

DISSERTATION

EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARTICIPATION IN YOUTH  
LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AND LEADERSHIP STYLES OF UNDERGRADUATE  
COLLEGE STUDENT LEADERS

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Ara Serjoie

School of Education

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Doctoral Committee:

Advisor: Linda Kuk

Co-Advisor: Gene W. Gloeckner

Jennifer Wolgemuth

Lumina Albert

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## ABSTRACT

### EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARTICIPATION IN YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AND LEADERSHIP STYLES OF UNDERGRADUATE COLLEGE STUDENT LEADERS

Chemers (1997) defined leadership as a socially persuasive process by which an individual can enlist and empower others to accomplish a task. Leadership can be learned, and a variety of factors influence the development of leadership in individuals (Burns, 2010; Northouse, 2010). Edelman, Gill, Comerford, Larson, and Hare (2004a) have proposed that youth leadership is a component of the skills attained through youth development, and youth development is an approach through which young people are empowered to reach their full leadership potential. Participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDP) during childhood and adolescence is recognized to be a contributor to leadership in adulthood (Balsano, Phelps, Theokas, Lerner, & Lerner, 2009; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003b).

One area of focus in the study of leadership is leadership style, which Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003) have described as “relatively stable patterns of behavior displayed by leaders” (p. 569). Cashman (2008) argued that different leadership styles can emerge based on leadership-development experiences and stages of leadership development. Most previous studies of leadership style have focused on adult experiences and professional settings (Antonaros, 2010; Floit, 1997; Khademfar, 2012; Zhu, Sosik, Riggio, & Yang, 2012). Although some studies have been conducted with respect to leadership styles of colleges students (Greiman, 2009; Gunther, Evans, Mefford, & Coe, 2007; Nagy, 2012; Spencer, 2004), additional research is being called for to explore the relationship between previous leadership experiences

of college students and their current leadership practices (Schaper, 2009). The purpose of this study was therefore to examine the relationship between the participation in YLDPs during childhood and adolescence and the self-reported leadership styles of undergraduate college student leaders, with a focus on gender differences.

This quantitative study utilized a nonexperimental, survey approach and included descriptive, predictive, correlational, and difference analyses. A survey instrument was used to gather information from respondents about their participation in YLDPs during childhood and adolescence and to measure for leadership style using the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)*, Form 5X, along nine subscales (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Findings from the study show that (a) there was no statistically significant difference in the leadership styles of the respondents as measured by the MLQ based on whether or not they participated in YLDPs during childhood and adolescence; (b) for the respondents who participated in YLDPs during their childhood and adolescence, there was no statistically significant relationship between duration of participation in YLDPs and their leadership styles as measured by the MLQ; (c) for the respondents who participated in YLDPs during their childhood and adolescence, there was no statistically significant relationship between type of YLDPs and their leadership styles as measured by the MLQ; and (d) there was no statistically significant relationship between the college leadership position/title of the respondents and their leadership styles as measured by the MLQ. Also, the results of this study did not show a statistically significant relationship between the gender (female, male, transgender) of the participants and their leadership styles as measured by the MLQ.

There were, however, some interesting observations for the relationship between participation in YLDPs and the leadership styles of the respondents. For the male participants,

the Contingent Reward (CR) value is slightly higher for those respondents that did not participate in youth leadership development programs ( $M = 3.05$ ) compared to those who participated in youth leadership development programs ( $M = 2.95$ ). Conversely, for the female respondents, the CR value is significantly higher for those respondents that participated in youth leadership development programs ( $M = 3.07$ ) compared to those that did not participate in youth leadership development programs ( $M = 2.52$ ).

With regards to the relationship between the duration of participation in youth leadership development programs and the MLQ scores of the respondents, the five subscales associated with transformational leadership (IA = Idealized Influence (Attribute); IB = Idealized Influence (Behavior); IM = Inspirational Motivation; IS = Intellectual Stimulation; and IC = Individualized Consideration) were positively correlated with the duration of participation in YLDP. In addition, the CR value was also positively correlated with the duration of participation in YLDP. Conversely, MBEA = Management by Exception (Active) which is associated with transactional leadership and the two subscales associated with passive-avoidant leadership (MBEP = Management by Exception (Passive) and LF = Laissez-Faire) were negatively correlated with the duration of participation in YLDP.

Examining the relationship between type of YLDP and MLQ scores of the respondents revealed that female sports participants consistently displayed a higher level of the five subscales associated with transformational leadership compared to their male counterparts (IA: female respondents:  $M = 3.12$ ; male respondents:  $M = 3.01$ ; IB: female respondents:  $M = 3.01$ ; male respondents:  $M = 2.77$ ; IM: female respondents:  $M = 3.33$ ; male respondents:  $M = 3.11$ ; IS: female respondents:  $M = 2.91$ ; male respondents:  $M = 2.88$ ; and IC: female respondents:  $M = 3.15$ ; male respondents:  $M = 2.90$ ). The Contingent Reward (CR) subscale displayed a similar

pattern in which the results aligned more closely with those of the five subscales of the transformational- leadership construct than with the MBEA transactional-leadership subscale. Female respondents displayed a higher level of the CR subscale (female respondents:  $M = 3.12$ ; male respondents:  $M = 2.88$ ) in comparison to their male counterparts. Comparatively, sports participants across all genders, showed a markedly lower level of the transactional leadership's MBEA: (female respondents:  $M = 1.84$ ; male respondents:  $M = 1.98$ ) as well as passive-avoidant's MBEP: (female respondents:  $M = 1.13$ ; male respondents:  $M = 1.26$ ) and LF: (female respondents:  $M = 0.82$ ; male respondents:  $M = 0.83$ ).

Finally, for the interaction of gender and college leadership position/title on each of the nine subscales of the *MLQ*, a comparison of the means for the five subscales associated with transformational leadership: IA: ( $M = 2.85 - 3.38$ ); IB: ( $M = 2.69 - 3.75$ ); IM: ( $M = 3.00 - 3.56$ ); IS: ( $M = 2.63 - 3.75$ ); and IC: ( $M = 2.75 - 3.69$ ) speaks to the respondents scoring higher across all three (male, female, and transgender) genders for all of the reported college leadership positions/titles in comparison to the mean values of the respondents across all college leadership positions/titles pertaining to the subscales that denote transactional leadership: MBEA: ( $M = 1.13 - 2.88$ ); MBEP: ( $M = 0.63 - 1.88$ ); and LF: ( $M = 0.31 - 1.50$ ). The exception is for CR: ( $M = 2.50 - 3.38$ ); a subscale that is categorized with the transactional leadership style, and in the current study as with prior research, once again aligned more closely with the five subscales that denote transformational leadership.

The current study's findings indicate opportunities for practitioners in both YLDPs and collegiate leadership to examine current practices and expand the scope of their work.

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“This sky where we live is no place to lose your wings so love, love, love.”

*Khajeh Shamseddin Mohammad Hafez Shirazi*  
*14<sup>th</sup> Century Iranian Poet*

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## DEDICATION

*This dissertation is first and foremost dedicated to God, to whom I am grateful every single day for being a merciful and compassionate presence in my life and bestowing unimaginable blessings on me and my loved ones.*

*It is also dedicated to*

*My mother: a remarkable woman who is wise, strong, kind, loving, and awe-inspiring. I am deeply and eternally indebted to her for being a supreme source of support, encouragement, and love in my life.*

*My father: a hard-working, caring, and benevolent man with the highest ethical standards, who lived his life with integrity and will forever serve as a role model to me, my siblings, and everyone who knew him.*

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## DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms are defined to aid the understanding of this study:

*4-Year University:* This type of institution in the United States may have a statewide, regional, national, or international scope of service. There are several types of 4-year universities that, in addition to geographic focus, may differ based on a variety of other factors including their academic offerings (baccalaureate, master's, doctoral, and professional degrees), level of research (as designated by the Carnegie Foundation), and whether they are public, private, or for-profit institutions (A. M. Cohen, 2010).

*Public University:* An institution of higher learning that is governed by a higher education board. The governance is typically within the authority of the state since education is considered a state matter. Financial requests and other major decisions are processed through this structure whereby the overarching governing board has ultimate authority for all of the institutions within the higher education system (A. M. Cohen, 2010).

*Research University:* In the classification of post secondary institutions, a research university is one that has the capacity in terms of financial resources, facilities, and human capital to conduct research. Research universities are considered to have high academic vigor and offer doctoral degrees, while some also house professional programs in fields such as medicine, law, dentistry, and veterinary medicine (A. M. Cohen, 2010).

*Female:* The gender of an individual and, more specifically for the purpose of this study, the gender by which the respondent self-identifies.

*Male:* The gender of an individual and, more specifically for the purpose of this study, the gender by which the respondent self-identifies.



*Transgender*: The gender of an individual who does not identify their gender to be the same as their biologically assigned gender at the time of their birth (Dictionary.com, 2018).

*College Student*: An individual who is pursuing a post secondary education by being enrolled at an institution of higher learning that could be termed either *college* or *university*.

*Undergraduate*: A college student who is enrolled in a baccalaureate program of study.

*Youth Leadership Development Program (YLDP)*: Deemed an ideal consequence of effective youth programs, youth leadership development is geared toward children and adolescents with specific inputs and desired outcomes in order to provide participants with enriching experiences that equip them with competencies and styles for communication, collaboration, and leadership in their adult lives (Edelman et al., 2004a).

## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

Scholars dating back to Plato have explored the qualities and behaviors that distinguish an individual as a leader (Boer, 1892; Cronin, 1995). Chemers (1997) defined leadership as a socially persuasive process by which an individual can enlist and empower others to accomplish a task. Leadership may involve specific traits, behaviors, values, power, and situational components (Zaccaro, Mumford, Connelly, Marks, & Gilbert, 2000). Leadership can be learned and a variety of factors influence the development of leadership in individuals (Burns, 2010; Northouse, 2010). This contemporary view encompasses community engagement, individual and group development, social change, collaboration, and broad-based associations as central characteristics of leadership (K. A. Allen et al., 2010).

### **Leadership and Youth**

Edelman, Gill, Comerford, Larson, and Hare (2004a) propose that youth leadership is a component of the “competencies or outcomes” attained through youth development and that its emphasis is on the procurement of a wide range of skills that are central to leadership and include collaboration, foresight, and responsibility (p. 4). Youth development, according to Edelman et al. (2004b) is an approach through which youth are enabled to confront “adolescence and adulthood by engaging in carefully orchestrated “activities” and deliberate “experiences” that empower them to “become socially, morally, emotionally, physically, and cognitively competent” individuals (p. 4). Gambone, Klem, and Connell (2002) state that leadership development in youth is considered to be an ideal and eventual outcome of effective youth programs through which young people are provided with opportunities to engage in a variety of undertakings, assume new responsibilities, and learn from those experiences.

## **Leadership Style and Youth**

Cashman (2008) argued that different leadership styles can emerge based on leadership development experiences and various stages of leadership development. In a study by Reeve (2011) a positive correlation was found between leadership development in youth and the leadership style of adults who worked with them. Many leaders believe that their own leadership development experiences during their youth contributed to their ability to become leaders (Barton, 1984; Baugher & Kellett, 1983; Weiner, 1984). Specifically, women have cited opportunities they had during childhood to engage in activities and programs as significant factors in their leadership development (Cubillo & Brown, 2003; Kenke, 1996). Leadership experiences during childhood and adolescence help women build their sense of self-confidence, personality, and individuality (J. Cohen, Blanc, Bruce Christman, Brown, & Sims, 1996; Madsen, 2007). Involvement in school, clubs, organizations, and out of school programs also has been noted as a key contributor to women learning leadership skills at a young age (Madsen, 2007).

## **Leadership and Gender**

Leadership also has been examined in the context of gender and scholars have explored whether an individual's gender is a matter of consideration with respect to their leadership styles and their ability to become leaders (Brenner, Tomkiewicz, & Schein, 1989). There is a general understanding that there is a need for more college-educated individuals to assume leadership positions both in the workplace and within communities (Carli & Eagly, 2001). Women comprise a significant majority of students at American colleges and universities, but the number of women in leadership positions in the past few decades has not risen commensurate to the increase in women with a postsecondary education (Carli & Eagly, 2001; Goldin, Katz, &

Kuziemko, 2006). Although the number of women in leadership roles has grown steadily in the past 40 years across all sectors (Ayman, Korabik, & Morris, 2009), men still far outnumber women in senior leadership positions in the United States (Catalyst, 2009). Women are still not afforded the same opportunities for becoming leaders despite the fact that more women are now equipped with the education and experiences that have been routinely deemed prerequisites for leadership (Carli & Eagly, 2001; Eagly, 2007; Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

### **Leadership Style and Gender**

One area of focus in the study of leadership is leadership style, which Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003) described as “relatively stable patterns of behavior displayed by leaders” (p. 569). Widely regarded as a key determinant of leader success and efficacy, leadership style has been researched in many different contexts including employment sector, position/title, geography, nationality, ethnicity, and gender (Abbas, Iqbal, Waheed, & Naveed Riaz, 2012; Anderson, 2008; Cuadrado, Navas, Molero, Ferrer, & Morales, 2012; Gardiner & Tiggemann, 1999; Liu & Liao, 2013; Wan Ismail & Al-Tae, 2012). A meta-analysis of 45 studies revealed a tangible difference in leadership style of female leaders when compared to their male counterparts (Eagly et al., 2003). In a study with 155 respondents, Ayman et al. (2009) concluded that gender influences leadership style. Further, organizational outcomes can vary as a result of the leader’s gender, follower’s gender, and the “gender composition” of the leader-follower dyad (Ayman et al., 2009, p. 870).

### **Statement of the Problem**

Most of the previous studies of leadership style have focused on adult experiences and professional settings (Antonaros, 2010; Floit, 1997; Khademfar, 2012; Zhu et al., 2012). Although some studies have been conducted with respect to leadership styles of colleges students

(Greiman, 2009; Gunther et al., 2007; Nagy, 2012; Spencer, 2004), additional research has been called for to explore the relationship between previous leadership experiences of college students and their current leadership practices (Schaper, 2009). Leadership development during childhood and adolescence is recognized to be a contributor to leadership competence in adulthood (Balsano et al., 2009; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003b). Opportunities to develop leadership skills in women at a young age have been a major consideration of the body of literature examining youth leadership and youth development (Dierking & Falk, 2003; Edelman et al., 2004b; Einerson, 1998). There has been a gap, however, in the literature pertaining to previous experiences during youth and adolescence of current leaders and their leadership styles. Therefore, the relationship between college student leaders' leadership development during childhood and their current leadership style is worth further examination and will add to the body of knowledge in the study of leadership.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and the self-reported leadership styles of undergraduate college student leaders, with a focus on gender differences.

### **Research Questions**

The central research question for this study asked, "What is the relationship between participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and the self-reported leadership styles of undergraduate college student leaders, with a focus on gender differences?"

To accomplish the stated purpose of this study, the following research questions and subquestions were addressed:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) and their gender?
  - (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their participation or nonparticipation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during their childhood and adolescence?
  - (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their gender as male, female, or transgender?
  - (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction of participation/nonparticipation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and gender in regard to respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?
2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings and the duration of their participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during their childhood and adolescence, their gender, and the interaction between duration of participation and gender?
  - (a) Is there a statistically significant interaction between the duration of respondents' participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during

childhood and adolescence and their gender in regard to the respondents' self-reported (*Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)*) ratings?

- (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their being male, female, or transgender?
  - (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction between the duration of participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and gender in regard to the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on the type of youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) they participated in during their childhood and adolescence, their gender, and the interaction between type of program and gender?
- (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on the type of YLDPs they participated in during their childhood and adolescence?
  - (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their being male, female, or transgender?
  - (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction between type of youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) and gender in regard to the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?

4. Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their college leadership position/title, their gender, and the interaction between position/title and gender?
- (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their college leadership position/title?
- (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their being male, female, or transgender?
- (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction between college leadership position/title and gender in regard to the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?

### **Conceptual Framework**

The concept of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) will serve to shed light on the specific type of leadership styles that were self-reported by the participants in the current study. Initially introduced by Burns (1978) as *transforming* leadership, this is a leadership style that inspires both the leader and the follower to higher levels of morality and motivation. Bass (1985) expanded on the work by Burns and changed the terminology to transformational leadership while also introducing the concept of transactional leadership style. A transformational leader sets the tone by serving as an example and offering a vision that positively influences their team members and propels them toward full engagement and productivity (Bass, 1985).



Transformational leadership includes five distinct elements: (a) *Idealized Influence (attribute)*—positioning the leader as someone whom followers respect and are proud to be associated with; (b) *Idealized Influence (behavior)*—asserting the leader’s role for articulating the importance of the organizational values, purpose, and mission; (c) *Inspirational Motivation*—speaking to the visionary role of the leader who is well expressed, highly appealing to followers, and challenges them; (d) *Intellectual Stimulation*—articulating the way these leaders inspire innovation and creativity in followers; and (e) *Individualized Consideration*—depicting the extent of the leader’s focus on the mentoring and development of followers, and also the leader’s care and attention toward the needs of every follower, (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2010).

In contrast, transactional leaders are interested in maintaining order and ensuring follower conformity through rewards and punishment (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2010). There are two subscales of transactional leadership: (a) *Contingent Reward*—whereby the leader recognizes followers’ ideal performance (by the leader’s standards); and (b) *Management by Exception (active)*—whereby the leader gets involved only to address mistakes by followers and their inability to complete a task (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2010).

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Finally, *Passive-Avoidant* leadership is categorized by the two sub-scales of (a) *Management by Exception (passive)*—in which the leader adheres to the status quo until issues become so severe that the leader is forced to intervene with corrective action; and (b) *Laissez-Faire*—which describes the absent leader, one who is serving in a leadership position but is not involved in attending to issues (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2010).

The *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, Form 5X)*, referred to here generally as *MLQ*, was developed and refined for the purpose of measuring for leadership style along these nine subscales (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Avolio et al., 1999). The *MLQ* is the most commonly used instrument for measurement of leadership style (Eagly et al., 2003), and it has been used in several studies with college students (Leonard, 2005; Rosenbusch & Townsend, 2004; Ward & Weiner, 2012). For the current study, the *MLQ* was incorporated into the overall instrument and used to measure for leadership style.

### **Delimitations**

This study was delimited to participants who were undergraduate student leaders, 18 to 23 years of age, and involved in collegiate leadership at three 4-year public research universities in the United States. The scope of leadership was delimited to any appointed or elected position within student government; appointed or elected leadership roles in student clubs and organizations, including social fraternities and sororities; student leadership positions in residence halls; and varsity (collegiate athletic) teams. The study excluded graduate student leaders as well as members of student clubs and organizations who did not have a specific leadership position/title.

### **Limitations**

This study's primary limitation is that its findings are not generalizable to undergraduate student leaders who are enrolled at institutions of higher learning that are not public and are not 4-year research universities. Another limitation of the study is that it only focused on leadership in the early years of adulthood. Because all of the participants were college student leaders, the study was limited to examining the relationship between participation in youth leadership programs and college student leadership, and did not include the relationship with college attendance in general or leadership at late stages in life. This was a non-experimental study; therefore, it is important to note that causation cannot be determined in this type of research (Gliner, Morgan, & Leech, 2009). Also, the participants were asked to evoke memories of their participation in youth leadership development programs during their childhood and adolescence. Their recollection might not have been completely accurate or it might have been influenced by their current leadership roles. Finally, there was a selection bias because participation in the study was voluntary.

### **Significance of the Study**

The results of this study shed light on the childhood leadership development experiences of undergraduate student leaders that may have been conducive to their leadership as young adults. The study provided information for the leadership development continuum by focusing on how youth development plays a role in the leadership behaviors of young adults. This study also provided information regarding the role of gender for youth leadership development and leadership style during adulthood. Findings of this study may help youth development organizations better understand the impact of their programs on the eventual leadership style of their members. In addition, the study may provide a better basis for understanding how

leadership development during childhood and adolescence can play a role in leadership behaviors of individuals as young adults.

### **Researcher Perspective**

It is important to note that my background and experiences contribute greatly to my interest in this topic.

I have been involved in leadership roles since high school and during my college years. During those years and as a professional, I have had the opportunity to work with many individuals in positions of leadership. Through these experiences and interactions, I have noticed that some individuals in leadership roles are much more adept than others. These individuals appear to have had prior opportunities to explore and acquire leadership competencies. Based on my observations, the leadership style of an individual plays a significant role in how one might navigate the many intricacies of an organization and its people. My experiences show that some of the best leaders exhibit certain universally admirable qualities such as listening and consensus-building skills, compassion, and ability to empower team members. However, I have also learned that different situations, organizational dynamics, people, and cultures necessitate an ability by the most competent leaders to adapt their styles in order to be effective in their roles.

Among my personal and professional interactions, working for the Girl Scouts in Utah, and then serving on the Board of Directors for the Girl Scouts of Oregon and Southwest Washington, reinforced my emergent opinion that presenting youth with ample opportunities to explore, engage, discover, and learn is a necessity that can be manifest through formalized leadership development programs. This perspective, in tandem with my increasing awareness of the limitations that are imposed on women for leadership opportunities, has motivated me to also examine the role of gender in the study of leadership styles for young adults.

## **Summary and Organization**

The study of leadership is complex and involves many considerations such as traits, skills, and styles. Leadership has also been studied in the context of gender and age because findings that will be presented further in this study point to relationships between both leadership and gender and leadership and age.

Having introduced the study and its significance, I include literature in Chapter 2 that pertains to historical views of leadership, leadership style, leadership and gender, and leadership and age. I offer a description of the study's population and methodology in Chapter 3, and in Chapter 4 I present the study's results. Chapter 5 includes a discussion of the findings, conclusions, recommendations for additional research, and summary remarks. A complete list of references and appendix are presented at the end of this document.

## **CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

Leadership continues to be at the center of the public mind in the United States and globally. However, there are no simple explanations for what it means to be a leader. Many scholars have offered varying theories and constructs to elucidate the intricacies of leadership (Northouse, 2010). The definitions of leadership are varied and, at times, at odds with each other. Stogdill (1974) implied that there are nearly as many definitions for leadership as there are individuals who have attempted to delineate the term. In the modern history of the study of leadership, as many as 65 classifications have emerged in defining the word (Fleishman et al., 1991).

This literature review first provides a definition for leadership followed by a brief historical and theoretical overview in the study of leadership, including leadership traits, skills, and style. Transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership styles are discussed next. This literature review also addresses the study of leadership in the context of diversity attributes—specifically, age and gender, as they pertain to the focus of this study.

### **Definition of Leadership**

Leadership is a widely studied topic that has extensive interest among scholars and practitioners (Northouse, 2010). The ability to motivate others toward accomplishment of common goals in the interest of betterment of the organization is one definition of leadership (Northouse, 2010). Burns (2010) stated that leadership transpires when individuals who have specific intentions and objectives rally “in competition or conflict with others, institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers” (p. 68). Leadership is central to the group process, whereby an individual wields influence on followers (Bass, 1990). A common theme in the literature points to the leader-

follower dynamic. While some believe that it is the leader who influences the behavior and actions of individuals and groups (McCall & Lombardo, 1983; Stogdill, 1948), others hold that leaders and followers are equally important participants in the process, and that it is their interaction that stimulates action and change (Bass, 1985; Hollander, 1992; Rost, 1993).

### **A Historical and Theoretical Overview of Leadership**

Leadership is considered by some scholars to be an innate quality in which traits, skills, and style are important considerations (Northouse, 2010). The “great man” theories were developed in the latter part of the 19th and early part of the 20th centuries as an outcome of studies that assessed traits of notable military, social, and political leaders (Carlyle, 1888). As the designation denotes, this model was focused primarily on characteristics in men who had served in positions of leadership. More recent studies show that the trait approach is still revered and considered heavily in the assessment of leaders (Jung & Sosik, 2006).

### **Leadership Traits**

Stogdill (1948, 1974) offered that there are important leadership attributes that motivate an individual to assume the leader role in a group. Stogdill (1974) suggested that both personal traits and circumstances factor as determinants of leadership, and he singled out 13 positive traits as determinants of leadership:

- (a) Adaptable to situations
- (b) Alert to social environment
- (c) Ambitious and achievement-orientated
- (d) Assertive
- (e) Cooperative
- (f) Decisive

- (g) Dependable
- (h) Dominant (desire to influence others)
- (i) Energetic (high activity level)
- (j) Persistent
- (k) Self-confident
- (l) Tolerant of stress
- (m)Willing to assume responsibility

McCall and Lombardo (1983) expanded on Stogdill's findings and asserted that a leader's success or failure is contingent upon four main traits:

- (a) Emotional stability: Remaining calm, centered, and confident, especially in stressful situations.
- (b) Admitting error: Being strong enough to own up to one's mistakes instead of wasting time and energy covering up.
- (c) Good interpersonal skills: Communicating and convincing others without being negative or coercive.
- (d) Intellectual breadth: Having the ability to comprehend and process a broad range of issues instead of being narrowly focused.

### **Leadership Skills**

The skills approach is inspired by the notion that leadership requires skills that are innate but can be further developed in individuals (Katz, 1955). In addition to traits, Stogdill (1974) identified the following leadership skills as primary distinguishing marks of a leader:

- (a) Clever (intelligent)
- (b) Conceptually skilled



- (c) Creative
- (d) Diplomatic and tactful
- (e) Fluent in speaking
- (f) Knowledgeable about group task
- (g) Organized (administrative ability)
- (h) Persuasive
- (i) Socially skilled

From his field research and observations, Katz (1955) put forth the idea that successful leadership is dependent on skills in the technical, human, and conceptual arenas. Since then, other studies have been conducted to further support the skills approach, insisting that a competent leader must have skills for dealing with multifaceted organizational challenges (Northouse, 2010). A more contemporary version of the skills approach is the product of research funded by the United States Department of Defense, in which the term *capability model*, which notes a connection between the leader's skills and knowledgebase and the leader's effectiveness (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000), was coined. The study noted that, since education and experience may be used to acquire leadership capabilities—and assuming that the role of the leader is not exclusive to only a select group of individuals who are born with these *innate* qualities—indeed, leadership skills can be learned (Mumford et al., 2000).

### **Leadership Style**

The style approach is another important aspect in the study of leadership that focuses on paying close attention to the behaviors and actions of leaders (Northouse, 2010). Three studies set the stage for assessing leadership style, starting with researchers at Ohio State University who formulated the *Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ)* in 1957 (Hemphill &

Coons). Respondents to a modified version of the questionnaire (*LBDQ-XII*) offered *initiating structure* and *consideration* as the two universal leadership behaviors (Stogdill, 1974).

Simultaneously, research underway at the University of Michigan categorized two leadership behaviors that mirrored the Ohio State findings. The studies revealed that leaders who exhibit *employee orientation* demonstrate a keen interest in the human-relations aspect of their relationship with team members, whereas those with the *product orientation* emphasis are leaders who are more concerned with the procedural aspects and productivity of the workplace (Bowers & Seashore, 1966).

### **Transformational, Transactional, and Passive-Avoidant Leadership**

Perhaps the premise for this subset of leadership studies rests in what was developed by McGregor (1960) as Theory X and Theory Y (Broadie, 2014). Leaders ascribing to Theory X believe that employees do not have a fondness for work and leaders must use threats, power, and punishment as means for controlling and leading their followers (McGregor, 1960). Theory Y leaders, however, believe that employees are generally amenable to work, and that positive reinforcement such as rewards are effective for raising employee commitment (McGregor, 1960).

Researchers continued to explore other dimensions of the style approach. Burns (1978) and Bass (1985, 1990) introduced and developed the transformational leadership model. Transformational leadership is measured along a spectrum that includes passive-avoidant leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1990).

A study with 3,786 respondents in 14 independent samples—with diversity of gender, race, age, type of organization, geography, and nationality—involved followers rating the

leadership styles of their superiors with the latest version of the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* (Avolio et al., 1999). The findings showed that the best measure for transformational leadership is along a spectrum with five subscales using the *MLQ*, Form 5X/Short, the revised version of the *MLQ* used for this study, that also measures for transactional leadership with two subscales and passive-avoidant leadership, also with two subscales (Avolio et al., 1999). In addition, Avolio et al. (1999) observed that the large and heterogeneous sample for the study provided for greater generalizability of the results. Finally, according to Avolio et al. (1999), “the results presented here have made possible, with few exceptions, a high degree of consistency in estimates of reliability, intercorrelations and factor loadings when comparing the initial with the replication sample results” (p. 458).

### **Passive-Avoidant Leadership**

Passive-avoidant leadership arises when an individual might be in a leadership position but is not necessarily providing leadership (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1990). The leader’s inaction and a failure by the leader to take responsibility result in follower disorientation and organizational disorder (Bass, 1990; Eagly et al., 2003). Because of leader ineffectiveness and follower frustration, passive-avoidant leadership is typically associated with negative outcomes (Bass, 1990; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Subscales for measuring passive-avoidant leadership are

- (a) Management by Exception (passive)—Leader inaction is prolonged; the leader gets involved only when issues are severe and the critical nature of the problems absolutely necessitate rectification by the leader (Avolio et al., 1999).
- (b) Laissez-Faire—Leader is not engaged with group members, and team productivity is the lowest in comparison to followers of leaders who adhere to any of the other leadership styles (Avolio & Bass, 1999).

## **Transactional Leadership**

In this model of leadership, also known as the managerial model and similar to product orientation, the focus is on accomplishment of tasks by followers while maintaining the status quo (Avolio & Bass, 1999; Bass, 1985). Based on a system of rewards and punishments, transactional leadership is contingent upon the followers' performance, whereby success is incentivized, and failure or mistakes are met with the leader's rebuke. In addition, in this model of leadership, it is assumed that people do their best work in environments with a clearly defined hierarchy, wherein the leaders closely monitor the work of their team members, and obeying the leader is the employees' foremost priority (Bass, 1985).

Active transactional leaders define and communicate the task at hand, how it needs to be accomplished, and the rewards associated with its successful completion (Avolio et al., 1999; Sosik & Jung, 2010). Active transactional leaders closely oversee the work of their followers to ensure compliance and accuracy, provide feedback throughout the process, and may take steps to modify employee performance or even discipline them for not following instructions (Avolio et al., 1999; Sosik & Jung, 2010).

There are two subscales of transactional leadership:

- (a) Contingent Reward—In this model, followers abide by instructions well and produce satisfactory results. The leader recognizes and rewards followers for their performance (Avolio et al., 1999).
- (b) Management by Exception (active) —Leaders who ascribe to this style engage with followers only when they fail to follow instructions and make errors. Leader intervention takes place to use a corrective strategy for missteps and mistakes by followers (Avolio et al., 1999).

## **Transformational Leadership**

Transformational leadership has been one of the most discussed components of the study of leadership since its initial conceptualization in 1978 by James MacGregor Burns (Bass & Riggio, 2010; Northouse, 2010). According to Lowe and Gardner (2001), who conducted a content analysis of a decade of the *Leadership Quarterly*, about one-third of the studies were related to transformational leadership or charismatic leadership (Northouse, 2010). This standing might be the result of the emphasis that transformational leadership places on the empowerment and growth of followers, which corresponds to the workforce of the twenty-first century and its need for motivation and development (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Among the distinguishing attributes of transformational leaders is their concern with the principles, emotions, values, needs, and desires of their followers, whereby the leader propels followers toward considerable action and extraordinary performance (Northouse, 2010). Transformational leadership has an adaptive approach through which, according to Burns (1978), leaders engage their team members. In this model, the expectations and motivations of both the leader and the followers are elevated (Burns, 1978). Transformational leaders also empower their followers by delegating authority to them, providing coaching and mentoring to support them, and enabling them to taken on issues and solve problems (Yuki & Van Fleet, 1992). As such, transformational leaders inspire their followers to become leaders while also changing the organizational mindset and values toward creating opportunities for leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Leaders who practice the transformational model maximize the followers' potential and engage them in a meaningful and deliberate manner (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Elements of the transformational model, listed below, call attention to the leaders' ability to serve followers by being captivating, supportive, inspirational, persuasive, challenging,

stimulating, considerate, and respectful (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Articulated initially by Burns (1978), subscales of transformational leadership were further expanded and defined as follows:

- (a) Idealized Influence (attribute)—Transformational leaders are well liked, esteemed, and trusted by their followers. These leaders are reliable, coherent, and willing to take risks when needed. They serve as role models, and followers have faith in their abilities and want to emulate them (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006).
- (b) Idealized Influence (behavior)—In addition, idealized influence has a behavioral dimension. Transformational leaders are eloquent communicators who clearly convey the central role of mission, values, and vision to the role of each follower toward accomplishment of goals and organizational success (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006). The combination of the attribute and behavior dimensions of idealized influence were denoted as *charisma* by Bass (1985) in his initial writings on transformational leadership.
- (c) Inspirational Motivation—By challenging their followers and creating meaningful opportunities for their engagement, transformational leaders encourage their followers. They serve as inspirational leaders who enlist others in envisioning a better future state (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006).
- (d) Intellectual Stimulation—One of the important factors in this model is the transformational leaders' empowerment of their followers to question the status quo and enable them to tackle issues with creativity (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006).
- (e) Individualized Consideration—By serving as mentors, transformational leaders demonstrate a keen interest in the development and success of their followers.

Occasions for learning abound in a supportive atmosphere where strengths are maximized and needs are attended to (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Table 2.1 provides a summary of each of the nine subscales as they pertain to transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership.

Similarities have been noted between charismatic leadership and transformational leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Both transformational leaders and charismatic leaders exhibit behavioral features that include (a) articulating a vision, (b) sensitivity to their

Table 2.1  
Subscales of Transformational, Transactional and Passive-Avoidant Leadership and Abbreviations

Leadership Style	MLQ Subscales	Abbreviation
Transformational Leadership	Idealized Influence (Attribute)	IA
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	IB
	Inspirational Motivation	IM
	Intellectual Stimulation	IS
	Individualized Consideration	IC
Transactional Leadership	Contingent Reward	CR
	Management by Exception (Active)	MBEA
Passive-Avoidant Leadership	Management by Exception (Passive)	MBEP
	Laissez-Faire	LF

surroundings, (c) sensitivity to follower needs, (d) personal risk taking, and (e) originality (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). However, while transformational leaders are focused on transforming the organization and empowering their followers in the process, charismatic leaders may want to stay with the status quo and not change anything (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Conger & Kanungo, 1998).

In summary, traits, skills, and style are key considerations in the study of leadership. The literature places emphasis on leader-follower interaction as a key component of leadership and its efficacy. Transformational leadership has emerged as a prominent model in the realm of leadership style because of its accentuation of leader-follower dynamics.

Studies of leadership have also examined the effect of “diversity attributes” such as gender and race on leadership skills (Richardson & Loubier, 2008, p. 142). Characteristics such as race, gender, age, and class make a person unique and subsequently influence how that individual thinks and works (P. G. Allen, 1992). The following section of this literature review focuses on examining leadership in context of diversity attributes that affect leadership.

### **Diversity Attributes and Leadership**

Scholars have examined diversity attributes as factors that can wield impact on an individual’s practice of leadership (Richardson & Loubier, 2008; Stevens, Plaut, & Sanchez-Burks, 2010). Diversity attributes are demographic characteristics “that help shape what a person becomes” and include gender, race, ethnicity, age, religion, and sexual orientation (Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 2005). This section of the literature review offers a synopsis of the literature pertaining to (a) leadership in the context of age through examination of leadership in college students and leadership development in youth and (b) the study of leadership in women.

### **Leadership and Age**

The effect of age on leadership has not been studied extensively (Barbuto Jr, Fritz, Matkin, & Marx, 2007), and the research that has been done is primarily focused on youth and adolescence (R.M. Lerner, Almerigi, Theokas, & Lerner, 2005; Zacharatos, Barling, & Kelloway, 2000), the college years (Astin, 1999; J. Cohen et al., 2013; Wielkiewicz, 2000), and



the retirement period (Cusack, 1994; Cusack & Thompson, 1992). This segment of the literature review provides additional insight on leadership, first in the context of youth leadership development, and second, of leadership in college.

### **Leadership and Youth Development**

The Center for Youth Development (1996) defines *youth development* as a procedure through which boys and girls in their adolescent and teenage years garner competencies that enhance their ability to overcome problems and become successful. Youth consider leadership to be of interest in the context of doing well in school, evading alcohol and drug use, and maintaining healthy relationships with others (Schoenberg, Salmond, & Fleshman, 2008).

In a paper aimed at assisting youth practitioners and policy makers, Edelman et al. (2004b) stated that, although concepts of youth leadership and youth development are often used interchangeably, they are distinct in nature and outcomes. *Youth leadership* is more specifically concerned with promoting the ability within young people to lead themselves and be collaborative with others (Edelman et al., 2004b). Because youth today are facing many competing priorities, engaging adolescents and teenagers in youth development programs to provide them with safe environments within which to build personal and interpersonal skills is that much more important (Edelman et al., 2004b).

**Importance of youth development programs.** Findings from a survey by Scales (1997) of 659 professionals in family support organizations showed that both the early years and adolescence are prime periods in a young person's life to offer them ample opportunities for development. Scales (1997) argued that when youth are not presented with deliberate and well-suited options, they will seek to create their own activities, which tend to be less healthy alternatives.

The engagement of youth in affirmative activities also serves the purpose of reducing or even eliminating the likelihood of their involvement in less desirable and more dangerous behaviors. According to the National Research Council (1993), prevention and intervention are understood to be necessary tactics to minimize the risks that youth face in society today. In a qualitative study and using the grounded theory approach, with semi-structured interviews and observations, Beck (1999) first pointed out myriad factors that pose threats to youth, such as failing school failure, isolation among peers, negative peer influencers, socioeconomic challenges, and lack of positive adult role models. In addition, Beck (1999) found six factors that contribute to the efficacy of a youth development organization: i) the programming has structure to guide the youth while simultaneously empowering them with a degree of autonomy, ii) assistance is provided to the youth for their academic needs, iii) cultural requirements are respected and attended to by the organization, iv) adults play a significant role in providing guidance and direction to the youth, v) mission-focused where the youth are at the center of decision-making by the leadership, and vi) the organization serves as a safe, nurturing, and supportive environment for the youth. Beck (1999) highlighted these features as significant to reducing risk in the lives of youth by tending to the “social, emotional and academic needs” of young men and women. (p. 122)

***Leadership skills and traits.*** In a review of the literature, Quinn (1999) found that programs and activities that offer youth a wide range of experiences are vital to the process of transition from youth to adulthood. Such experiences include the ability to interface with others, engage in physical activity, attune their skills, garner competencies and a positive sense of self, and learn how to press on and gain understanding of limits.

In their study with 6,000 youth across six ethnic groups in grades 6-12 (Scales, Benson, Leffert, & Blyth, 2000) found that participation in youth development programs was a key factor for thriving outcomes that included academic success, prevailing over hardship, staying healthy physically, and not being overindulgent. Results of the study by Scales et al. (2000) also showed that age and gender are factors that yield influence on these thriving outcomes.

Some scholars believe that involvement in youth development and leadership programs is an effective complement to youths' expected routines, such as attending school. In an evaluation of the Youth Leadership Institute, Libby, Rosen, and Sedonaen (2005) found the need for a two-fold approach to engaging youth effectively. First, the expressed belief of Libby et al. (2005) was that working with inside entities (schools, government, etc.) was very important because through existing delivery models these systems could serve as essential partners for communicating with and reaching youth. Second, in the research of Libby et al. (2005), the concept of outside organizations was reported to garner the support and insights of the youth-serving entities. Merits of the outside model included opportunities for youth to effect palpable change through organizing and planning—and in the process of tackling progressively more stimulating, exciting, and inspiring tasks, attained more skills and sharpened their leadership acumen (Libby et al., 2005).

There is a distinction between programs that approach youth development through the lens of preventing involvement in perilous activities and programs that focus on reinforcing positive behaviors. Leadership development in youth is a component of positive youth development, which tackles the developmental needs of youth as opposed to deficit-based models that speak only to youth problems (Edelman et al., 2004b). There is evidence that when

youth are provided with opportunities that bolster their strengths through supportive development programs, positive youth development takes place (Benson, 2003).

Lerner et al. (2005) conducted a study with 1,700 fifth graders and 1,117 of their parents to examine the connection between participation in youth development organizations and positive youth development outcomes. Lerner et al. (2005) found that results derived from previous studies held true, and the five Cs of character, competence, confidence, caring, and connection were the upshots of nurturing youth and adolescents through supportive environments and resources. Explanation of the five Cs is presented in Table 2.2.

Findings by Lerner et al. (2005) corroborated other conclusions that through participation in positive youth development programs, leadership traits such as competence, confidence, and character are nurtured in young persons (Balsano et al., 2009; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003a, 2003b). According to Lerner et al. (2005), youth who participate in these programs exhibit additional leadership characteristics such as compassion and a desire to connect with their surroundings to effect positive change. As a result, Lerner et al. (2005) noted that the young person is now equipped with what Lerner, Dowling, & Anderson (2003) suggested to be the sixth C: contribution. The ultimate consequence of positive youth development is that young persons believe they have both the ability and the responsibility to contribute positively to self and surroundings.

TABLE 2.2  
Explanations of the Five Cs of Positive Youth Development

Five Cs	Explanation
Competence	Positive view of one's actions in domain specific areas including social, academic, cognitive, and vocational. Social competence pertains to interpersonal skills (e.g., conflict resolution). Cognitive competence pertains to cognitive abilities (e.g., decision making). School grades, attendance, and test scores are part of academic competence. Vocational competence involves work habits and career choice explorations.
Confidence	An internal sense of overall positive self-worth and self-efficacy; one's global self-regard, as opposed to domain specific beliefs.
Connection	Positive bonds with people and institutions that are reflected in bidirectional exchanges between the individual and peers, family, school, and community in which both parties contribute to the relationship.
Character	Respect for societal and cultural rules, possession of standards for correct behaviors, a sense of right and wrong (morality), and integrity.
Caring (and Compassion)	A sense of sympathy and empathy for others.

*Note.* Adapted from Lerner (2004) and Roth & Brooks-Gunn (2003a).

Acquisition of traits and skills such as confidence, character, and competence, combined with a demonstration of care and compassion, and a desire to connect with others and make positive contributions to society reinforce the various definitions of leadership and strengthens the notion that leadership can be learned (Avolio & Bass, 1999; Burns, 2010; Northouse, 2010). Furthermore, the research points to how organizations that utilize positive youth development continually cultivate leadership skills in their members by providing them with opportunities to expand their leadership acumen (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003a, 2003b).

In a researcher-practitioner collaborative qualitative study, external data and data collected on site were used to examine the efficacy of youth organizing (Christens & Dolan, 2011). Data consisted of interviews with both youth members in key roles and non-staff adult

supporters, documents from the organization's archives, and media coverage. Christens and Dolan (2011) found that outcomes in positive youth development were commensurate with what youth believed with respect to participation in activities that enhanced their leadership abilities while also providing them with opportunities to acquire and enhance various skills. Individuals involved in youth-organizing programs mention confidence, organizational aptitude, and public speaking as skills they acquired through this involvement (Christens & Dolan, 2011). Another highlight of such involvement was the possibility for youth to serve as mentors to other young people and contribute to the leadership development of their peers (Christens & Dolan, 2011). In addition to building meaningful relationships, such opportunities have a direct impact on leadership development in youth. According to the study's findings, youth also gained skills in research and data collection through some youth-organizing endeavors (Christens & Dolan, 2011). The combination of teaching young people how to recruit others for a cause and motivating their collective action enabled them to connect with their communities in meaningful ways while sharpening their skills (Christens & Dolan, 2011).

Skills attainment were not limited to youth-organizing programs; studies showed that other types of activities (such as attending camp) offered by mission-based organizations also contributed positively to youth development (Bialeschki & Conn, 2011). According to Garst, Browne, and Bialeschki (2011), youth who attended camp "experienced growth" in myriad areas such as building meaningful relationships, exploring and discovering, developing self-esteem, becoming independent, engaging in teamwork, attaining positive values, learning social and interpersonal skills, and becoming leaders (p. 81).

***Community service.*** Community service is another avenue for positive youth program delivery, whereby the participants gained knowledge and skills through the entire process by

addressing a vital need and making a positive contribution to their community (Powers & Allaman, 2012). Engaging in community service is beneficial to youth because of the many learning opportunities embedded in such activities (Peterson, Baker, Leatherman, Newman, & Miske, 2012). In addition to making the process relevant and appropriate because it includes the youth perspective, the participants are afforded opportunities for leadership development (Powers & Allaman, 2012). In effective community-service programming, youth are empowered to identify a problem and take action to solve it (McKay, 2010). Through community service, youth are given a chance to engage in meaningful activities and acquire problem-solving skills (McKay, 2010). Encouragement of positive self-esteem thorough developing an understanding of community issues and gaining the ability to garner resources and developing tactics toward meeting the collective objective are the three interrelated components of empowerment as identified by Lee (2001). In this process, adults also play an important role, not by leading, but rather by nurturing the environment and supporting the youth (2001). Furthermore, according to McKay (2010), community service is invaluable to equipping youth with skills in “cooperation” and conflict resolution (p. 6).

According to Eccles and Gootman (2002), community service has the potential to inspire leadership in youth, especially when there is a supportive environment that fosters meaningful relationships, promotes a sense of belonging, and encourages skill building through exploring, discovery, and learning. Smith and Barker (2009) stated that volunteering and involvement in community service are contributing factors for thriving youth and adolescents as evidenced by their healthy behaviors and success in school.

Another important upshot of community service is that youth are exposed to real life experiences that augment their overall learning (Stonehill et al., 2011). Real-life learning

provides an important benefit because it gives youth opportunities to acquire important skills and develop their leadership acumen. The civic engagement that community service affords contributes to positive youth development because the participants can identify and sharpen their skills, experiment with leadership, and have a beneficial impact on their communities through those experiences (Borden & Serido, 2009).

***Academic success.*** In a 2005 study by Morrissey and Werner-Wilson of 304 youths, 44% male and 56% female, who ranged in age from 10 years old to 18 years old at 14 sites in one Midwestern state, findings showed that school performance, measured by grade level, was significantly correlated with prosocial behavior. Prosocial behavior was positively correlated with attitudes toward community. Roker, Player, and Coleman (1999) defined *prosocial behavior* as the type of inclination and conduct that is conducive to serving and assisting others, including such behaviors as being kind, compassionate, caring, generous, supportive, and altruistic. Morrissey and Werner-Wilson (2005) also found that effective youth development programs equip their participants with a wide range of skills that include a solid sense of self, positive values, teamwork, problem solving, decision-making, and the ability to make choices based on their understanding of what is right. According to the findings from this study by Morrissey and Werner-Wilson (2005), community—presented through involvement in such organizations as Boys and Girls Clubs, 4-H, and Girl Scouts—provides a safe environment in which youth can “explore, express, earn, belong, and influence.” Community offers a chance for youth to learn how to live and act in the world (Morrissey & Werner-Wilson, 2005, p. 69).

***Role of adults.*** Providing youth with a range of options for engaging within safe environments that foster their ability to experiment and learn is essential to their acquisition and development of leadership skills (Schneider-Muñoz & Politz, 2007). However, the role of



supportive adults who demonstrate care and compassion while guiding the young people to work with their peers through active and collaborative engagement and decision making cannot be underestimated (Schneider-Muñoz & Politz, 2007). The role of adults in youth leadership and development endeavors, whereby youth are given opportunities to partner with adults and engage in meaningful activities, is conducive to the development of those youth (Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Mitra, 2003). Through working collaboratively with other youth and adults, youth develop a sense of belonging to, and commitment toward, their communities (Checkoway et al., 2003; Jones & Perkins, 2004). Effective partnerships between youth and adults include proper adult counsel and suitable support structures that facilitate the transfer of knowledge and skill from adults to young people (Camino, 2000).

Researchers posited that experiences during childhood and adolescence yield lasting impact on individuals in their adult lives (Bialeschki & Conn, 2011; Christens & Dolan, 2011; Schneider-Muñoz & Politz, 2007; Stonehill et al., 2011). Opportunities, challenges, relationships, and learning how to deal with success and disappointment in the formative years set the stage for who they will become and how they will live as adults. Youth development and youth leadership are distinct terminologies and yet acutely related to another. Leadership competency in youth is the ideal outcome of effective youth development that through meaningful programming equips young people with skills, characteristics, styles, and behaviors prescribed to leaders. Some scholars believe that only a limited set of mission-based organizations with a focus on positive youth development can deliver this outcome, while other scholars believe that a broader array of youth programs can serve the same results. Most of the literature points to youth-adult interactions, community service, and skills attainment as cornerstones in the success of youth development and youth leadership efforts

As suggested previously, gender is one of the emerging considerations in the study of youth leadership. The next part of this section of the literature review presents further insights pertaining to youth development and youth leadership for girls and young women.

**The female factor in youth development and leadership.** There is significant evidence of societal impact on leadership development in girls and young women (Murphy & Johnson, 2011a). Girls learn to lead differently than boys as a result of the differences in society's expectations for girls in comparison to its expectations for boys (Hoyt & Johnson, 2011). Girls acquire *constricting* forms of interface, such as being supportive and conciliatory (Lips, 2006). Being liked by others by exhibiting social skills and social intelligence is a factor for girls being considered as leaders and while that is not necessarily true for boys (Kurdek & Lillie, 1985). The contradiction between what society expects, and what leadership is perceived to be in general terms, can create confusion in girls and dissuade them from pursuing developmental activities in their formative years, and this incongruity might stifle their emergence as leaders (Hoyt & Johnson, 2011). The role of programs and activities that allow girls to experiment with leadership and instill confidence in their own abilities is therefore significant.

The role of girls-only programs for leadership development was examined in one study in which the Young Women's Leadership Alliance (YWLA) was evaluated to determine the effectiveness of such programs as means of inspiring girls to effect social change (Bean, Meyer, & Denner, 2004). Over the course of six terms, 256 girls participated in YWLA, 169 of whom completed the program, with an average of 12.46 sessions attended by these individuals. The participants were enrolled in grades 9 through 11 at three sites; they were recruited through announcements posted at their schools and nomination by teachers. Some of the participants were able to receive academic credit for completing the program. Girls had to complete three

activities that spanned equity awareness, research, and social action. The researchers collected pretest and posttest data from the participants. They also collected data through interviews, journal posts by the participants, and notes from the two adult program leaders at each site. Bean, Meyer, and Denner (2004) witnessed encouraging results in the area of youth development, evidenced by considerable progress from pretest to posttest data in the participants' leadership confidence ( $p < .001$ ), assertiveness in school ( $p < .001$ ), not censoring oneself to please others ( $p < .05$ ), peer support for leadership ( $p < .05$ ), and marketable skills ( $p < .001$ ). In subsequent interviews, the participants said that, in addition to acquiring competencies in computer technology, conducting research, and administering surveys, they had also sharpened their aptitude in leadership and communication skills. The most positive changes as a result of this program, according to the participants, were in being "more outspoken, assertive, and able to stand up for what they believe in" (Bean et al., 2004). The findings suggested that a girls-only program was effective for acquisition and development of leadership skills for the participants.

The effectiveness of youth development programs for girls could also be gauged by examining how the childhood experiences of current women leaders may have played a role in the attainment of their leadership roles. Madsen (2007) looked at the outcome of effective youth development programming by interviewing women university presidents and concluded that the availability and conscious delivery of thoughtfully orchestrated leadership development programs were pivotal to reaching young women and nurturing their growth into positions of leadership in adulthood. Twenty-five female university presidents were invited to participate in a qualitative study from March 2005 to June 2005. Ultimately, 10 individuals who were able to meet during this timeframe were interviewed in 2-hour to 3-hour, face-to-face sessions. Madsen (2007) utilized the phenomenological approach to guide her research; she also referenced Van

Manen (2001), who touted this approach on the grounds that “phenomenology aims at gaining a deeper understanding of the nature or meaning of our everyday experiences” (p. 9). Madsen (2007) argued that this approach created an opportunity to give “voice” to the participants so that they could elucidate through their insights what activities and opportunities had been fundamental factors to their development as young women and their acquisition of leadership skills.

The findings of the Madsen (2007) study support the growth-task model of human development as the theoretical framework, which underscores the importance of influential factors throughout childhood and adolescent experiences that result in skills and aptitude for leadership in adult years (Weick, 1983). With empowerment at the core, Weick argued that childhood was a formative period during which individuals who are exposed to developmental opportunities could learn from those experiences and shape their future roles as leaders (1983). In this light, Madsen (2007) defined the findings of her study as conclusive by underscoring (a) the participation of these women in activities that engendered their growth during their childhood and youth, (b) influential individuals—particularly other women—who served as their role models, and (c) the act of facing challenges that provided them with unique lessons through which they learned how to deal with setbacks and overcome obstacles.

The role of adults in youth development is viewed as especially important and relevant for young women (Denner, Meyer, & Bean, 2005). Denner et al. (2005) stated that in this configuration, an “equal” partnership exists between the youth and adults that allows for the youth to assume different roles than they are accustomed to, in which adults serve as guides who create a safe environment while respecting the girls’ abilities and autonomy to carry out the tasks and work in teams to solve problems (p. 92). The adults have a tool kit that steers their

partnership with the girls through a “guidance” model, and they nurture the development of leadership in young women by identifying and validating a range of leadership styles that promote critical thinking, teamwork, and problem solving (Denner et al., 2005, p. 92). What is especially regarded as important for leadership development in girls is nurturing their self-esteem and ensuring that they are allowed to explore and learn in supportive environments that promote skills acquisition in tandem with their interests and aspirations (Schoenberg et al., 2008).

**Experiences of youth who identify as transgender.** According to Zook (2017), experiences of queer students, including those who identify as transgender, vary significantly from that of their heterosexual peers, and yet little has been done intentionally and in a widespread manner to acclimate the educational environment to the unique learning and socialization needs of queer students. This results in a disparity for “safe, supportive, and equitable” spaces in which they can learn and thrive (Zook, 2017, p. 1755). Limitations imposed on lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and questioning (LGBTQ) students stem from a lack of understanding for sexual orientation and gender identity/expression by school teachers and administrators (Jennings, 2014). Zook (2017) suggested professional development for school teachers and administrators to practice transformative leadership skills, through which they could enhance their school environments and “create spaces that are empowering and inclusive of all perspectives by working to construct a shared vision of respect for and acceptance of difference” (p. 1771). In this way, LGBTQ youth would be at less of a disadvantage compared to their peers in the future compared to now.

Transgender youth have noted the significance of influential communities, such as their families, neighbors, and schools in how they have come to develop and become comfortable with their gender identity (Hawkins, 2009). The amount of time youth spend with their parents,

siblings, friends, and classmates denotes the role of communities as sociocultural factors that wield impact on all young people including those who identify as transgender (Hawkins, 2009).

Although all youth cope and struggle to varying degrees with developing a positive sense of self and their identity, this is an especially arduous task for transgender adolescents, who must do so in the context of their questioning and evolving understanding of their gender identity (Grossman, D'Augelli, & Salter, 2006). A shortage or even lack of positive role models, victimization that results from expectations for gender conformity; unavailability of education and intervention for parents, families, and teachers; and also issues related to mental health are among the many factors that further disadvantage transgender youth from successfully navigating their adolescent years and acquiring positive life skills (Grossman et al., 2006).

Queer theory's definition of gender is one of fluidity that allows for change and embraces "characteristics and qualities traditionally assigned to two binary genders in a holistic fashion" (Musick, 2018, p. 5). Discussion of behaviors and actions in society are therefore done in the context of the female and male, and as prescribed to each gender within cultural norms (Eagly & Wood, 2015; Eagly, Wood, & Diekmann, 2000; Yep, 2003). Although heteronormative speaks to the stability of gender-specific roles in society, gender is not as stable in individuals. This inconsistency also presents itself in transgender individuals who are often working to be convincing in their gender roles while still ascribing to their biological gender and societal approved norms (Musick, 2018).

With the understanding that leadership denotes a degree of influence by an individual over a group of followers, it is also important to take into account the role of gender with respect to how it relates to and permeates power in a group setting (Acker, 1990, 2006). Zaccaro (2007) found that, in examining leadership effectiveness, men and women held stable in these personal

qualities: intelligence, expertise, persuasion, values, personality, motives, cognitive abilities, values, problem-solving skills, verbal skills, and interpersonal abilities. The Zaccaro study involved only female and male participants; however, another study by Muhr and Sullivan (2015) observed that a transgender individual's leadership in three settings showed changes along gender-specific norms that helped the leader be successful in all of the three situations. This and other studies point to the nuances of gender-specific leadership styles as described in androgynous leadership (Eagly & Wood, 2015; Klein & Wang, 2010; Musick, 2018; Park, 1996). In addition to exhibiting leadership styles that are attributed to both males and females in terms of being both task-oriented and relationship-oriented, androgynous leaders, according to Park (1996), are also aware of and adapt to the settings in which they are working, thus modeling the situational style of leadership. Musick (2018) found that transgender youth, by ascribing to the androgynous style, are able to successfully navigate leadership along the norms that are typically reserved by society looking through the binary gender lens.

**Leadership style and youth development.** The study of leadership style in the context of youth development has been limited. Using the *MLQ*, a study was done to examine the relationship between transformational leadership ratings of 182 nonprofit and for-profit leaders with respect to their early life experiences (Avolio, 1994). Findings showed that some experiences and events during the childhood and adolescence of the respondents was positively correlated with “subsequent self and follower perceptions of transformational leadership” (Avolio, 1994, p. 1576). However, the associations were weaker than anticipated. Avolio (1994) suggested that these results were the result of several factors, including that (a) the early-life-experiences scale may not have been comprehensive enough; (b) the reliability of some of these scales was less than satisfactory; and (c) responses for childhood/adolescence events/experiences

were based on memory. Because the respondents were advanced professionals, it is possible that too much time had passed between childhood and adulthood for them to accurately recall their early life experiences for the purpose of this study. Avolio (1994) called for additional studies to examine the “life span development” of individuals in leadership roles to broaden the research in the study of leadership (Avolio, 1994, p. 1577).

In a quantitative study, Olsen (2010) explored the relationship between the perceived leadership style of youth development educators and the empowerment of adult volunteers of a youth development organization. The researcher first discussed the influence that youth development educators wield on the training and preparation of adult volunteers who are considered to be integral for program delivery in the 4-H organization. Olsen (2010) found there to be a significantly strong and positive relationship between the transformational leadership style of youth development educators and the feeling of empowerment by the adult volunteers, who then in turn were able to engage in more constructive ways with the youth.

Another study examined the nature of organizations and whether the organizational culture, as demonstrated by the leadership styles of staff and adult volunteers, resonated with transformational leadership and, in turn, how this dynamic contributed to the development and growth of its youth members (Reever, 2011). Entities that embody idealized influence, inspirational leadership, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation have a transformational culture (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1993). The findings of the study revealed a positive relationship between the transformational style of adult leaders, an organization’s transformational culture, and the development of participants in a youth program (Reever, 2011).



Research suggests that the desire to get involved in leadership activities during youth is as strong in girls as in boys. The disparity, however, might be in the divergent view of leadership as either formal or informal, wherein girl-specific programs might be better suited to create a safe and nurturing environment in which girls can better strive and thrive. The efficacy of youth development programs is maximized through engagement with transformational adults, whether as staff charged with training and empowering volunteers, or as staff and volunteers—all adults who come in contact with the youth and who then motivate their youth members toward optimal growth and development. What is seemingly absent in the literature is whether development programs during childhood and adolescence have any bearing on the participating youths' eventual leadership styles as adults.

### **Leadership During the College Years**

Another area of study with respect to leadership and age has focused on student leadership during the college years. Scholars propose that student development has existed in the American system of higher education since early in its inception (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, & Renn, 2010). While some argue that student development has remained conceptually and contextually similar throughout the ages (Haskins, 1957), others insist that changes in times and traditions, along with the influence of environmental factors and life circumstances, have resulted in different types of students whose needs and desires necessitate a modern approach toward student development (Woodard, Love, & Komives, 2000).

By focusing on the theoretical and empirical research in the field of student development, scholars for some time have studied the interpersonal and intrapersonal transformation of students while they are attending college, factors that contribute to these changes, whether they are lasting in nature, and characteristics of ideal student-development programs and their

associated outcomes (Knefelkamp, Widick, & Parker, 1978). As a result of an interest to ensure the holistic development of students while they are attending college, programs and activities that encourage student involvement and nurture their growth through active engagement have been created and tweaked over time (Rodgers, 1990c).

**College student leadership: Involvement and development.** According to Astin (1984), student involvement is contingent upon the degree of effort and amount of time that students expend toward their experiences in college. It is important to note a subtle difference between involvement and engagement: “It is entirely possible to be involved in something without being engaged” (Harper & Quaye, 2009, p. 5). Data collected through the National Survey of Student Engagement (2007) from nearly 1.5 million undergraduates at approximately twelve hundred 4-year institutions since 2000 point to five benchmarks of successful practices in meaningful student engagement:

- (a) Academically challenging environment
- (b) Active and collaborative learning
- (c) Student-faculty interactions
- (d) Enriching educational experiences
- (e) Supportive campus environment

Opportunities for true learning to transpire, through which students can reap lasting and quantifiable outcomes, require student engagement and educationally purposeful experiences (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, Whitt, & Associates, 2005). Other scholars argued for the dual responsibility of student engagement: that in addition to drive and efforts by the students to engage in the educational process, and activities that enrich their overall educational experiences, faculty and administrators are also accountable for creating educational environments that

nurture students of diverse backgrounds and encourage their engagement (Harper & Quaye, 2009).

***Involvement.*** Campus organizations and clubs have been one major way that students get involved and thus explore and learn important skills (Astin, 1999; Evans et al., 2010). In addition to allowing for collaborative learning to take place, participation in clubs and organizations encompasses some of the other benchmarks identified by the NSSE (2007). These benchmarks include meaningful interactions between the students and their advisors, and supportive environments in which the students are encouraged to participate in leadership activities and learn from those experiences (NSSE, 2007).

In a study with 50,738 students from 55 college campuses in the United States, Dugan and Komives (2007) found that college experiences yield significant influence on the leadership development of college students. According to the results, experiences during college accounted significantly for overall leadership acquisition (Dugan & Komives, 2007). Nearly eighty percent of the respondents reported some level of involvement with college organizations, including athletics and intramurals, and although involvement in too many different types of organizations was negatively related to leadership development, in general, the “amount of involvement positively related to level of development” (p. 15). Dugan and Komives (2007) concluded that the purposeful involvement of students in college with clubs and organizations serves as “purposeful interventions” that can positively impact leadership development for college students (p. 14).

A study by Hall, Forrester, and Borsz (2008) with 21 participants examined the self-reported effects that leadership development had on students in college recreation programs. The results pointed to the advantage of developmental experiences in college that can lead to

leadership abilities and roles (Hall et al., 2008). Hall et al. (2008) noted specific findings as advantages of involvement by college students, including opportunities to (a) work with others, (b) learn and appreciate diversity, and (c) build interpersonal skills such as communications, and organizational skills such as planning, and also (d) the ability to balance life priorities (academics, professional, and personal).

***Development.*** One of the many gains afforded to college students through engagement with clubs and organizations is the opportunity to develop their leadership acumen (Dugan, 2011; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). This relationship corresponds with the significance colleges and universities have placed on leadership development in students and the resulting attainment by them of “leadership capacity as a critical college outcome” (Dugan, 2011, p. 17).

Leadership develops over a period of time in conjunction with experiences, training, and other factors that provide individuals with the opportunity to develop their leadership capacity and form their own leadership identity (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005). In a grounded-theory study, Komives et al. (2005) observed and interviewed 13 student leaders who were selected through purposeful sampling. In the study, Komives et al. discovered five interrelated categories: (a) essential developmental influences; (b) development of self; (c) group influences; (d) changing view of self with others; and (e) broadening view of leadership that “interact to create” the central category of the study: leadership identity (Komives et al., 2005, p. 596). The researchers in turn identified the following six stages in the developmental process within leadership identity (Komives et al., 2005, pp. 606–607):

1. *Awareness* is the initial detection of leadership and occurs when individuals notice leadership in those around them.

2. *Exploration and engagement* occur when individuals deliberately get involved with groups and experience interaction with others while assuming some responsibilities, although not in particular roles or positions.
3. *Leader identified* is the third and “leader-centric” stage, in which the individuals come to understand that groups are made up of leaders and followers but that it is the leader who is responsible for the outcomes (p. 606).
4. *Leadership differentiated* is the stage in which individuals realized that leadership is more than just a title/position, that any person in the group can become a leader, and that leadership is a “process between and among people” because of their interdependence (p. 606).
5. *Generativity* defines the stage when individuals become “actively committed” to particular groups based on their passion for the organization. That passion stems from their personal “beliefs and values” and advances the concept of interdependence by their taking an active role in the development of others in order to regenerate or sustain the organization (p. 607).
6. *Integration and synthesis* occur when leadership becomes engrained and the individuals feel comfortable with different people in a variety of settings, whether they are in “positional” leadership roles or leading as group members because of their confidence with ambiguity, complexity, and problem-solving. (p. 607)

***Life experiences.*** Life experiences are important considerations to the developmental process of leadership, and to the diverse student body as colleges and universities in twenty-first century America call for a more expansive view of how their students develop and attain leadership (Evans et al., 2010; Komives et al., 2005). Findings of the aforementioned study by

Dugan and Komives (2007) show that the precollege experiences of study participants served as a key predictor for the majority of leadership outcomes of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS; Tyree, 1988), which comprise the Multi-Institutional Leadership (MSL) design of this study.

Sax and Harper (2007) conducted a study with 17,637 students from 204, 4-year institutions of higher learning by administering a survey at the time of college entrance (1994) and then four years later in 1998. The findings showed that precollege experiences were a significant factor for at least some of the overall 19 outcomes that the study measured for (Sax & Harper, 2007). The results also pointed to a relationship based on gender whereby precollege experiences vary depending on the respondents' gender differences (Sax & Harper, 2007). More scholars are utilizing a wider perspective that allows for better understanding of students and their developmental needs as influenced by important factors such as gender and prior life experiences (Evans et al., 2010).

***Life experiences and gender.*** One of the studies that examined leadership based on gender involved incoming first-year students from 22 institutions who were asked to complete a survey within 3 weeks from the start of the term (Wielkiewicz, Fischer, Stelzner, Overland, & Sinner, 2012). According to the study, women college students are more collaborative leaders than men and exhibit more extraverted personalities and conscientiousness than their male peers (Wielkiewicz et al., 2012).

Another finding of the study pointed to women college students being further along in Komives et al.'s (2005) stages of leadership identity—Stage 4, Leadership Differentiated, as opposed to their male peers who were in Stage 2, Exploration/Engagement and Stage 3, Leader Identified. Wielkiewicz et al. (2012) concluded that not only do women and men have divergent

personalities and understandings of leadership, but there also is a difference between women and men in the leadership-development process. In particular, women are less hierarchical than men in their view of leadership and instead focus, more so than men, on “cooperation, consensus-building, and careful consideration of the alternatives” (Wielkiewicz et al., 2012, p. 18).

The differences in leadership among male and female college students, in terms of development, engagement, and approach, call for additional scrutiny that should consider other factors. Spencer (2004) examined leadership at the collegiate level by women through a slightly different lens. Intrigued about why student body presidencies remain dominated by men despite the fact that there are more female students at American colleges and universities, Spencer’s (2004) study proposed that experiences by women while they are growing up may be contributing factors to their community involvement and extent to which they assume leadership roles in adulthood. While women have made significant strides in terms of education, employment, and earnings, they are still drastically outnumbered by men in the political and business arenas (Spencer, 2004). The findings of Spencer’s study showed that one of the impeding factors for women was their shortage of “political interest, knowledge, and socialization” that stemmed from not enough or lack of any exposure to appropriate experiences during their childhood and adolescence (Spencer, 2004, p. 134). For those individuals who did become involved, the role of mentors and their encouragement was emphasized, pointing back to the NSSE (2000) benchmarks and the significance of student-faculty interactions, particularly for women (Spencer, 2004). The researcher pointed out that the study participants had an advantage over their peers in having been involved with youth development activities while they were growing up, and especially during high school (Spencer, 2004). Spencer (2004) observed that previous participation in YLDPs had equipped the participants with a knowledgebase that

enabled them to navigate the political process, build relationships with others, seek mentors, and withstand the negativity around them. Another issue that arose in this study as a barrier to women college students seeking and assuming the presidency in student government also related to the NSSE (2000) and its fifth benchmark of *supportive campus environments*. Spencer (2004) noted that the respondents were met with differential treatment by both the predominantly male administrators on campus and the student body, who favored men for the role of president of student government and women for other positions such as vice-president.

The literature presents a strong case for differences between male and female college students in terms of their approach to leadership, how they get involved, factors that contribute to their engagement and success, and values that shape the manner in which they lead. This combination draws attention to the significance of understanding leadership style, which is discussed in the next section.

There is little in the literature, however, about the leadership development, including the leadership experiences, of college students who identify as transgender. Evans (2000) noted the importance of safe environments for LGBTQ students in college through both “implicitly centralized” and “explicitly centralized” environments (p. 85). *Implicit* environments are such places as designated gathering spaces or a dedicated office for services for LGBTQ students, whereas *explicit* refers to placement of LGBTQ references and resources within the curriculum and throughout other campus environments (Evans, 2000). It is important to underscore the complexity of the transgender identity—which is often discussed within the LGBTQ frame, yet it is a form of gender identify, not sexual orientation (T. R. Smith, 2015). Smith recommends additional research for nonbinary individuals and the experiences of transgender individuals.



**Leadership style and college students.** An imperative undertaking by colleges and universities is the empowerment of students through meaningful activities and programs that help develop their skills and talents and, in this process, growth of their leadership potential (Astin & Astin, 2000). Because college students are active participants in making their own decisions and setting their own direction, it is important to understand the leadership behaviors and styles of those students (Schaper, 2009; Scroggs, 1994).

The focus of one such study was with students in the Urban Planning program. Nagy (2012) examined whether these students were becoming transformational leaders and whether there was a relationship between this model of leadership and their involvement in the community. The author cited the American Planning Association (2014) to offer an in-depth description of planning:

The Planning process should enable civic leaders, businesses, and citizens to play a meaningful role in creating communities that enrich people's lives. Planners facilitate the development of a broad vision for the community; research, design, and develop programs; lead public processes; affect social change; and educate. (APA, 2010)

Planning is a strategic profession that strives to build healthy and sustainable communities by creating more convenient, equitable, healthful, efficient, and attractive places for present and future generations (Nagy, 2012, p. 22).

In a case study with 28 respondents enrolled in upper-level courses at one 4-year university, Nagy's (2012) findings show that the majority of the respondents displayed low levels of transformational leadership. Although they displayed moderate levels of challenging the process, most Planning students had low ratings in other measures of leadership, including modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, and enabling others to act. The researcher also found that, although most Planning students engaged in community service and volunteer work, they hardly ever participated in Planning clubs and subject-related activities, political organizations, or other types of student-leadership entities. The findings point out that, while

there is a positive correlation between community engagement and transformational leadership, Planning students displayed low levels of leadership because of their rare and sporadic involvement with community organizations, is contrary to what was expected of them (Nagy, 2012).

The lack of community involvement in Nagy's (2012) study shows an adverse impact on leadership development and leadership style in Planning students. Perhaps the next study can show the significance of the relationship between involvement and leadership, which appears from the 2012 study to be a positive relationship between the two.

To investigate the leadership actions and the gender differences in those actions in student-government leaders in California community colleges, Schaper (2009) conducted a study with 88 respondents "serving as presidents, vice presidents, secretaries, treasurers, and senators" in student government from Region IX of the California Community College system (p. 33). The findings show that students serving as presidents ranked highest in comparison to their peers for all actions denoting exemplary leadership (Schaper, 2009). Based on Kouzes and Posner's (2003) *Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)*, Schaper (2009) referenced the following five actions as determinants for "patterns of exemplary leadership" (pp. 24-25):

- (a) Modeling the Way—Values-based leadership with transparent goal setting, consistency in their actions, and skillful communication.
- (b) Inspire a Shared Vision—Proficiency in visualizing and articulating a constructive future while being able to motivate followers around that vision.
- (c) Challenging the Process—A leadership approach that embraces questioning the status quo and looking for better alternatives.

- (d) Enable Others to Act—Empowerment of team members through collaboration, trust building, and shared responsibility.
- (e) Encouraging the Heart—Behaviors and words that commemorate and honor the work of followers, thus creating cohesion and excitement.

The findings of Schaper showed that presidents' self-rate higher in all of the above actions, with vice-presidents and secretaries following in second and third place respectively. According to Schaper (2009), this outcome might be indicative of the prescribed positions and responsibilities of each office, with presidents as the designated title for most influence, vice-presidents in a supportive role to the president, and secretaries for their part in information-sharing and transparency. Another observation from the study was that all participants ranked themselves higher in the fourth category of enabling others to act, perhaps pursuant to their role as student-government officers for engaging and motivating the student body (Schaper, 2009). This is an important and relevant finding of the study because it pertains to key elements of transformational leadership behaviors that motivate and empower followers while including them in the process and being sensitive to their needs.

Findings from another study with 44 fraternity (29 men) and sorority (15 women) presidents revealed that the leadership style of both groups of leaders—men and women—aligned most closely with the transformational model of leadership (Scroggs, 1994). This study also utilized the LPI, and the findings showed that while both genders employed inspiring a shared vision in their leadership behaviors, sorority presidents practiced encouraging the heart and enabling others to act at higher levels than fraternity presidents, both of which closely pertain to key components of transformational leadership (Scroggs, 1994).

The *Achieving Styles Inventory (ASI)* by Beardsley, Stewart, and Wilmes (1987) was also used for gauging transformational leadership behaviors. Those results showed that more men than women use a direct communication approach in order to achieve goals, and that more women than men are relational in their interface with followers (Scroggs, 1994). Scroggs (1994) suggested that because more transformational leaders are relational in their approach, the female participants displayed a higher level of transformational leadership than their male counterparts. Further analysis of the results shows that both the female presidents' sorority members and the male presidents' fraternity members had a similar view of their leaders' LPI rankings. Scroggs (1994) concluded that the lack of statistical significance in terms of the leaders' self-assessment and their followers' perception of their leadership indicated that both the fraternity and sorority presidents were engaging their chapter members in the leadership process, which points to their transformational leadership styles.

***Leadership styles of college students as measured by the MLQ.*** Examination of leadership style among college students has also been conducted by using the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, Form 5X/Short, referred to here generally as MLQ)*. In one such study, Mainella (2003) examined the relationship between moral reasoning and self-perceived leadership behaviors of 74 college students who served as presidents of Greek-letter social fraternities and sororities, sports clubs, cultural organizations, and political/advocacy groups. According to Welfel and Kitchener (1992), moral reasoning “involves deciding which course of action is just, right, or fair” (p. 179).

An interesting finding by Mainella (2003) in a later study was a negative relationship between moral reasoning and two subsets of transformational leadership: Idealized Influence (attribute) and Inspirational Motivation, and also one subset of transactional leadership:

Management by Exception (active). Mainella (2003) observed that idealized influence and inspirational motivation are components of transformational leadership that some scholars often see as corresponding to charismatic leadership. However, charisma is only one component of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) that has subsequently been replaced in the description of transformational leadership on the *MLQ*; but the items that measure for Idealized Influence and Inspirational Motivation still measure for charisma as well (Mainella, 2003). Mainella (2003) further explained that there is an unethical dimension to charismatic leadership that serves the leader's self-interest even when the decision is not the right one for the collective group. An additional finding of this study was that there were no significant differences in men and women in the use of transformational and transactional leadership (Mainella, 2003).

Another study used the *MLQ* to examine the relationship between leadership style and empathy level of 59 undergraduate nursing students (Salem, Moursy, Gemeay, & Putri, 2012). Although the findings showed that both junior and senior nursing students were significantly more transformational than transactional in their leadership style, there was no significant relationship between the empathy behaviors and the leadership style of respondents (Salem et al., 2012). Salem et al. (2012) noted that their results differed from previous studies, and they observed that the discrepancy could be the result of respondents' "lack of exposure" to empathy or to the sample size (p. 345).

Ward and Weiner (2012) conducted a study using the *MLQ* to investigate the relationship between the leadership characteristics and the levels of risky healthy behaviors of 623 students from 11 small and mid-sized colleges in the United States. The findings revealed that even when researchers controlled for gender, there was a significantly positive correlation among respondents between transformational leadership levels and the risky behaviors of alcohol

consumption and hooking up (Ward & Weiner, 2012). Ward and Weiner (2012) posed the possibility that the risky behaviors may be a strategy for coping by the respondents who might be subjected to higher levels of stress than other students who do not display these leadership characteristics.

In summary, the literature draws attention to a strong association between student involvement and leadership development. How students get involved and engage with development opportunities varies and is affected by such factors as their precollege experiences and gender.

Transformational style appears to be a component of the leadership process in the college environment that has appeal among both leaders and followers, and it is fairly widespread among both men and women college student leaders. Leadership and leadership style have also been explored specifically with respect to gender, and the following segment of this review reflects some insights from the literature regarding leadership and gender.

### **Leadership and Gender**

The role of women in leadership has become a topic of interest only since the late 1960s (Chemers, 1997). However, the questions posed today are not simply about whether women can lead (Northouse, 2010). Indeed, the ever-growing number of women in leadership positions within a cross section of professions in the public, private, and nonprofit sectors serves as evidence that women have increasingly assumed positions of leadership and demonstrated their effectiveness (Northouse, 2010). The more relevant inquiry for the purpose of this study encompasses an assessment of leadership styles in women. Further, the review includes a comparative evaluation of leadership effectiveness among women and men. Finally, findings from previous studies are shared to help with understanding the causes of what appears to be an

unrelenting—even if gradually improving—lag in the number of women leaders in society.

Some scholars assert that gender has no direct bearing on leadership (Dobbins & Platz, 1986; van Engen, van der Leeden, & Willemsen, 2001). Based on a meta-analytic review of 17 studies that examined leadership differences of men and women, Dobbins and Platz (1986) proposed that gender does not influence leader behavior and follower satisfaction. Dobbins and Platz (1986) found that gender played a role with respect to leader effectiveness only in studies conducted in laboratory settings. The researchers suggested that this finding might be because of the ambiguous nature of laboratory situations (Dobbins & Platz, 1986):

In field studies, raters have multiple opportunities to observe leader performance and can compare this performance with the performance of other organizational members. In laboratory settings, on the other hand, raters do not have these opportunities. (Dobbins & Platz, 1986, p. 125)

Dobbins and Platz (1986) concluded that additional research should cease to investigate leadership behavior based on gender differences and instead focus on how “sex stereotypes and implicit sex theories bias raters' evaluations of men and women leaders” (p. 125).

However, other researchers disagree, pointing to marked differences in leadership styles exhibited by women and also how women lead; these researchers have offered various reasons, such as biology (Bass, 1998; Helgesen, 1990; Koch, 2004; Kolb, 1999), societal roles and expectations (Eagly et al., 2000; Kent & Moss, 1994; Koch, 2004), context (Oakley, 2000; Rigg & Sparrow, 1994; Wicks & Bradshaw, 1999), and attributes (Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998) for these gender-associated dissimilarities.

Kolb (1999), in a quantitative study with 123 participants, examined the effects of gender roles on perceptions of leadership of leaders by their followers. Gender role is a measure that characterizes self-reported scores of conformist feminine and masculine attributes and behaviors (Bem, 1974). The study found that women leaders were given a much higher score on the femininity scale by their followers, and that according to the followers, leader emergence was

positively correlated with masculinity and not significantly associated with femininity (Kolb, 1999). The study also showed that significantly more of those who self-identified as masculine or androgynous were chosen as the preferred leader by followers; but that the follower's attitude toward leadership was a stronger determinant of leadership emergence than masculinity (Kolb, 1999). Kolb (1999) noted that "women may be in a double bind when it comes to exhibiting stereotypically masculine behaviors" because of the strong divergent feelings of followers, some of whom approve of this behavioral display while others disapprove (p. 317).

In another study with 115 participants, Kent and Moss (1994) examined the effects of gender and gender roles for self-perceptions and group perceptions of leader emergence. The findings showed only a marginally significant relationship for gender ( $F = 2.50$ ;  $df = 2, 105$ ;  $p = .087$ ), but a significant effect for gender roles ( $F = 3.12$ ;  $df = 6, 210$ ;  $p = .006$ ) (Kent & Moss, 1994). Additionally, Kent and Moss (1994) found a significant relationship between gender roles for both self-perceptions ( $F = 5.569$ ,  $df = 3, 106$ ,  $p = .001$ ) and group perceptions ( $F = 4.210$ ,  $df = 3, 106$ ,  $p = .007$ ). The study found no relationship between gender and self-perceptions of leader emergence ( $F = .061$ ,  $df = 1, 106$ , n.s.), but there was a significant relationship between gender and group perceptions of leader emergence ( $F = 4.264$ ,  $df = 1, 106$ ,  $p = .041$ ). In conclusion, Kent and Moss (1999) called attention to the differentiation between gender and gender roles for assessment of leadership emergence for both self-perceptions and group perceptions:

In summary, the results of this study suggest that androgynous individuals and women may be more likely than they were in the past to emerge as leaders in business school settings, where becoming a leader is fairly important. Although we must be cautious in generalizing our results to present business people, we feel that these changes in a college setting mean that future business people may be more accepting of female and androgynous leaders than their counterparts have been in the past. This acceptance could affect the probabilities of emergent leadership for future female and androgynous business people. (Kent & Moss, 1994, p. 1344)



Additional research highlights the importance of creating opportunities for women to assume positions of leadership in today's workforce. A study of 60 business women—30 from the United States and 30 from the United Kingdom—focused on individuals in management positions in which they had supervisory and budgetary responsibilities (Aurora & Caliper, 2005). In addition, an equivalent sample of businessmen from the research entity's database was included in the study. The participants completed a detailed questionnaire that was followed with a demographic study and a comprehensive personality appraisal unique to the company and known as the Caliper Profile. Some of the female participants were then invited for one-on-one interviews for additional insights. Findings from this study point to similarities between women in positions of leadership in the United States and the United Kingdom (Aurora & Caliper, 2005). However, the results suggest that women possess strong leadership qualities that are augmented by other characteristics, such as sincerity, teamwork, collegiality, and a willingness to build consensus, which more commonly depicted in the female participants of the study than in their male counterparts. Finally, the study concluded that its results reinforce the type of leadership efficacy that is deemed highly desirable in the workforce of the twenty-first century, wherein women leaders can and should be given the opportunity to excel and assume positions of decisive leadership (Aurora & Caliper, 2005). With research supporting the idea that more women should be allowed into leadership positions, and that women do indeed demonstrate the competencies to succeed as leaders, it is appropriate to address the issues that are impeding this evolution.

**Impact of gender bias.** As noted, research underscores the significance of women in leadership roles, and women occupy more than half of management roles in the United States (Catalyst, 2009). However, in terms of opportunities for development, women lag significantly

behind men because they are less likely to be encouraged in the workplace, less inclined to be invited to network, and given less of a chance to receive formal training and professional development opportunities (Powell & Graves, 2003). Stereotypes exist with respect to gender that cast a shadow on actual behaviors and as such prevent women from achieving their leadership potential in comparison to their male counterparts in the “mixed-gender setting” of the contemporary workplace (Hollander & Yoder, 1980, p. 277). Although recruitment and training for women are emphasized at the entry level, the upper echelons of male-dominated management often lack a deliberate focus on creating opportunities for women and the likelihood of discrimination that results in holding back female employees from reaching their leadership potential remains high (Schein & et al., 1989).

In addition, there are not enough role models for women to emulate in the workplace. Ely, Ibarra, and Kolb (2011) highlighted that the scarcity of women in senior leadership roles is partly due to the perception that being female is a “liability” (p. 477). For example, an earlier study with 30 participants compared the experiences of female associates at several law firms (Ely, 1994). The findings revealed that women at male-dominated firms had significantly limited access to leadership positions—in this case, to become a partner (Ely, 1994). The younger women at these firms interpreted the dearth of women partners to be a consequence of their gender and the liability of being a woman in the legal profession (Ely, 1994). Junior women at the male-dominated firms did not relate to their senior colleagues because “women partners not only failed to be the kind of women on whom junior women could rely for support but failed as well to be the kind of partner whose authority junior women could respect” (Ely, 1994, p. 228). In this study, women in senior positions at male-dominated law firms viewed their success in comparison to their junior colleagues as a validation of their more hierarchical attitudes whereby

“group identification” was deemed to be a weakness and “intragroup competition” a discouraging experience (Ely, 1994, p. 229).

More recently, Ely, Ibarra, and Kolb (2011) accentuated peer support as a central tenant for empowering women to aspire to positions of leadership and excel in these roles. An overview of women-centered leadership-development activities in a homogeneous setting point to the effectiveness of such activities because they give women a chance to experiment, discover, learn, and practice leadership in a safe environment where they are the majority. Ely et al. (2011) stated that even though women are again and again being recognized for their performance and competencies on a “range of leadership dimensions,” there are biases, culturally and organizationally, that hamper competent women from maximizing their leadership promise (p. 481). For example, because there are fewer women in positions of seniority, when women do rise in the organizational hierarchy, they are scrutinized more thoroughly than their male colleagues. This additional focus causes women to become more timid, and they try to avert risks by becoming more micro-managerial, which in turn reduces their leadership efficacy (Ely et al., 2011). Another bias manifests itself in the form of what is deemed desired behavior in the workplace. Some women, in the interest of being seen as competent, take on more masculine qualities, while other women strive to strike the perfect balance between competence and likeability (Ely et al., 2011). Both situations require a tremendous amount of energy toward self-image, which means less energy is being directed toward the actual task of leading. Although this behavior can be a problem for both men and women, amplified “visibility and identity contradictions may be a particular trigger for women leaders” (Ely et al., 2011, p. 479).

***A comparative analysis of leadership in men and women.*** Whether in politics, business, education, or any other industry, women are often working alongside their male peers in mixed-

gender environments. One early study conducted with 300 male, mid-level managers utilized three variations of a form with 92 descriptive terms to rate the responses of the participants about (a) men, (b) women, and (c) effective middle managers (Bowman, Worthy, & Greyser, 1965; Schein, 1973). The results pointed to a considerable belief that more men display managerial characteristics ( $r = .62$ ) than women ( $r = .06$ ) and underscore the societal perception still prevalent today that management is a trait more attributed to men than women. Schein (1973) concluded that there were indeed “sex role stereotypes and perceptions of requisite management characteristics” that resulted in a much smaller number of women in leadership roles (p. 99). In addition, this study by Schein (1973) showed that these perceptions of a higher linkage between men and managerial attributes have resulted in more men than women being offered opportunities for advancement and promotion, which begs the question of whether these attitudes and the stereotyping of women play a role in women being pigeonholed in the workplace or in society as a whole.

Eagly and Johnson (1990) conducted a quantitative meta-analysis of previous studies to investigate differences in leadership styles between men and women by doing a computer search of studies that used *leadership style*, *leader*, and *leadership*, in addition to *gender*, *sex differences*, and *women* as keywords. Their meta-analysis points to several findings. First, the authors insisted that any previous assertions of equality among women and men for reaching positions of leadership required reconsideration. However, they also disputed the notion that there are gender-specific leadership styles intrinsic to women. The findings of the Eagly and Johnson (1990) meta-analysis point to an unquestionable pattern of gender-stereotypic attitudes toward leadership whereby there is a palpable preference by both men and women for those behaviors more commonly attributed to male stereotypes in positions of management. Another

finding was that female supervisors ranked higher than their male counterparts for being considerate of their team members. Eagly and Johnson (1990) concluded that the study of leadership and a comparison between men and women on this topic is a complex task. In addition, the author discussed how the design of a study, including the study's setting, yields impact on outcomes, and that "experimental settings" produce more "gender-stereotypic" findings in the study of leadership styles (Eagly & Johnson, 1990, p. 249). Through this meta-analysis, it was shown that in general women adopt a more democratic or participative style of leadership, whereas men are more autocratic and directive in their approach (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Task orientation was found to be a function of gender congruence:

Male leaders tended to be more task oriented than female leaders to the extent that a leadership role was more congenial to men; female leaders tended to be more task oriented than male leaders to the extent that a leadership role was more congenial to women. Furthermore, women tended to be more task oriented than men in leadership roles that are feminine in the sense that our respondents judged they require considerable interpersonal ability (Eagly & Johnson, 1990, p. 248).

Although there is divergence in the literature regarding whether women are inherently different in their practice of, and approach to, leadership, there is evidence that gender does serve as a limiting factor when it comes to opportunities for women to assume leadership in the workplace. The next segment includes a review of the literature for the effect of age, another diversity attribute, on leadership.

***Leadership style and gender.*** The notion that women are competent leaders has been making its way from scholarly research into mainstream media, and subsequently public-opinion discussions, in recent decades (Eagly & Carli, 2003). One reason that women's leadership and specifically, leadership style, is garnering so much attention is that women in high-powered leadership positions still represent an uncommon phenomenon (Miller, Taylor, & Buck, 1991).

In a meta-analysis of 45 studies, Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt et al. (2003) evaluated men and

women in the context of transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership styles and found that women's styles appear to be more in line with transformational leadership than men's styles. While they found the differences to be minor, the findings are significant because they offer a positive and definitive connection between women and leadership effectiveness.

There are interesting findings in the literature with respect to transformational leadership among men and women in educational settings. According to Omar and Davidson (2001), transformational leadership is linked with shared leadership and deemed an indicator of ideal leadership effectiveness versus transactional leadership. In a study that examined gender differences in terms of leadership effectiveness by presidents of colleges and universities, Antonaros (2010) found a slight correlation between gender and "perceived leadership effectiveness," and that female presidents were deemed somewhat more effective by their staff than their male counterparts (p. 142). A more thorough review of the results points to a discrepancy among male and female subordinates in terms of their perceptions of transactional and transformational leadership. Male subordinates ranked male presidents to be more transactional than female presidents and considered that to be a more effective leadership style, whereas female subordinates perceived female presidents as more transformational in comparison to male presidents and considered *that* to be a more effective style (Antonaros, 2010). This study points to how the leader-follower gender composition plays a role in the view and assessment of leadership.

Rosen (1993) conducted a quantitative study with survey responses from 96 school superintendents (29 male and 67 female) from the states of New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut. Rosen (1993) found that female superintendents demonstrated a superior tendency to nurture relationships, empower their team members, and be cognizant of their interactions

with others. The study also revealed that women do lead differently from men. The findings showed that the women in the study were significantly more transformational than the male respondents, although in contrast to the men, the women did not necessarily prefer any of the specific characteristics of transformational leadership (Rosen, 1993). The findings also showed that both men and women displayed transformational and transactional styles of leadership. Women exhibited more of the *contingent reward* (involves leader-follower interaction to aid with successful completion of agreed-upon goals) element of transactional leadership compared to the men, whereas the men, in contrast, preferred *management by exception* (maintaining the status quo unless something goes awry in which case the leader intervenes to right the situation) element of transactional leadership (Rosen, 1993). According to Rosen (1993), these incompatible findings suggest that the use of either transformational leadership or transactional leadership depends on what the situation might call for.

Another study by Floit (1997) examined the self-reported *MLQ* scores of 193 (116 male and 77 female) superintendents in the state of Illinois. The results showed that female superintendents scored significantly higher than the men in areas of visioning, culture-building, and empowerment of others. The women's scores were higher than the men in risk-taking and mentoring, but the difference was not statistically significant. Floit (1997) concluded at that time that more women superintendents practice transformational leadership than men.

The literature shows that transformational leadership is favored more by women than men in the educational sphere. However, both men and women may exhibit either the transactional style or the transformational style of leadership because the use of either one is certainly appropriate depending on the situation.

In a more recent qualitative study, the researchers sought to discern the leadership traits and abilities of women who have prompted positive change in their communities while also exploring best practices for cultivating leadership in women to heighten their role in effecting societal change (Folta, Seguin, Ackerman, & Nelson, 2012). Folta et al. (2012) attained a sizeable sample in terms of ethnicity, age, and geographic diversity and conducted “informant interviews” with 16 women in positions of leadership. Although the researchers had intended to identify participants for their study who had achieved “positive change” in their communities through a broad set of activities, they found that ultimately the majority of the participants had indeed shaped positive change through creating not-for-profit organizations (p. 5). The researchers used a grounded-theory approach, thus permitting emergent topics in the interview process. The first question was intended to allow each participant to tell her story and path to her current position of leadership. The ensuing questions centered on participant thoughts about leadership qualities and importance of training and mentors. The researchers determined that their findings were congruent with past studies and exhibited the five aspects of a transformational leadership model: *idealized influence (attribute)*, *idealized influence (behavior)*, *inspirational motivation*, *intellectual stimulation*, and *individualized consideration* (Bass & Riggio, 2006). They also concluded that training and nurturing women leaders starts with identifying the best strategies to reach and engage them. Finally, they acknowledged limitations for generalizability of their findings and addressed their efforts to minimize the bias in their work because the study was conducted by female researchers about female leaders (Folta et al., 2012).

Perhaps, studies that examine women’s leadership in the private sector best accentuate what Eagly and Carli (2003) described as disadvantages that are driven by “prejudice and discrimination” toward female leaders (p. 818). Biases that stem from stereotypes of a group of



people and then are applied to every member of that group create problems when actual behavior by a person from that group does not conform to the typecast (von Hippel, Sekaquaptewa, & Vargas, 1995). This incongruence is manifested in the societal expectations of women and female behavior, with a common understanding of leadership that results in prejudices against women in leadership roles (Burgess & Borgida, 1999; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman, 2001).

In another early study by Church and Waclawski (1999), differences in leadership style and their effect on leadership management among 391 senior-level managers in a global company were investigated. Respondents consisted of managers, with 358 direct supervisors and 266 indirect supervisors, and 1,701 of their subordinates. Individuals with transformational leadership behaviors were favored more highly by both their subordinates and their supervisors. This research pointed to a higher number of men exhibiting the transformational leadership style than women, as evidenced by an effect size of .20 (Church & Waclawski, 1999).

The influence of gender on the relationship between leaders with transformational leadership styles and their subordinates in the banking, accounting, and manufacturing industries was examined in another study by Ayman, Korabik, and Morris (2009). The focus of the study was to investigate the effectiveness of male and female leaders according to their subordinates, who were also identified by gender. The findings showed that female leaders who self-reported a transformational leadership style were deemed only as slightly effective by their female subordinates. However, male subordinates considered female leaders who self-reported a transformational leadership style as highly ineffective leaders. Conversely, female leaders with lower levels of transformational leadership style were believed to be highly effective by their male subordinates.

According to this review of the literature, women are demonstrating more transformational leadership behaviors in the educational and nonprofit settings than in the corporate environment. Although the literature is inconclusive in terms of the impact of the surroundings, there is a possibility that a less affable ethos exists within the for-profit sector in which (a) men are regarded as more competent leaders, and (b) women are not empowered to exercise transformational leadership. This suggestion is congruent with other writings on the topic that suggest the effectiveness of women is stifled in those environments in which a more masculine model of leadership is accepted as the norm for those in the leader seat (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995). Because the traditional view of leadership and leadership styles has utilized the male approach as the base criterion whereby men are considered by their subordinates to be more effective leaders, women are considered to be so only if they espouse the masculine traits in order to assimilate into the established expectations of leadership. Women corporate leaders are therefore left with having to play a balancing act: ascribing to the conventional male-leader behaviors such as being domineering, ambitious, and bold, while still displaying feminine characteristics such as being gentle, compassionate, and supportive. Diverting from either position leaves them at risk of criticism by their peers and subordinates. whereas their male colleagues are not subjected to the same evaluations.

### **Summary of Literature Review and Gap in Research**

The study of leadership is broad and includes many different facets such as traits, skills, and styles. Traditional views have held that leadership is an innate quality, yet the postindustrial position holds that leadership can be learned (Bass, 1985; Burns, 2010; Northouse, 2010). Likewise, there are many differing views on the preferred approach to leadership, and each dimension seemingly has its own strengths and weaknesses (Mumford et al., 2000; Rost, 1993;

Stogdill, 1974). Gender, education, age, experience, and developmental opportunities are among the many factors influencing leadership that have been investigated (Eagly, 2007; Edelman et al., 2004b; Hickman, 2010; Woodard et al., 2000).

In spite of the divergent viewpoints, it is agreed throughout the various literature used for this review that effective leadership is an important consideration for flourishing communities and a well-functioning workforce in the twenty-first century. Therefore, providing youth with opportunities to experiment with programs, activities, and interactions that help to develop their leadership potential before entering adulthood is beneficial to them and society as a whole.

As an important component of the postindustrial phenomenon that draws attention to leader-follower interactions, style continues to be a major focus in the study of leadership. With vision, empowerment, trust, collaboration, and consideration at its epicenter, this association is considered a fundamental view of an ideal leader. Leadership style is also discussed in the context of gender. The differences in styles and behaviors of women leaders in comparison to their male counterparts comprise a significant subset in the study of leadership.

There are many studies that examine youth development, leadership style, and sometimes both. Many of the scholars and practitioners of leadership argue that participation in youth development programs is positively related to becoming an effective leader in later years. However, not enough research has been done to explore the specific details of this relationship. The current study is driven by the gap in the literature with respect to the relationship between participation in youth development during childhood and adolescence and leadership style in adulthood, with a focus on college students.

### CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides an overview of the methodology used for this study, including discussion of the research design and approach, research questions, participants and sites, survey instrument, measures, procedure, and data analysis. As noted previously in Chapter 1, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and the self-reported leadership styles of undergraduate college student leaders, with a focus on gender differences.

This quantitative study utilized a nonexperimental, survey approach and included descriptive, predictive, correlational, and difference analyses. The central research question for this study asked, “What is the relationship between participation in YLDPs during childhood and adolescence and the self-reported leadership styles of undergraduate college student leaders, with a focus on gender differences?”

To accomplish the stated purpose of this study, the following research questions and subquestions were addressed:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents’ self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) and their gender?
  - (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in respondents’ self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their participation or nonparticipation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during their childhood and adolescence?

- (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their gender as male, female, or transgender?
  - (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction of participation/nonparticipation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and gender in regard to respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?
2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings and the duration of their participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during their childhood and adolescence, their gender, and the interaction between duration of participation and gender?
- (a) Is there a statistically significant interaction between the duration of respondents' participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and their gender in regard to the respondents' self-reported (*Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?
  - (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their being male, female, or transgender?
  - (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction between the duration of participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and gender in regard to the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?

3. Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on the type of youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) they participated in during their childhood and adolescence, their gender, and the interaction between type of program and gender?
  - (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on the type of YLDPs they participated in during their childhood and adolescence?
  - (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their being male, female, or transgender?
  - (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction between type of youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) and gender in regard to the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?
4. Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their college leadership position/title, their gender, and the interaction between position/title and gender?
  - (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their college leadership position/title?

- (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their being male, female, or transgender?
- (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction between college leadership position/title and gender in regard to the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?

### **Research Design and Rationale**

For this study, a quantitative, nonexperimental survey research design was used. According to Gliner, Morgan, and Leech (2009), there is no treatment or intervention in nonexperimental research approaches. The independent variables in this study were (a) participation in Youth Leadership Development Programs (YLDPs): dichotomous—either participated in YLDPs or not; (b) duration of participation in YLDPs: ordinal, with 1 year through 9 years as choices; (c) type of YLDPs: categorical, with five initial options to choose from and other: a descriptive, text-entry option; (d) gender: categorical—female, male, or transgender; and (e) college leadership position/title: categorical, with six initial options to choose from and other: a descriptive, text-entry option. The investigator did not have any control over any of the independent variables, and random assignment was not used in this study. In addition, none of the independent variables were active, and duration of participation in YLDP, type of YLDP, gender, and college leadership position/title were considered attribute-independent variables. This nonexperimental study therefore utilized both associational and comparative approaches. Using the results from the study, the researcher could draw inferences to the broader population (Creswell, 2014). However, it is important to note that causation cannot be determined in this type of research (Gliner et al., 2009).

A postpositivist philosophical worldview served as the paradigm for this study. The use of postpositivism is applicable in a study of the actions and behaviors of humans in which one cannot assign absolute truth of knowledge (Phillips & Barbules, 2000). Survey design in educational research is an appropriate research method in the postpositivist worldview because it allows for using an instrument to collect data as a numeric measure that is then analyzed to develop knowledge (Phillips & Barbules, 2000). Fowler (2009) stated that survey research is pertinent in order to offer a quantitative explanation of the opinions, trends, and attitudes of a population by studying a sample of that population. Use of surveys is beneficial because it allows for the participants to put forth their own assessment and responses as opposed to an observer's interpretation (Pring, 2004). According to Pring (2004), surveys are also effective in terms of time and cost for data collection. However, surveys are not immune from validity concerns because the understanding of a question by each individual and individual responses are shaped by the beliefs and attitudes of each person, which in turn influences the data and results (Leeuw, Hox, & Dillman, 2008). This concern must be accounted for in the instrument design; consequently, a pilot study was conducted to help with necessary steps toward overall validity of the study.

### **Pilot Study**

Before the study was conducted at each of the selected sites, the instrument was tested using a pilot study with several constituents, including (a) doctoral students in a Higher Education Leadership program, (b) students at a community college, and (c) participants in a K-through-12 principal licensure program. A total of 34 individuals completed the pilot study. Feedback from these participants helped with several modifications that were made in the instrument items:



- a. First, the term *YLDPs* was clarified, both in the study email, and then again in Questions 7 and 8 of the instrument, whereby the responses of participants to questions about their participation in school and/or extracurricular activities and programs was used to elucidate YLDPs.
- b. Second, Question 16, which was a direct insert of the 45 items from the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire MLQ* (Form 5X, generally referred to hereafter simply as *MLQ*) instrument, was difficult for the respondents to track. Based on feedback, the questions were broken down on the survey such that the Likert scale appeared throughout this section to remind the respondents of their choices.
- c. Third, Questions 10, 12, and 13 were revised to explain that they were asking respondents for additional information regarding the organization they chose for their response to Question 9, which asked about the type of YLDP they had participated in between the ages of 10 and 18 that was most meaningful to them.

### **Sample and Site**

The target population for this study was undergraduate student leaders from 18 years to 23 years of age at three, 4-year, research universities in the United States. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (2014) has designated all of these institutions as research universities with either “very high research activity” or “high research activity.” A convenience (nonprobability) sampling strategy was used to identify the participants for this study. “Economy and convenience” are the benefits of using a nonprobability sample, and “most published studies in the social sciences and education use nonprobability sampling” (Gliner et al., 2009, p. 119). Professional connections held by the researcher with senior administrators at these institutions provided the opening for an introduction to the appropriate individuals to

facilitate the study (see Appendix A for follow-up information for contacts at participating institutions).

Information about the accessible population was provided through contact with the Office of Student Affairs at each participating site, which in turn coordinates with the offices of student leadership, residence halls, and athletics to gather the lists of potential participants who meet the criteria for the study at these institutions. Initially, five institutions were contacted and agreed to participate. However, two institutions withdrew because of circumstances beyond the control of the site study administrator at each of those institutions. The undergraduate student leaders comprised those serving in elected and appointed leadership positions within student government; those appointed or elected to leadership roles in student clubs and organizations, including social fraternities and sororities; those in student leadership positions in residence halls; and those on varsity (collegiate athletic) teams. Table 3.1 illustrates the student numbers by research site.

Table 3.1  
Student Numbers by Research Site

Institution	Total Students	Total Female Students	Total Male Students	Total Undergraduate Students	Total Female Undergraduate Students	Total Male Undergraduate Students
1	27,566	14,102	13,464	24,903	24,903	11,953
2	32,110	14,068	18,042	24,635	24,635	13,057
3	27,812	15,088	12,724	24,618	24,618	11,571

The sites under inquiry are as follows:

- Institution 1 is a public, land-grant, 4-year research university in a midsize city in the Mountain West region of the United States. At the time of the study, the student population was about 30,700, of which about 23,800 were undergraduate students. Women and men comprised nearly 55 percent and 45 percent, respectively, of the

student population. There were 1,540 full-time faculty members in eight colleges and 55 academic departments. The university offers baccalaureate degrees in 65 fields of study, master's degrees in 55 disciplines, doctoral degrees in 40 fields, and a professional degree in veterinary medicine. The university's research expenditures of \$340 million rank it second in the United States for public institutions that do not have a medical school. The institution has an annual election process for those who serve in student government, with additional leadership positions that are appointed by the elected members. There are more than 400 clubs and organizations at this university. Approximately 2,100 undergraduate student leaders were targeted for the study at this institution.

- Institution 2 is a public, flagship, 4-year research university in an urban area in the Mountain West region of the United States. The student population at the time of the study was about 32,400, of which about 24,850 were undergraduate students. Men comprised 56 percent, and women comprised 44 percent of the student population at this institution. There were 2,848 full-time faculty members in 16 colleges and 96 academic departments. The university offers baccalaureate degrees in 72 majors and 95 fields of study at the graduate level that include master's degrees, doctoral degrees, and professional degrees in medicine, dentistry, and law. The university's research expenditures of \$411 million ranked it in the top 75 of public institutions in the United States. The institution has an annual election process for those who serve in student government, with additional leadership positions that are appointed by the elected members. There are about 200 clubs and organizations at this institution.

Approximately 1,400 undergraduate student leaders were included in the study at this institution.

- Institution 3 is a public, land-grant, 4-year research university in a midsize city in the Mountain West region of the United States. At the time of the study, the student population was about 28,800, of whom about 24,440 were undergraduate students. Women comprised 54 percent and men comprised 46 percent of the institution's student population. There were about 830 full-time faculty members in eight colleges and 49 academic departments. The university offers baccalaureate degrees in 176 fields of study, master's degrees in 97 disciplines, and doctoral degrees in 38 fields. The university's research expenditures of \$220 million in 2014 were the highest ever recorded in its history. The institution has an annual election process for those who serve in student government, with additional leadership positions that are appointed by the elected members. There are about 220 clubs and organizations at this university. Approximately 1,500 undergraduate student leaders were targeted for the study at this institution.

Data collection began after approval was received from the Institutional Review Board at Colorado State University and, through that office, the office of Institutional Review Board at each of the participating universities. The researcher then coordinated with contacts at each of the three institutions to finalize the population for the study at their respective university. The undergraduate student leaders then received an email communication from their respective institution inviting them to participate in the study (see Appendix C). The email outlined the purpose of the study, offered assurances for the privacy and safeguarding of their responses, and included a link to the survey. The researcher tracked responses, and each institution sent two

follow-up emails to remind the undergraduate student leaders to complete the survey (see Appendix D). To increase chances of participation, the researcher included several incentives with the survey to encourage participants to complete the survey. These items are noted in the introduction to the survey (see Appendix B).

### **Measures and Instrumentation**

The instrument was developed in Qualtrics software with a consent form and four distinct sections. Appendix B offers more information about the instrument that was used for the current study.

The first section of the survey was used to collect general demographic data about the respondents. That included their gender, age, and the name of the institution they were attending.

In section two of the survey, respondents were asked about their participation in YLDPs during their childhood and adolescence. Because length of time of participation in YLDPs would have bearing on the study outcomes (Beck, 1999; Edelman et al., 2004b; Morrissey & Werner-Wilson, 2005), the respondents were asked to respond to Question 5 regarding overall length of participation in youth leadership-development activities. Questions 6 and 7 gathered information about the respondents' youth leadership development experiences. Question 6 first asks for organization type. Because the respondents might have been involved in numerous organizations during their childhood and adolescence, they also were asked to identify the organization type that was most meaningful to them (e.g., scouts, community youth organization, faith-based organization, sports/athletics); they used the fill-in-the-blank space to write in the organization/activity name. Question 7 asked about the length of time in terms of participation years for the organization participants chose in Question 6. In this section, the respondents were

also asked to answer questions about program inputs (Question 8) and program outcomes (Question 9).

Several scholars have pointed to the significance of inputs to influence leadership development in youth, and they also have drawn attention to the ideal outcomes yielded in these strengths-based models of youth development organizations (Beck, 1999; R.M. Lerner, Almerigi, et al., 2005; Quinn, 1999). Program inputs that were deemed important include the following: (a) safe and nurturing environments, (b) caring and supportive adults, (c) positive relationship with peers, (d) involvement in community service, (e) emphasis on academics, (f) prevention of risky behaviors, (g) empowerment to make decisions, and (h) respect for others (Beck, 1999; Lerner, et al., 2005; Quinn, 1999). Ideal program outputs include (a) learning time-management skills, (b) having the ability to resolve conflict, (c) gaining confidence and respect for self, (d) being successful in school, (e) having positive relationships with family and friends, (f) learning to communicate clearly, (g) being sensitive to others, (h) having the ability to make decisions, and (i) choosing a career path (Beck, 1999; Lerner, et al., 2005; Quinn, 1999).

The third section of the instrument was used to collect information about the respondents' current leadership involvement, including the type of organization and their respective position/title. With respect to collegiate leadership, it is possible that the respondents were involved in more than one collegiate organization or activity, and in more than one leadership capacity. Therefore, as with youth leadership-development experiences, the respondents were asked to note the type of organization/activity they were involved with currently that was most meaningful for them (e.g., varsity/intramural athletics, student/club organizations, student government, social fraternity/sorority), and to use the fill-in-blank space to write in the organization/activity name and their respective current leadership position/title.

Finally, the fourth and last section of the instrument measured for the nine items that comprise transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive-avoidant leadership using the *MLQ*, 5X/Short, a leadership scale developed by Avolio et al. (1999) discussed in Chapter 2 and referenced previously in this chapter. Briefly, the *MLQ* 5X is a 45-item survey that gathers information about the respondent's leadership style on a 1-to-5 Likert scale.

The researcher did the measurement and analyses in accordance with how the results had been analyzed and reported in the past for the *MLQ* 5X: by each of the subscales, and not as aggregate scores that pertained to each leadership style (i.e. transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant). The students were asked to complete the *MLQ* 5X with respect to their identified collegiate organization/activity (in the third section of the instrument) and the current leadership role they held in that organization.

### **Validity and Reliability**

Many instruments are used to measure for leadership and leadership style, some of which are noted in Chapter 2 of this study. Therefore, a decisive consideration in the choice of an instrument is its validity and reliability for the purpose of the study (Leedy & Ormond, 2013). The use of an existing instrument necessitated “establishing the validity of the scores in a survey” to determine “whether an instrument might be a good one to use in survey research” (Creswell, 2014, p. 160).

**Validity.** Measurement validity of the *MLQ* 5X is the first item of discussion. According to Gliner et al. (2009), measurement validity is the degree to “which the score measures what it was intended to measure” (2009, p. 102). As Avolio and Bass (2004) noted in the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* handbook, measurement validity of the *MLQ* 5X has been substantiated with numerous studies. Bogler (2001) found that the leadership styles of principles

being more transformational and less transactional is correlated with higher teacher satisfaction. More recently, both junior and senior nursing students in a study by Salem et al. (2012) perceived their leadership styles to be more transformational and less transactional. Findings from a study by Hahn (2004) also demonstrated high transformational leadership behavior by nursing leaders. Finally, Avolio and Bass (2004) stated that transformational leaders generate higher commitment in their followers. and findings from studies that use the *MLQ 5X* can be valid measures of effective leadership in real life settings.

Construct validity was another important consideration for using the *MLQ 5X* for this study. According to Creswell (2014), construct validity has emerged as the “overriding objective” while one is confirming the validity of the scores “to identify whether an instrument might be a good one to use in survey research” (p. 160). Form *MLQ 5X* was developed in response to criticisms of the *MLQ 5R* Survey instrument (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The criticisms concerned

. . . the high correlations among the transformational scales, as well as between the transformational leadership scales and contingent reward; the mixing of behaviors, impact and outcomes within a single leadership scale, and distinguishing between behaviorally-based charismatic leadership [referred to as idealized influence (behaviors) in this report], versus an attribution or impact on followers referred to as idealized influence (attributed) in this report, or elsewhere as “attributed charisma” (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; 1998; House, Spangler & Woyke, 1991). (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 49)

A concern (i.e., that the *MLQ 5X* was still measuring for charisma) was however raised, as discussed in Chapter 2, in the study by Mainella (2003). Structural validity of the instrument was also addressed by Mainella (2003), citing Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996), that most of the studies using the *MLQ* were with samples from the military and corporate sector. Mainella (2003) therefore suggested that “more studies using college student leaders might reveal a particular factor structure appropriate for this population” (p. 167). Other studies, however, support the construct validity of the *MLQ 5X*. For example, following extensive testing



of the *MLQ 5X*, Armstrong and Nuttawuth (2008) concluded that the new instrument “is successful in adequately capturing the full leadership factor constructs of transformational leadership theory” (p. 10).

**Reliability.** Studies using the *MLQ 5X* show that it is a highly reliable scale. An instrument with high reliability can generate analogous results when the circumstances and entity being measured remain consistent (Davidshofer & Murphy, 2005). For the *MLQ 5X*, reliability values for the total items and for each leadership factor ranged from .74 to .94 (Avolio & Bass, 2004). In a study with supervisors and their subordinates in the southern United States, the reliability of the transformational scale was .96 and the reliability for the transactional scale was .89 (Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999). Reliability values were  $\alpha = .95$  for transformational leadership and .83 for transactional leadership in a study with employees of a public security company (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). Another study with hospital employees showed reliability values for transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership of .98, .89, and .71, respectively (Garcia-Rivera & Mendoza-Martinez, 2012).

### **Variables**

Several independent and dependent variables were used for this study. Scores for the nine subscales of the *MLQ*, which is an interval variable with five levels of measurement, constitute the dependent variables. Table 3.2 outlines the assignment of independent variables for each research question.

Table 3.2  
Independent and Dependent Variables

Research Question	Independent Variable	Scale	Levels of Measurement
1a	Participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs)	Categorical	2
1b	Respondents' gender	Categorical	3
2a	Duration of participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs)	Scale	9
2b	Respondents' gender	Categorical	3
3a	Type of youth leadership development programs (YLDPs)	Categorical	6
3b	Respondents' gender	Categorical	3
4a	College leadership position/title	Categorical	7
4b	Respondents' gender	Categorical	3

### Data Collection Procedure

Undergraduate student leaders at three, 4-year, public, research universities in the United States were invited to participate in this study. These student leaders at the time of data collection served in elected and appointed leadership positions within student government; clubs and organizations, including social fraternities and sororities; and varsity (collegiate athletic) teams. An administrator who works with student leaders at each institution assisted with identifying the student leaders to participate in this study. Once the student leaders were identified at each institution, they received an electronic letter to invite their participation in the study (see Appendix C). The letter was cosigned by the appropriate official at each institution who facilitated the administration of the survey. The students were informed of the purpose of the study and given assurances for confidentiality of the data. The students were also told about several incentives for completing the survey. If they chose to be entered in a drawing for these

incentives, they entered their name and contact information using another link that kept their information independent of their responses to the study's survey. The researcher offered several incentives, including gift cards for Starbucks, gift cards for Macy's, gift cards for Amazon, and a \$250 gift card for Apple. A link to the survey appeared at the bottom of the invitation letter. The consent form appeared at the start of this link. The survey became accessible only once the student had consented to participate by typing their full name in the space provided. The survey took about twenty minutes to complete. At the end of the instrument, the students were asked whether they would like to participate in the prize drawing; if their response was affirmative, they were redirected to a separate survey link to provide their full name and contact information. Two reminders were sent to the students at each campus after the initial email (see Appendix D). The website random.org was used to select winners of seven prizes, one winner for the \$250 Apple gift card and two winners for each of the other gift cards: Starbucks, Amazon, and Macy's.

### **Data Analysis**

For this study, SPSS version 24 was used for entering and analyzing the data. The analysis of data occurred in two stages. The descriptive statistics were calculated from information that was in Section 1 and Section 2 of the survey. Percentages and frequencies were calculated using nominal variable data analysis. Statistical analysis was conducted at  $\alpha = .05$ . According to Gliner, Morgan, and Leech (2009), the *effect size* is the measure of the impact of an intervention on the result. There are different measures for determining the strength of the relationship and the degree of correlation ( $r$ ) between variables. In the fields of education and social sciences, the typical values assigned to effect size are small, medium, and large (Gliner et al., 2009). Another way to measure the strength of the relationship is numerical, with the value of

$r = .8$  to  $1.0$  as strong,  $r = .6$  to  $.8$  as moderately strong,  $r = .4$  to  $.6$  as moderate,  $r = .2$  to  $.4$  as weak, and an  $r$  value of less than  $.2$  as denoting no relationship (Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner, & Barrett, 2013). For this study, the effect size was measured as strong for an  $r$  value of  $.8$  and higher, moderately strong for an  $r$  value of  $0.6$  to  $0.8$ , moderate for an  $r$  value of  $.4$  to  $.6$ , and an  $r$  value of  $.2$  to  $.4$  as weak.

For this quantitative, nonexperimental study, four difference, correlation, and comparison research questions were developed. The research questions, variables, measurements, and statistical analysis that follow were used for this study.

### **Research Question 1**

1. Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) and their gender?
  - (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their participation or nonparticipation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during their childhood and adolescence?
  - (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their gender as male, female, or transgender?
  - (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction of participation/nonparticipation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and gender in regard to respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?

- Key variables: Participation in YLDPs and gender (independent), and *MLQ* ratings (dependent).
- Measurement: Questions 1 and 7 for the independent variables and Question 16 for the dependent variable.
- Statistics: A two-way factorial ANOVA was computed to examine the interaction of the two independent variables (participation in youth leadership development and gender) with the nine subscales of the *MLQ*.

### **Research Question 2**

2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings and the duration of their participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during their childhood and adolescence, their gender, and the interaction between duration of participation and gender?
  - (a) Is there a statistically significant interaction between the duration of respondents' participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and their gender in regard to the respondents' self-reported *(Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ))* ratings?
  - (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their being male, female, or transgender?
  - (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction between the duration of participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence

and gender in regard to the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?

- Key variables: Duration of participation in YLDPs and gender (independent), and MLQ ratings (dependent).
- Measurement: Questions 1 and 8 for the independent variables and Question 16 for the dependent variable.
- Statistics: A regression was computed to examine the interaction of the two independent variables (participation in YLDP and gender) with the nine subscales of the MLQ.

### **Research Question 3**

3. Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on the type of youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) they participated in during their childhood and adolescence, their gender, and the interaction between type of program and gender?
  - (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on the type of YLDPs they participated in during their childhood and adolescence?
  - (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their being male, female, or transgender?

- (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction between type of youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) and gender in regard to the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?
- Key variables: Type of youth leadership development programs and gender (independent), and *MLQ* ratings (dependent).
  - Measurement: Questions 1 and 9 for the independent variables and Question 16 for the dependent variable.
  - Statistics: A two-way factorial ANOVA was computed to examine the interaction of the two independent variables (participation in YLDP and gender) with the nine subscales of the *MLQ*.

#### **Research Question 4**

4. Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their college leadership position/title, their gender, and the interaction between position/title and gender?
- (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their college leadership position/title?
- (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their being male, female, or transgender?

(c) Is there a statistically significant interaction between college leadership position/title and gender in regard to the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?

- Key variables: College leadership position/title and gender (independent) and *MLQ* ratings (dependent).
- Measurement: Questions 1 and 15 for the independent variables and Question 16 for the dependent variable.
- Statistics: A two-way factorial ANOVA was computed to examine the interaction of the two independent variables (participation in youth leadership development and gender) with the nine subscales of the *MLQ*.

### **Limitations**

There were several limitations for this study. Among these limitations was the limited number of research sites selected for the study, which impedes the generalizability of the findings to public research universities in the United States (Morgan et al., 2013).

Sampling strategy was another limitation of the study because the respondents chose whether or not to participate in the study. The students were invited to participate in the study with a letter from someone in a position of leadership at their institution, so respondent inclusion may have been a factor affecting the sample in the study, and participation bias may be a concern (Creswell, 2014). This convenience sampling strategy whereby participants elected to take part by completing the survey may reflect an underrepresented sample in the resulting participants (Gliner et al., 2009). Finally, it is important to note that the study was based on self-reported data, and the measures did not include an assessment of the respondents by others such as peers or supervisors.



This study had both a low population external validity, due to it being a convenience sample and that the respondents are not representative of the target population; and a low ecological external validity, due to the nature of data collection from the respondents by a survey instrument (Gliner et al., 2009). With respect to internal validity of the study, while it was determined that the independent variables (participation in YLDP, duration of participation in YLDP, type of YLDP, College position/title, and gender) preceded the dependent variable (measure of MLQ scores) selection bias due to the convenience sampling strategy and extraneous environmental events may have been factors for consideration and therefore lowered the internal validity of the study.

## CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and the self-reported leadership styles of undergraduate college student leaders with a focus on gender differences. In this chapter, results of the study are presented, first in the descriptive form, and then for each of the four research questions.

Responses were reviewed within Qualtrics software and corrected as necessary to ensure that they aligned with the correct coding order for the analysis. Using SPSS 24 statistical software, all measures were reviewed and corrected as necessary to ensure that data was *nominal*, *ordinal*, or *scale*. A variable is considered nominal when its values represent categories with no intrinsic ranking; examples include zip code and age. A variable is considered ordinal when its values represent some intrinsic ranking, such as number of years of education, which might range from 0 to 16, for example. Finally, a variable is considered scale when its values reflect ordered categories with designated ranges, such as income in thousands of dollars (Morgan et al., 2013).

Names of the participating university sites were reviewed and corrected, first by word search, and then with a visual scan of the listings, to ensure that each institution was identified by its full name. Then all incomplete survey responses were removed, resulting in 309 complete surveys out of the original 363 participants.

For the second phase of data cleanup, nine sets of variables were created for responses to Question 16 (Q16) on the instrument. These variable sets denote the 45 items from the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, Form 5X-Short)*, referred to here generally as *MLQ*; these items were mapped with constructs for the nine subscales of the *MLQ* (Avolio &

Bass, 2004, p. 121). Table 4.1 provides a complete listing of the nine *MLQ* subscales and the abbreviations for each that are used for reporting the results in this chapter.

Table 4.1

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Subscales and Abbreviations

Facets of <i>MLQ</i>	<i>MLQ</i> Subscales	Abbreviation
Transformational Leadership	Idealized Influence (Attribute)	IA
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	IB
	Inspirational Motivation	IM
	Intellectual Stimulation	IS
	Individualized Consideration	IC
Transactional Leadership	Contingent Reward	CR
	Management by Exception (Active)	MBEA
Passive-Avoidant Leadership	Management by Exception (Passive)	MBEP
	Laissez-Faire	LF

For the third and final phase of data cleanup, all respondents who were not in the 18- to 23-year-old age group were removed, leaving 279 responses for the purpose of analysis for Research Question 1. Table 4.2 provides a summary of the descriptive data for the study respondents.

Table 4.2

*About the Participants*

Characteristics		n	%
Gender	Female	181	33.0
	Male	92	64.9
	Transgender	6	2.1
Youth Leadership Development Program (YLDP) Participant	Yes	266	95.7
	No	12	4.3
Major Field of Study	Business	47	16.8
	Social Sciences	19	6.8
	Humanities and Arts	10	3.6
	Education	13	4.7
	Liberal Arts	12	4.3
	Science	43	15.4
	Health	16	5.7
	Premed/Prelaw	14	5.0
	Undecided	2	0.7
	Other	103	36.9

Table 4.2, Continued

Sexual Orientation			
	Straight	242	86.7
	Gay	4	1.4
	Lesbian	5	1.8
	Bisexual	28	10.0
Ethnicity			
	African American	8	2.9
	Asian American	14	5.0
	Caucasian	225	80.6
	Hispanic	12	4.3
	Middle Eastern	1	0.4
	Pacific Islander	3	1.1
	Multiracial	16	5.7
Type of YLDP			
	Scouts	17	6.1
	Community Youth Organization	12	4.3
	Faith-Based Organization	22	7.9
	Sports/Athletics	104	37.3
	School-Based Program	98	35.1
	Other	11	3.9
Duration of Participation in YLDP (in years)			
	1	0	0.0
	2	10	3.6
	3	6	2.2
	4	17	6.1
	5	14	5.0
	6	40	14.3
	7	13	4.7
	8	57	20.4
	9	110	39.4
College Leadership Position/Title			
	President or Captain or Chair	69	24.7
	First Vice President or Executive Vice President	20	7.2
	Vice President or Co-Captain or Vice-Chair or Co-Chair	19	6.8
	Secretary	12	4.3
	Treasurer	14	5.0
	Residence Hall Leader	27	9.7
	Other	115	41.2

Then, based on responses to Question 7 on the instrument, responses for those who had not participated in YLDPs from the ages of 10 through 18 were removed, which left 266 responses for analyses for research questions 2, 3, and 4.

Table 4.3 provides a summary of student participation by research site. In Table 4.3, responses for Q16 on the instrument were converted from 5-to-1 range used in the original survey to the 4-to-0 range used on the *MLQ* rating scale and were recoded into the same variable

using the Transform function. Missing values were noted such that, for any data set with a missing value, only the questions with responses were used to calculate the mean.

Table 4.3  
Student Participation by Research Site

Institution	Number of Invited Participants	Number of Actual Participants	Number of Female Participants	Number of Male Participants	Number of Transgender Participants
1	651	154	104	44	6
2	382	29	15	14	0
3	475	96	62	34	0
Total	1,508	279	181	92	6

Figures 4.1 and 4.2 respectively provide at-a-glance information regarding (a) number of undergraduate students by gender for the research sites, and (b) number of participants by gender for the research sites. It is noteworthy that none of the participating sites had available information regarding number of transgender students attending their institution.

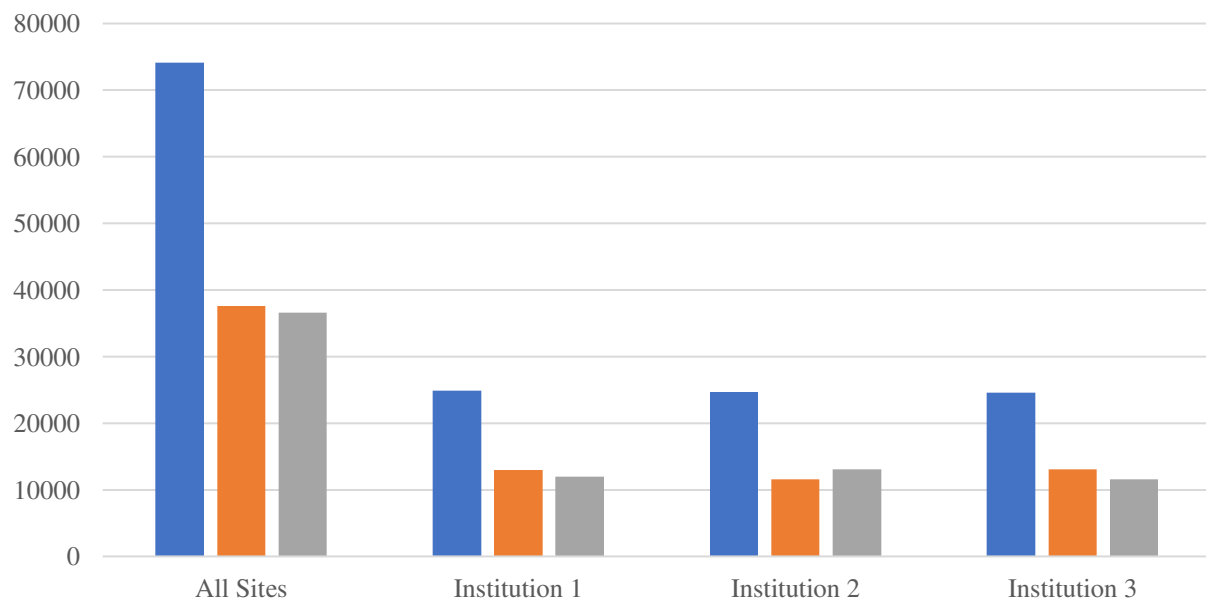


Figure 4.1. Student numbers by research site.

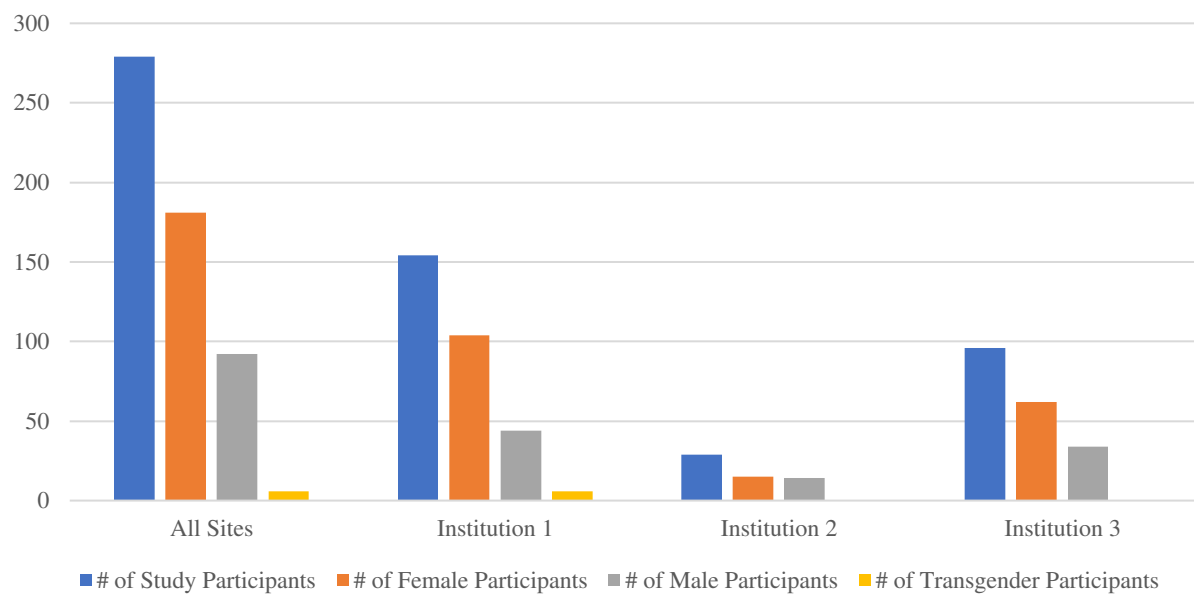


Figure 4.2. Participants by research site.

Structural validity of the instrument was examined using a Pearson correlation of the nine subscales of the *MLQ*. Furthermore, the results were examined in consideration of the three facets of the *MLQ*: Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, and Passive-Avoidant Leadership, which are defined by the subscales presented in Table 4.4. Overall, the structure of the instrument aligned with previous studies.

Table 4.4 shows that all five subscales of the Transformational Leadership facet had a positive and statistically significant intercorrelation, with large  $r$  values [ $r(265)$  = between 0.449 and 0.640,  $p < .01$ ] (J. Cohen, 1988). The two subscales of the Transactional Leadership facet had a positive and statistically significant intercorrelation, but between only a small to medium  $r$  value [ $r(265)$  = 0.233,  $p < .01$ ] (J. Cohen, 1988). Similarly to the Transactional Leadership facet, the two subscales of the Passive-Avoidant Leadership facet had a positive and statistically significant intercorrelation, with a large  $r$  value [ $r(265)$  = 0.679,  $p < .01$ ] (J. Cohen, 1988). Further examination revealed that the intercorrelations of contingent reward aligned more closely with the subscales of the Transformational Leadership facet than with MBEA (which is a

subscale within the Transactional Leadership facet), with a medium to large  $r$  value [ $r(265) =$  between 0.422 and 0.556,  $p < .01$ ]; its intercorrelations with the Transformational Leadership subscales were as expected, with low correlations or no relationships (J. Cohen, 1988).

Table 4.4  
Intercorrelations, Means, and Standard Deviations for MLQ Scores (N=265)

Variable	IA	IB	IM	IS	IC	CR	MBEA	MBEP	LF	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
IA		0.497**	0.640**	0.449**	0.512**	0.520**	0.163**	-0.012	-0.189**	3.09	0.61
IB			0.562**	0.470**	0.472**	0.454**	0.102	-0.020	-0.127*	3.05	0.63
IM				0.474**	0.514**	0.556**	0.040	-0.126*	-0.276**	3.30	0.59
IS					0.613**	0.422**	0.200**	-0.048	-0.145*	2.99	0.62
IC						0.471**	0.130*	-0.075	-0.106	3.15	0.60
CR							0.233**	0.133*	-0.059	3.03	0.64
MBEA								0.317**	0.206**	1.87	0.80
MBEP									0.679**	1.07	0.76
LF									—	0.79	0.68

*Note.* IA = Idealized Influence (Attribute); IB = Idealized Influence (Behavior); IM = Inspirational Motivation; IS = Intellectual Stimulation; IC = Individualized Consideration; CR = Contingent Reward; MBEA = Management by Exception (Active); MBEP = Management by Exception (Passive); LF = Laissez-Faire;

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$

The significant but moderate correlation among the IA, IB, IM, IS, and IC subscales within the transformational construct demonstrate the desired collinearity of these subscales for that construct. Similarly, the significant but moderate correlation between the MBEP and LF subscales within the passive-avoidant construct demonstrate the desired collinearity of these subscales for that construct. The significant but weak correlation between the CR and MBEA subscales within the transactional construct demonstrate a lower-than-desired collinearity of these subscales for that construct. In tandem with previous validity studies of the *MLQ* (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Congor & Kanungo, 1987; House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991), this study also points to the intercorrelation of the CR subscale with the transformational construct, not the transactional construct.

## Results From the Statistical Analyses

This section includes results from the statistical analyses for each of the four research questions. It also includes tables commensurate with each set of the results.

### Research Question 1

To address Research Question 1, “Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents’ self-reported Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) ratings based on their participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) and their gender?” and assess the potential relationship between respondents’ participation or nonparticipation in a YLDP, their *MLQ* scores, and their gender, a two-way ANOVA was conducted for each of the nine subscales of the *MLQ* for the following subset of questions:

- (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in respondents’ self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their participation or nonparticipation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during their childhood and adolescence?
- (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in respondents’ self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their gender as male, female, or transgender?
- (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction of participation/nonparticipation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and gender in regard to respondents’ self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?

Assumptions were checked, and they were not violated. Results of Levene’s test to check assumptions were not significant. In particular, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was



not violated and the assumption of the independence of observations was met. Between-group independent sample sizes were not equal for males ( $n = 92$ ), females ( $n = 180$ ), and transgenders ( $n = 6$ ). Between-group sample sizes also were not equal for YLDP participants ( $n = 266$ ), YLDP nonparticipants ( $n = 12$ ), and for gender ( $N = 278$ ). Table 4.5a shows the between-subject factors for YLDP and gender.

Table 4.5a  
Between-Subject Factors for YLDP and Gender

		Value Label	<i>N</i>
YLDP Participation	1	Yes	266
	2	No	12
Gender	1	Male	92
	2	Female	180
	3	Transgender	6

*Note.* YLDP = youth leadership development program

Table 4.5b shows the means and standard deviations for the nine subscale characteristics of the *MLQ* for YLDP participation/nonparticipation and for the three genders (male, female, and transgender).

Table 4.5b

Means and Standard Deviations for MLQ Scores As a Function of YLDP Participation and Gender

<i>MLQ</i> Subscale	YLDP Participation	Male			Female			Transgender			Total	
		<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
IA	Yes	87	3.14	0.56	173	3.10	0.63	6	3.00	0.71	3.09	0.61
	No	5	3.10	0.82	7	3.04	0.39				3.06	0.58
	Total	92	3.14	0.57	180	3.07	0.63	6	3.00	0.71	3.09	0.61
IB	Yes	87	3.00	0.58	173	3.06	0.65	6	3.17	0.41	3.05	0.63
	No	5	3.15	0.96	7	2.93	0.75				3.02	0.81
	Total	92	3.01	0.60	180	3.06	0.66	6	3.17	0.41	3.04	0.63
IM	Yes	87	3.26	0.57	173	3.32	0.61	6	3.29	0.40	3.30	0.59
	No	5	3.40	0.65	7	3.07	0.45				3.21	0.54
	Total	92	3.27	0.57	180	3.31	0.61	6	3.29	0.40	3.30	0.59
IS	Yes	87	2.95	0.55	173	2.99	0.64	6	3.38	0.85	2.99	0.62
	No	5	3.30	0.69	7	2.96	0.57				3.10	0.62
	Total	92	2.97	0.55	180	2.99	0.64	6	3.38	0.85	2.99	0.62
IC	Yes	87	3.05	0.59	173	3.20	0.61	6	3.21	0.58	3.15	0.60
	No	5	3.15	0.78	7	2.79	0.78				2.94	0.77
	Total	92	3.06	0.60	180	3.18	0.62	6	3.21	0.58	3.14	0.61
CR	Yes	87	2.95	0.65	174	3.07	0.63	6	2.96	0.64	3.03	0.64
	No	5	3.05	0.33	7	2.52	1.04				2.74	0.84
	Total	92	2.96	0.64	181	3.05	0.66	6	2.96	0.64	3.02	0.65
MBEA	Yes	87	2.00	0.71	173	1.80	0.84	6	1.96	0.80	1.87	0.80
	No	5	2.30	0.78	7	1.93	0.67				2.08	0.71
	Total	92	2.02	0.71	180	1.80	0.83	6	1.96	0.80	1.88	0.80
MBEP	Yes	87	1.19	0.74	172	1.01	0.76	6	1.00	0.77	1.07	0.76
	No	5	1.45	0.48	7	0.79	0.37				1.06	0.52
	Total	92	1.21	0.73	179	1.00	0.75	6	1.04	0.77	1.07	0.75
LF	Yes	87	0.80	0.69	173	0.79	0.68	6	0.67	0.41	0.79	0.68
	No	5	0.45	0.54	7	0.68	0.37	-	-	-	0.58	0.44
	Total	92	0.78	0.69	180	0.78	0.67	6	0.67	0.41	0.78	0.67

*Note.* *MLQ* = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire; YLDP = Youth leadership development program; IA = Idealized Influence (Attribute); IB = Idealized Influence (Behavior); IM = Inspirational Motivation; IS = Intellectual Stimulation; IC = Individualized Consideration; CR = Contingent Reward; MBEA = Management by Exception (Active); MBEP = Management by Exception (Passive); LF = Laissez-Faire

Table 4.5c shows the results of the 9 two-way ANOVAs that were conducted to find the main effect of YLDP participation, the main effect of gender, and the interaction of YLDP participation and gender on each of the nine subscales of the *MLQ*.

Table 4.5c

Analysis of Variance for MLQ Scores As a Function of YLDP Participation and Gender

<i>MLQ</i> Subscale	Variable and Source	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>n</i> <sup>2</sup>
IA	YLDP	1	0.02	0.05	.833	0.000
	Gender	2	0.06	0.15	.860	0.001
	YLDP $\times$ Gender	1	0.00	0.00	.995	0.000
	Error	273	0.37	-	-	-
IB	YLDP	1	0.00	0.00	.966	0.000
	Gender	2	0.09	0.22	.804	0.002
	YLDP $\times$ Gender	1	0.23	0.57	.453	0.002
	Error	273	0.41	-	-	-
IM	YLDP	1	0.03	0.10	.758	0.000
	Gender	2	0.10	0.28	.753	0.002
	YLDP $\times$ Gender	1	0.42	1.19	.276	0.004
	Error	273	0.35	-	-	-
IS	YLDP	1	0.29	0.75	.386	0.003
	Gender	2	0.60	1.59	.205	0.012
	YLDP $\times$ Gender	1	0.39	1.04	.310	0.004
	Error	273	0.38	-	-	-
IC	YLDP	1	0.27	0.73	.393	0.003
	Gender	2	0.09	0.24	.787	0.002
	YLDP $\times$ Gender	1	0.72	1.94	.165	0.007
	Error	273	0.37	-	-	-
CR	YLDP	1	0.55	1.32	.252	0.005
	Gender	2	0.24	0.58	.559	0.004
	YLDP $\times$ Gender	1	1.14	2.72	.101	0.010
	Error	274	0.42	-	-	-
MBEA	YLDP	1	0.52	0.82	.367	0.003
	Gender	2	0.47	0.74	.477	0.005
	YLDP $\times$ Gender	1	0.08	0.13	.723	0.000
	Error	273	0.63	-	-	-
MBEP	YLDP	1	0.00	0.01	.941	0.000
	Gender	2	1.00	1.81	.166	0.013
	YLDP $\times$ Gender	1	0.65	1.16	.282	0.004
	Error	272	0.56	-	-	-
LF	YLDP	1	0.57	1.30	.254	0.005
	Gender	2	0.11	0.25	.778	0.002
	YLDP $\times$ Gender	1	0.16	0.36	.547	0.001
	Error	273	0.45	-	-	-

*Note.* *MLQ* = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire; *df* = Degrees of freedom; YLDP = Youth leadership development program; IA = Idealized Influence (Attribute); IB = Idealized Influence (Behavior); IM = Inspirational Motivation; IS = Intellectual Stimulation; IC = Individualized Consideration; CR = Contingent Reward; MBEA = Management by Exception (Active); MBEP = Management by Exception (Passive); LF = Laissez-Faire

As reflected in Table 4.5c, for the IA subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP participation for the IA characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 273) = 0.05, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLPD participation was 0.000, which is negligible.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender for the IA characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 273) = 0.15, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was .003, which, according to Cohen (1988), is also negligible.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP participation and gender ( $p = .995$ ).

As reflected in Table 4.5c, for the IB subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP participation on the IB characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 273) = 0.00, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLPD participation was 0.000, which is negligible.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the IB characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 273) = 0.22, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.005, also negligible.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP participation and gender ( $p = .453$ ).

As reflected in Table 4.5c, for the IM subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP participation on the IM characteristic of the *MLQ*, [ $F(1, 273) = 0.10, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLPD participation was 0.000, which is negligible.

- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the IM characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 273) = 0.28, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.045, also negligible.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP participation and gender ( $p = .276$ ).

As reflected in Table 4.5c, for the IS subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP participation on the IS characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 273) = 0.75, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLPD participation was 0.055, which is negligible.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the IS characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 273) = 1.59, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.11, which is small.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP participation and gender ( $p = .310$ ).

As reflected in Table 4.5c, for the IC subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP participation on the IC characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 273) = 0.73, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLPD participation was 0.045, which is was negligible.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the IC characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 273) = 0.24, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.003, also negligible.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP participation and gender ( $p = .165$ ).

As reflected in Table 4.5c, for the CR subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP participation on the CR characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 273) = 1.32, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLPD participation was 0.07, which is negligible.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the CR characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 273) = 0.58, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.063, also negligible.
- Although there was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP participation and gender ( $p = .101$ ), the *MS* value for the interaction of gender and YLDP participation for the Contingent Reward (*CR*) subscale of the *MLQ* was distinctly higher than the reported *MS* values of the other subscales. A means plot was created to further examine these findings. Figure 4.3 shows that for the male respondents, the *CR* value is slightly higher for those respondents that did not participate in youth leadership development programs. Conversely, for the female respondents, the *CR* value is significantly higher for those respondents that participated in youth leadership development programs.

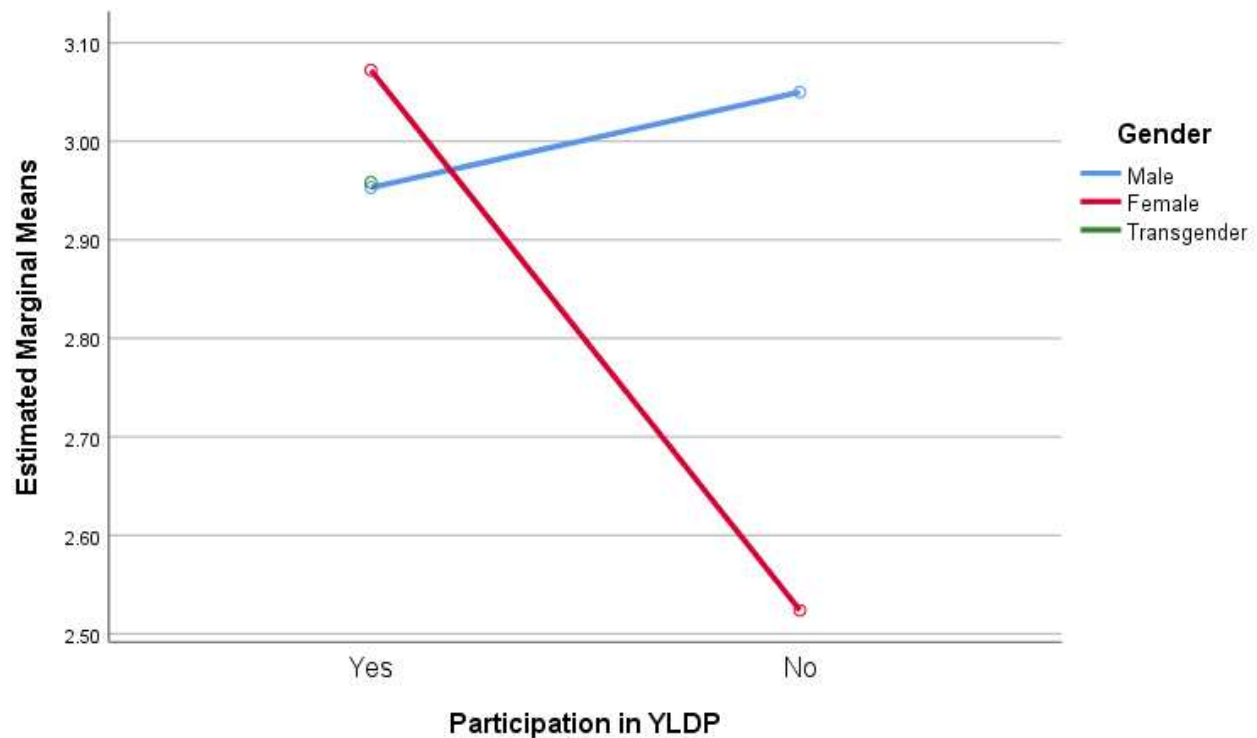


Figure 4.3. Estimated marginal means of contingent reward (CR) subscale of the MLQ.

As reflected in Table 4.5c, for the MBEA subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP participation on the MBEA characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 273) = .82, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLDP participation was 0.000, which is negligible.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the MBEA characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 273) = 0.74, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.07, also negligible.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP participation and gender ( $p = .723$ ).

As reflected in Table 4.5c, for the MBEP subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP participation on the MBEP characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 273) = 0.01, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLPD participation was 0.000, which was negligible.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the MBEP characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 273) = 1.81, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.11, which is small.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP participation and gender ( $p = .282$ ).

Finally, as reflected in Table 4.5c, for the LF subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP participation on the LF characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 273) = 1.30, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLPD participation was 0.071, which is was negligible.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the LF characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 273) = 0.25, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.045, also negligible.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP participation and gender ( $p = .547$ ).

The results of the current study imply that neither participation in YLDPs during their childhood and adolescence, nor their gender, were consequential to the leadership style of respondents during college, as measured by the *MLQ*.

## **Research Question 2**

Research Question 2, “Is there a statistically significant relationship between the respondents’ self-reported Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) ratings and the duration



of their participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during their childhood and adolescence?,” sought to assess whether the duration of participation in YLDP programs and gender each had a statistically significant effect on the *MLQ* scores of the respondents, and whether the effects of the duration of YLDP participation on *MLQ* scores depended on the respondent being male, female, or transgender. The subset of questions addressed included the following:

- (a) Is there a statistically significant relationship between the respondents’ self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings and the duration of their participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during their childhood and adolescence?
- (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents’ self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their gender as male, female, or transgender?
- (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction between the duration of participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and gender in regard to the respondents’ self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?

To check assumptions, scatterplots were generated; relationships between the independent variables (duration of participation in YLDP and gender) and the dependent variables (nine subscales of the *MLQ*) were linear. Because each of the nine subscales of the *MLQ* were normally distributed and the assumption of linearity was not markedly violated, Pearson correlations were computed to examine the intercorrelations of the variables. Table 4.6a provides descriptive data for this question.

Table 4.6a

Descriptive Statistics for Duration of Participation and MLQ Subscales (N=265)

<i>MLQ</i> Subscale	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
	7.32	2.00
IA	3.10	0.61
IB	3.05	0.63
IM	3.30	0.60
IS	3.00	0.62
IC	3.15	0.60
CR	3.03	0.64
MBEA	1.87	0.80
MBEP	1.07	0.76
LF	0.80	0.68

Table 4.6b shows that there was no statistically significant correlation between the duration of participation in YLDP and the nine subscales of the *MLQ*. Although there were no intercorrelations of significance for the duration of participation in YLDP and the *MLQ* scores, IA, IB, IM, IS, IC, and CR were positively correlated with the duration of participation in YLDP, whereas MBEA, MBEP, and LF were negatively correlated with the duration of participation in YLDP.

Table 4.6b

Intercorrelation, Mean, and Standard Deviation for Duration of Participation in YLDP and Nine Subscales of the *MLQ* (N=265)

Variable	IA	IB	IM	IS	IC	CR	MBEA	MBEP	LF	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Duration of Participation in YLDP	0.045	0.024	0.119	0.014	0.045	0.049	-0.047	-0.098	-0.102	7.32	2.00

*Note.* *MLQ* = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire; YLDP = Youth leadership development program; IA = Idealized Influence (Attribute); IB = Idealized Influence (Behavior); IM = Inspirational Motivation; IS = Intellectual Stimulation; IC = Individualized Consideration; CR = Contingent Reward; MBEA = Management by Exception (Active); MBEP = Management by Exception (Passive); LF = Laissez-Faire

The Pearson correlations demonstrated that there was no statistically significant relationship between duration of participation in YLDP and any of the nine subscales of the *MLQ*. In addition, analyses conducted for Research Question 1 demonstrated that there was no statistically significant difference for *MLQ* scores based on gender. In consideration of these

findings, no further analyses were conducted for Research Question 2. These results suggest that neither the duration of participation in YLDPs during their childhood and adolescence, nor their gender, proved influential in the leadership style of respondents during college, as measured by the *MLQ*.

### **Research Question 3**

To address Research Question 3, “Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents’ self-reported Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) ratings based on the type of youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) they participated in during their childhood and adolescence?” and assess whether the type of YLDP and the gender of the respondents had a statistically significant effect on the *MLQ* scores, and whether the effects of type of YLDP on *MLQ* scores depended on the gender of the respondents, a two-way ANOVA was conducted for each of the nine subscales of the *MLQ*. The subset of questions addressed included the following:

- (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents’ self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on the type of YLDPs they participated in during their childhood and adolescence?
- (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents’ self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their gender as male, female, or transgender?
- (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction between type of YLDPs and gender in regard to the respondents’ self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?

Table 4.7a  
Between-Subject Factors for YLDP Type and Gender

	Value Label	<i>N</i>
YLDP Type	Scouts	17
	Community Youth Organizations	12
	Faith-Based Organizations	22
	Sports/Athletics	103
	School-Based Programs/Organizations	98
	Other	11
Gender	Male	86
	Female	171
	Transgender	6

Table 4.7a above, shows the between-subject factors for YLDP type and gender. Table 4.7b shows the means and standard deviations for the nine subscale characteristics of the *MLQ* for YLDP type and for the three genders (male, female, and transgender). Table 4.7c shows the results of the 9 two-way ANOVAs that were conducted to find the main effect of YLDP type, main effect of gender, and the interaction of YLDP type and gender on each of the nine subscales of the *MLQ*.

Table 4.7b

Means and Standard Deviations for MLQ Scores As a Function of YLDP Type and Gender

<i>MLQ</i> Subscale	YLDP Type	Male			Female			Transgender			Total	
		<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
IA	Scouts	9	3.19	0.53	8	2.75	0.57	-	-	-	2.99	0.58
	Community	5	2.95	0.33	7	3.04	0.60	-	-	-	3.00	0.49
	Faith	10	3.33	0.64	11	3.05	0.57	1	4.00	.	3.23	0.62
	Sports	41	3.01	0.54	58	3.12	0.61	4	2.81	0.66	3.06	0.58
	School	19	3.26	0.56	78	3.07	0.67	1	2.75	.	3.10	0.65
	Other	2	3.25	0.70	9	2.99	0.62	-	-	-	3.03	0.60
	Total	86	3.13	0.55	171	3.06	0.63	6	3.00	0.71	3.08	0.61
IB	Scouts	9	2.94	0.58	8	2.56	0.93	-	-	-	2.76	0.77
	Community	5	3.20	0.54	7	2.29	0.53	-	-	-	3.25	0.51
	Faith	10	3.60	0.36	11	3.39	0.51	1	2.75	.	3.40	0.47
	Sports	41	2.77	0.50	58	3.01	0.67	4	3.31	0.43	2.93	0.61
	School	19	3.14	0.62	78	3.08	0.63	1	3.00	.	3.09	0.62
	Other	2	3.13	0.88	9	3.17	0.60	-	-	-	3.16	0.60
	Total	86	3.00	0.58	171	3.06	0.65	-	3.17	0.41	3.04	0.63
IM	Scouts	9	3.28	0.51	8	2.94	0.83	-	-	-	3.12	0.68
	Community	5	3.35	0.38	7	3.64	0.41	-	-	-	3.52	0.41
	Faith	10	3.55	0.41	11	3.39	0.39	1	3.75	.	3.48	0.39
	Sports	41	3.11	0.62	58	3.33	0.63	4	3.19	0.43	3.24	0.63
	School	19	3.37	0.54	78	3.30	0.61	1	3.25	.	3.31	0.60
	Other	2	3.38	0.88	9	3.31	0.56	-	-	-	3.32	0.57
	Total	86	3.26	0.57	171	3.31	0.61	6	-	-	3.29	0.59
IS	Scouts	9	2.86	0.33	8	2.93	0.73	-	-	-	2.89	0.54
	Community	5	2.60	0.68	7	3.21	0.67	-	-	-	2.96	0.71
	Faith	10	3.11	0.64	11	2.97	0.53	1	3.50	.	3.06	0.57
	Sports	41	2.88	0.56	58	2.91	0.72	4	3.38	1.10	2.92	0.68
	School	19	3.11	0.50	78	2.99	0.59	1	3.25	.	3.02	0.57
	Other	2	3.38	0.53	9	3.31	0.56	-	-	-	3.32	0.53
	Total	86	2.95	0.55	171	2.98	0.64	6	3.38	0.85	2.98	0.62
IC	Scouts	9	3.19	0.67	8	3.21	0.57	-	-	-	3.19	0.61
	Community	5	2.80	0.80	7	3.43	0.45	-	-	-	3.17	0.67
	Faith	10	3.18	0.44	11	3.32	0.59	1	4.00	.	3.28	0.53
	Sports	41	2.90	0.58	58	3.15	0.72	4	3.19	0.43	3.05	0.67
	School	19	3.34	0.48	78	3.16	0.54	1	2.50	.	3.19	0.54
	Other	2	3.00	1.06	9	3.36	0.56	-	-	-	3.30	0.62
	Total	86	3.05	0.59	171	3.19	0.61	6	3.21	0.58	3.15	0.60

Table 4.7b, Continued

<i>MLQ</i> Subscale	YLDP Type	Male			Female			Transgender			Total	
		<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
CR	Scouts	9	2.78	0.68	8	2.85	0.72	-	-	-	2.81	0.68
	Community	5	3.00	0.69	7	3.14	0.41	-	-	-	3.08	0.52
	Faith	10	2.98	1.14	11	2.93	0.50	1	4.00	.	3.00	0.85
	Sports	41	2.88	0.53	59	3.12	0.69	4	2.56	0.13	3.01	0.63
	School	19	3.13	0.52	78	3.05	0.61	1	3.50	.	3.07	0.59
	Other	2	2.75	1.06	9	3.00	0.72	-	-	-	2.96	0.73
	Total	86	2.94	0.65	172	3.06	0.63	6	2.96	0.64	3.02	0.64
MBEA	Scouts	9	2.02	0.44	8	1.68	0.70	-	-	-	1.86	0.58
	Community	5	2.35	0.80	7	1.07	0.67	-	-	-	1.60	0.96
	Faith	10	1.98	0.78	11	1.80	0.88	1	1.00	.	1.84	0.82
	Sports	41	1.98	0.70	58	1.84	0.76	4	2.00	0.74	1.90	0.73
	School	19	1.50	0.35	78	1.78	0.87	1	2.75	.	1.85	0.87
	Other	2	2.07	0.82	9	2.12	1.00	-	-	-	2.01	0.93
	Total	86	2.01	0.71	171	1.79	0.83	6	1.96	0.80	1.86	0.80
MBEP	Scouts	9	1.17	0.38	8	1.03	0.65	-	-	-	1.10	0.51
	Community	5	0.70	0.62	7	0.61	0.28	-	-	-	0.65	0.43
	Faith	10	1.30	1.06	11	0.80	0.60	1	1.25	.	1.05	0.85
	Sports	41	1.26	0.70	57	1.13	0.80	4	0.94	0.97	1.18	0.76
	School	19	1.15	0.83	78	1.01	0.73	1	1.25	.	1.04	0.75
	Other	2	0.75	0.71	9	0.50	0.42	-	-	-	0.55	0.45
	Total	86	1.19	0.75	170	1.00	0.73	6	1.04	0.77	1.06	0.74
LF	Scouts	9	0.92	0.33	8	1.19	0.58	-	-	-	1.04	0.47
	Community	5	0.30	0.21	7	0.57	0.31	-	-	-	0.46	0.30
	Faith	10	0.98	0.99	11	0.73	0.45	1	0.25	.	0.82	0.74
	Sports	41	0.83	0.69	58	0.82	0.74	4	0.75	0.46	0.82	0.71
	School	19	0.79	0.72	78	0.75	0.67	1	0.75	.	0.76	0.68
	Other	2	0.63	0.89	9	0.69	0.66	-	-	-	0.68	0.65
	Total	86	0.81	0.69	171	0.78	0.67	6	0.67	0.41	0.79	0.67

*Note.* MLQ = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire; YLDP = Youth leadership development program; IA = Idealized Influence (Attribute); IB = Idealized Influence (Behavior); IM = Inspirational Motivation; IS = Intellectual Stimulation; IC = Individualized Consideration; CR = Contingent Reward; MBEA = Management by Exception (Active); MBEP = Management by Exception (Passive); LF = Laissez-Faire

Table 4.7c

Analysis of Variance for MLQ Scores As a Function of YLDP Type and Gender

<i>MLQ</i> Subscale	Variable and Source	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>n</i> <sup>2</sup>
IA	YLDP Type	5	0.39	1.06	.385	0.021
	Gender	2	0.36	0.97	.381	0.008
	YLDP Type $\times$ Gender	7	0.43	1.17	.322	0.032
	Error	248	0.37	-	-	-
IB	YLDP Type	5	0.54	1.44	.211	0.028
	Gender	2	0.08	0.22	.804	0.002
	YLDP Type $\times$ Gender	7	0.50	1.34	.234	0.036
	Error	248	0.37	-	-	-
IM	YLDP Type	5	0.38	1.07	.380	0.021
	Gender	2	0.01	0.03	.967	0.000
	YLDP Type $\times$ Gender	7	0.30	0.84	.559	0.023
	Error	248	0.35	-	-	-
IS	YLDP Type	5	0.23	0.61	.695	0.012
	Gender	2	0.33	0.85	.428	0.007
	YLDP Type $\times$ Gender	7	0.21	0.55	.795	0.015
	Error	248	0.38	-	-	-
IC	YLDP Type	5	0.26	0.73	.599	0.015
	Gender	2	0.51	1.42	.243	0.011
	YLDP Type $\times$ Gender	7	0.55	1.51	.164	0.041
	Error	248	0.36	-	-	-
CR	YLDP Type	5	0.48	1.19	.316	0.023
	Gender	2	0.33	0.81	.444	0.006
	YLDP Type $\times$ Gender	7	0.45	1.11	.359	0.030
	Error	249	0.41	-	-	-
MBEA	YLDP Type	5	0.41	0.66	.656	0.013
	Gender	2	0.87	1.37	.255	0.011
	YLDP Type $\times$ Gender	7	0.88	1.40	.207	0.038
	Error	248	0.63	-	-	-
MBEP	YLDP Type	5	0.70	1.30	.264	0.026
	Gender	2	0.53	0.99	.373	0.008
	YLDP Type $\times$ Gender	7	0.13	0.25	.973	0.007
	Error	247	0.54	-	-	-

Table 4.7c, Continued

<i>MLQ</i> Subscale	Variable and Source	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>n</i> <sup>2</sup>
LF	YLDP Type	5	0.59	1.27	.277	0.025
	Gender	2	0.14	0.30	.739	0.002
	YLDP Type $\times$ Gender	7	0.16	0.34	.933	0.010
	Error	248	0.46	-	-	-

Note. *MLQ* = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire; YLDP = Youth leadership development program; *df* = Degrees of freedom; IA = Idealized Influence (Attribute); IB = Idealized Influence (Behavior); IM = Inspirational Motivation; IS = Intellectual Stimulation; IC = Individualized Consideration; CR = Contingent Reward; MBEA = Management by Exception (Active); MBEP = Management by Exception (Passive); LF = Laissez-Faire

As reflected in Table 4.7c, for the IA subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP type for the IA characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 1.06, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLDP type was 0.145, which, according to Cohen (1988), is small.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender for the IA characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 0.97, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.089, which, according to Cohen (1988), is negligible.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP type and gender ( $p = .322$ ).

As reflected in Table 4.7c, for the IB subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP type on the IB characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 1.44, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLDP type was 0.167, which is small.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the IB characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 0.22, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.045, which is negligible.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP type and gender ( $p = .234$ ).



As reflected in Table 4.7c, for the IM subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP type on the IM characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 1.07, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLDP type was 0.145, which is small.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the IM characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 0.03, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.000, which is negligible.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP type and gender ( $p = .559$ ).

As reflected in Table 4.7c, for the IS subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP type on the IS characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 0.61, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLDP type was 0.110, which is small.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the IS characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 0.85, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.084, which is negligible.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP type and gender ( $p = .795$ ).

As reflected in Table 4.7c, for the IC subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP type on the IC characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 0.73, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLDP type was 0.122, which is small.

- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the IC characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 1.42, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.105, also small.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP type and gender ( $p = .243$ ).

As reflected in Table 4.7c, for the CR subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP type and gender ( $p = .359$ ).
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the CR characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 0.81, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.078, which is negligible.
- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP type on the CR characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 1.19, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLDP type was 0.152, which is small.

As reflected in Table 4.7c, for the MBEA subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP type on the MBEA characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 0.66, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLDP type was 0.114, which is small.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the MBEA characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 1.37, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.105, also small.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP type and gender ( $p = .207$ ).

As reflected in Table 4.7c, for the MBEP subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP type on the MBEP characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 1.30, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLDP type was 0.161, which is small.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the MBEP characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 0.99, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.089, which is negligible.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP type and gender ( $p = .973$ ).

Finally, as reflected in Table 4.7c, for the LF subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant main effect of YLDP type on the LF characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 1.27, p > .05$ ]. The eta for YLDP type was 0.158, which is small.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the LF characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 0.30, p > .05$ ]. The eta for gender was 0.045, which is negligible.
- There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP type and gender ( $p = .933$ ).

The Analysis of Variance for MLQ Scores demonstrated that there was no statistically significant relationship between type of YLDP, gender, and interaction of YLDP type and gender; and any of the nine subscales of the *MLQ*. These results suggest that neither the type of YLDP in which the respondents participated during their childhood and adolescence, nor the

respondents' gender, proved as material to their leadership style during college as measured by the *MLQ*.

#### **Research Question 4**

In response to Question 4, "Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) ratings based on their college leadership position/title?," to assess whether college leadership position/title and gender each had a statistically significant effect on the *MLQ* scores of respondents, and whether the effects of college leadership position/title on the *MLQ* scores depended on the gender of the respondent as male, female, or transgender, a two-way ANOVA was conducted for each of the nine subscales of the *MLQ*. The subset of questions addressed included the following:

- (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their being male, female, or transgender?
- (b) Is there a statistically significant difference in the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings based on their college leadership position/title?
- (c) Is there a statistically significant interaction between college leadership position/title and gender in regard to the respondents' self-reported *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* ratings?

Table 4.8a shows the between-subject factors for college position/title and gender. Table 4.8b shows the means and standard deviations for the nine subscale characteristics of the *MLQ* for the three genders (male, female, and transgender) and for college position/title.

Table 4.8a  
Between-Subjects Factors for Gender and College Position/Title

	Value Label	N
Gender	Male	89
	Female	180
	Transgender	6
College Position/Title	President/Captain/Chair	69
	First/Executive VP	20
	Co-Chair/Co-Captain	19
	Secretary	12
	Treasurer	14
	Residence Hall Leader	27
	Other	114

Table 4.8b

Means and Standard Deviations for MLQ Scores As a Function of Gender and College Position/Title

<i>MLQ</i> Subscale	College Position/Title	Male			Female			Transgender			Total	
		<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
IA	President/Captain/Chair	24	3.32	0.54	43	3.18	0.69	2	3.13	1.24	3.23	0.65
	First/Executive VP	10	2.95	0.65	10	2.85	0.56	-	-	-	2.9	0.59
	Co-Chair/Co-Captain	4	3.38	0.43	15	3.02	0.67	-	-	-	3.09	0.63
	Secretary	2	3.38	0.88	10	3.15	0.32	-	-	-	3.19	0.40
	Treasurer	4	2.88	0.14	10	3.23	0.45	-	-	-	3.13	0.41
	Residence Hall Leader	8	2.97	0.28	19	3.06	0.60	-	-	-	3.03	0.52
	Other	37	3.11	0.60	73	3.02	0.65	4	2.94	0.55	3.05	0.63
	Total	89	3.14	0.56	180	3.07	0.63	6	3.00	0.71	3.09	0.61
IB	President/Captain/Chair	24	2.96	0.65	43	3.03	0.72	2	2.75	0.00	3.00	0.68
	First/Executive VP	10	2.83	0.73	10	2.80	0.90	-	-	-	2.81	0.79
	Co-Chair/Co-Captain	4	3.75	0.20	15	3.10	0.54	-	-	-	3.24	0.56
	Secretary	2	2.88	0.88	10	2.85	0.69	-	-	-	2.85	0.68
	Treasurer	4	2.94	0.24	10	3.10	0.86	-	-	-	3.05	0.73
	Residence Hall Leader	8	2.69	0.51	19	2.97	0.53	-	-	-	2.89	0.53
	Other	37	3.09	0.57	73	3.15	0.60	4	3.38	0.32	3.14	0.58
	Total	89	3.01	0.61	180	3.06	0.66	6	3.17	0.41	3.05	0.64
IM	President/Captain/Chair	24	3.37	0.57	43	3.34	0.62	2	3.38	0.53	3.35	0.59
	First/Executive VP	10	3.10	0.47	10	3.08	0.59	-	-	-	3.09	0.52
	Co-Chair/Co-Captain	4	3.56	0.32	15	3.37	0.55	-	-	-	3.41	0.51

Table 4.8b, Continued

<i>MLQ</i> Subscale	College Position/Title	Male			Female			Transgender			Total	
		<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
	Secretary	2	3.00	1.06	10	3.18	0.39	-	-	-	3.15	0.48
	Treasurer	4	3.19	0.43	10	3.45	0.50	-	-	-	3.38	0.48
	Residence Hall Leader	8	3.16	0.44	19	3.30	0.61	-	-	-	3.26	0.56
	Other	37	3.28	0.63	73	3.32	0.66	4	3.25	0.41	3.3	0.64
	Total	89	3.28	0.57	180	3.31	0.61	6	3.29	0.40	3.3	0.59
IS	President/Captain/Chair	24	3.00	0.66	43	3.04	0.64	2	2.63	1.24	3.02	0.65
	First/Executive VP	10	2.68	0.57	10	2.98	0.53	-	-	-	2.83	0.56
	Co-Chair/Co-Captain	4	3.25	0.65	15	2.98	0.56	-	-	-	3.04	0.57
	Secretary	2	2.88	0.53	10	2.63	0.41	-	-	-	2.67	0.42
	Treasurer	4	3.06	0.69	10	3.18	0.80	-	-	-	3.14	0.75
	Residence Hall Leader	8	3.00	0.53	19	3.26	0.48	-	-	-	3.19	0.50
	Other	37	2.98	0.47	73	2.92	0.68	4	3.75	0.35	2.97	0.63
	Total	89	2.97	0.56	180	2.99	0.64	6	3.38	0.85	2.99	0.62
IC	President/Captain/Chair	24	3.07	0.67	43	3.20	0.65	2	3.38	0.88	3.16	0.65
	First/Executive VP	10	2.83	0.47	10	2.88	0.81	-	-	-	2.85	0.65
	Co-Chair/Co-Captain	4	3.69	0.32	15	3.03	0.57	-	-	-	3.17	0.59
	Secretary	2	2.75	1.41	10	2.83	0.60	-	-	-	2.81	0.69
	Treasurer	4	2.75	0.46	10	3.35	0.49	-	-	-	3.18	0.54
	Residence Hall Leader	8	3.25	0.55	19	3.29	0.51	-	-	-	3.28	0.51
	Other	37	3.06	0.58	73	3.24	0.61	4	3.13	0.52	3.18	0.60
	Total	89	3.06	0.61	180	3.18	0.62	6	3.21	0.58	3.14	0.61

Table 4.8b, Continued

<i>MLQ</i> Subscale	College Position/Title	Males			Females			Transgenders			Total	
		<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
CR	President/Captain/Chair	24	3.08	0.52	43	3.19	0.60	2	3.25	1.06	3.16	0.58
	First/Executive VP	10	2.78	1.04	10	2.89	0.91	-	-	-	2.83	0.96
	Co-Chair/Co-Captain	4	3.38	0.32	15	3.07	0.64	-	-	-	3.14	0.59
	Secretary	2	2.75	1.41	10	2.97	0.48	-	-	-	2.93	0.62
	Treasurer	4	2.63	0.48	10	3.00	0.60	-	-	-	2.89	0.58
	Residence Hall Leader	8	2.50	0.55	19	2.78	0.55	-	-	-	2.69	0.55
	Other	37	3.01	0.56	74	3.06	0.70	4	2.81	0.47	3.03	0.65
	Total	89	2.95	0.64	181	3.05	0.66	6	2.96	0.64	3.01	0.65
MBEA	President/Captain/Chair	24	1.94	0.65	43	1.70	0.84	2	1.13	0.18	1.77	0.78
	First/Executive VP	10	2.25	0.72	10	1.90	0.78	-	-	-	2.08	0.75
	Co-Chair/Co-Captain	4	2.25	0.74	15	1.59	0.73	-	-	-	1.73	0.76
	Secretary	2	2.50	0.35	10	2.10	0.74	-	-	-	2.17	0.69
	Treasurer	4	2.88	0.32	10	2.15	0.92	-	-	-	2.36	0.85
	Residence Hall Leader	8	1.78	0.57	19	1.88	0.69	-	-	-	1.85	0.65
	Other	37	1.95	0.75	73	1.79	0.88	4	2.38	0.60	1.86	0.84
	Total	89	2.03	0.71	180	1.80	0.83	6	1.96	0.80	1.88	0.80
MBEP	President/Captain/Chair	24	1.21	0.63	43	0.94	0.80	2	1.75	0.71	1.05	0.75
	First/Executive VP	10	1.35	0.57	10	1.15	0.63	-	-	-	1.25	0.59
	Co-Chair/Co-Captain	4	0.63	0.25	15	1.18	0.68	-	-	-	1.07	0.66
	Secretary	2	1.88	0.53	10	0.75	0.39	-	-	-	0.94	0.59
	Treasurer	4	0.96	0.53	10	0.65	0.50	-	-	-	0.74	0.51
	Residence Hall Leader	8	0.91	0.60	19	0.80	0.63	-	-	-	0.83	0.61



Table 4.8b, Continued

<i>MLQ</i> Subscale	College Position/Title	Males			Females			Transgenders			Total	
		<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
LF	Other	37	1.24	0.88	72	1.11	0.83	4	0.69	0.55	1.14	0.84
	Total	89	1.19	0.73	179	1.00	0.75	6	1.04	0.77	1.06	0.75
	President/Captain/Chair	24	0.40	0.50	43	0.59	0.75	2	0.75	0.71	0.53	0.67
	First/Executive VP	10	0.90	0.77	10	0.68	0.42	-	-	-	0.79	0.61
	Co-Chair/Co-Captain	4	0.38	0.48	15	0.77	0.59	-	-	-	0.68	0.58
	Secretary	2	1.50	1.41	10	0.55	0.45	-	-	-	0.71	0.70
	Treasurer	4	0.31	0.24	10	0.73	0.38	-	-	-	0.61	0.39
	Residence Hall Leader	8	0.78	0.45	19	0.87	0.48	-	-	-	0.84	0.47
	Other	37	1.05	0.67	73	0.93	0.73	4	0.63	0.32	0.96	0.70
	Total	89	0.78	0.67	180	0.78	0.67	6	0.67	0.41	0.78	0.66

*Note.* MLQ = *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*; IA = Idealized Influence (Attribute); IB = Idealized Influence (Behavior); IM = Inspirational Motivation; IS = Intellectual Stimulation; IC = Individualized Consideration; CR = Contingent Reward; MBEA = Management by Exception (Active); MBEP = Management by Exception (Passive); LF = Laissez-Faire

Table 4.8c shows the results of the 9 two-way ANOVAs that were conducted to find the main effect of gender, main effect of college leadership position/title, and the interaction of gender and college leadership position/title on each of the nine subscales of the *MLQ*.

Table 4.8c

Analysis of Variance for MLQ Scores As a Function of Gender and College Leadership Position/Title

MLQ Subscale	Variable and Source	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>n</i> <sup>2</sup>
IA	Gender	2	0.10	0.28	.758	0.002
	College Position/Title	6	0.34	0.91	.491	0.021
	Gender × College Position/Title	7	0.15	0.40	.902	0.011
	Error	259	0.37			
IB	Gender	2	0.01	0.01	.989	0.000
	College Position/Title	6	0.84	2.10	.054	0.046
	Gender × College Position/Title	7	0.32	0.80	.586	0.021
	Error	259	0.40			
IM	Gender	2	0.04	0.12	.890	0.001
	College Position/Title	6	0.30	0.84	.543	0.019
	Gender × College Position/Title	7	0.07	0.20	.986	0.005
	Error	259	0.36			
IS	Gender	2	0.11	0.29	.746	0.002
	College Position/Title	6	0.48	1.28	.268	0.029
	Gender × College Position/Title	7	0.45	1.22	.293	0.032
	Error	259	0.37			
IC	Gender	2	0.08	0.21	.814	0.002
	College Position/Title	6	0.60	1.62	.142	0.036
	Gender × College Position/Title	7	0.40	1.09	.371	0.029
	Error	259	0.37			
CR	Gender	2	0.21	0.51	.600	0.004
	College Position/Title	6	1.03	2.45	.025	0.054
	Gender × College Position/Title	7	0.16	0.38	.914	0.010
	Error	260	0.42			
MBEA	Gender	2	1.71	2.76	.065	0.021
	College Position/Title	6	1.41	2.29	.036	0.050
	Gender × College Position/Title	7	0.57	0.92	.495	0.024
	Error	259	0.62			
MBEP	Gender	2	0.73	1.34	.263	0.010
	College Position/Title	6	0.74	1.35	.236	0.030
	Gender × College Position/Title	7	0.76	1.39	.209	0.036
	Error	258	0.55			
LF	Gender	2	0.02	0.05	.954	0.000
	College Position/Title	6	0.42	1.02	.414	0.023
	Gender × College Position/Title	7	0.58	1.40	.205	0.036
	Error	259	0.42			

*Note.* MLQ = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire; *df* = Degrees of freedom; IA = Idealized Influence (Attribute); IB = Idealized Influence (Behavior); IM = Inspirational Motivation; IS = Intellectual Stimulation; IC = Individualized Consideration; CR = Contingent Reward; MBEA = Management by Exception (Active); MBEP = Management by Exception (Passive); LF = Laissez-Faire

As reflected in Table 4.8c, for the IA subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant interaction for gender and college leadership position/title ( $p = .902$ ).
- There was no statistically significant main effect of gender for the IA characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 0.28, p > .05$ ].
- The eta for gender was .045, which, according to Cohen (1988), is negligible.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of college leadership position/title for the IA characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 0.91, p > .05$ ].
- The eta for college leadership position/title was 0.145, which, according to Cohen (1988), is small.

As reflected in Table 4.8c, for the IB subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant interaction for gender and college leadership position/title ( $p = .586$ ).
- There was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the IB characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 0.01, p > .05$ ].
- The eta for gender was 0.000, which is negligible.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of college leadership position/title on the IB characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 2.10, p > .05$ ].
- The eta for college leadership position/title was 0.046, which is medium.

As reflected in Table 4.8c, for the IM subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant interaction for gender and college leadership position/title ( $p = .986$ ).

- There was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the IM characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 0.12, p > .05$ ].
- The eta for gender was 0.032, which is negligible.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of college leadership position/title on the IM characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 0.84, p > .05$ ].
- The eta for college leadership position/title was 0.138, which is small.

As reflected in Table 4.8c, for the IS subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant interaction for gender and college leadership position/title ( $p = .293$ ).
- There was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the IS characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 0.29, p > .05$ ].
- The eta for gender was 0.045, which is negligible.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of college leadership position/title on the IS characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = .128, p > .05$ ].
- The eta for college leadership position/title was 0.170, which is small.

As reflected in Table 4.8c, for the IC subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant interaction for gender and college leadership position/title ( $p = .371$ ).
- There was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the IC characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 0.21, p > .05$ ].
- The eta for gender was 0.045, which is negligible.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of college leadership position/title on the IC characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 1.62, p > .05$ ].

- The eta for college leadership position/title was 0.200, which is medium.

As reflected in Table 4.8c, for the CR subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant interaction for gender and college leadership position/title ( $p = .914$ ).
- There was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the CR characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 0.51, p > .05$ ].
- The eta for gender was 0.063, which is negligible.
- However, there was a statistically significant main effect of college leadership position/title on the CR characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 2.45, p > .05$ ]. Using Bonferroni-adjusted alpha levels of 0.007 per position/title (0.05/7), results indicated that the main effect of college leadership/position title on the CR characteristic of the *MLQ* was not statistically significant. Because there were no significant main effects of interaction of college leadership position/title on the CR characteristic of the *MLQ*, no additional *post hoc* tests were computed.
- The eta for college leadership position/title was 0.232, which is medium.

As reflected in Table 4.8c, for the MBEA subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant interaction for gender and college leadership position/title ( $p = .495$ ).
- There was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the MBEA characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 2.76, p > .05$ ].
- The eta for gender was 0.145, which is small.
- However, there was a statistically significant main effect of college leadership position/title on the MBEA characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 2.29, p > .05$ ].

Using Bonferroni-adjusted alpha levels of 0.007 per position/title (0.05/7), results indicated that the main effect of college leadership/position title on the MBEA characteristic of the *MLQ* was not statistically significant. Because there were no significant main effects of interaction of college leadership position/title on the MBEA characteristic of the *MLQ*, no additional *post hoc* tests were computed.

- The eta for college leadership position/title was 0.224, which is medium.

As reflected in Table 4.8c, for the MBEP subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant interaction for gender and college leadership position/title ( $p = .209$ ).
- There was no statistically significant main effect of gender on the MBEP characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 1.34, p > .05$ ].
- The eta for gender was 0.1, which is small.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of college leadership position/title on the MBEP characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 1.35, p > .05$ ].
- The eta for college leadership position/title was 0.173, also small.

Finally, as reflected in Table 4.8c, for the LF subscale of the *MLQ*:

- There was no statistically significant interaction for gender and college leadership position/title ( $p = .205$ ).
- There was not statistically significant main effect of gender on the LF characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(2, 248) = 0.05, p > .05$ ].
- The eta for gender was 0.000, which is negligible.
- Furthermore, there was no statistically significant main effect of college leadership position/title on the LF characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 1.02, p > .05$ ].

- The eta for college leadership position/title was 0.152, which is small.

The Analysis of Variance for MLQ Scores demonstrated that there was no statistically significant relationship between college leadership position/title, gender, and interaction of college leadership position/title and gender; and any of the nine subscales of the *MLQ*. These findings propose that neither the college leadership position/title of the respondents, nor the respondents' gender, were key factors for their leadership style during college as measured by the *MLQ*.

## CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and the self-reported leadership styles of undergraduate college student leaders with a focus on gender differences. Measuring for leadership style was by using the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, Form 5X-Short)*, referred to generally as *MLQ*, which is a commonly used instrument in studies of leadership style, more specifically in the study of and measuring for transformational leadership style (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Table 5.1 provides a summary of the nine subscales of the MLQ that were presented in more detail in chapter two of the current study.

Table 5.1

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Subscales, Abbreviations, and Descriptions

Facets of <i>MLQ</i>	<i>MLQ</i> Subscales	Abbreviation	Description
Transformational Leadership	Idealized Influence (Attribute)	IA	Leader is someone that followers respect and are proud to be associated with
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	IB	Leader plays a central role for articulating the importance of the organizational values, purpose, and mission
	Inspirational Motivation	IM	Leader's visionary role is well expressed and is highly appealing to their followers and challenges them
	Intellectual Stimulation	IS	Leaders defies the status quo, instead inspire innovation and creativity by their followers
	Individualized Consideration	IC	Leader is focused on caring for, and mentoring and development of, their followers

*Note.* Adapted from Avolio et al. (1999) and Bass & Riggio (2010)



Table 5.1, Continued

Facets of <i>MLQ</i>	<i>MLQ</i> Subscales	Abbreviation	Description
Transactional Leadership	Contingent Reward	CR	Leader sets the standards for ideal performance and recognizes followers when they attain it
	Management by Exception (Active)	MBEA	Leader only gets involved to address mistakes by followers and their inability to complete a task
Passive-Avoidant Leadership	Management by Exception (Passive)	MBEP	Leader adheres to the status quo until issues become so severe that the leader is forced to intervenes with corrective action
	Laissez-Faire	LF	The absent leader: one who is serving in a leadership position but is not involved in attending to issues

*Note.* Adapted from Avolio et al. (1999) and Bass & Riggio (2010)

Previous studies have suggested that a relationship exists between participation in YLDPs and whether an individual will have leadership competencies as an adult, as well as a relationship between leadership roles during adulthood and leadership style (Bialeschki & Conn, 2011; Christens & Dolan, 2011; Peterson et al., 2012; Powers & Allaman, 2012). Further, prior research has suggested that there is a difference in leadership practices and styles of individuals based on gender (Komives et al., 2005; Spencer, 2004; Wielkiewicz et al., 2012). The objective of this study, therefore, was to add the results to the body of existing literature, specifically with respect to the relationship between the leadership styles of young adults and their participation in YLDPs during childhood and adolescence. Even though the number of transgender respondents was significantly less than their female and male counterparts, I determined to include these participants in the analysis of data because it was important to speak about their experiences. This significance was especially brought to light through transgender respondents' scores for the

Intellectual Stimulation (IS) subscale of transformational leadership underscoring their role as leaders who question the status quo and inspire their followers to seek alternative strategies for accomplishing a task. A comparison of the ANOVA values with and without the transgender participants' responses showed that there was no evident difference in the results and therefore no bearing for analysis of the data.

Table 5.2 provides an overview of the current study's participants' overall responses on the MLQ. Mean values for the respondents show that the current study's participants scored more strongly with the subscales that correspond with transformational leadership (IA:  $M = 2.10$ , IB:  $M = 2.06$ , IM:  $M = 2.30$ , IS:  $M = 2.00$ , IC:  $M = 2.15$ ) than those subscales that correspond with transactional leadership (MBEA:  $M = .97$ ) and passive-avoidant leadership (MBEP:  $M = .42$ , LF:  $M = .26$ ). As with previous studies, Contingent Reward (CR), which is identified as a subscale for transactional leadership, scores ( $M = 2.03$ ) aligned more closely with the five subscales of transformational leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). To the extent that participation in YLDPs during childhood and adolescence as well as leadership roles during adulthood might have a positive influence on leadership style as indicated by the subscales (IA, IB, IM, IS, IC, and CR) and a negative connection with the styles characteristic of the subscales (MBEP, MBEA, and LF), the current study's results show such an undertone.

Table 5.2  
*Participants' responses on the MLQ*

MLQ Subscale	<i>n</i>	Range	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
IA	278	2.75	.25	3.00	2.10	.59
IB	278	2.75	.25	3.00	2.06	.61
IM	278	3.00	.00	3.00	2.30	.59
IS	278	3.00	.00	3.00	2.00	.60
IC	278	2.75	.25	3.00	2.15	.59
CR	279	3.00	.00	3.00	2.03	.61
MBEA	278	3.00	.00	3.00	.97	.71
MBEP	277	3.00	.00	3.00	.42	.51
LF	278	2.50	.00	2.50	.26	.42

### Discussion of Findings From Research Question 1

The first research question asked whether YLDP participation and gender each had a statistically significant effect on *MLQ* scores of the respondents, and whether the effects of YLDP participation/nonparticipation on *MLQ* scores depended on the gender of respondents as male, female, or transgender. Results of a two-way ANOVA for each of the nine subscales of the *MLQ* showed that there was no statistically significant difference in the *MLQ* scores of YLDP participants compared to those who did not participate in YLDPs. Therefore, scores along the nine subscales of the *MLQ* did not differ based on whether or not respondents had been involved with YLDPs in their youth. Gender also did not present as a factor for the respondents' scores along the nine subscales of the *MLQ*. Therefore, scores along the nine subscales of the *MLQ* did not differ based on whether the respondent was female, male, or transgender.

Although not statistically significant, one hundred percent ( $N = 6$ ) of the transgender respondents had participated in YLDPs during their childhood and adolescence, followed by 96 percent of the female respondents ( $N = 173$ ), compared to 94 percent ( $N = 87$ ) of the male respondents. Overall, 96 percent ( $N = 266$ ) of the total study sample had been participants in YLDPs during their childhood and adolescence. These values are in tandem with the results of prior studies suggesting that there may be a relationship between participation in YLDPs and becoming a leader in adulthood (Balsano et al., 2009; Christens & Dolan, 2011; McKay, 2010).

Comparison of the means in Table 4.5b shows that females had a lower score ( $M = 1.80$ ) for Management by Exception—active (MBEA) than the male participants ( $M = 2.00$ ). As demonstrated in the findings for the structural validity of the instrument used in this study (Table 4.4), the MBEA values corresponded more closely to transactional leadership than those of contingent reward (CR). These findings align with those of prior studies (Avolio & Bass, 2004),

and also are in tandem with prior studies suggesting that women participants may exhibit more transformational leadership styles than men in this study (Antonaros, 2010; Floit, 1997; Scroggs, 1994).

Furthermore, comparison of the means in Table 4.5b in the current study showed that transgender respondents had a higher score ( $M = 3.38$ ) in comparison to the male participants ( $M = 2.95$ ) and the female participants ( $M = 2.99$ ) for the Intellectual Stimulation (IS) subscale of transformational leadership. This subscale measures the leader's ability to question the status quo and inspire their followers to do the same while striving for creative solutions (Avolio & Bass, 2004). This finding appears to support what others have found to be a special characteristic among transgender leaders in their ability to look for inspired options in tackling problems and motivating others to do the same (Musick, 2018; T. R. Smith, 2015).

The current study's findings may also support the results of another study noting that "The space where trans leaders exist can bring creative approaches to company and organization norms" and therefore suggesting that "As companies look to draw in younger workforces, be more inclusive and diverse, trans leaders can play a role in informing the growth of companies and organizations due to the distinctive experiences they possess" (Musick, 2018).

Results in Table 4.5c show that there was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP participation and gender on any of the five subscales of the *MLQ* that constitute transformational leadership. Similarly, there was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP participation and gender on the two subscales of the *MLQ* that constitute transactional leadership. However, further examination of the results showed that for the contingent reward (CR) subscale of the *MLQ*, there was a noticeable difference for the interaction of YLDP participation and gender

( $MS = 1.14$ ). First, it is important to note that CR values in this study aligned more closely with the five subscales associated with transformational leadership, similar to previous studies using the *MLQ*. Second, these findings show that female respondents who participated in youth leadership development programs had a marked increase in their leadership competency as measured by the contingent reward subscale of the *MLQ* whereas for the male respondents, the opposite held true for YLDP participation although not in as striking a way. This is consistent with previous research that while male leaders tend to wait for problems to come close to an emergency before they get involved to address them (attribute of the MBEA subscale), female leaders tend to set expectations at the onset, with clarity of roles, pledge of resources, and an understanding of the rewards for accomplishing the agreed-upon objectives and reaching the stated goals (Bass, 1985; Eagly et al., 2003). There was no statistically significant interaction for YLDP participation and gender on the two subscales of the *MLQ* that denote passive-avoidant leadership. Overall, these findings are pertinent to the question posed by Rosenbusch and Townsend (2004) that perhaps the generation under study may not conform to the gender disparities observed in previous generations in their leadership styles. Mitchell (1995) argued that eventually there would be less divergence between genders as stereotypical roles associated with gender thinking and behavior degenerate.

Research Question 1 also set the stage for other parts of this study by identifying the sample of interest ( $n = 266$ ), which consisted of those respondents who had participated in YLDPs during their childhood and adolescence.

### **Discussion of Findings From Research Question 2**

The second research question asked whether duration of participation in YLDP and gender each had a statistically significant effect on the *MLQ* scores of respondents, and whether

the effects of duration of YLDP participation on *MLQ* scores depended on the gender of the respondents as male, female, or transgender. Results of a Regression for each of the nine subscales of the *MLQ* showed that duration of participation in YLDP and its relationship with the *MLQ* scores was not statistically significant. This outcome would imply that duration of participation in YLDP had no significant bearing on how the participants performed on the subscales.

It is, however, noteworthy that the five subscales associated with transformational leadership [IA = Idealized Influence (Attribute); IB = Idealized Influence (Behavior); IM = Inspirational Motivation; IS = Intellectual Stimulation' and IC = Individualized Consideration], and also the CR = Contingent Reward subscale, showed a positive correlation with duration of participation in YLDPs. Again, it is important to point out that previous studies have found a closer alignment of Contingent Reward (CR) with the transformational leadership construct than with that of transactional leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004; J. Cohen, 1988). These findings are somewhat congruent with what other research has shown previously in examining the relationship between duration of participation in YLDP and leadership acumen in individuals. Christens and Dolan (2011) concluded that there are cycles to the development process for youth and that, in effective programs, youth garner additional insights and acquire more skills as they go through the “multilevel intervention” of such programs (p. 544). Engagement of youth in their community through youth-development programs provides them with a stronger sense of belonging and creates opportunities for their attainment of leadership skills (Brennan, Barnett, & McGrath, 2009).

The remaining subscale for transactional leadership [MBEA = Management by Exception (Active)] and the two subscales for passive-avoidant leadership [MBEP = Management by

Exception (Passive) and LF = Laissez-Faire] had a negative correlation with duration of participation in YLDP. Previous research shows that there are sequential stages to development that are important to the formation of leadership identity over a period of time (Wielkiewicz et al., 2012). Schoenberg, Salmond, and Modi (2012) found that several measures for positive life outcome, including leadership skills, were enhanced for those individuals whose involvement was 3 years or longer in a YLDP in comparison to those individuals whose duration of involvement was only up to 3 years.

In a study that examined the relationship between development of transformational leadership of community leaders and their prior life experiences, Avolio (1994) maintained that a better understanding of involvements and events during the formative years is important to determining the leadership acumen and opportunities for additional development of leaders. To the extent that there may be a relationship between duration of participation in YLDPs and positive leadership styles that are ascribed to transformational leadership, the current study provides a modest level of support for further exploration of that question.

### **Discussion of Findings From Research Question 3**

The third research question asked whether the type of YLDP and gender each had a statistically significant effect on *MLQ* scores of the respondents, and whether the effects of type of YLDP participation on *MLQ* scores depended on the gender of the respondents as male, female, or transgender. Of the total number of participants ( $n = 263$ ), 39.2 percent participated in sports/athletics, followed by 37.3 percent in school-based programs/organizations, 8.2 percent in faith-based organizations, 6.5 percent in Girl Scouts and Boy Scouts, 4.6 percent in community youth organizations, and 4.2 percent in other YLDPs. The large number of participants in sports and school-based programs (such as: student government, theater, choir, etc.) points to the value

of these activities for the development of youth and the central role of schools as well as school-affiliated programs for engaging individuals during childhood and adolescence in pursuits that contribute positively to their enhancement.

Results of the 9 two-way ANOVAs that were conducted for this question do not show a statistically significant main effect of gender, main effect of YLDP type, or of the interaction of gender and YLDP type on each of the nine subscales of the *MLQ*. Previous research has not been conclusive about the importance of organization type for discernment of transformational leadership style in individuals. A study by Rosenbusch and Townsend (2004) found that leadership style is independent of the type and structure of an organization in which an individual is serving as its leader. However, others have examined leadership style in the context of organization type and those findings propose that there is a relationship between the two factors. Because participation in sports/athletics comprised the highest percentage in the YLDP groupings for all respondents (including male, female, and transgender) in the current study, the results from Table 4.7b were further examined. Prior studies have spoken to the impact of individuals' participation in sports during youth and the role of coaches as mentors for creating effective views of leadership and its development during adolescence (Fore, 2012; Larson, 2000). Murphy and Johnson (2011b) drew attention to research that underscored the transferability of skills attained through participation in athletic programs during youth to leadership acumen and abilities in the lives of those individuals as adults (Chelladurai, 2011).

### **Transformational and Transactional Leadership**

Among the respondents of the current study, the female sports participants consistently displayed a higher level of the Idealized Influence—attribute (IA) subscale: (female respondents:  $M = 3.12$ ; male respondents:  $M = 3.01$ ), Idealized Influence—behavior (IB) subscale: (female



respondents:  $M = 3.01$ ; male respondents:  $M = 2.77$ ), Inspirational Motivation (IM) subscale: (female respondents:  $M = 3.33$ ; male respondents:  $M = 3.11$ ), Intellectual Stimulation (IS) subscale: (female respondents:  $M = 2.91$ ; male respondents:  $M = 2.88$ ), and Individualized Consideration (IC) subscale: (female respondents:  $M = 3.15$ ; male respondents:  $M = 2.90$ ). Once again, the Contingent Reward (CR) subscale: in the current study displayed a similar pattern in which the results aligned more closely with those of the five subscales of the transformational-leadership construct than with the MBEA transactional-leadership subscale. Results in Table 4.7b show that female respondents displayed a higher level of the CR subscale (female respondents:  $M = 3.12$ ; male respondents:  $M = 2.88$ ) in comparison to their male counterparts. Comparatively, sports participants across all genders, showed a markedly lower level of the transactional leadership's MBEA subscale (female respondents:  $M = 1.84$ ; male respondents:  $M = 1.98$ ) and passive-avoidant's MBEP subscale (female respondents:  $M = 1.13$ ; male respondents:  $M = 1.26$ ) and LF subscale (female respondents:  $M = 0.82$ ; male respondents:  $M = 0.83$ ). To the extent that participation in sports during childhood and adolescence has a positive relationship with developing a transformational leadership style in adulthood, the results of the current study support previous findings to that effect (Zuniga, 2006). These results are also somewhat congruent with findings from past research that compared the leadership styles of women and men (Eagly et al., 2003; Floit, 1997) showing that female respondents were deemed more transformational in their leadership style than their male counterparts and female leaders demonstrated more contingent reward behaviors whereby their followers receive clarification on what is expected of them and the rewards they will have in return for meeting that threshold of performance. Another consideration in sports and athletic programs is the role of coaches as important figures who wield impact on the youth in their care. Prior studies point to the

influential role of adults and their effect during childhood and adolescence (Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Mitra, 2003; Schneider-Muñoz & Politz, 2007). The results of this study provide an endorsement of the prior research while also pointing to the significant role of adults for females during their childhood and adolescence (Madsen, 2007; Schoenberg et al., 2008).

The transgender participants showed a higher level of Idealized Influence—behavior (IB) subscale: (transgender respondents:  $M = 3.31$ ; female respondents:  $M = 3.01$ ; male respondents:  $M = 2.77$ ) and Intellectual Stimulation (IS) subscale: (transgender respondents:  $M = 3.38$ ; female respondents:  $M = 2.91$ ; male respondents:  $M = 2.88$ ) for participation in sports/athletics in comparison to their male and female counterparts. As noted in chapter two of the current study, idealized influence has a behavioral component (IB) that is expressed in the ability of the leader for fluently and persuasively communicating with their followers in emphasizing the significance of mission, values, and vision for each person's commitment to their role (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Although not statistically significant in the results of this study, the transgender participants respondents reported higher abilities that are commensurate to the IB subscale. Another measure of transformational leadership is Intellectual Stimulation (IS) which speaks to the ability of the leader to encourage team members to question the status quo and sanction their innovation for addressing concerns and overcoming obstacles (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006). It is noteworthy that, even though the results are not statistically significant, transgender respondents report a higher level of this competency than their female and male counterparts. To what extent being a member of a minority community has played a role in their development of the IS style may be of interest for future research.

Further, as noted in previous studies (Grossman et al., 2006; Hawkins, 2009), the role of adults is of particular significance for transgender youth as they develop their sense of self.

Considering the central role of coaches in sports and athletics programs, one could suggest that transgender youth would benefit from those relationships and therefore may be more inclined to become more influential leaders, as well.

### **Passive-Avoidant Leadership**

For the Management by Exception—passive (MBEP) subscale in this study, males who participated in sports exhibited a higher level of the characteristics in comparison to females and transgenders (male respondents:  $M = 1.26$ ; female respondents:  $M = 1.13$ ; transgender respondents:  $M = 0.94$ ), who exhibited a lower level of the characteristics in comparison to both males and females. Leaders whose style is prescribed to MBEP model are slow in engaging with their teams and wait to get involved only when a problem is so severe that it demands their immediate action to rectify (Avolio et al., 1999). Prior studies (Floit, 1997; Folta et al., 2012; Rosenbusch & Townsend, 2004) have found that women are more transformational in their leadership styles in comparison to men, but these findings are particularly congruent with results of studies by Rosen (1993), who found that men preferred management by exception—that is, maintaining the status quo unless something goes awry, in which case the leader intervenes to right the situation. Rosen (1993) suggested that the type of organization and what the situation might call for can be a possible determinant for this outcome.

As reflected in Table 4.6b, all of the respondents for all YLDP types, regardless of gender, showed a low level of the Laissez-Faire (LF) characteristics, which implies that the participants of this study who participated in sports did not display inaction and a failure to take responsibility for the leadership position they had assumed. These findings are somewhat congruent with what Christens and Dolan (2011) found in their examination of the *MLQ* scores of individuals who had participated in YLDPs.

### Discussion of Findings From Research Question 4

The fourth research question asked whether college leadership position/title and gender each had a statistically significant effect on *MLQ* scores of the respondents, and whether the effects of college leadership position/title on *MLQ* scores depended on the gender of the respondents as male, female, or transgender. Results of the 9 two-way ANOVAs that were conducted for this question did not show a statistically significant main effect of gender, or of the interaction of gender and college leadership position/title on each of the nine subscales of the *MLQ*. However, a review of the results highlights some interesting points. A comparison of the means for the five subscales: Idealized Influence—active (IA) subscale: ( $M = 2.85 - 3.38$ ); Idealized Influence—behavior (IB) subscale: ( $M = 2.69 - 3.75$ ); Inspirational Motivation (IM) subscale: ( $M = 3.00 - 3.56$ ); Intellectual Stimulation (IS) subscale: ( $M = 2.63 - 3.75$ ); and Individualized Consideration (IC) subscale: ( $M = 2.75 - 3.69$ ) that denote transformational leadership (see table 5.1) speaks to the respondents scoring higher across all three genders for all of the reported college leadership positions/titles in comparison to the mean values of the respondents across all college leadership positions/titles pertaining to the subscales that denote transactional leadership: Management by Exception—active (MBEA) subscale: ( $M = 1.13 - 2.88$ ); and passive-avoidant leadership: Management by Exception—passive (MBEP) subscale: ( $M = 0.63 - 1.88$ ); and Laissez-Faire (LF) subscale: ( $M = 0.31 - 1.50$ ). The exception is for the Contingent Reward (CR) subscale: ( $M = 2.50 - 3.38$ ); a subscale that is categorized with the transactional leadership style, and in the current study as with prior research, once again aligned more closely with the five subscales that denote transformational leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). These results draw attention to a possible beneficial relationship between holding positions of leadership by the respondents and their exhibiting leadership styles that speak to

their: abilities for articulating purpose and values, being visionary and innovative, inspiring and motivating others, emboldening followers to challenge the existing state of affairs, and serving as mentors and role models. These findings are somewhat congruent with previous studies that observed being in an officer position served as an “influential factor” for leadership (Brick, 1998, p. 68). Similarly, results of a study by Cardenas (2015) indicated that individuals who had substantial leadership experiences such as “campus leadership position, membership in fraternity/sorority, internships, student affairs, and volunteering in campus activities” reported more transformational leadership (p. 160).

As reported in the previous chapter of this study, for the Contingent Reward (CR) subscale of the *MLQ*, there was a statistically significant main effect of college leadership position/title on the CR characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 2.45, p = .025$ ] and on the Management by Exception—active (MBEA) characteristic of the *MLQ* [ $F(1, 248) = 2.29, p = .036$ ]. Using Bonferroni-adjusted alpha levels of 0.007 per position/title (0.05/7), results indicated that the main effect of college leadership/position title was not statistically significant on either the CR or the MBEA characteristic of the *MLQ*. The CR and MBEA are subscales associated with transactional leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1999, 2004). Transactional leaders are interested in maintaining order and ensuring follower conformity through rewards and punishment (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2010). Setting aside the CR subscale and its alignment more closely with the five subscales that pertain to transformational leadership as discussed previously, findings of the current study align somewhat with what was found in a prior study that there is no consequence for leadership experiences – denoted by positions and roles/responsibilities – in reference to transactional leadership (Cardenas, 2015).

## Summary

This study was designed to examine the relationship between participation in youth leadership development programs (YLDPs) during childhood and adolescence and the self-reported leadership styles of undergraduate college student leaders using the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)*. No statistically significant relationships were found between participation in YLDP, type of YLDP, duration of participation in YLDP, college leadership position/title of the participants and their *MLQ* scores. However, the findings pointed to some interesting information about the participants' *MLQ* scores for type of YLDP, duration of participation in YLDP, and the college leadership position/title of the participants. Limitations of the study, implications for practice, and opportunities for additional research are presented in the subsequent section of this chapter.

## Study Limitations

It was determined at the onset that this study would have limitations related to the following: (a) Selection bias might exist because participation in the study was voluntary; (b) the findings would not be generalizable to undergraduate student leaders who were enrolled at institutions of higher learning that were not public and were not 4-year research universities; (c) the study was limited to examining the relationship between participation in youth leadership programs and college student leadership, and did not address college attendance in general or leadership at later stages in life; (d) participants' recollection of their childhood and adolescence might not be completely accurate or might be influenced by their current leadership roles.

Limitations, in addition to those stated above, that arose during the study include the following: (a) Only three of the five selected sites for the study administered the survey; (b) the sample size ended up being very small, thus making the results of the current study not

generalizable; (c) a review of equivalence of the two groups showed a significant variance in the number of those who had participated in YLDPs ( $N = 266$ ) as opposed to those who had not ( $N = 12$ ); (d) there was a significant difference between the number of male, female, and transgender participations; and (e) there was a sizeable variance in comparison of one study site for the number of male, female, and transgender participants compared to the other study sites.

Limitations b, c, and d could have been mitigated by doing a random sample with participants from multiple institutions being invited to participate in the study.

It is important to note that the sample size of the YLDP participants ( $n = 266$ ) in this study was unequal to the nonparticipant ( $n = 12$ ) sample size. With respect to gender, the female sample size (64.8 percent;  $n = 180$ ) was almost twice as large as the male sample size (33.1 percent;  $n = 92$ ), and the transgender sample size (2.1 percent;  $n = 6$ ) was significantly smaller in comparison to that of both female and male participants. Sites for this study were institutions in the Mountain West region of the United States. How well gender identity is understood or discussed, and to what extent these institutions offer strong support programs for transgender individuals, is not known. Evans (2000) notes that such environments are defined by implicit and explicit ecosystems, structures, and practices that are fundamental to the development of those whose gender identity and expression are different from that of the majority population. As noted in Chapter 3 of this study, a nonprobability sample was used to collect data. A shortcoming of this sampling strategy is that data is collected only from those respondents who are conveniently available and willing to participate (Creswell, 2014).

### **Theoretical Implications**

The premise for this study was Bass and Avolio's transformational leadership framework and the *MLQ, Form 5X-Short*, the revised version of the *MLQ*. Because the sample size for this

study was small, the findings with no statistical significance for any of the research questions may not have implications for the questionnaire and its underlying framework.

### **Practical Implications**

As previously stated, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the participation of undergraduate college student leaders in YLDPs during childhood and adolescence and their self-reported leadership. Although the study did not uncover any statistical significance for the relationships that were examined through its questions, it did highlight some suggested opportunities for practitioners.

### **Youth Leadership Development Programs (YLDP)**

As youth leadership development programs (YLDP) are designed to prepare individuals for becoming leaders in adulthood, findings of this study may help practitioners further examine the extent to which different types of YLDPs are succeeding at providing youth with the appropriate opportunities during childhood and adolescence to develop their leadership styles, as denoted by the nine subscales of the MLQ. Results of this study may also be of interest to YLDPs that emphasize opportunities and programs either specifically and separately for males and females, or entities that are solely designed to serve only one gender. To what extent are such organizations are fostering learning opportunities that cultivate the leadership styles that are symbolized by the nine subscales of the MLQ? Another consideration informed by the findings of this study is to what extent are programs/organizations optimizing the role of adults in youth leadership development? Finally, YLDPs can examine to what extent they are intentionally embracing transgender youth and involving them during their childhood and adolescent years, and in doing so, are they creating similar opportunities for them to develop leadership styles that are conveyed by the nine subscales of the MLQ?



## **Undergraduate College Student Leadership**

Institutions of higher education may benefit from reexamining their admissions processes and student-engagement/leadership programs, to build pathways for students with a history of participation in YLD programs to enter into collegiate organizations. Higher education institutions may benefit from creating an incentivized leadership-development program that purposefully engages those students who emerge into positions of leadership and encourage their participation. Additionally, higher education institutions may be interested in creating deliberate opportunities for students to be prepared for and hold a position of leadership.

## **Future Research**

This study may be repeated with a larger sample size to determine whether a relationship might exist between the variables that were under investigation in this research. Additionally, this study may be repeated with a more representative sample (male, female, and transgender) to allow for a more objective comparison of results in terms of gender. In terms of what the findings of the current study reveal, additional research may be a means to facilitate a better understanding of the ways by which transgender youth are or are not being included in YLDPs. Future research could also examine leadership style in relationship to other factors such as ethnicity and major field of study. As noted by the current study and prior research, by this stage in their lives, individuals may have forgotten childhood experiences. A future study of a longitudinal nature may be an effective way by which development of leadership style is examined from the onset of involvement in YLDPs and through all consecutive years for the same sample.

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## APPENDIX A: INSTRUMENT FOR THE CURRENT STUDY

Qualtrics Survey Software

<https://chhscolostate.co1.qualtrics.com/ControlPanel/Ajax.php?acti...>

### Consent Form

Dear Participant,

My name is Ara Serjoie and I am a doctoral candidate at Colorado State University in the School of Education. I am conducting a research study for my doctoral dissertation. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between participation in youth leadership development programs during childhood and adolescence and the self-reported leadership styles of undergraduate college student leaders.

You have been identified to participate in this study because you are a student leader at your university. I would like to invite you to take an anonymous on-line survey. Participation will take approximately 15 minutes. Your participation in this research is voluntary. If you decide to participate in the study, you may withdraw your consent and stop participation at any time without penalty.

For this study, youth leadership development programs refers to school and/or extracurricular activities and programs between the ages of 10-18 years old. Examples of these include: student government, debate team, school newspaper or yearbook, any other school clubs or programs, sports, church or community organizations, Girl Scouts or Boy Scouts, Boys & Girls Clubs, YMCA/YWCA, 4H, FFA, camp, etc.

In addition to your youth experiences, I will be collecting data from you in this survey that includes your gender, age, ethnicity, sexual orientation, major field of study, name of the university you are attending, organizations/activities you participated in during your childhood/adolescence, and organizations/activities you are currently involved with. In addition, you will be asked questions about

your youth (childhood and adolescence) leadership experiences and current leadership involvement.

At the end of the survey, you will be asked if you are interested in being entered into a random prize drawing as a means to thank you for your participation in the study. Participation in the prize drawing is voluntary and you are not required to do so. If you select yes, you can click on a link that will take you to another site where you can provide your name and contact information. This is done in order to ensure your responses to this survey and your personal information are kept strictly separate from one another.

There are no known risks for participation in this study. However, it is not possible to identify all potential risks in research procedures, but the researcher has taken reasonable safeguards to minimize any known and potential (but unknown) risks.

To indicate your willingness to participate in this research, please type your full name in the blank space below and then simply continue with the survey.

If you have any questions about the research, please contact me at [araserjoie@yahoo.com](mailto:araserjoie@yahoo.com) or 415-272-3494. If you have any questions about your rights as a volunteer participant in this research, please contact the Colorado State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) Office at: [RICRO\\_IRB@mail.colostate.edu](mailto:RICRO_IRB@mail.colostate.edu) or 970-491-1553.

Sincerely,

Ara Serjoie  
Doctoral Candidate  
School of Education  
Colorado State University

**If you agree to participate in this study, please enter your full name below:**

## Section One

Q1 - Please check the gender you identity with.

Male

Female

Transgender

Q2 - What is your age?

17 years old and younger

18 - 23 years old

24 - 28 years old

29 - 35 years old

36 - 44 years old

45 - 55 years old

56 years old and higher

Q3 - What is the name of the university you are attending?

Q4 - What is your major?

Business

Social Sciences

Humanities and Arts

Education

Liberal Arts

Science

Health

Premed/Prelaw

Undecided

Other (please specify below)

Q5 - Which one of the following sexual orientations do you most closely identify with?

Straight

Gay

Lesbian

Bisexual

Q6 - Which one of the following ethnic groups do you most closely identify with?

African American

Asian American

Caucasian

Hispanic

Middle Eastern

Native American

Pacific Islander

Multi-racial

## Section Two

Q7 - Looking back at when you were between the ages of 10-18, did you participate in school and/or extracurricular activities and programs?

(For example: Did you participate in student government, debate team, school newspaper or yearbook, any other school clubs or programs, sports, church or community organizations, Girl Scouts or Boy Scouts, Boys & Girls Clubs, YMCA/YWCA, 4H, FFA, camp, or other similar type of organizations or programs?)

Yes

No



Q8 - For how many years did your participate in school and/or extracurricular activities and programs between the ages of 10-18?

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7
- 8
- 9

Q9 - Please identify the type of youth leadership development program that you participated in between the ages of 10-18 that was **Most Meaningful** to you.

*(Choose **one option** only. Then, please type the organization's name in the blank space provided. For example: if you choose Scouts, then you type in: either Girl Scouts or Boy Scouts.)*

Scouts (Girl Scouts or Boy Scouts) - Please indicate which one in the space below.

Community Youth Organization (example: Boys & Girls Club, Big Brother Big Sister, 4H, FFA, etc.) - Please type full name of the organization in the space below.

Faith-based Organization (example: Church, Synagogue, Mosque, etc.) - Please type full name of the church/synagogue/mosque AND the activity type (choir, camp, swimming, basketball, etc.) in the space below.

Sports/Athletics (Organized either by School or Community) - Please type what sport (football, soccer, etc.) AND name of the team AND/OR community/church/school affiliation in the space below.

Other - If the organization you participated in does not fit into the above criteria, then please type the full name of the organization in the space below.

School-based Program/Organization (example: student government, student newspaper, clubs - such as drama club, speech and debate team, etc.) - Please type full name of the program/club/organization in the space below.

Q10 - For how many years did you participate in the organization that you chose as **Most Meaningful** in the previous question (Question 9)?

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7
- 8
- 9

Q11 - Is there anything else you would like to share as to why participation in this organization (that you chose in response to Question 9) was **Most Meaningful** to you?

Q12 - For the organization that you chose in Question 9: Please rate the significance of each of the following **components** for making your participation meaningful.

Please use the following rating scale to answer the questions:

0 - Not at all significant

1 - Once in a while significant

2 - Sometimes significant

3 - Fairly often significant

4 - Frequently, if not always, significant

*Please feel free to provide any additional information you would like to share in the blank comment box below each selection.*

	0	1	2	3	4
Safe and nurturing environment <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Caring and supportive adults <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Positive relationship with peers <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Involvement in community service <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	0	1	2	3	4
Emphasis on academics <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Preventing risky behaviors <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



Q13 - For the organization that you chose in Question 9: Please rate the significance of each of the following **outcomes** for making your participation meaningful.

Please use the following rating scale to answer the questions:

0 - Not at all significant

1 - Once in a while significant

2 - Sometimes significant

3 - Fairly often significant

4 - Frequently, if not always, significant

*Please feel free to provide any additional information you would like to share in the blank comment box below each selection.*

	0	1	2	3	4
Learning time management skills <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ability to resolve conflict <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gaining confidence and respect for self <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Being successful in school <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Having positive relationships with family and friends <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	0	1	2	3	4
Learning to communicate clearly <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Being sensitive to others <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

### Section Three

Q14 - Thinking about your **current involvement in your university's activities and programs**, please identify the type of organization that you are currently participating in at your university that is **Most Meaningful** to you.

*(Choose **one option** only. Then, please type the program/organization name in the blank space provided. For example: if you choose Social Fraternity/Sorority, then you type in the sorority/fraternity name: such as Kappa Delta or Beta Theta Pi.)*

Varsity/Intercollegiate Athletics

Student Club/Organization

Student Government

Social Fraternity/Sorority

Residence Hall (in the space below, please write whether it is an all men's, all women's, or coed residence hall)

Other - Only use this option if the current organization you are serving as a leader for does not fit into the above criteria. Then, please type the exact name of the organization in the space below.

Academic Club/Organization

Q15 - Please identify the title/position that best describes your **current** role for the organization you chose as **Most Meaningful** in the previous question (Question 14).

*(Choose **one option** only. Then, please type your title in the blank space provided. For example: if you choose Residence Hall Leader, then you type in: either Residence Hall Director, or Residence Hall Assistant, etc...)*

President or Captain or Chair

First Vice President or Executive Vice President

Vice President or Co-Captain or Vice-Chair or Co-Chair

Secretary

Treasurer

Residence Hall Leader

Other - Only use this option if your leadership title does not fit into the above criteria. Then, please type in your exact title in the space below.

#### Section Four: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire



Q16 - Thinking about the organization that you chose in response to Question 14: the following statements are to describe **your** leadership style in **your current leadership role** as **you** perceive it.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed in the following section. Please judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word “others” may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

Please do your best to answer all items. However, if an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.

Please use the following rating scale for each statement:

0 - Not at all

1 - Once in a while

2 - Sometimes

3 - Fairly often

4 - Frequently, if not always

	0	1	2	3	4
1. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their effort	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. I fail to interfere until problems become serious	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

### Information for Prize Drawing

Would you like to be entered into a prize drawing in appreciation for your participation in this study?

Yes

No

You have indicated that you would like to be entered into the random prize drawing for participation in this survey. Please click on the link below to provide the needed information.

[https://chhscolostate.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV\\_bpXhceBPvLoFiiV](https://chhscolostate.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_bpXhceBPvLoFiiV)

Powered by Qualtrics

## APPENDIX B: STUDENT LEADER PARTICIPATION INVITATION LETTER

Dear (Insert Name of University) Student Leader,

Ara Serjoie is a doctoral student in the School of Education at Colorado State University. He is also a (Insert Name of University) alumnus. Ara is conducting a research study to examine the relationship between participation in youth leadership development programs during childhood and adolescence and the self-reported leadership styles of undergraduate college student leaders. For this study, youth leadership development refers to school and/or extracurricular activities and programs between the ages of 10-18.

We would like you to take an anonymous online survey. You have been selected to participate in this study because you are identified as a student leader at the University of Utah. Participation will take approximately 15 minutes. Your participation in this research is voluntary. If you decide to participate in the study, you may withdraw your consent and stop participation at any time without penalty.

As mentioned earlier, one of the areas of focus in this study is youth leadership development. You will be asked if you participated in school and/or extracurricular activities and programs between the ages of 10-18 years old. Examples of these include: student government, debate team, school newspaper or yearbook, any other school clubs or programs, sports, church or community organizations, Girl Scouts or Boy Scouts, Boys & Girls Clubs, YMCA/YWCA, 4H, FFA, camp, etc.

In addition, the survey will be collecting some information about you including your age range, gender, and academic major field of study. When this data is reported and shared with others, it will be combined with data from all participants. Your responses will be completely confidential and your identity will never be exposed. All of the data collected will be kept in a password-protected document on a password-protected computer that is accessible only to the researcher for this study. In appreciation for your participation, at the end of the survey, you can choose to be entered into a drawing for a variety of prizes including **Starbucks gift cards, Macy's gift cards, Amazon gift cards, and a \$250 Apple gift card**. Choosing to participate in the prize drawing is optional and in no way required, nor will it have any effect on your participation in this study. Collecting information (Name, Phone Number, and Email) for the prize drawing will be done through a link for a separate survey. Therefore, your research study responses will not be linked to the information that you provide for the prize drawing.

While there are no direct benefits to you, the results of this study will shed light on the childhood leadership development experiences of undergraduate student leaders that may have been conducive to their leadership as young adults. In addition, the study will provide an understanding of how leadership development during childhood and adolescence can play a role in leadership behaviors of individuals as young adults.

There are no known risks for participation in this study. However, it is not possible to identify all potential risks in research procedures, but the researcher has taken reasonable safeguards to minimize any known and potential (but unknown) risks.

To indicate your willingness to participate in this research and to continue on to the survey, [please click here](https://chhscolostate.col.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_dm4r95uPlfu2Gx). (Or, you can copy and paste this link into a new browser window: [https://chhscolostate.col.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV\\_dm4r95uPlfu2Gx](https://chhscolostate.col.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_dm4r95uPlfu2Gx))

If you have any questions about the research, please contact Ara Serjoie at (Cell phone: 415.272.3494 or Email: [araserjoie@yahoo.com](mailto:araserjoie@yahoo.com)) or Lori McDonald (Phone Number: 801-581-7066 or Email: [lmcdonald@sa.utah.edu](mailto:lmcdonald@sa.utah.edu)). If you have any questions about your rights as a volunteer in this research, contact the CSU IRB at: [RICRO\\_IRB@mail.colostate.edu](mailto:RICRO_IRB@mail.colostate.edu); 970-491-1553.

Sincerely,

Name of Contact at the University  
Title of Contact at the University  
Department of Contact at the University  
Name of Participating University

Ara Serjoie  
Doctoral Candidate  
School of Education  
Colorado State University

## APPENDIX C: REMINDER FOR STUDENT LEADER PARTICIPATION

Dear (Inset Name of University) Student Leader ~

This is a reminder following an email that was sent to you on (Insert Date of Original Email) regarding a study by Ara Serjoie for his doctoral dissertation in the School of Education at Colorado State University.

Please note that your participation in this survey would be greatly appreciated as it will provide the researcher with important data that he needs to conduct his study.

As a reminder, to access the survey [please click here](https://chhscolostate.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_dmw4r95uPlfu2Gx). (Or, you can copy and paste this link into a new browser window: [https://chhscolostate.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV\\_dmw4r95uPlfu2Gx](https://chhscolostate.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_dmw4r95uPlfu2Gx))

The original email that was sent to you on (Insert Date of Original Email) is also being attached at the end of this email.

Thank you,

Name of Contact at the University	Ara Serjoie
Title of Contact at the University	Doctoral Candidate
Department of Contact at the University	School of Education
Name of Participating University	Colorado State University

---

Original email sent on (Insert Date of Original Email):

Dear (Insert Name of University) Student Leader,

Ara Serjoie is a doctoral student in the School of Education at Colorado State University. He is also a (Insert Name of University) alumnus. Ara is conducting a research study to examine the relationship between participation in youth leadership development programs during childhood and adolescence and the self-reported leadership styles of undergraduate college student leaders. For this study, youth leadership development refers to school and/or extracurricular activities and programs between the ages of 10-18.

We would like you to take an anonymous online survey. You have been selected to participate in this study because you are identified as a student leader at the University of Utah. Participation will take approximately 15 minutes. Your participation in this research is voluntary. If you decide to participate in the study, you may withdraw your consent and stop participation at any time without penalty.

As mentioned earlier, one of the areas of focus in this study is youth leadership development. You will be asked if you participated in school and/or extracurricular activities and programs

between the ages of 10-18 years old. Examples of these include: student government, debate team, school newspaper or yearbook, any other school clubs or programs, sports, church or community organizations, Girl Scouts or Boy Scouts, Boys & Girls Clubs, YMCA/YWCA, 4H, FFA, camp, etc.

In addition, the survey will be collecting some information about you including your age range, gender, and academic major field of study. When this data is reported and shared with others, it will be combined with data from all participants. Your responses will be completely confidential and your identity will never be exposed. All of the data collected will be kept in a password-protected document on a password-protected computer that is accessible only to the researcher for this study. In appreciation for your participation, at the end of the survey, you can choose to be entered into a drawing for a variety of prizes including **Starbucks gift cards, Macy's gift cards, Amazon gift cards, and a \$250 Apple gift card**. Choosing to participate in the prize drawing is optional and in no way required, nor will it have any effect on your participation in this study. Collecting information (Name, Phone Number, and Email) for the prize drawing will be done through a link for a separate survey. Therefore, your research study responses will not be linked to the information that you provide for the prize drawing.

While there are no direct benefits to you, the results of this study will shed light on the childhood leadership development experiences of undergraduate student leaders that may have been conducive to their leadership as young adults. In addition, the study will provide an understanding of how leadership development during childhood and adolescence can play a role in leadership behaviors of individuals as young adults.

There are no known risks for participation in this study. However, it is not possible to identify all potential risks in research procedures, but the researcher has taken reasonable safeguards to minimize any known and potential (but unknown) risks.

To indicate your willingness to participate in this research and to continue on to the survey, [please click here](https://chhscolostate.col.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_dmw4r95uPlfu2Gx). (Or, you can copy and paste this link into a new browser window: [https://chhscolostate.col.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV\\_dmw4r95uPlfu2Gx](https://chhscolostate.col.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_dmw4r95uPlfu2Gx))

If you have any questions about the research, please contact Ara Serjoie at (Cell phone: 415.272.3494 or Email: [araserjoie@yahoo.com](mailto:araserjoie@yahoo.com)) or Lori McDonald (Phone Number: 801-581-7066 or Email: [lmcdonald@sa.utah.edu](mailto:lmcdonald@sa.utah.edu)). If you have any questions about your rights as a volunteer in this research, contact the CSU IRB at: [RICRO\\_IRB@mail.colostate.edu](mailto:RICRO_IRB@mail.colostate.edu); 970-491-1553.

Sincerely,

Name of Contact at the University  
Title of Contact at the University  
Department of Contact at the University  
Name of Participating University

Ara Serjoie  
Doctoral Candidate  
School of Education  
Colorado State University