillips and Gully's (2013) MQ to determine specific conditional behavioral motivations from high school leadership organizations. Furthermore, to understand if there were differing motivations of specific leadership organizational demographics. According to McClelland (1987), understanding the motives of individuals is essential to specifically addressing their motivation as a method to increase work output. As this study was not created to apply prescriptive motivation protocols to leadership organizations, secondary institutions should have used studies as such to address motivational curriculums. Leadership students and facilitators should have been offering the educational experience to identify and learn about motivation within these organizations.

Based upon the findings of the data, three main implications for the independent variable—leadership organizations—and the dependent variable—motivation—surfaced as a result of this study. Leadership organizations' project-based tasks were particularly driven by individuals with achievement motivation. Therefore, these organizations may find success in designing and assigning project-based learning scenarios that incorporated achievement opportunities. Second, power motivation was highly possessed by

leadership organizations and particularly by individuals within multiple organizations. Finally, members in leadership organizations being examined under McClelland's (1987) motivational lens were not as motivated by affiliation conditions as the other motives. However, leadership organizations with less internal structuring of hierarchy significantly showed affiliation motivations.

Recommendations for Future Research

Since high school leadership organizations and development of motivation were likely to be major factors in the coming educational system, there has continued to be a need for additional research (Aminitehrani, 2017). As this research study was conducted to identify specific behaviorally conditioned motives in leadership organizations, future studies could use this information for further prescriptive research. Motivational constructs were identified in this study, investigating the effectiveness of these motives in current and future educational settings could provide insight into motivational modification measures.

Matthews, 2015; Wiseman and Hunt (2014), as well as many other researchers, have discussed the importance of leadership organizations and benefits to academic success. While academic success has been continually mentioned by differing researchers as a result of leadership organizations, there has not been extensive validated causation (Matthews, 2015). While it was assumed students who were in leadership organizations had better academic success and scored higher on standardized tests, a clearer illustration of the pathway could have helped to narrow the origins (Matthews, 2015). Future researchers could complete a comparison study between schools' test scores and students' grade point averages, which did not have leadership organizations with schools

that did. Future researchers also could compare data from similar demographics of students in a singular school involved within leadership organizations with students not in any leadership organizations. By comparing data from these types of studies could have allowed educators to determine the leadership impacts within their schools, and, if it was similar to other schools' situations. If the data supported a direct correlation between leadership involvement and increased academics and standardized test scores, supporting these types of programs should be a curricular implementation. This type of research could have been extended to explore the effectiveness of addressing all students' requirements of leadership involvement within general education.

This study used the G-power to quantify the overall participants needed to validate the research and was successful (Erdfelder et al., 2009); however, future studies should include a larger participant pool. This study was able to accumulate the results of adult leadership instructors at a 1:20 ratio to students (see Figure 6). While this ratio was very similar to the average classroom in Missouri, perspectives of more adults would have been effective in determining motivational relationships (MODESE, 2019). Unfortunately, this type of research collection would have been difficult as this would have required an extensive and very specific data collection. While research of this size would have been difficult, the results could have contributed greatly to the academic and motivational success of leadership organizations.

Throughout the literature review, it was interesting to observe that there was not a more defined example of leadership training or curriculums for secondary leadership organizations. Further research should be facilitated to evaluate what behaviorally conditioned motives were more suitable for overall success and learning. This future

research could also observe unsuitable behaviorally conditioned motives of leadership and/or learning to determine remedial techniques for educators. A study as such could be pivotal in the efforts of the educational system to reach unmotivated students at the root of their behavioral conditions (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014).

A final suggestion for future research would be an investigation on which types of leadership organizations provided high school students with the most academic motivation and intrinsic satisfaction. It was noted in this research that all of the leadership organizations had specific elements of focus, while some were more focused on general community service. Differences also were noted in the types of motivation experienced by hierarchy and non-hierarchy organizations, yet positive or negative associations could not have been applied. Future studies to align satisfaction with academic motivation could help to provide more effective leadership organizations which support academics now and in the future. Assessing satisfaction may not have been difficult to calculate, yet determining which type of leadership organization yielded the most academically successful students would have been challenging. Member satisfaction was important, as all of these leadership organizations were not mandatory requirements.

Summary

The results of this research study depicted leadership organizations' behavioral motivation in project-based learning scenarios. The participants in this study represented five school districts in three counties in Central Missouri. The survey results showed participants' perceptions of motivation varied slightly between demographics within the survey; however, all of the null hypotheses could not be rejected with fidelity. Although none of the null hypotheses were descriptively rejected, analysis of the survey results

revealed areas that identified specific and contrasting motivation of individuals. Once participants were finished with the surveys, their results were calculated by *Qualtrics* and each participant's motivation was classified under McClelland's Human Motivation Theory (McClelland, 1987; Phillips & Gully, 2013). As the MQ survey was useful for allowing participants to identify their motives, it also was important to see how leadership students and facilitators addressed particular work settings and behavioral conditions in the contexts of project-based learning scenarios (Phillips & Gully, 2013).

When examining the theoretical framework of this study, human interaction, social desires, and relationships of individuals to groups found within the human resources framework helped to solidify motivational elements (Bolman & Deal, 2016). Bolman and Deal (2016) described people as the center to organizations, and, in this research, leadership organizations were the independent variable. If individuals felt the organization met their needs, their motivation as the dependent variable was then be increased (Bolman & Deal, 2016). Therefore, since all the participants in this study were involved in leadership organizations, they performed or maintained motivation to project-based learning scenarios, because of what they felt the organization did for them (Bolman & Deal, 2016). However, some participants may not have been particularly pleased with their leadership organizations, but they still found the consequences of not being within the program more motivating than the project-based learning scenarios. When viewing the Likert scale through this lens, participants were only evaluating their agreement or disagreement levels with project-based scenarios they had already accepted to complete. Knowing the participants already understood to have accepted the project-based learning

scenarios of their leadership organizations, allowed for very accurate and valid information for studying the dependent variable of motivation.

A total of 15 Likert-type questions were used to identify behaviorally conditioned motives within project-based learning scenarios from leadership organizations. Phillips and Gully's (2013) creation of this survey was specifically used to determine the motives of organizations through individuals, and as they noted to increase operational work output through organizational motivational understandings. McClelland (1987) suggested understanding these motive concepts about individuals within organizations helped to determine the vision, strategy, style, and the result of work within their potential for successful operations. Although the demographics were individually studied for motivational identification, the ultimate goal was to inferentially address all leadership organizations' motivations to project-based learning scenarios as a way to potentially increase leadership success, project success, development, and to fill voids within the literature regarding general high school leadership curriculums. As this study did not offer prescriptive instruction on motivation, it was successful in identifying motivation of leadership organizations through the lens of the Human Motivation Theory (McClelland, 1987).

Conclusion

As the future of education continues fluidly to adapt, it was essential to embrace these changes by implementing leadership and motivation development (Covey, 2012). Through the incorporation of motivational studies on individuals within leadership organizations, enhanced understandings of efficient behavioral motives could have been incorporated. This field of leadership and motivation was extremely important, as these

two tangents greatly impacted the future of the nation's youth and, ultimately, society (Covey, 2012).

The descriptive quantitative results of the study divulged there were not significant differences in perceptions of adult facilitators versus the students of leadership organizations. It also was revealed that there are not significant differences in one leadership organization members versus multiple leadership organization members' motivation. Lastly, there were not significant differences in the specific leadership organizations observed in this study. As there were not significant differences in the listed demographics, there were minor differences and notable trends regarding all leadership organization members.

The observed leadership organizations were clearly identified as achievement motivated individuals as the entire participant pool (n=203) selected achievement, as the singular highest motivation at 53.70 % (n=109). McClelland (1987) described these individuals as "preferring situations to attain success through their own abilities rather than chance, thus, receiving personal credit for their responsibility" (p. 37). These organizations also had high power motivation at 14.80% (n=30), as it was the second highest singular selection and was the overwhelming selection by organizations with structural hierarchy. Miner (2015) determined power motive individuals were motivated from assuming dominance of situations with others. While power motivation has negative connotations, individuals in Braunstein and Steers' (1976) study were shown to have high productivity levels. Affiliation was the lowest observed singular motivation at 12.80% (n=26) and was the overwhelming selection by organizations with less structural hierarchy. McClelland (1987) described those with affiliation motivation "more engaged

to continue group work, thus, sustaining their needs to maintain respect for institutional authority" (p. 315). Once these motivations were identified, further research could break down the results to determine most effective motivations, best practices, and curricular enrichments or remediations.

Leadership organizations of secondary schools have continued to rely on the lack of motivational understandings within their fields (Matthews, 2015). It also required purposeful assessments and implementation of motivational guides for these organizations to identify motivation. This meant identifying and setting motivational goals, while using reliable data from leadership organizations effectively. Leadership facilitators needed to initiate this change, however, not without the support or guidance from state and national leadership educational standards that support consistent data gathering assessments such as the MQ. By utilizing the information within this study, implementation of universal leadership organization and motivational identification could be fundamental to reaching the leadership and motivational attainments all individuals deserve.

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Appendix A

E-mail Letter to Superintendents

October, 2019

Dear_____,

My name is Jake Kloeppel. I am pursuing a Doctorate in Education in the area of Instructional Leadership with an emphasis in Higher Education Administration from Lindenwood University.

My dissertation will focus on the topic of high school leadership student motivation and engagement in project-based learning scenarios, specifically (what frameworks of motivation and engagement under McClelland's Theory of Needs can describe about high school leadership students, how to increase motivation and engagement in high school leadership students, and how can these discovered frameworks increase motivation and engagement within the contexts of project-based learning while deepening available literature.)

I have selected large and small school districts from three different counties in Central Missouri with comparable student demographics to participate in my study. Your district is one I have selected as a potential source of data.

I am seeking your permission for your district to participate in my study and allow me to utilize your district data in my research. To gather data needed for my research, I would need to do the following:

- I would like permission to e-mail your high school principal to contact leadership sponsors in grades ninth through twelfth to invite them to participate in a voluntary on-line survey. This survey will be administered to only leadership

organization students and their facilitating teachers in grades ninth through twelfth. The survey will consist of 15 Likert scale questions and one open-ended question.

-I would like permission to distribute digital and paper explanations of my research and have a link to the survey for parents and guardians of leadership students in grades ninth through twelfth to view. This will explain to parents the survey is voluntary and implied consent will be explained if their child takes the survey as they will need to submit the Lindenwood Informed Consent and Assent Forms.

Please understand care will be taken to keep all information confidential and no identifying comments or remarks will be included. Not only are names and grades unattainable through the survey, but identifiers are also irrelevant to the study. I thank you for your time, consideration, and commitment to student education. If you have questions regarding my research or plans, please feel free to contact me.

Attached you will see the Lindenwood Informed Consent and Assent Forms I will be using, as well as the study Likert scale test. (I will follow back up once the IRB has approved of my study, information will not be collected until a further notice.)

Sincerely,

Jake Kloeppel

jek201@lindenwood.edu

Appendix B

Informational Letter to Building Principals

November, 2019

Dear_____,

My name is Jake Kloeppel. I am pursuing a Doctorate in Education in the area of Instructional Leadership with an emphasis in Higher Education Administration from Lindenwood University.

My dissertation will focus on the topic of high school leadership student motivation and engagement in project-based learning scenarios, specifically (what frameworks of motivation and engagement can describe about high school leadership students, how to increase motivation and engagement in high school leadership students, and how can these discovered frameworks increase motivation and engagement within the context of project-based learning.

I have received permission from your district superintendent to utilize your building in my research. I will be contacting teachers from grades ninth through twelfth to invite them to participate in a voluntary on-line survey with their leadership organization. The survey given to leadership facilitators and students will consist of 15 Likert scale questions and one open-ended question. Teachers will be asked to label their survey with Facilitator, as their perspectives on motivation and engagement will assist the data collection. Lindenwood Informed Consent and Assent Forms will be submitted by respective participants prior to taking the survey as they will have to check these options before taking the digital assessment.

If students do not have access to Lindenwood recommended Qualtrics I will also be attaching a paper version of the survey and will tabulate the results when sent back. Implied consent will be explained if participants choose to complete the survey as this is a forced option in the digital survey.

Please understand care will be taken to keep all information confidential and no identifying comments or remarks will be included. Not only are names and grades unattainable through the survey, but identifiers are also irrelevant to the study. I thank you for your time, consideration, and commitment to student education. If you have questions regarding my research or plans, please feel free to contact me.

Sincerely,

Jake Kloeppel

jek201@lindenwood.edu

Appendix C

Informational Recruitment Letter to Leadership Facilitators and Students

November, 2019
Dear_____,

My name is Jake Kloeppel, I am pursuing a Doctorate in Education in the area of Instructional Leadership with an emphasis in Higher Education Administration from Lindenwood University.

My dissertation will focus on the topic of high school leadership student motivation and engagement in project-based learning scenarios, specifically (what frameworks of motivation and engagement can describe about high school leadership students, how to increase motivation and engagement in high school leadership students, and how can these discovered frameworks increase motivation and engagement within the contexts of project-based learning.

I have received permission from your district superintendent and building principal to utilize your building in my research. I would like to invite you to complete an on-line survey with your leadership organization. I am inviting you and your students to complete a Qualtrics survey consisting of 15 Likert scale questions and one open-ended question. This survey will take approximately 3 minutes for you and your students. Instructors, please label your survey with Facilitator, as your perspectives on motivation and engagement will assist the data collection. Once students have submitted appropriate forms to the facilitator they may then receive access to the survey link. If you wish to complete the survey the researcher assumes you have submitted the Informed Consent

and Informed Assent Forms and given consent to your perspectives on the Qualtrics survey.

If students do not have access to Qualtrics, I will also be attaching a paper version of the survey and will tabulate the results when sent back. Implied consent will be explained if participants complete the survey as this is a forced option in Qualtrics.

Guardians and Participants, please understand care will be taken to keep all information confidential and no identifying comments or remarks will be included. Not only are names and grades unattainable through the survey, but identifiers are also irrelevant to the study. I thank you for your time, consideration, and commitment to student education. If you have questions regarding my research or plans, please feel free to contact me.

Sincerely,

Jake Kloeppel

jek201@lindenwood.edu

https://lindenwood.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_eWfOo21IrpkqElf

Appendix D

Minor Consent Form

LINDENWOOD

Research Study Minor Consent Form

Implications of Motivation and Engagement in High School Leadership Students in the Contexts of Project-based learning scenarios.

You are asked to participate in a research study being conducted by Jake Kloeppel and Dr. Pamela Spooner at Lindenwood University. Being in a research study is voluntary, and you are free to stop at any time. Before you choose to participate, you are free to discuss this research study with family, friends, or a physician. Do not feel like you must join this study until all of your questions or concerns are answered. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to sign this form.

Why is this research being conducted?

During this research study, we are going to learn more about what motivates and engages high school leadership students to complete project-based learning scenarios. This study will hopefully create a better understanding of what methods leadership facilitators can use to make students successful. By understanding student motives, leadership facilitators will have a better understanding of how to create lessons that make better projects, create leadership skills in students, and develop effective lessons and curriculum. We will be asking about 175 other leadership students to answer these questions.

What am I being asked to do?

If you choose to be part of this study, you will first be asked if your guardian has signed the consent form. If your guardian has not signed the consent form, you cannot take the survey. If your guardian has signed and submitted the consent form, you will check the according box. After you have checked the according box you will begin the survey. The survey will take you about three minutes to complete.

Before you begin the survey there will be four questions about you to help the researcher understand how specific students think. You will be asked to write the first letter of your high school; for example, Jamestown High, you would select a "J". Next, you will be asked what grade you are currently in. After selecting your grade, you will list the non-athletic and non-curricular organizations you are in; for example: "NHS, FCCLA, STUCO". Then you will be asked to select your gender. After answering the questions about yourself you will start the survey. The survey will consist of the following information:

- The survey is 15 multiple choice questions and one short answer.
- The answer bank for the 15 multiple choice questions are on a five-point scale of agreement: 1) Strongly Disagree, 2) Disagree, 3) Neutral or Neither, 4) Agree, and 5) Strongly Agree will be your answers to choose from.

- Once you have finished with these 15 multiple choice questions you will have the option to answer a short answer question. The short answer question will ask for you to “Provide an alternative motivator” that the survey did not address but is essential in understanding student motives.

How long will I be in this study?
The survey window will open for three weeks and then it will close at the end of that period.
Who is supporting this study? There are no financial supports to this study.
What are the risks of this study?

- The privacy and confidentiality of participants are at a minimal risk in this study, the probability and magnitude of harm of discomfort anticipated in the proposed research are not greater, in and of themselves, than those ordinarily encountered in daily life.

What are the benefits of this study?
You will receive no direct benefits for completing this survey. We hope what we learn may benefit other people in the future.
What if I do not choose to participate in this research?
It is always your choice to participate in this study. You may withdraw at any time. You may choose not to answer any questions or perform tasks that make you uncomfortable. If you decide to withdraw, you will not receive any penalty or loss of benefits. If you would like to withdraw from a study, please use the contact information found at the end of this form.
The data collected from this study could identify some student participants or adult facilitators of leadership programs; however, no names will be collected or reported and the researcher will use coding techniques to minimize the risks of identification of the adult and minor participants. The code connecting you and your data will be destroyed as soon as possible.
Every effort will be made to keep your information secure. Only members of the research team will be able to see any data that may identify you.
We will be collecting data from you using the internet. We take every reasonable effort to maintain security. The researcher will be using Lindenwood University recommended Qualtrics for data collection. All information gathered will be through a Lindenwood University Doctoral Student Account where it is reviewed, cannot be shared, and does not identify participant: name; e-mail; numbers; or other sensitive identifiable information. It is always possible that information during this research study may be captured and used by others not associated with this study.

What if new information becomes available about the study?
During the course of this study, we may find information that could be important to you and your decision to participate in this research. We will notify you as soon as possible if such information becomes available.
How will you keep my information private?
We will do everything we can to protect your privacy. We do not intend to include information that could identify you in any publication or presentation. Any

information we collect will be stored by the researcher in a secure location. The only people who will be able to see your data are: members of the research team, qualified staff of Lindenwood University, representatives of state or federal agencies.

How can I withdraw from this study?

Notify the research team immediately if you would like to withdraw from this research study.

Who can I contact with questions or concerns?

If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research or concerns about the study, or if you feel under any pressure to enroll or to continue to participate in this study, you may contact the Lindenwood University Institutional Review Board Director, Dr. Michael Leary, at (636) 949-4730 or mleary@lindenwood.edu. You can contact the researcher, Jake Kloeppel directly at 573-433-5388 or (jek201@lindenwood.edu). You may also contact Dr. Pamela Spooner, (pspooner@lindenwood.edu).

I have read this consent form and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I will also be given a copy of this consent form for my records. I consent to my participation in the research described above.

_____
_____

Parent or Legally Authorized Representative's Signature **Date**

_____

Parent or Legally Authorized Representative's Printed Name

_____
_____

Signature of Principle Investigator or Designee **Date**

_____

Investigator or Designee Printed Name

Appendix E

Participant Assent Form

LINDENWOOD

Research Study Assent Form

What is research?
We are going to do a research study. A research study is when a researcher or doctor collects information to learn more about something. During this research study, we are going to learn more about what motivates and engages high school leadership students to complete project-based learning scenarios. This study will hopefully create a better understanding of what methods leadership facilitators can use to make students successful. By understanding student motives, leadership facilitators will have a better understanding of how to create lessons that make better projects, create leadership skills in students, and effective lessons and curriculum. After we tell you more about this study, we would like to ask you about being part of it.
We also will be asking about 175 other people to be part of this study.

What will you ask me to do?
If you choose to be part of this study, you will first be asked if your guardian has signed the consent form. If your guardian has not signed the consent form, you cannot take the survey. If your guardian has signed and submitted the consent form, you will check the according box. After you have checked the according box you will begin the survey. The survey will take you about three minutes to complete.

Before you begin the survey there will be four questions about you to help the researcher understand how specific students think. You will be asked to write the first letter of your high school; for example, Jamestown High, you would select a "J". Next, you will be asked what grade you are currently in. After selecting your grade, you will list the non-athletic and non-curricular organizations you are in; for example: "NHS, FCCLA, STUCO". Then you will be asked to select your gender. After answering the questions about yourself you will start the survey. The survey will consist of the following information:

- The survey is 15 multiple choice questions and 1 short answer.
- The answer bank for the 15 multiple choice questions are on a 5-point scale of agreement: 1) Strongly Disagree, 2) Disagree, 3) Neutral or Neither, 4) Agree, and 5) Strongly Agree will be your answers to choose from.
- Once you have finished with these 15 multiple choice questions you will have the option to answer a short answer question. The short answer question will ask for you to “Provide an alternative motivator”

- The survey window will open for three weeks and then it will close at the end of that period.

Will I be harmed during this study?

The data collected from this study could identify some student participants of leadership programs; however, no names will be collected or reported and the researcher will use coding techniques to minimize the risks of identification of the adult and minor participants. The code connecting you and your data will be destroyed as soon as possible.

Every effort will be made to keep your information secure. Only members of the research team will be able to see any data that may identify you.

We will be collecting data from you using the internet. We take every reasonable effort to maintain security. The researcher will be using Lindenwood University recommended Qualtrics for data collection. All information gathered will be through a Lindenwood University Doctoral Student Account where it is reviewed, cannot be shared, and does not identify participant: name; e-mail; numbers; or other sensitive identifiable information. It is always possible that information during this research study may be captured and used by others not associated with this study.

Will I benefit from being in this study?

There is no direct benefit from doing this study. You will not get anything special if you decide to be part of this study. We hope what we learn will help other children.

Do I have to be in this research?

No, you do not. If you do not want to be in this research study, just tell us. You can also tell us later if you do not want to be part of it anymore. No one will be mad at you and you can talk to us at any time if you are nervous.

What if I have questions?

You can ask us questions right now about the research study. You can ask questions later if you want to. You can also talk to someone else about the study if you want to. And you can change your mind at any time. Being in this research study is up to you.

If you want to be in this research study, just tell us. Or, you can sign your name in the blank below. We will give you a copy of this form to keep.

_____
_____
Minor Participant's Signature **Date**

_____
Minor Participant's Printed Name

_____
_____
Signature of Principle Investigator or Designee **Date**

_____
Investigator or Designee Printed Name

Appendix F

Adult Consent Form

LINDENWOOD

Research Study Consent Form
Adult Participants

Implications of Motivation and Engagement in high school leadership students in the contexts of project-based learning scenarios.

You are asked to participate in a research study being conducted by Jake Kloeppel and Dr. Pamela Spooner at Lindenwood University. Being in a research study is voluntary, and you are free to stop at any time. Before you choose to participate, you are free to discuss this research study with family, friends, or a physician. Do not feel like you must join this study until all of your questions or concerns are answered. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to sign this form.

Why is this research being conducted?

During this research study, we are going to learn more about what motivates and engages high school leadership students to complete project-based learning scenarios. This study will hopefully create a better understanding of what methods leadership facilitators can use to make students successful. By understanding student motives, leadership facilitators will have a better understanding of how to create lessons that make better projects, create leadership skills in students, and develop effective lessons and curriculum. We will be asking about 180 other people to answer these questions and about five other leadership facilitators.

What am I being asked to do?

If you choose to be part of this study, you will first be asked if you have signed this consent form. If you have not signed the consent form you cannot take the survey. If you have signed and submitted the consent form you will check the according box within the survey. After you have checked the according box you will begin the survey. The survey will take you about three minutes to complete. Before you begin the survey there will be 4 questions about you to help the researcher understand how specific students think. You will be asked to write the first letter of your high school; for example, Jamestown High, you would select a "J". Next, you will be asked to select Facilitator. After selecting Facilitator, you will list the non-athletic and non-curricular organization you facilitate; for example: "NHS". Then you will be asked to select your gender.

After answering the questions about yourself you will start the survey. Please answer the questions as you believe students in your program are motivated and engaged to complete project-based learning scenarios. You will not answer the questions based on your personal motives, but rather how you believe students complete tasks. The survey will consist of the following information:

- The survey is 15 multiple choice questions and one short answer.
- The answer bank for the 15 multiple choice questions are on a five-point scale of agreement: 1) Strongly Disagree, 2) Disagree, 3) Neutral or Neither, 4) Agree, and 5) Strongly Agree will be your answers to choose from.
- Once you have finished with these 15 multiple choice questions you will have the option to answer a short answer question. The short answer question will ask for you to "Provide an alternative motivator" as you believe the survey did not address but is essential in understanding student motives.

How long will I be in this study?

This study is going to last a total of 3 weeks, and then it will be over.

Who is supporting this study? There are no financial supports to this study.

What are the risks of this study?

- Privacy and Confidentiality Participants are at a minimal risk in this study, the probability and magnitude of harm of discomfort anticipated in the proposed research are not greater, in and of themselves, than those ordinarily encountered in daily life.

  We will be collecting data that could identify you, but each survey response will receive a code so that we will not know who answered each survey. The code connecting you and your data will be destroyed as soon as possible.
  We are collecting data that could identify you, such as Gender, Facilitator, Involved Leadership Facilitator, and School. Every effort will be made to keep your information secure. Only members of the research team will be able to see any data that may identify you.
  We will be collecting data from you using the internet. We take every reasonable effort to maintain security. The researcher will be using Lindenwood University recommended Qualtrics for data collection. All information gathered will be through a Lindenwood University Doctoral Student Account where it is reviewed, cannot be shared, and does not identify participant: name; e-mail; numbers; or other sensitive identifiable information. It is always possible that information during this research study may be captured and used by others not associated with this study.

What are the benefits of this study?

You will receive no direct benefits for completing this survey. We hope what we learn may benefit other people in the future.

What if I do not choose to participate in this research?

It is always your choice to participate in this study. You may withdraw at any time. You may choose not to answer any questions or perform tasks that make you uncomfortable. If you decide to withdraw, you will not receive any penalty or loss of benefits. If you would like to withdraw from a study, please use the contact information found at the end of this form.

What if new information becomes available about the study?
During the course of this study, we may find information that could be important to you and your decision to participate in this research. We will notify you as soon as possible if such information becomes available.

How will you keep my information private?
We will do everything we can to protect your privacy. We do not intend to include information that could identify you in any publication or presentation. Any information we collect will be stored by the researcher in a secure location. The only people who will be able to see your data are: members of the research team, qualified staff of Lindenwood University, representatives of state or federal agencies.

How can I withdraw from this study?
Notify the research team immediately if you would like to withdraw from this research study.

Who can I contact with questions or concerns?
If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research or concerns about the study, or if you feel under any pressure to enroll or to continue to participate in this study, you may contact the Lindenwood University Institutional Review Board Director, Dr. Michael Leary, at (636) 949-4730 or mleary@lindenwood.edu. You can contact the researcher, Jake Kloeppel directly at 573-433-5388 or (jek201@lindenwood.edu). You may also contact Dr. Pamela Spooner, (pspooner@lindenwood.edu).

I have read this consent form and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I will also be given a copy of this consent form for my records. I consent to my participation in the research described above.

_____	_____
Parent or Legally Authorized Representative's Signature	**Date**
_____	
Parent or Legally Authorized Representative's Printed Name	

_____	_____
Signature of Principle Investigator or Designee	**Date**
_____	_____
Investigator or Designee Printed Name	**Date**

Appendix G

Study Survey

Write the first letter of your school name (example James Town High, "J")

_____
Are you a leadership facilitator? Yes or No
Gender, Male - Female - Rather not Say
List All Leadership Organizations you are a member of_____

_____

McClelland's Needs Assessment (What motivates you?) For each of the 15 claims, mark the box that expresses the degree of your agreement or disagreement with the given claim. Assess the claims in the context of the work you are currently working on, the previous work experience of attitudes toward schooling (which IS your job as a young person).
The boxes are: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, Strongly Agree For each answer, you will score points according to the number below the letters in the box. So for an "agree" answer, you will score 4 points.

Q#	Question Pertaining to Work	SD 1	D 2	N 3	A 4	SA 5
1	I work very hard to continually improve my work performance.					
2	I enjoy competition. I like to win - in sports and other things I do.					
3	When working, I often chat with fellow employees about non-work matters.					
4	I enjoy difficult challenges. At work, I like to take on the hard jobs.					
5	I enjoy being a manager. I like being in charge of things and people.					
6	It matters to me that people like me.					
7	When I am working, I like to know how I am doing; how the work is progressing.					
8	If I disagree with someone, I let them know it. I am not afraid of disagreement.					
9	Many of my co-workers are also my friends. I enjoy spending my leisure time with them					
10	I typically set realistic goals. I tend to achieve my goals					
11	It is important to me to get people to agree with my ideas					
12	I enjoy belonging to clubs, groups and other organizations.					

13	I enjoy the satisfaction of successfully completing a difficult job.					
14	One of my important objectives is to get more control over events around me.					
15	I would rather work with other people than work alone.					

YOUR SCORE- The numbers for each question from the test on the previous page go ACROSS the page. Put in your score for the answer to each question. For example, if you answered "agree" on question number one, you'll put a '4' in the first box. Continue until you have put your number score in each of the boxes below.

Q#	ACHIEVEMENT	Q#	POWER	Q#	AFFILIATION
1.		2.		3.	
4.		5.		6.	
7.		8.		9.	
10.		11.		12.	
13.		14.		15.	
TOTAL		TOTAL		TOTAL	

Do you think this is true for you? If not, provide an alternate motivator for yourself.

_____

_____

_____

This survey can be taken digitally and will be automatically recorded when you finish. If you are completing the physical copy of this survey you may return it to the leadership facilitator who administered it to you. To keep the information relevant, you are being asked to complete this survey within three weeks from when it was initiated. After three weeks the survey will no longer be available to take and results will be calculated.
This document can be printed directly from the link below or it can be provided by the researcher.
By clicking the link below, I confirm that I have read this form and decided that I will participate in the project described above. I understand the purpose of the study, what I will be required to do, and the risks involved. I understand that I can discontinue participation at any time by closing the survey browser. My consent also indicates that I am at least 18 years of age and/or that my guardian Informed Consent has been completed and I have signed the Assent Form.

https://lindenwood.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_eWfOo21IrpkqElf

Appendix H

Permission to use Braunstein and Steers' Survey

From: Jake Kloeppel

Sent: Friday, September 21, 2018 1:19 PM

To: Mona Are

Subject: Doctoral Student

Hello, I am requesting the use of an assessment that was used in one of your journal articles. I would like to use this survey in my dissertation through Lindenwood University.

The model I need to use is McClelland's Needs Assessment, it was published in as such. "R. Steers and D. Braunstein. "A Behaviorally Based Measure of Manifest Needs in Work Settings." Journal of Vocational Behavior. Oct. 1976: 254".

Can you please help me in using the model? Thanks.

Permission to use Braunstein and Steers' Survey

From: Mona Are

Date: Friday, October 5, 2018 4:23:34 AM

Subject: Re: Doctoral Student

To: Jake Kloeppel

Good day! My name is Mona and I'm from the Copyright Clearance Center's RightsLink service. We apologize for the inconvenience you have experienced when trying to register.

I was able to successfully create an account on your behalf.

This Agreement between Mr. Jake Edward Kloeppel ("You") and Elsevier ("Elsevier") consists of your license details and the terms and conditions provided by Elsevier and Copyright Clearance Center.

License Number 4535921452497
License Access Database Date Feb 25, 2019
Content Publisher Elsevier
Content Publication Journal of Vocational Behavior
Content Title A behaviorally-based measure of manifest needs in work settings
Content Author Richard M Steers, Daniel N Braunstein
Content Date Oct 1, 1976
Content Volume 9
Content Issue 2
Content Pages 16
Start Page 251
End Page 266

Appendix I

Permission to Use Phillips and Gully's Assessment

From: Jake Kloeppel

Sent: Thursday, October 1, 2020 8:55 AM

To: Christina Pierce

Subject: Doctoral Student

Hello,

I am requesting the use of a survey found in "Organizational Behavior: Tools for Success" by Jean M. Phillips, Stanley M. Gully on page 216. ISBN-10 : 1-133-95360-3 Motivation Survey from Braunstein and Steers (1976).

Permission to Use Phillips and Gully's Assessment

From: Christina Pierce

Date: Thursday, October 1, 2020 9:21 AM

Subject: Re: Doctoral Student

To: Jake Kloeppel

Good Afternoon Jake,

Thank you for contacting Cengage Customer Support. Since you are referencing the survey from the textbook, you would just need to reference the textbook in your paper as showing where the information came from. You are able to use the survey for your paper. The textbook in question is for the ISBN 1-133-95360-3.

If there is anything else I can assist you with, please let me know.

Thank you,

Christina Pierce

Faculty Support Associate

Any email correspondence regarding this case must include the following unique case thread reference identification number so that we may append your responses to the original case.

Reference ID: ref:_00D412khHM._5002M1B1ZXl:ref

Appendix J

Weekly Reminder Letter to Leadership Facilitators Grades Ninth through 12th

November, 2019

Dear_____,

This is a reminder the on-line Qualtrics link for motivation and engagement survey will close in 2 weeks. Below you will find the initial survey information sheet which details the survey as well as the survey link. Thank you for your time and dedication to education.

Sincerely,

Jake Kloeppel

Vita

Jake E. Kloeppel obtained his Bachelor of Arts in Fine Arts Education from Drury University in 2011. He attended Lindenwood University and earned a Master of Arts in Educational Administration degree in 2015.

Jake began his career in education at Richland R-IV in 2009, where he was a paraprofessional and coach for two years. In 2011, he moved to Dixon R-I School District, where he taught high school art for five years. In 2016, he moved to Waynesville R-VI School District, where he taught art and Dual enrollment Leadership for Drury University and Waynesville R-VI School District. Jake currently serves as the assistant principal of Waynesville Middle School, a role he began in 2018.