Values as Determinants of the Motivation to Lead

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We examined the incremental contribution of personal values in predicting individuals’ motivation to lead (MTL) in a military personnel sample (n = 231). We operationalized self-transcendence through personal values (spirituality, integrity, and willingness to serve) and self-enhancement value orientation through desire for power/achievement. In multivariate analyses, personal values made significant incremental contributions in explaining of all three forms of MTL. Personal values had the largest incremental effect in explaining noncalculative MTL. Self-enhancement values had a larger positive relationship with affective-identity and social-normative MTL than did self-transcendence values. Inversely, self-transcendence values had a significantly larger relationship with noncalculative MTL.

Chan and Drasgow (2001) developed and examined an individual differences construct defined as the motivation to lead (MTL), which describes a person’s efforts to assume leadership training, roles, and responsibilities. Across three samples of over 2,000 subjects, Chan and Drasgow found empirical support for three dimensions of MTL, which included affective-identity, social-normative, and noncalculative forms of motivation to be a leader. These alternative forms of MTL reflect the fact that (a) some people just like to lead others and are directed...
primarily by affective-identity MTL; (b) others will put forth the effort to lead because of a sense of duty or responsibility and are directed by social-normative MTL; and (c) other people may only lead if they are not calculative about the costs and benefits of leading and thus may be directed by noncalculative MTL. These three dimensions of MTL have been empirically supported in other settings (Amit, Lisak, Popper, & Gal, 2007; Chan, Rounds & Drasgow, 2000).

In investigating alternative antecedents for each type of MTL, Chan and Drasgow (2001) found that personality dimensions, previous leadership experiences, leadership self-efficacy, and sociocultural values had different relationships with the three types of MTL. The effects of sociocultural variables on affective-identity and social-normative MTL were relatively weak compared to personality, leadership experience, and self-efficacy variables. The relative effects of sociocultural variables compared to the other variables were larger for noncalculative MTL. These results were in conflict with previous studies that have found that personal values may be substantial determinants of work motivations (Ajzen, 1991; Locke & Latham, 1990; Rokeach, 1973; Spangler, 1992; Von Rosenstiel, Kehr, & Maier, 2000).

The limited predictive effects of the values variables in Chan and Drasgow’s study may reflect their use of measures that primarily describe preferences for social/cultural roles (horizontal/vertical individualism and/or collectivism in cultural outlook) rather than personal beliefs. Thus these variables may not be strong predictors of personal motivations or leader performance (Van Iddekinge, Ferris, & Hefner, 2009). Motives (Emmert & Taher, 1992; Gabris & Simo, 1995) and needs (Lee, 1995; Miner, Smith, & Bracker, 1994) have been central themes in understanding employee motivation across many contexts. While leadership effectiveness has been described by some primarily as leader behaviors that “get the job done,” U.S. military organizations have retained the view that the behavior sets of effective leaders are grounded within personal values and motives (Thomas, Dickson, & Bliese, 2001).

Recent studies have found that in addition to personality characteristics such as extraversion and conscientiousness, values and motives such as power, affiliation, and motivation to lead are related to military leader performance (Van Iddekinge, et al., 2009; Thomas et al., 2001). In particular, while Thomas et al. (2001) found that the effects of the personal value orientations of power and affiliation on leaders were partially mediated by extraversion, their study did not consider MTL as a possible intervening variable. In subsequent research, Van Iddekinge and colleagues (2009) found that the relationship of extraversion with leader performance was partially mediated by MTL, and that MTL predicted acquisition of the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed for leadership success. However, Van Iddekinge et al. (2009) did not consider personal values and motives in assessing antecedents of military leader performance, but they did find unexpectedly strong direct effects for leader conscientiousness. Taken together, these studies suggest that it is possible that, as anticipated by military organizations, personal values
do a play a distinct role over and above personality characteristics in predicting military leader effectiveness, and these values may be reflected in the motivation to lead. This study contributes to our understanding of the relationships among these constructs by assessing the roles of personal values in predicting MTL.

In extensive multicultural studies, Schwartz (1992; 1999) have shown that 10 distinct value areas motivating behaviors can be aggregated into two sets of competing value orientations. This study focuses on the incremental contribution of the competing values of self-enhancement (achievement and power) versus self-transcendence (universalism and benevolence) to explain each of three types of motivation to lead within a sample of 231 U.S. military personnel.

**THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

**Motivation to Lead**

In their original work on motivation to lead, Chan and Drasgow (2001) proposed and found evidence for three alternative forms of MTL, which include affective-identity motivation to lead, social-normative motivation to lead, and noncalculative motivation to lead. Affective-identity MTL suggests that an individual is motivated to lead by an inner desire resulting from the satisfaction and pleasure he/she derives from the fact of being a leader. People who score high on affective-identity MTL prefer to lead and see themselves as leaders. These individuals tend to be outgoing and sociable, value competition and achievement, have more past leadership experience than their peers, and are confident in their own leadership abilities (Chan, Rounds & Drasgow, 2000). Social-normative motivation to lead suggests that an individual is motivated to lead by social and normative motives, such as a feeling of commitment to the group or norms prevalent in the social environment. Individuals who score high on social-normative MTL have a strong sense of social duty and obligation, are accepting of social hierarchies, but tend to reject social inequality. These individuals also tend to have substantial past leadership experience and confidence in their leadership abilities. Noncalculative motivation to lead suggests that motivation can be viewed as a continuum. The more calculative the individual’s motivation, the more likely he/she will aspire to lead in order to enjoy the benefits related to the position. The less calculative the individual’s motivation, the greater the probability he/she will not entertain considerations of costs/benefits related to the leadership role. These three dimensions of MTL were confirmed within a sample of Israeli military personnel (Amit, Lisak, Popper, & Gal, 2007). Amit and colleagues (2007) also found evidence for patriotic and ideological motivations to lead within their Israeli sample.

**Antecedents of MTL**

The primary determinants of affective-identity MTL are extraversion, extent of previous leadership experience, and leadership self-efficacy (Chan & Drasgow,
Tendencies toward achievement and competitive behavior were also positively related to levels of affective-identity MTL. Social-normative MTL was primarily predicted based on personality factors of extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness, as well as previous leadership experience and leadership self-efficacy. Cultural tendencies were related to this type of MTL, but the effects are difficult to interpret, since variables both in describing individual achievement orientation, and in willingness to subordinate personal interests to the collective good were predictors of social-normative MTL (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Finally, noncalculative MTL was predicted primarily by extraversion, emotional stability, previous leadership experience, and leadership self-efficacy. Collectivism measures were positively related, while individualism variables were negatively related with noncalculative MTL (Chan & Drasgow, 2001).

In subsequent research, Kark & Van Dijk (2007) suggested that both self-regulatory focus and personal values may predict each type of MTL. Self-regulation refers to the process by which people seek to align themselves (i.e., their behaviors and self-conceptions) with appropriate goals or standards (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Specifically, people tend to have two basic self-regulation approaches. One regulates the achievement of rewards and focuses individuals on promotion goals, while the other regulates the avoidance of punishments and focuses individuals on prevention (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). Individuals who operate primarily within promotion self-regulatory focus are primarily concerned with accomplishments and aspirations, are likely to be sensitive to the presence or absence of rewards, are more creative in problem-solving processes, and show more willingness to take risks. Individuals with chronic promotion-oriented regulatory focus seek to do things because they wish to actualize their ideal self (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007).

Values are beliefs that pertain to desirable end states or modes of conduct that transcend specific situations, guide the evaluation of behavior, people, and events, and are ordered by importance relative to other values to form a system of priorities (Schwartz, 1994, p. 20). While personal values have been measured in a variety of ways (Fields, 2002), the framework developed and extensively tested by Schwartz (1992; 1999) is widely recognized. The Schwartz Value Theory views “values as conceptions of desirable trans-situational goals that vary in importance and serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity” (Schwartz, 1994, p. 21). Lord and Brown (2001) illustrated how a leader’s value orientation toward self-enhancement or self-transcendence may affect leader behaviors and subsequently trigger values and related behavior patterns among followers. In particular, personal value orientations toward self-enhancement or self-transcendence may play a significant role in activating different types of MTL (Lord & Brown, 2001). Chronic self-regulatory focus and personal values are likely to be significantly correlated (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). In particular, self-enhancement personal values conceptually overlap promotion-oriented
self-regulatory focus. Therefore this study focused only on self-transcendence and self-enhancement personal values as defined by the Schwartz value theory.

**CURRENT STUDY HYPOTHESES**

Affective-identity MTL is based on a personal internal desire to take a leadership role and may reflect personal rewards such as status, satisfaction, and pleasure derived from being a leader. Thus self-enhancement values, reflecting a desire for personal power and achievement, are likely to be a stronger predictor of this type of MTL than are self-transcendence values. Accordingly, we propose that (hypothesis 1) *self-enhancement values will be positively related to affective-identity MTL, and this relationship will be larger than that for self-transcendence values.*

Social-normative MTL is based in motives besides personal gains like power. This may include commitment to a group or response to norms for taking a leadership role to give to society. Thus self-transcendence values are likely to have a stronger relationship with social-normative MTL than do self-enhancement values. Accordingly, we propose that (hypothesis 2) *self-transcendence values will be positively related to social-normative MTL, and this relationship will be larger than that for self-enhancement values.*

Noncalculative MTL seems to reflect a drive to lead that could be explained by either self-enhancement motives or self-transcendent values. Therefore, both types of values may be positively related to levels of noncalculative MTL. Accordingly, we propose that (hypothesis 3) *both self-enhancement and self-transcendence values will have similar positive relationships with noncalculative MTL.*

**METHOD**

Participants and Procedures

Participants were recruited from senior leadership courses conducted at the Air War College and the USAF Senior Noncommissioned Officer Academy. Air University staff distributed an e-mail invitation to all participants that addressed confidentiality and ethical safeguards and included a link to the survey. Surveys were filled out anonymously and took approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete. A total of 110 of the 149 students attending the War College and 121 of the 363 students attending the USAF Senior NCO Academy agreed to participate in the study. Thus, a total of 231 participants were included in the study. This figure represents an overall response rate of approximately 45%. The sample was predominantly male (83%), Caucasian (83%), and between 41 and 45 years age.
(60.6%). The participants comprised five noted ethnicities, with the vast majority (83.1%) registering as Caucasian, 8.7% African Americans, and 3.5% Hispanics.

Measures

Motivation to lead. We used the MTL scale developed by Chan and Drasgow (2001) to assess participants’ motivational tendencies. The MTL contains multiple items assessing each of three facets of participants’ MTL, including affective-identity MTL (e.g., Most of the time I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group), social-normative MTL (I feel I have a duty to lead others if I am asked), and noncalculative MTL (I am only interested to lead a group if there are clear advantages for me). Items are presented in Likert-type format using a five-point response scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Composite scores were computed by summing across items within each subscale, with higher scores indicating higher levels of MTL. Cronbach alpha coefficients were .78 for the affective-identity MTL, .82 for the social-normative MTL, and .82 for the noncalculative MTL.

Self-transcendence values. We used measures of spirituality, personal integrity, and willingness to serve to assess self-transcendence values as conceptualized and operationalized by Schwartz (1999). Spirituality was measured with the five-item Spirituality at Work Scale developed by Ashmos and Duchon (2000). Items were presented in Likert format using a seven-point response scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Scale scores were computed by summing across items, with higher scores indicating greater endorsement of spirituality (e.g., I feel hopeful about life). The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the scale was .86.

Integrity was measured with the 16 items taken from the HEXACO-PI Honesty–Humility scale (Lee & Ashton, 2004; Lee, Ashton, & deVries, 2005; Lee, Ogunfowora, & Ashton, 2005). Items were presented in Likert format using a five-point response scale that ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Scale scores were computed by reverse scoring and summing across items, with higher scores indicating greater integrity and modesty (e.g., I wouldn’t use flattery to get a raise or promotion at work, even if I thought it would succeed). The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the scale was .79.

Willingness to serve was measured with the five-item Self-Efficacy Towards Service Scale (Weber, Weber, Sleeper, & Schneider, 2004). Items were presented in Likert format using a five-point response scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Scores were computed by summing across items, with higher scores indicating greater willingness to serve (e.g., I can make a difference in my community). Cronbach alpha coefficient for the scale was .87.
Because the intercorrelations among these scales and the variance inflation factors were high, we determined that use of all three indicators could lead to biased regression results (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009). Therefore, we followed Cohen and Cohen’s (1983) suggestions and subjected the three scales (spirituality, integrity, and willingness to serve) to a principle components analysis and obtained a single factor solution. Thus, we computed a single scale variable for self-transcendent values as a linear combination of the three subscales. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for this composite was .74.

**Self-enhancement values.** We used Turner’s (1996) measure as modified by Chusmir (1989) to assess participants’ achievement and power motivation. Items were presented in Likert format using a five-point response scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). A composite score was computed by summing items across each scale, with higher scores indicating greater endorsement of self-enhancement values. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the composite was .66.

**Control variables.** Because past research on the antecedents of MTL using military samples (e.g., Chan & Drasgow, 2001) has found significant effects for personality variables, a military attitudes scale, leadership experience, and leadership self-efficacy, we elected to include measures of these variables to control for their effects on MTL in our analyses. **Personality** was measured using the six items taken from Ten-Item Personality Inventory (TIPI) developed by Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann (2003) to assess participants’ extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. The TIPI asks respondents to indicate the extent to which adjective pairs describe how they see themselves. Items are presented in Likert format using a seven-point response scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Scores are computed by summing across items within each of the scales, with higher scores indicating greater endorsement of items within each personality facet scale.

**Military attitudes** were assessed with a 12- item Professionalism Scale developed by Hall (1968). This scale contains multiple items assessing social obligation (e.g., Military members are essential to the welfare of society), belief in self-regulation (e.g., Military members are better judges of other military members than nonmilitary members would be), and professional dedication (e.g., It is encouraging to see a military member who is idealistic about his/her work). Items were presented in Likert format using a five-point response scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Items were summed into a composite, with higher scores indicating greater endorsement of military attitudes. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for this scale was .82.

We used two items to assess participants’ **previous leadership experience** (I consider myself successful in regards to previous leadership experiences; My
previous leadership experiences motivate me to consider accepting newer, more challenging leadership roles). Items were presented in Likert format using a five-point response scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

We included the New General Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001) to measure participants’ self-efficacy (e.g., Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well). Items were presented in Likert format using a five-point response scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Items were summed into a composite, with higher scores indicating higher levels of self-efficacy. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for this scale was .86.

RESULTS

The means, standard deviations, and correlations among the study variables are shown in Table 1. As can be seen in Table 1, the correlations among the three forms of MTL are positive and significant (mean r = .48, p < .01). Self-enhancement and self-transcendence values were positively and significantly correlated with the three MTL measures (mean r for self-enhancement = .44, p < .01, and mean r for self-transcendence = .49, p < .01).

We tested our hypotheses by estimating the parameters for each of three multivariate regression models that predicted one type of MTL. Results of these analyses are shown in Table 2. Hypothesis 1 predicted that self-enhancement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. A-I MTL</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. S-N MTL</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>.53</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. N-C MTL</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.52</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Self-enhancement</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>—</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Self-transcendence</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>—</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Extraversion</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.34</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Agreeableness</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.60</td>
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<td>—</td>
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<td>8. Conscientiousness</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>—</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Mil. reg. for exc.</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>5.92</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.62</td>
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<td>.34</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>—</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Self-efficacy</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.46</td>
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<td>.34</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>—</td>
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<td>12. Prev. lead. mot.</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.33</td>
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Correlations larger than .13 are significant at p < .05; correlations larger than .17 are significant at p < .01.
values would be positively related to affective-identity MTL and that this relationship would be larger than that for self-transcendence values. As shown in Table 2, the variables operationalizing personal values were incrementally predictive of affective-identity MTL ($\Delta R^2 = .04, p < .01$). Moreover, the relationship of self-enhancement values with affective-identity MTL was positive and significantly larger than the relationship of self-transcendence values as predicted by hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that self-transcendence values would be positively related to social-normative MTL and that this relationship would be larger than that for self-enhancement values. As shown in Table 2, the variables operationalizing personal values were incrementally predictive of social-normative MTL ($\Delta R^2 = .03, p < .01$). However, these results were contrary to our hypothesis. The regression coefficient for self-enhancement values is significantly larger than the coefficient for self-transcendence values; thus hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that both self-enhancement and self-transcendence values would have a similar positive relationship with noncalculative MTL. As shown in Table 2, the variables operationalizing personal values were incrementally predictive of noncalculative MTL ($\Delta R^2 = .13, p < .01$). Although the regression coefficient for self-enhancement values was positive and significant, the coefficient for self-transcendence values was negative. Moreover, the coefficient for self-transcendence values was significantly larger than the coefficient for self-enhancement values ($t = 10.4, p < .01$). These results provide partial support for hypothesis 3. It is worth noting that the relationship of the values variables with noncalculative MTL is considerably larger than the relationship of these variables with affective-identity MTL or social-normative MTL.

**DISCUSSION**

This study set out to examine the incremental contribution of personal values in determining three forms of MTL within a sample of military personnel. The study investigated values as predictors of affective-identity MTL, social-normative MTL, and noncalculative MTL. The personal values investigated were self-transcendence orientation (operationalized as a scale of spirituality, integrity, and willingness to serve), and self-enhancement orientation (operationalized by desire for power and achievement). In multivariate analyses that controlled for individual characteristics found previously to predict the three forms of MTL, we found:

- Consistent with hypothesis 1, self-enhancement values were positively related to affective-identity MTL and the relationship was larger than that for self-transcendence values.
### TABLE 2
Regression Models Predicting Affective-Identity MTL, Social-Normative MTL, and Noncalculative MTL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>(A) Affective-Identity MTL</th>
<th>(B) Social-Normative MTL</th>
<th>(C) Noncalculative MTL</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b</td>
<td>s.e.</td>
<td>β</td>
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<td>Controls</td>
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<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.22**</td>
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<td>Agreeableness</td>
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<td>.03</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>-.06</td>
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<td>Mil. regard for excellence</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.25**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.13</td>
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<tr>
<td>Prev. leadership success</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.13**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prev. leadership motivation</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>.45</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ R²</td>
<td>.38**</td>
<td>.67**</td>
<td>.44**</td>
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<td>Independent</td>
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<td>Self-enhancement values</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Total R²</td>
<td>.42**</td>
<td>.70**</td>
<td>.57**</td>
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• Contrary to hypothesis 2, self-transcendence values were not significantly related to social-normative MTL. Self-enhancement values had a larger relationship with social-normative MTL than did self-transcendence values.
• Contrary to hypothesis 3, self-transcendence values were negatively related to noncalculative MTL. Self-transcendence values were positively related to noncalculative MTL, and the relationship was larger than for self-enhancement values. From a theoretical perspective, our results support the view that personal values do a play a distinct role over and above personality characteristics in predicting military leader motivation to lead.

Previous studies found direct effects for values and personality characteristics motives on military leader performance (Thomas et al., 2001), that MTL mediated the effects of personality variables on leader performance (Van Iddekinge et al., 2009), and that MTL seemed to drive aspiring military leaders to obtain the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed to be effective leaders. Our results may help complete a theoretical perspective suggesting that both personality and personal values have roles in predicting MTL, which in turn explains the willingness of leaders to work on the essentials to perform well as leaders.

We encountered several unexpected results. First, self-transcendence values had a weaker relationship with social-normative MTL than did self-enhancement values. Although we controlled for the importance of regard for excellence within a military sample, this result may reflect a perceived norm among military personnel that it is a responsibility to “step up” in situations where it is important for someone to take a leadership role. In doing so, this action will ultimately result in greater achievement for those who step in and lead when a perceived requirement exists. Those with higher levels of integrity also see such situations as needing their leadership involvement, but their motivation may be driven more by obligation than desire.

Contrary to expectations, self-transcendence values had a much larger relationship with noncalculative MTL than expected, and self-enhancement values were negatively related with this type of MTL. Previous theoretical and empirical investigation of noncalculative MTL has shed little light on this form of MTL in terms of the type of personal characteristics that are associated with noncalculative behaviors (Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). Our results suggest that those with higher levels of desire for power and achievement may rarely experience this form of motivation, but those who value social harmony and the welfare of others (qualities inherent to self-transcendence values) may experience a strong pull to take on leadership roles when a need is perceived.

A key strength of this study is that it adds to the field of research regarding personal values, motivation, and leadership. More specifically, leaders consistently aspire to motivate others and motivate them to lead in a tumultuous climate. Values are key variables in motivation and leadership. Since this work established that
personal values can and do influence one’s MTL, future studies should include other personal values as well. The advancement of studies in other personal values and the MTL might provide more in-depth views into individual motivation constructs and create a new field of research that could prove critical for theoreticians and practitioners.

A limitation of this study is its exclusive reliance on self-report measures of MTL. Another limitation is that all of the participants were military members who had been selected for further leadership training. As a result, it is plausible that the participants may have answered survey questions by how they would like to be seen.

DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Leaders consistently aspire to motivate others and, more specifically, motivate them to lead in a tumultuous climate. Values are key variables in motivation and leadership. Since this work established that personal values can and do influence MTL, future empirical studies should include personal values as a key variable in predicting both MTL as well as subsequent leadership behaviors (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Lord & Brown, 2001).

Since Chan and Drasgow (2001) have established a research thread accounting for individual differences relating to MTL, it seems logical that a parallel research thread might be possible relating to motivation to follow (MTF). It seems plausible that a person might exhibit any of the three MTL components as it relates to his or her motivation to accept or decline follower roles. Someone with affective-identity MTF, for example, would follow because he or she likes the idea of following. Someone with social-normative MTF might follow because he or she has a sense of obligation to someone or something. Someone with noncalculative MTF might follow without consideration for the risks or rewards of that decision. Thus, future research regarding a new theory for followership is reasonable.

REFERENCES


