

**AN EXAMINATION OF STUDENT LEADERSHIP STYLES AND THEIR
RELATIONSHIP TO LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT TRAINING
AND STUDENT LEADER EFFECTIVENESS**

A Dissertation

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ABSTRACT

Leadership development programs have become popular at universities across the United States. These programs, whether curricular or cocurricular, short-term or long-term, have helped undergraduate student leaders to be effective and to develop skills that they can use not only in their student organizations but also in their lives after graduation. While some studies have focused on leadership development programs, very few have compared the students' leadership styles and effectiveness as perceived by peers, based on participation in a leadership development program. This study was designed to determine whether there were differences in the leadership styles of student leaders who participated in a leadership development program and those who did not. The study also investigated whether followers perceived their student leaders to be more effective based on their leaders' participation in a leadership development program. Based on both quantitative and qualitative measures, the results of this study provide positive implications for student participation in leadership development programs. Results from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire showed no significant difference between students who participated in a leadership development program and those who did not; however, a slight difference showed students who had participated in a program to be more transformational and more transactional. The qualitative method of focus groups showed that student leaders who participated in a leadership development program were perceived to be more effective than those who did not, based on four emergent themes: leading by example, passion for the organization, organizational skills

and task- versus relationship-oriented leadership. While focus group participants discussed similarities of the themes of leading by example and passion for the organization, differences were found in the themes organizational skills and task- versus relationship-oriented leadership. These differences were in favor of student leaders who participated in a leadership development program that made them more effective. Recommendations in support of leadership development programs were discussed, including required training for student leaders, incorporating cross-cultural communications training, and developing a peer evaluation system, among others.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents, Sherry and Gary, for their unconditional love and continued support. It is also dedicated to my grandmother, Mary “Lou”, and in loving memory of my grandfather, J. D..

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Administrators and staff members at institutions of higher education have long been interested in developing student leaders and consider leadership skills to be important aspects of the experience of education (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001). Universities across the United States “have established some form of leadership education program for students” (Posner & Brodsky, 1992, p. 231). Many leadership experts contend that leadership can be learned through the educational process (Posner & Brodsky, 1992). Existent research and literature reviews have shown that students who participate in some form of leadership education expand their skills and knowledge, achieve more, and develop into more effective leaders (Astin, 1999; Cress et al., 2001; Eich, 2008; Hirschorn, 1988). While several studies have discussed leadership styles, not much known is about the leadership styles of students who participate in leadership development programs, compared to students who do not participate in such programs, particularly regarding to whether leadership development programs have an effect on the leadership styles of college student leaders. Furthermore, little is known about the effectiveness, as perceived by group members, of students who participate in leadership development programs, compared to students who do not participate in such programs.

Over the past 30 years, leadership development programs have become increasingly popular at universities across the country (Brungardt, 1996; Cress et al., 2001; Hirschorn, 1988; Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006). In

2001, there were as many as 700 college leadership programs in the United States, and that number is steadily increasing (Cress et al., 2001; Grunwell, 2015; Hirschorn, 1988). In their institutional mission statements, many universities express their goal to build students as leaders (Cress et al., 2001; Riutta & Teodorescu, 2014; Thompson, 2006). For example, the mission statement of Texas A&M University (TAMU) states, in part, that the university “prepares students to assume roles in leadership, responsibility and service to society” (TAMU, 2013, para. 1).

The overall goal of university-sponsored leadership development programs for students is to prepare students with skills necessary to be successful after graduation (Eich, 2008). Even though leadership development has been an indirect goal of higher education, only in the past few decades have large strides been made in this regard (Brungardt, 1996). As one of the outcomes of receiving an undergraduate education, higher education has taken on a major role in shaping the quality of leadership in modern American society (Eich, 2008). Educators have reported that undergraduate students who participate in leadership development, education, or training can develop skills necessary to lead effectively in the future (Cress et al., 2001; Eich, 2008; Grunwell, 2015).

The Interassociational Task Force on Leadership and the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) identified three approaches to leadership programs: *leadership training*, *leadership education*, and *leadership development* (Komives et al., 2006). These three terms are often used synonymously (Brungardt, 1996). For students, the terms are typically used to describe a situation in

which students are equipped with certain knowledge and skills that prepare them to be effective facilitators and administrations of their student organizations. Effective leadership development programs have learning objectives that give students an opportunity to transfer the learned skills to their careers and lives after graduation. While the aforementioned terms are commonly used interchangeably based on a unifying theme, each has a distinct definition.

Leadership development refers to almost every form of growth or stage of development in the life cycle that promotes, encourages, and assists in one's leadership potential. This includes learning activities that are both formal and structured as well as those that are informal and unstructured (from childhood development, education, and adult life experiences to participating in formal programming designed to enhance leadership capabilities). Leadership development is a continuous learning process that spans an entire lifetime; where knowledge and experience builds and allows for even more advanced learning and growth. . . . Leadership education is usually defined more narrowly. It includes those learning activities and educational environments that are intended to enhance and foster leadership abilities. A formal college course on leadership or a professional seminar designed to teach a particular leadership skill are examples of leadership educational activities. Leadership education, therefore, is one of the components of leadership development. Usually, leadership education is the more formal and structured learning environment that purposely seeks to intervene (enhance, alter, create, or speed-up) the development of leaders. . . .

Leadership training is narrower yet, and usually refers to learning activities for a specific leadership role or job. Leadership training activities are considered components of leadership education. (Brungardt, 1996, pp. 83-84)

While these terms have distinct definitions, they share the theme of teaching some aspect of leadership and developing students into effective leaders. Therefore, for the purposes of this research, the term *leadership development* is used because its definition encompasses both leadership education and leadership training.

The Researcher's Perspective

My experiences in higher education and in working with college students piqued my curiosity to study student leadership styles. I began to work in higher education immediately after earning a Bachelor's degree. During my tenure in higher education, I have worked in both academic and student affairs and have advised student leaders in each position. Over the course of 15 years in academia, I have seen many types of student leaders. I have seen student leaders who were very outgoing, charismatic, and able to motivate peers just by how they articulated their vision and the goals of the organization. I have also seen student leaders who were not as charismatic but they were organized; they made sure that each event and task was accomplished with precision. In the doctoral program I studied various leadership theories and elements of leadership development training. My studies led me to reflect on my experiences with various student leaders. I wondered whether students found their niche as leaders by participating in a leadership development program. Since the leaders with whom I have worked have been, generally, exceptional ones, I thought that training may have

contributed to their skills as leaders. However, as an advisor to student organizations, I know that students are often not required to participate in any type of leadership training in order to be a chief student leader, so leadership development training may have little to do with their effectiveness as leaders. As I reviewed various leadership development programs and current research on leadership development training, I did not find many universities that required student leaders to participate in training or many studies that compared the leadership styles of student leaders based on participation in a leadership development program. The culmination of these thoughts led me to the current research topic. It is my desire to add to the current literature on college students and leadership to understand the implications of student leaders who engage in leadership development programs.

Statement of the Problem

Colleges and universities across the United States have instituted a plethora of leadership development programs for undergraduate student leaders (Brungardt, 1996; Chesnut & Tran-Johnson, 2013; Cress et al., 2001; Hirschorn, 1988). Most commonly, the goals of leadership development programs include cultivating and strengthening leadership skills, helping students to understand their style of leadership, and enhancing character and personal development, among others (Dugan & Komives, 2007). While there are numerous leadership development programs at universities across the country, students who assume leadership roles in student organizations are usually not required to participate in a leadership development program as a prerequisite for obtaining a leadership position (herein referred to as Chief Student Leader [CSL]), such as president,

vice president, executive director, or director. Many CSLs have not had any form of leadership development training. The leadership styles and effectiveness of CSLs who participate in leadership development programs have rarely been compared to the leadership styles and effectiveness of CSLs who have not participated in such programs.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is twofold. First, this study was designed to determine whether there is a difference in *leadership styles* of undergraduate student leaders who participate in leadership development programs and undergraduate student leaders who do not participate in such programs. Second, this study was designed to determine whether a relationship exists between participation in a leadership development program and *leader effectiveness*, as perceived by student organization members. The findings of this research will serve as a catalyst for further exploration of student leadership styles, perceived effectiveness, and leadership development programs at institutions of higher education. Informed understanding of these areas can support the need for continuing leadership development programs, modifying current programs, and creating additional leadership development programs that equip students with skills necessary to be successful after graduation.

Introduction to Theoretical Influences

Three theories influence and shape this study: (a) the grounded theory of leadership identity development (LID) by Komives, Owen, Longersbeam, and Mainella (2005), (b) the theory of identity development posited by Chickering and Reisser (1993),

and (c) the theory of transformational leadership modified by Bass (1990). Each theory is summarized below.

Based on relational leadership, the LID “reflects the developmental experience of college students” (Komives et al., 2005, p. 594). This theory centers on leadership identity as students move sequentially through six stages by way of a signaled transition: awareness, exploration/engagement, leader identified, leader differentiated, generativity, and integration/synthesis. After interviewing 13 student participants from a variety of backgrounds and experiences and known to demonstrate relational leadership, Komives et al. (2005) analyzed the data and identified five categories of leadership identity: essential developmental influences, developing self, group influences, changing view of self with others, and broadening view of leadership. All of these “categories interact to create a leadership identity as the central category that developed over six identity stages” (p. 596). As students develop their own styles of leadership, personal characteristics, experiences, and other factors shape their styles of leadership. For the purposes of this study, transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire styles constitute the full range model of leadership. Komives et al. (2006) noted that, as students continue to develop leadership identity, two instrumental theoretical influences emerge: psychosocial and cognitive. This study examines the *psychosocial* element, which derives from Chickering and Reisser’s (1993) theory of identity development.

According to Chickering and Reisser’s (1993) theory, students move through seven vectors that shape their identity (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Evans et al. (1998) pointed out that Chickering’s theory was developed during his time at

Goddard College, where he administered achievement and personality instruments to students, had select students journal their experiences, and conducted in-depth interviews with other students. Based on his data collection and subsequent analysis, Chickering concluded that students develop as they move through seven vectors: developing competence, managing emotions, moving through autonomy toward interdependence, developing mature interpersonal relationships, establishing identity, developing purpose, and developing integrity. In the first five vectors Chickering and Reisser (1993) drew attention to the need for personal relationships as crucial in creating a personal identity. Komives et al. (2006) pointed out that the final two vectors, developing purpose and developing integrity, “attest to the importance of developing commitments in a pluralistic world, the context in which leadership is practiced” (p. 402). The leadership styles observed in the present study—transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire—are built on relationships with subordinates/followers. Therefore, this research is grounded in the aforementioned theories and transformational leadership, part of the full range model of leadership.

Transformational leadership has philosophical beginnings about 5,000 years ago, when written principles regarding leadership and the relationship between follower and leader began to emerge (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003). Many of the first notions about the transformational leader can be traced to the works of Chinese philosophers such as Confucius and Asoka, who were advocates for leaders to be morally sound and to encourage their followers to be the same (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003). Additional thoughts connected to transformational leading can be found in the writings of Aristotle,

Homer, and Plato. “These philosophers were promoting charismatic leaders as moral agents that inspire followers by evoking symbolic images and expressing important ideas in simple, rational ways” (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003, p. 87), which is the essence of transformational leadership.

While transformational leadership has some historical context connecting back to ancient philosophers, it was centuries later before the term was formally coined.

“Downton first coined the term *transformational leadership* in 1973; however, its emergence as an important approach to leadership begin with a classic work by the political sociologist James MacGregor Burns titled *Leadership*” (Northouse, 2004, p. 170). Burns (1978) considered leaders to be either transactional or transformational. While *transactional* leadership focuses on exchanges between leader and follower, the *transformational* leader asks the follower to put the needs and interests of the organization or group above personal needs and interests and to rise to a standard of ethical behavior, which is modeled by the leader. Thus, the leader creates a level of motivation in the follower that encourages the follower to reach his or her greatest potential, ideally, becoming a leader as well (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004).

In 1985 Bass modified Burns’s paradigm of transactional and transformational leadership, proposing that transformational leadership enhances the “effects of transactional leadership on the efforts, satisfaction, and effectiveness of subordinates” (Bass, 1990, p. 53). Bass analyzed surveys of senior military officers and business managers to determine the validity of transformational leadership. Finding fidelity in this model, Bass added four dimensions of transformational leadership reflecting the ideal

behaviors that transformational leaders exhibit (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003; McGuire & Hutchings, 2007): inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and idealized influence (Bass, 1999).

The first dimension is *inspirational motivation*. When personifying this element of transformational leadership, leaders “enthuse followers, build confidence and empower them to face difficult challenges” (McGuire & Hutchings, 2007, p. 156). The leader sets high expectations and encourages followers to be part of the vision (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003; Northouse, 2004). In order to do this, the leader must be an effective communicator, skillful in expressing important purposes in simple ways. Effective communication is a key element in motivating and inspiring. If a leader does not communicate well, the vision and expectations may be misconstrued by the follower. McGuire and Hutchings (2007) noted that the leader not only must inspire a vision but must translate abstract and intangible ideas in a way that is understandable to followers. When followers understand and accept the vision, they are more likely to commit to seeing the vision realized.

Second, transformational leaders must stimulate followers intellectually. *Intellectual stimulation* allows followers to feel a level of autonomy and independence while working to carry out the vision (Bass, 1990). The leader encourages followers to think outside the box in order to be creative. In supporting the creativity of followers, intellectual stimulation results in followers “searching for new approaches to old problems” (McGuire & Hutchings, 2007, p. 159). Creativity allows followers to contribute, which in turn gives them ownership in the organization or group.

Transformational leaders must challenge followers, which aligns with setting high expectations. Leaders must be catalysts for followers as they challenge the system, their own beliefs and values, and the beliefs and values of the leader (Northouse, 2004). Effective leaders must be confident in who they are and in their abilities (Tekleab, Sims, Yun, Tesluk, & Cox, 2008).

The third element of transformational leadership is *individualized consideration*. The leader must listen to followers, coach and advise, and delegate to followers for growth (Northouse, 2004). In order to fulfill this component of transformational leadership, the leader must learn to listen to the individual needs of each follower, reacting to and supporting them in a way unique to each individual. Developing relationships “between transformational leaders and followers is critical to bringing about successful change. By demonstrating trust through understanding the struggles, needs and capabilities of followers, transformational leaders show that they care and value their followers” (McGuire & Hutchings, 2007, p. 159). Individualized consideration requires a high level of trust from both leader and follower. Both must realize that trust is not an overnight process; it takes time. Followers must trust that the leader has their best interests in mind. Many followers find it difficult to take advice or to be coached from someone whom they hardly know or trust, which makes development of close relationships vital to transformational leadership. Followers must also have confidence in the leader’s vision. In turn, the leader must trust the followers’ capabilities and potential, helping them grow to the fullest. This also means that the leader realizes that followers may fail; however, instead of chastising them, the leader

must find teachable moments, helping them to realize the lessons to be learned from each failure.

Fourth, transformational leadership requires *idealized influence* or charisma (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003). Northouse (2004) conceptualized this element as the leader being a strong role model for followers, possessing high standards of ethical conduct and having an excellent vision for the future. In this element, followers typically want to emulate the leader because they can identify with them. Followers do not necessarily copy the leader's actions, appearances, or mannerisms; instead, they strive to become equal to or excel the standards set by the leader. The leader receives a high level of respect from followers, who recognize that the fact the leader has high moral standards and holds strong ethical fibers. However, there is an element of danger in this particular characteristic of transformational leadership. The leader must be careful to not defame his character in the eyes of followers, which would most likely cause followers to lose trust in and respect for the leader. The leader must always display ethical behavior. Failure to do so threatens the leader-follower relationship.

In essence, transformational leaders instill pride, transmit a sense of mission and purpose, stimulate followers intellectually, and act as mentors (Bass, 1990; McGuire & Hutchings, 2007; Northouse, 2004). Together, these abilities enable the transformational leader to lead followers to change. The word *transform* or *transformational* simply means *to change*. In the context of transformational leadership, it invokes changing systems, values, and ideas through a vision shared by leader and followers. Transformational leadership is not necessarily an easy process. However, if the leader

inspires, motivates, and encourages followers through a powerful vision and strong determination, such transformational leadership is achievable.

Introduction to the Review of the Literature

As many as 21 types of leaders have been distinguished (Bass, 1990). Among the most popular styles studied are autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, transformational, and transactional leadership. The autocratic style of leadership refers to a leader who takes an authoritative approach to leadership. Autocratic leaders are typically influenced by power, make decisions without consulting the group or subordinates, and dictate orders (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004). “This leader is often seen as controlling, demanding, hard-driving, and overpowering” (Northouse, 2004, p. 69). In contrast, the democratic style leader thrives on involving the group in the decision-making process. This leader represents the interests of the group and desires to work with followers as a team (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004). Comparable to team management on Blake and Mouton’s leadership grid, a democratic leader can be described as one who “stimulates participation, acts determined, gets issues into the open, makes priorities clear, follows through, behaves open-mindedly, and enjoys working” (Northouse, 2004, p. 71). The laissez-faire leader delegates decision making entirely to the group and takes a hands-off approach. Consequently, this type of leader has been described as one who “abdicates responsibility, delays decisions, gives no feedback, and makes little effort to help followers satisfy their needs” (Northouse, 2004, p. 179). Laissez-faire leadership is notably the least effective and least desired leadership style.

Transformational and transactional are also two widely studied styles of leadership. According to Bass (1990), the transformational leader asks [followers] to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the group, organization, or society; to consider their long-term needs to develop themselves, rather than their needs of the moment; and to become more aware of what is really important. (p. 53)

Transformational leaders adhere to a deeply held set of standards and values and inspire followers through coaching and mentoring. The job of the transformational leader is not only to set high expectations for followers to achieve but also to help transform followers into leaders themselves (Northouse, 2004). Transformational leadership is generally compared and contrasted to transactional leadership. Transactional leadership focuses on the exchanges that occur between leader and follower (Den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997). D. L. Fields and Herold (1997) noted that, in transactional leadership, “the follower makes contributions in anticipation of, or in response to, rewards, support, and various accommodations from the leader” (p. 570).

A majority of the empirical data on transformational and transactional leadership is derived from studies using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Bass, 1999). The MLQ identifies characteristics of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leaders and delineates how they measure up in their own eyes and in the eyes of those with whom they work—in essence, their effectiveness (Bass, 1999; Tejeda, Scandura, & Pillai, 2001).

Bass and Avolio developed scales to measure the dimensions that underlie the transactional and transformational leadership constructs. Initially, 142 questionnaire items were generated based on interviews with 70 executives. A panel of 11 expert judges then categorized the items as either transactional or transformational and the items that could not be reliably classified were eliminated, producing a 73-item questionnaire, the MLQ. (Tepper & Percy, 1994, p. 735)

A more recent version of the MLQ, the MLQ 5X, was developed to address issues identified with the earlier version, including problems with wording, lack of discriminant validity among certain leadership factors, and incorporation of behaviors and attributes in the same scale (Bass, 1999). For transformational leadership, the MLQ measures dimensions of charismatic leadership (idealized influence), inspirational leadership, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. Since its inception, several studies have employed the MLQ to identify leadership styles and to measure leadership effectiveness (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Schriesheim, Wu, & Scandura, 2009). While several studies have used the MLQ, only a few have examined college students as the target population; a majority focused on business executives, school administrators, and managers (Lowe et al., 1996; Qu, Janssen, & Shi, 2015).

Several studies have explored leadership styles and leader effectiveness. Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003) compared the leadership styles of men and women using transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. They found

that male leaders typically executed transactional and laissez faire leadership, while women were rated higher on effectiveness as transformational leaders. The participants were business leaders, not undergraduate college students. However, a study conducted by Posner and Brodsky (1994) sampled undergraduate student leaders. Posner and Brodsky found no significant difference in effectiveness of male versus female undergraduate leaders. Although undergraduate student leaders were the target population, there was no mention of how undergraduate leaders were trained and developed as leaders or whether leadership development programs had played a role in their effectiveness. These are two examples of studies that made contributions to the research on leadership styles and effectiveness. There are others; however, very few have looked at undergraduate students and, in those studies, leadership development programs were not variables.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This research project investigates differences in leadership styles of student leaders who participated in leadership development training and those who did not participate in such programs. In addition, the study examines the effectiveness of student leaders, as perceived by their followers, making the comparison based on whether the student leader had participated in a leadership development program. The MLQ was used to identify leadership styles and leadership effectiveness was examined through focus groups of members of student organizations led by the sampled student leaders.

Three research questions guided this study.

Research Question 1: Is leadership style affected by participation in a leadership development program?

Hypothesis 1: There is a difference between leadership styles of student leaders who participate in leadership development programs and student leaders who do not participate in leadership development programs.

Null Hypothesis 1: There is no difference between leadership styles of student leaders who participate in leadership development programs and student leaders who do not participate in leadership development programs.

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between leadership style and effectiveness of student leaders as perceived by their group members?

Research Question 3: What is the relationship between leader effectiveness of student leaders as perceived by their group members and the leaders' participation in leadership development programs?

Introduction to the Methodology

Participants

The target population for this research project was CSLs at U.S. universities: presidents, vice presidents, executive directors, and directors of student organizations, as well as general members of student organizations. This study sampled CSLs at a large public research institution in Texas that enrolled approximately 58,000 students. CSLs were selected for this study based on their leadership roles within their student organizations. The target university has approximately 800 student organizations from which student leaders and organizational members were asked to participate.

Via electronic mail invitation, 304 CSLs were asked to complete an electronic version of the MLQ 5X (Appendix A). In addition, organizational members were asked to discuss in focus groups their individual CSLs, based on the number of CSLs who indicated that they wanted their leadership effectiveness evaluated. Organizational faculty/staff advisors were asked to identify members of the organization who were actively engaged in the respective student organizations who could be invited to participate in the focus groups. Two focus groups were conducted. One focus group was comprised of six organizational members whose CSL(s) had participated a leadership development program; the second focus group consisted of six organizational members whose CSL(s) had not participated in a leadership development program.

The MLQ was administered in spring 2014. The MLQ was available online for 3 consecutive weeks (January 16 through February 7, 2014), and the focus group participants were invited to participate after MLQ data had been collected. As an incentive to participate, participants had an opportunity to win a \$50 Visa™ gift card. Three reminders were sent to each sample of student leaders and focus group participants.

Six demographic questions preceded the MLQ. The demographic questions were designed to collect information on current university classification (freshman, sophomore, junior, senior), ethnicity (African American/Black, Asian/Pacific Islander, Caucasian/White, Hispanic/Latino(a), Biracial or Multiracial, or Other), major field of study, and gender. The fifth question asked whether respondents had participated in a leadership development program and, if so, which program (chosen from a provided list

of leadership development programs compiled from an online search on the university's website). The final question asked whether respondents wanted to have their effectiveness as a leader evaluated by their organizational group members.

Instruments

To determine the leadership styles of undergraduate student leaders as transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire, the MLQ 5X (Tejeda et al., 2001; Appendix A) was administered. The MLQ is based on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from *Frequently, if not always* to *Not at all*. Permission from Mind Garden (Appendix B) was obtained for this research. Studies that have employed the MLQ provide convincingly strong support for predictions derived from the instrument and suggest that its psychometric properties, such as internal consistency, reliability, factor structure, and predictive validity, are favorable (Tepper & Percy, 1994).

To assess the perceived effectiveness of the CSLs, focus groups were held with select members of each consenting leader's organization. The focus group participants were selected based on the leader indicating a willingness to have leadership effectiveness evaluated. The questions posed in the focus groups were based on the Student Leader Effectiveness Survey developed by Posner and Brodsky (1992) in a study to identify the relationship between leadership practices (using the Leadership Practices Inventory [LPI]) and leader effectiveness. Initial participants in the effectiveness survey were all fraternity presidents; however, a subsequent study was conducted later with sorority presidents. No statistical differences in leader effectiveness

by gender were found; therefore, this instrument is appropriate to be used with both genders.

Procedures

To determine leadership styles of CSLs who had participated in leadership development programs and those who had not participated in leadership development programs, a *t* test compared mean scores for each leadership construct on the MLQ. To determine the relationship between leadership styles and student leader effectiveness as perceived by group members, focus groups were conducted. Audio and video recordings were used to capture the thoughts of the participants in the focus groups. After transcribing the focus group sessions, an analysis was conducted to search for common themes to determining the effectiveness of the leaders as perceived by organizational members.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF STUDENT LEADERSHIP TRAINING AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Effective student leaders are essential to the success of student organizations on college campuses in the United States. Many colleges and universities spend considerable time and resources to emphasize the importance of leadership through training sessions, workshops, and other leadership learning experiences, both curricular and cocurricular. This review of literature and executive summary explore components related to college students and leadership development programs. First, studies on leadership development and its effect on student leaders are explored. Next, leadership development programs at various institutions of higher education are examined. These programs have been shown to be effective in providing students with the skills necessary to be effective leaders. The overall purpose of this review of literature and executive summary is to provide an overview of student leadership and leadership development training and to serve as a catalyst for future research necessary to support continuation of college student leadership development programs.

The 21st century has brought several changes in organizations and in the world that require current and future leaders to confront issues that leaders of the past may not have had to face (Rosenbusch & Townsend, 2004). The current generation of college students holds the world's future leaders; therefore, the focus on training and the study of college students is vital "to determine the best leadership education practices

necessary for development of successful leadership behavior” (Rosenbusch & Townsend, 2004, p. 4).

The role of higher education in developing future leaders is pivotal to continued effective leadership performance. Consequently, in the past few decades, leadership development programs have become increasingly popular at universities across the country (Brungardt, 1996; Cress et al., 2001; Hirschorn, 1988; Komives et al., 2006).

Equipping students with skills to assist them in being successful after graduation, in both their professional and personal lives, is one of the primary goals of universities (Eich, 2008). Astin (1999) cited a study conducted by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation that found that leadership development played an integral role in enriching, empowering, and allowing students to manage their lives effectively.

Review of Literature on Leadership Development Programs

While there have been few studies on the effects of leadership development programs, extant studies provide positive implications of student participation in a leadership development program. For example, Cress et al. (2001) conducted a longitudinal, multi-institutional study to determine whether participation in a leadership development program affected student development, both educational and personal. Based on responses to preliminary questions, students were grouped as either participants (who had experienced some form of leadership education or training), and nonparticipants (those who had not). The students rated themselves on 14 developmental outcomes, including understanding self, conflict resolution skills, and interest in

developing leadership in others (Cress et al., 2001). The researchers found significant differences in the ratings by participants and nonparticipants.

Participants in leadership programs indicated positive growth and change on the developmental outcomes that were originally identified by the program directors as the objectives of the leadership development programs. Specifically, leadership participants showed increased gains in the three leadership areas of skills (e.g., decision-making abilities), values (e.g., sense of personal ethics), and cognitive understanding (e.g., understanding of leadership theories. (Cress et al., 2001, p. 18)

Nonparticipants also responded positively to the developmental outcomes, although at a much less significant rate than participants. As a result of this study, Cress et al. (2001) recommended that universities make leadership development programs a priority, especially if the institutions are serious about developing leaders with the competencies that leadership development programs provide.

Rosch and Caza (2012) sought to identify the long-term effects of short-term leadership programs on student leadership development. Short-term leadership development programs include, but are not limited to, retreats, day-long training, and conferences; long-term programs include semester-long classes, reoccurring series, and programs that can extend into multiple semesters. Rosch and Caza sampled 612 students who had participated in at least one short-term leadership development program at a large public university. The students were placed into groups: Group I (pretest), Group II (posttest), and Group III (lagged posttest). The results were based on students'

completion of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS). Based on confirmatory factor analysis of the data, the researchers concluded, “There may be many areas of leadership development that can be addressed through participation in short-term training” (Rosch & Caza, 2012, p. 40). The researchers also found that the effects of short-term training were long lasting, as “three months after training, participants retained the effects they showed immediately after training” (p. 40). The researchers asserted that long-term leadership development programs are effective but can be expensive and time consuming for leadership educators or student affairs professionals, as well as for students. The researchers did not discourage long-term programs, as short-term programs cannot address every leadership skill. However, short-term programs can address many leadership development needs while being more cost effective and less time intensive. This research project adds to the literature on student leadership development programs and assists universities and programs where finances may be an issue.

Some studies have looked at the effect of leadership development programs on specific groups of students. Tingle, Cooney, Asbury, and Tate (2013) examined the impact of a year-long leadership development program on student recreation center employees. One of their goals was to determine whether there were “any significant differences in leadership development among three student employee groups with respect to the complexity and depth of training received” (Tingle et al., 2013, p. 5). The three student employee groups were (a) mentors (who received full leadership training), (b) midlevel supervisors (who received some leadership training), and (c) new hires

(who received little to no leadership training). The students completed the SLPI both before and after leadership training to measure their leadership capacity. The researchers conducted a k-group multivariate analysis of variance, with the five leadership practices of the Student Leadership Practices Inventory (SLPI) as the dependent variables and the leadership training groups as the independent variables. The researchers found significant “learning and growth occurred for those student employees who received the full treatment” (Tingle et al., 2013, p. 10), the mentor group. Their findings have positive implications for leadership development programs and contribute to the literature on leadership.

While there seems to be a scarcity of research on the effectiveness of leadership development, particularly for college students, the implications of the extant research have been generally positive. Understanding the needs of the current population of students is important to ensure leadership development programs continue to be relevant in meeting students’ needs and ensuring growth as leaders. Diversity in the demographics of student leaders is becoming more prevalent and both leadership educators and student affairs practitioners must meet the needs of all student leaders.

Kezar and Moriarty (2000) found that “different strategies are necessary for the development of leadership among a diverse group of students” (p. 53). The researchers examined the differences in needs of both women and African American student leaders, compared to the needs of Caucasian males. As the researchers hypothesized, Caucasian men rated their leadership ability higher than did the other groups (women, both Caucasian and African American, and African American men); African American men

rated their leadership ability higher than women. A higher leadership ability rating was predicated on participation in a leadership class (development). The researchers recommended greater understanding of all groups so that leadership learning activities can be conducive to meet the needs of a diverse student population to ensure competencies and effectiveness in all student leaders.

Collegiate leadership development programs help to meet the need for effective leaders in society. As evidenced by the studies reviewed above, leadership development programs have positive effects on student leaders. As colleges and universities continue to create leadership development programs to increase the knowledge and expertise of student leaders, meeting the needs of every student leader is paramount. Ostrom-Blonigen, Bornsen, Larson-Casselton, and Erikson (2010) put it quite plainly when they said, “Student leadership training is important” (p. 247).

There are several components to the collegiate experience, and leadership development plays an integral part (Rosenbusch & Townsend, 2004). In the post-industrial world, skills gained through leadership development training rank among the most sought by employers. Leadership development can give students skills to be successful in attaining and retaining employment after graduation (Osteen & Coburn, 2012). These skills include, but are not limited to, goal setting, decision making, teamwork, problem solving, and conflict resolution (Osteen & Coburn, 2012; Ostrom-Blonigen et al., 2010). In addition to these skills, leadership training often provides experiences that help students to go on to be productive, active citizens, taking on civic

responsibility and becoming aware of issues that affect society (Dugan, 2006; Rost & Barker, 2000).

Overview of Collegiate Leadership Development Programs

Higher education is called on to use its position and resources to develop students into the world's future competent leaders. Through various programs, both curricular and cocurricular, institutions of higher education have made it part of their mission to create and enhance the leadership skills of students (Dugan, 2006). With the growing need for graduates with the skill set that leadership training creates and grooms, institutions of higher education have made leadership training a more important priority than it has previously been (Brungardt, 1996).

The age-old question in the study of leadership is whether leaders are born or made (Brungardt, 1996; Cress et al., 2001). Most leadership educators and theorists today contend that it is both: Leaders can be born, and leadership can be taught (Brungardt, 1996). For those who possess leadership skills innately, leadership training works to sharpen the skills that come instinctively. On the other hand, for those who do not naturally possess leadership skills but have the desire and courage to acquire leadership roles, leadership training can teach the skills that are necessary to be successful leaders. Leadership educators use both curricular and cocurricular methods to accomplish these feats (Brungardt, 1996; Ostrom-Blonigen et al., 2010; Rost & Barker, 2000).

Curricular leadership development programs are comprised mostly of formal for-credit courses and are typically housed in an academic department (Rosch & Anthony,

2012). TAMU, one of the leading research institutions in the nation, houses its leadership development program in the College of Agriculture. At TAMU, courses in leadership development include Introduction to Leadership, Survey of Leadership Theory, Personal Leadership Education, Ethics in Leadership, and Leading Change, among others. These courses are designed “to develop students for leadership positions in local, state, regional, and national organizations” (TAMU, Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communication, 2014). The classroom experience may be the first time that students have taken the study of leadership development seriously (Rosch & Anthony, 2012). Therefore, it is imperative that leadership educators use the opportunity to engage students fully through “meaningful theory-to-practice experience” (Rosch & Anthony, 2012, p. 44).

Many institutions of higher education take curricular leadership learning for students a step further by collaborating with other university departments and divisions, such as student affairs. This is a unique experience for leadership educators and students alike. When academic departments enter into partnership with nonacademic departments, there is an opportunity for students to learn the theory behind the concepts and to put theory into action through practical application (Osteen & Coburn, 2012). As Osteen and Coburn (2012) noted, “Successful collaborative programs serve a critical role in reaching university and student learning outcomes” (p. 11). Two noteworthy examples of this type of partnership are L3C (Leadership Living Learning Community) and C.L.U.E.S. (Cultural Leadership Understanding and Exploration for Sophomores), both TAMU.

L3C is a joint effort of the Department of Residence Life and the College of Agriculture's Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communications (ALEC). Co-taught by ALEC faculty and student affairs staff from residence life, students enrolled in this freshman year experience program are introduced to leadership development and peer mentorship in an effort to prepare students for future leadership roles (TAMU, Department of Residence Life, 2014). This program has been quite effective in preparing student leaders. Evidence of this effectiveness is the program being named "Leadership Program of the Year" in 2006 by the Association of Leadership Educators (TAMU, Department of Residence Life).

Similar to L3C's partnership, C.L.U.E.S. is a collaboration between the ALEC Department and the Department of Multicultural Services. C.L.U.E.S. is a learning community program that focuses on leadership in the context of multiculturalism, diversity, sensitivity, and culture (TAMU, Department of Multicultural Studies, 2015). Students enrolled in the program learn theory and experience application through myriad cocurricular assignments. The overall goal of C.L.U.E.S. is to give students an understanding of leadership theories and knowledge and practice on how to lead in a complex, multicultural world.

Both L3C and C.L.U.E.S. are examples of partnerships by various university units who work together to fulfill the university mission of developing leaders. As TAMU's mission statement says in part, one of its goals is to "prepare students to assume roles in leadership, responsibility and service to society" (TAMU, 2013).

In addition to training students to be leaders through curricular means, there are cocurricular and extracurricular programs with the same goal. Cocurricular and extracurricular leadership development opportunities “include activities, programs, and services that happen outside of the classroom environment, and where students do not earn an academic grade or credit” (Rosch & Anthony, 2012, p. 46). Seminars, retreats, workshops, and conferences are examples of means by which cocurricular leadership development is accomplished (Rost & Barker, 2000). Although generally not as long as a traditional semester curricular course, cocurricular leadership learning experiences can be just as effective and beneficial. Rosch and Anthony (2012) cited three advantages that cocurricular experiences provide over curricular experiences:

Student leaders can interact with several different “teachers” during their leadership education. In co-curricular leadership development programs, student leaders have an opportunity to learn from their peers, advisors, community leaders, etc.

Student leaders have an opportunity for extended learning opportunities beyond one semester. Student affairs staff has the chance to arrange interactions and meetings throughout multiple semesters to keep the conversations and learning continuous. Curricular settings do not have this option, unless a student has a major or minor in leadership studies/education.

Students have an opportunity for involvement with a large and diverse peer group. Peer-to-peer interactions have proven valuable gains within the collegiate experience. (p. 47)

Two examples of cocurricular programs are the LeaderShape Institute and the Southwestern Black Student Leadership Conference (SBSLC). The LeaderShape Institute is a 6-day interactive experience in which undergraduate student leaders are inspired to tap into their leadership potential. Through dialogue and interactive self-discovery, “the week is intended to produce a breakthrough in the leadership capacity of participants—benefiting them individually, as well as their respective communities and the organizations they will go on to lead and serve in the future” (LeaderShape Institute, 2015, para. 2). During this cocurricular experience, students are encouraged to use introspection to find their leadership vision and articulate it to those whom they lead. LeaderShape is a nationally recognized leadership development program that has several host campuses at a variety of colleges and universities across the United States. In addition to the 6-day institute, host campuses have the opportunity to continue discussions beyond the institute through various post institute events, activities, and reunions.

The SBSLC is another cocurricular leadership learning experience. Hosted by the Department of Multicultural Services at TAMU, SBSLC is a 3-day student-run conference with the goal of presenting workshops and sessions on topics that help attendees to develop strong leadership skills (TAMU, SBSLC, 2015). In addition to building the leadership skills of its participants, SBSLC gives attendees an opportunity to network so that ideas, philosophies, experiences, goals, and visions can be shared. Students network not only with their peers but with employers and current leaders in various fields who can share with them the expectations and requirements desired by

their prospective industries. These cocurricular leadership development programs, LeaderShape and SBSLC, are just two of many. Universities across the nation use a variety of creative and effective programs to assist students with development of leadership skills.

TAMU is not alone in producing exemplary leadership development programs. In 2013, the Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE) examined exemplary programs in leadership development at universities across the United States to identify characteristics of these programs that made them effective. Among the programs recognized were the Global Engagement and Leadership Experience Program (GELE) at The Pennsylvania State University and INSPIRE: Empowering Texas Women Leaders at the University of Texas, Austin.

With a focus on global leadership, GELE is a 2-day conference that brings international and U.S. students together. The program gives students an opportunity to discuss culture and leadership through global perspectives. GELE is held once in the fall and once in the spring and accepts only about 40 students (ASHE, 2013; The Pennsylvania State University, 2015). “The program’s vision is to create an intimate space for students to interact and build capacity to engage in the leadership process through exploring global citizenship” (ASHE, 2013, p. 70). ASHE deemed GELE effective because it engages students in diversity (both U.S. and international students), creates a sense of community, and galvanizes identity development through activities and discussions on leadership, especially in relation to global leadership. Students also have an opportunity to influence others by working to mentor those whom they lead into

becoming global and responsible individuals and the world's future leaders (The Pennsylvania State University, 2015).

To empower and support women in community leadership roles, the University of Texas at Austin created the INSPIRE program. INSPIRE is a multise­mester program that lasts for 3 years. Women who are sophomores through seniors (three cohorts) concurrently study and learn together to become contributing leaders in society and in their chosen fields (ASHE, 2013; University of Texas at Austin, 2015). The program offers young women opportunities to develop skills by benefitting from the experiences of successful female mentors, engaging in service learning in supportive community settings, and working with other young women in environments that foster support and community in a diverse group across disciplines (ASHE, 2013). ASHE (2013) deemed INSPIRE effective because it helps women with leader identity development, incorporates experiential learning opportunities and community service, provides mentoring, and facilitates form and information reflection to help students to grow as leaders.

Whether in the form of a semester-long curricular course on leadership or a 2- or 3-day cocurricular leadership program, leadership development plays a significant role in shaping a student's future (Ostrom-Blonigen et al., 2010). In a study conducted by Dugan and Komives (2010), the researchers found that students who participated in leadership development programs, whether short or moderate in length, strongly increased their leadership capacities in comparison to students who had not participated in any formal training. Furthermore, Grunwell (2015) found seven interconnected

themes related to effective leadership development programs: a culture of learning and support, the importance of practice and practical application, reflection and self-directed learning, immersion in the program, group process, flexibility versus consistency, and ongoing development. Most, if not all, of these themes can be found in the leadership development programs listed above, further solidifying their position as model programs. When leadership development programs carefully communicate the goals and outcomes for students and intentionally create programming to meet said goals and objectives (Rosch & Anthony, 2012), the level of student leader achievement and success has the potential to go far above what may have originally been anticipated.

Conclusion

Leadership development continues to be an important topic in higher education. By participating in leadership development programs, not only do students have opportunities to make meaningful impacts on their peers in the various student organizations in which they serve; they are also preparing to influence the world through effective leadership practices. Studies on the effects of leadership development programs, a relatively new phenomenon, have been few. However, extant studies cited in this review have shown positive and effective results for students' participation in leadership development programs. Universities across the United States, such as TAMU, the University of Texas at Austin, The Pennsylvania State University, and others have created programs to help students to develop and enhance skills that make their leadership practices more effective. As leadership development programs continue to

provide students the opportunity to grow, learn, and practice, they also give students an opportunity to affect the world by being effective leaders.

CHAPTER III

A COMPARISON OF STUDENT LEADERSHIP STYLES BASED ON PARTICIPATION IN LEADER TRAINING

One of the major interests of administrators, faculty, and staff members at institutions of higher education is training students to be leaders (Cress et al., 2001). Consequently, many institutions build leadership development into their university mission statement (Cress et al., 2001; Dugan, 2006; Ruitta & Teodorescu, 2014; Thompson, 2006). For example, the mission statement of TAMU states, in part, that the university “prepares students to assume roles in leadership, responsibility, and service to society” (TAMU, 2013, para. 1). With a goal of teaching leadership skills, universities such as TAMU seek to equip students with a skill set necessary for success after graduation (Dugan, 2006; Eich, 2008).

Studies on leadership show that students who participate in some form of leadership development have a higher probability of being effective leaders during and after their undergraduate experience (Astin, 1999; Cress et al., 2001; Eich, 2008; Hirschorn, 1988). However, most extant research on leadership is based on target populations of business leaders and leaders in noneducational organizations in the public sector (Posner & Brodsky, 1992). Not much is known about the leadership styles of undergraduate student leaders, particularly students who participate in leadership development programs compared to students who do not participate in leadership development programs. Using the leadership styles discussed in the full range model of leadership (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), this study was designed to

determine whether there is a difference in the leadership styles of undergraduate student leaders based on whether they had participated in a leadership development program.

With the growing need to teach leadership skills to college students, recent decades have seen significant growth in programs designed to develop students into leaders (Brungardt, 1996; Cress et al., 2001; Hirschorn, 1988; Komives et al., 2006). Due to the increase in leadership programs in higher education, the Interassociational Task Force on Leadership and the CAS identified three approaches to leadership programs: *leadership development*, *leadership education*, and *leadership training* (Komives et al., 2006). The three terms are often used synonymously (Brungardt, 1996). While the aforementioned terms have leadership as a unifying theme, each has a distinct definition.

Leadership development refers to almost every form of growth or stage of development in the life cycle that promotes, encourages, and assists in one's leadership potential. This includes learning activities that are both formal and structured as well as those that are informal and unstructured (from childhood development, education, and adult life experiences to participating in formal programming designed to enhance leadership capabilities). Leadership development is a continuous learning process that spans an entire lifetime; where knowledge and experience builds and allows for more advanced learning and growth. . . . Leadership education is usually defined more narrowly. It includes those learning activities and educational environments that are intended to enhance and foster leadership learning abilities. A formal college course on

leadership or a professional seminar designed to teach a particular leadership skill are examples of leadership educational activities. Leadership education, therefore, is one of the components of leadership development. Usually, leadership education is the more formal and structured learning environment that purposely seeks to intervene (enhance, alter, create, or speed-up) the development of leaders. . . . Leadership training is narrower yet, and usually refers to learning activities for a specific leadership role or job. Leadership training activities are considered components of leadership education.

(Brungardt, 1996, pp. 83-84)

While these terms have distinct definitions, they share the theme of teaching aspects of leadership and developing students into effective leaders. Therefore, for the purposes of this research, the term *leadership development* is used because its definition encompasses both leadership education and leadership training.

The Researcher's Perspective

My experiences in higher education and in working with college students piqued my curiosity to study student leadership styles. I began to work in higher education immediately after earning a Bachelor's degree. During my tenure in higher education, I have worked in both academic and student affairs and have advised student leaders in each position. Over the course of 15 years in academia, I have seen many types of student leaders. I have seen student leaders who were very outgoing, charismatic, and able to motivate peers just by how they articulated their vision and the goals of the organization. I have also seen student leaders who were not as charismatic but they were

organized; they made sure that each event and task was accomplished with precision. In the doctoral program I studied various leadership theories and elements of leadership development training. My studies led me to reflect on my experiences with various student leaders. I wondered whether students found their niche as leaders by participating in a leadership development program. Since the leaders with whom I have worked have been, generally, exceptional ones, I thought that training may have contributed to their skills as leaders. However, as an advisor to student organizations, I know that students are often not required to participate in any type of leadership training in order to be a chief student leader, so leadership development training may have little to do with their effectiveness as leaders. As I reviewed various leadership development programs and current research on leadership development training, I did not find many universities that required student leaders to participate in training or many studies that compared the leadership styles of student leaders based on participation in a leadership development program. The culmination of these thoughts led me to the current research topic. It is my desire to add to the current literature on college students and leadership to understand the implications of student leaders who engage in leadership development programs.

Statement of the Problem

Colleges and universities across the United States have instituted myriad leadership development programs for undergraduate student leaders (Brungardt, 1996; Cress et al., 2001; Hirschorn, 1988). The aims of leadership development programs include cultivating and strengthening leadership skills, helping students to understand

their style of leadership, and enhancing character and personal development, among others (Dungan & Komives, 2007). While universities have begun numerous leadership development programs, students who assume leadership roles are generally not required to participate in these types of programs as a prerequisite for obtaining a leadership position (CSL). Many CSLs have not had any form of leadership development training. The leadership styles and effectiveness of CSLs who participate in leadership development programs have rarely been compared to the leadership styles and effectiveness of CSLs who have not participated in such programs.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine whether there is a difference in leadership styles of undergraduate student leaders who participate in a leadership development program and undergraduate student leaders who do not participate in a leadership development program. The findings of this research will serve as a catalyst for further exploration of student leadership styles and leadership development programs at institutions of higher education. A broad understanding of these elements can support the need for continuing and modifying current leadership development programs or creating additional programs that equip students with skills necessary to be successful after graduation.

Research Question and Hypothesis

This research study was designed to measure differences in leadership styles of undergraduate student leaders who participate in leadership development training versus those who do not participate in leadership development training. The MLQ 5X was used

to identify leadership styles of student leaders. The research question that guided this study was, “Is leadership style affected by participation in a leadership development program?” The hypothesis was “There is a difference between leadership styles of student leaders who participate in leadership development programs and student leaders who do not participate in leadership development programs.” The null hypothesis was, “There is no difference between leadership styles of student leaders who participate in leadership development programs and student leaders who do not participate in leadership development programs.”

Review of Literature on College Student Leadership

In the past few decades, leadership development programs at institutions of higher education have become paramount (Shertzer & Schuh, 2004). In light of the rapidly growing concern of universities to create effective leadership development programs, there has been a relatively considerable amount of research conducted on college students and leadership (Cress et al., 2001). College students and leadership have been investigated with a diversity of variables, including but not limited to leadership styles and gender, leadership styles and motivation, leadership styles and empathy, and leadership skills and organizational setting. The following review of literature cites studies involving college students and leadership. The purpose of this review of literature is to acknowledge the empirical strength of various research and to identify gaps in the literature that the present study can begin to fill.

Dugan (2006) examined differences in leadership styles of college men and women, using the social change model of leadership (SCML). The SCML is designed to

gain understanding of self-knowledge and leadership competence in college students, based on seven leadership constructs, known as the seven C's: citizenship, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, consciousness of self, congruence, and commitment (Komives & Wagner, 2009). Mean scores showed no statistical differences in gender on the leadership constructs of collaboration and controversy with civility but women had a higher mean score on the remaining leadership constructs. Dugan (2006) asserted that "women possess an advantage when leadership is defined according to the emergent paradigm" (p. 222). In that study, both men and women scored the lowest on the same three constructs: controversy with civility, citizenship, and change (the eighth C and overall goal of the model). Dugan's study suggests that leadership development programs should train vigorously on the constructs in which both college men and women scored lowest. Since the mean score of women was significantly higher on six of the constructs, the study also suggests a "need for increased values-based leadership training and exploration for men" (Dugan, 2006, p. 223). As an expert on student development and leadership, Dugan posited practical implications for student affairs practitioners who work with student leaders and for leadership educators who wish to focus their training and development programs.

Similar to Dugan's study, Rosenbusch and Townsend (2004) examined the relationship of gender and organizational setting to transformational and transactional leadership skills. To identify transformational and transactional leadership skills, Rosenbusch and Townsend administered the MLQ-5X to student leaders in two student organizations that were recognized for quality leadership development. All of the

participants represented Generation X. The first objective of the study was to make comparisons by gender. The researchers found that women were more likely to be transformational and men were more likely to be transactional. The researchers asserted that their findings on gender and transformational leadership followed trends of previous empirical research. Next, the focus of the study moved to the relationship between organizational setting and leadership skill type (transformational or transactional). One of the two organizations was based in the division of student affairs and the other was based in an academic college; there were obvious structural differences between the organizations. The researchers found no statistical differences in transformational and transactional leadership skills between the two organizations. Like Dugan's study, the study was important to leadership educators and student affairs professionals in helping to understand how leadership styles change and influence various generations.

The two cited studies specifically examined college students and leadership primarily within the context of gender, as other research has done. However, other research on college students and leadership have explored other variables. For example, Gunther, Evans, Mefford, and Coe (2007) examined junior and senior nursing students and compared their leadership styles in terms of empathy. Using the MLQ-5X to identify leadership style, Gunther et al. found that the dominant leadership style of both junior and senior nursing students was transformational. Students who tended toward transformational leadership had higher degrees of empathy, based on scores on the Hogan Empathy Scale and the Emotional Empathy Tendency Scale. This research could

assist nursing students as they seek employers “who demonstrate the essential elements of transformational leadership” (Gunther et al., 2007, p. 200).

Another example of research on college students and leadership, outside the context of gender, is a study conducted by Vidic and Burton (2011) to examine the relationship between motivation and leadership style. The population consisted of both high school and college athletes at a military institution with a focus on leadership development. Members of the sample reported 1 to 6 years of leadership development training. The MLQ-5X was administered to identify the leadership style and several other instruments were administered to capture leadership tendencies and motivation, specifically for sports (Revised Profile for Sports, Task and Ego Orientation in Sports Questionnaire, Social Motivational Orientation in Sports Scale, Conception of the Nature of Athletic Ability Questionnaire-Version 2, and the Leadership Opportunity Score). The researchers conducted various correlational analyses to determine the relationship between leadership style and motivation. Results indicated that students with “high task orientation, learning beliefs and social affiliation and recognition orientation were significantly related to more intrinsically oriented leadership styles (i.e., servant, transformational, and transactional leadership styles)” (p. 288). The study has practical implications not only for leadership educators and student affairs professionals but also for administrators and coordinators of athletic and military-based programs.

While the studies discussed thus far have examined the relationship of college students and various aspects of leadership, some studies have analyzed college students based on their participation in leadership development activities. Cress et al. (2001)

looked specifically at how college students' development evolves as a result of participation in leadership development activities. Using the College Student Survey (CSS), the researchers sought to determine "whether leadership education and training had a direct effect on college students' leadership ability as well as other personal and educational outcomes" (p. 16). They also compared students who had participated in leadership development programs to those who had not. The results provided strong support for collegiate leadership development programs. Furthermore, the researchers reported that students who participated in leadership development activities "showed growth in civic responsibility, leadership skills, multicultural awareness, understanding of leadership theories, and personal and societal values" (pp. 18-19). Students who participated in leadership development programs were also "noticeably more cooperative and less authoritarian and held more ethical views of leadership" (p. 16). As with the other studies of college students and leadership, the results of this study provide practical implications for leadership educators and student affairs professionals as they continue to create and improve various leadership development programs.

The aforementioned studies looked at aspects of leadership and college students, providing empirical implications for leadership educators, student affairs professionals, and others interested in leadership development of college students. However, none of the cited studies compared the leadership styles of college students based on leadership development training. While some of the studies looked at the leadership styles of students using the MLQ, which assesses leadership styles based on the full range model of leadership, there was no comparison based on leadership development training. Due

to the influx of leadership development programs at colleges and universities, there is a need for research to examine differences in leadership styles of college students based on whether or not they participate in a leadership development program. Research in this area can serve as a catalyst for continuing and modifying current leadership development programs and creating new programs. The current study examines the differences in leadership styles of college students, based on leadership development training, which will add to the empirical research and literature on college students and leadership styles.

Theoretical Framework

Transformational Leadership Theory

The most influential theory in shaping this study is transformational leadership (Bass, 1990). Transformational leadership is a leadership theory that inspires and motivates followers to understand and carry out the leader's vision. It is a type of leadership that enacts change and challenges followers to reach their own level of potential. Northouse (2004) defined transformational leadership as

the process whereby an individual engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower. This type of leader is attentive to the needs and motives of followers and tries to help followers reach their fullest potential. (p. 170)

Transformational leaders adhere to a deeply held set of standards and values and inspire followers through coaching and mentoring. They not only set high expectations for the followers to achieve; they also help to transform followers into leaders themselves (Northouse, 2004; Qu, Janssen, & Shi, 2015).

Transformational leadership has philosophical beginnings tracing back more than 5,000 years, when actual written principles regarding leadership and the relationship between follower and leader began to emerge (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003). Many of the first notions about the transformational leader can be traced to the works of Chinese philosophers such as Confucius and Asoka, who advocated that leaders should be morally sound and encourage their followers to be the same (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003). Additional thoughts connected to transformational leading can be found in the writings of Aristotle, Homer, and Plato. The essence of transformational leadership was taught by these philosophers as they promoted “charismatic leaders as moral agents that inspire followers by evoking symbolic images and expressing important ideas in simple, rational ways” (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003, p. 8).

While transformational leadership has some historical connections to ancient philosophers, it was centuries later before the term was formally coined by Downton (Northouse, 2004). Burns (1978) considered leaders to be either transactional or transformational. While transactional leadership focuses on the exchanges that occur between the leader and the led, the transformational leader asks followers to put the needs and interests of the organization or group above their own and to rise to a standard of ethical behavior modeled by the leader; thus, the leader creates a level of motivation in followers that encourages followers to reach their greatest potential, ideally becoming leaders themselves (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004; Qu et al., 2015).

Bass modified Burns’s paradigm of transactional and transformational leadership, proposing that transformational leadership enhances the “effects of

transactional leadership on the efforts, satisfaction, and effectiveness of subordinates” (Bass, 1990, p. 53). Bass used surveys of senior military officers and business managers to determine the validity of transformational leadership, and he considered his results to be reliable. Bass added four dimensions of transformational leadership reflecting ideal behaviors that transformational leaders exhibit (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003; McGuire & Hutchings, 2007). The four dimensions of transformational leadership are inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and idealized influence (Bass, 1999).

The first dimension is *inspirational motivation*. When personifying this particular element of transformational leadership, leaders “enthuse followers, build confidence and empower them to face difficult challenges” (McGuire & Hutchings, 2007, p. 156). The leader sets high expectations and encourages followers to be part of the vision (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003; Northouse, 2004; Qu et al., 2015). This requires that the leader be an effective communicator, skillful in expressing important purposes in simple ways. Effective communication is a key element in motivating and inspiring. If a leader does not communicate well, the leader’s vision and expectations may be misconstrued by followers. McGuire and Hutchings (2007) noted that the leader not only must inspire a vision but also must translate abstract and intangible ideas in a way that is understandable to followers. When followers understand and accept the vision, they are more likely to commit to seeing the vision realized.

Second, transformational leaders must possess the ability to stimulate their followers intellectually. *Intellectual stimulation* allows followers to feel a level of

autonomy and independence as they work toward carrying out the vision (Bass, 1990). The leader encourages followers to be creative in their ideas. In supporting the creativity of followers, intellectual stimulation results in followers “searching for new approaches to old problems” (McGuire & Hutchings, 2007, p. 159). Intellectual stimulation allows followers to contribute, which in turn gives them ownership in the organization or group. Transformational leaders must also have the skill to challenge their followers, which aligns with setting high expectations. Leaders must be catalysts for followers challenging the system, their own beliefs and values, and the beliefs and values of the leader (Northouse, 2004). To be effective at stimulating followers, leaders must be confident in who they are and in their own abilities (Tekleab et al., 2008).

The third element of transformational leadership is *individualized consideration*. Here, the leader must listen to followers, coach and advise, and delegate responsibility to followers for their own growth (Northouse, 2004; Qu et al., 2015). To fulfill this component of transformational leadership, the leader must learn to listen to the individual needs of each follower, reacting to and supporting those needs in a way unique to each individual. Developing relationships “between transformational leaders and followers is critical to bringing about successful change. By demonstrating trust through understanding the struggles, needs and capabilities of followers, transformational leaders show that they care and value their followers” (McGuire & Hutchings, 2007, p. 159). Individualized consideration requires a high level of trust from both leader and follower. Both the leader and followers must realize that trust is not an overnight process; it takes time. Followers must trust that the leader has their best

interests in mind. Many find difficulty in taking advice or being coached by someone whom they hardly know or trust, which makes the development of close relationships vital to transformational leadership. Followers must have confidence in the leader's vision. In turn, the leader must trust the followers' capabilities and potential, helping them grow to the fullest. This also means that the leader realizes that followers may fail; however, instead of chastising them, the leader should help them to see where mistakes were made and how to prevent similar mistakes in the future.

Transformational leadership also requires *idealized influence* or charisma (Bass, 1999; Humphreys & Einstein, 2003; Qu et al., 2015). Northouse (2004) conceptualized this element as the leader being a strong role model for followers, possessing high standards of ethical conduct, and having an excellent vision for the future. In this element, followers typically want to emulate the leader because they identify with the leader. Followers do not copy the actions, appearances, or mannerisms of leader; rather, they strive to become equal to or excel the standards set by the leader. The leader receives a high level of respect from followers, who respect that the leader has high moral standards and holds strong ethical fibers. However, there is an element of danger in this particular characteristic of transformational leadership. The leader must be careful not to defame his character in the eyes of followers, which could threaten trust in the leader and decrease respect for the leader, and perhaps could require rebuilding the relationship, if possible.

In essence, transformational leaders instill pride, transmit a sense of mission and purpose, stimulate followers intellectually, and act as mentors (Bass, 1990; McGuire &

Hutchings, 2007; Northouse, 2004). Together, these abilities enable the transformational leader to lead followers to change. After all, the word *transform* or *transformational* simply means to change. In the context of transformational leadership, the leader and followers work together to invoke changing systems, values, and ideas through a shared vision. Transformational leadership is not necessarily an easy process; however, if the leader inspires, motivates, and encourages followers through a powerful vision and strong determination, leadership is highly achievable.

Transactional Leadership

The style of leadership to which transformational leadership is most often compared is transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is quite different from transformational leadership. Tyssen, Wald, and Heidenreich (2014) stated that “transactional leadership focuses on the task-related exchange of actions and rewards between followers and leaders, which often needs the existence of hierarchy and authority to be displayed” (p. 376). Common examples of these types of exchanges are rewards for employees who meet or exceed sales goals or politicians making promises to constituents in exchange for their votes (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004). In this style of leadership the leader is concerned with meeting goals and advancing the agenda of the leader or of the organization, rather than showing an interest in the personal development of followers, as transformational leaders do. The fact that transactional leaders do not necessarily focus on followers does not make them ineffective. In fact, empirical data has supported the effectiveness of this type of leadership in some cases (Deichmann & Stam, 2015; Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2014).

There are two factors of transactional leadership: contingent reward and management by exception. *Contingent reward* refers to an exchange between leader and followers in which expectations and rewards are clearly specified by the leader (Groves & LaRocca, 2011; Northouse, 2004; Walumbwa, Wu, & Orwa, 2008). In this type of leadership, negotiations can occur when the leader and followers agree to the terms of what is expected and the reward(s) to be expected for reaching the desired outcomes. An example of contingent reward would be a parent telling a child that the child will receive \$100 for making all A's on the report card, or a head of an academic department at a university negotiating with a faculty member regarding the number of publications and grants required to achieve tenure (Northouse, 2004).

The second factor of transactional leadership, *management by exception*, “involves corrective criticism, negative feedback, and negative reinforcement” (Northouse, 2004, p. 179). The two forms of management by exception are active and passive. In the active form, leaders articulate expectations and standards, as well as punishment for failure to comply or meet established standards (Groves & LaRocca, 2011). For example, a supervisor of a call center might monitor employees closely each day regarding the time required to handle a telephone call and might quickly confront and correct the employee whose calls are not handled within a specific time frame. Passive management by exception occurs when a leader waits to intervene or confront a follower only when a problem or issues arises. An example of passive management by exception would occur when a “supervisor gives a poor performance evaluation without

ever talking with the employee about her or his work prior work performance” (Northouse, 2004, p. 179).

Both transformational and transactional leadership require the leader to be active (Den Hartog et al., 1997). These active forms of leadership are often the antithesis of a very passive form of leadership: laissez-faire (Den Hartog et al., 1997). Laissez-faire leadership, in essence, is the “absence of leadership” (Northouse, 2004, p. 179). Bass (1990) presented a brief history of laissez-faire leadership in discussing adults who were assigned to lead a boys’ club. “Laissez-faire leaders gave group members complete freedom of action, provided them with materials, refrained from participating except to answer questions when asked, and did not make evaluative remarks” (p. 545).

Laissez-Faire Leadership

Laissez-faire leadership has been shown to be the least favorable style among subordinates (Bass, 1990; Den Hartog et al., 1997). The laissez-faire leader does not show concern for the individual development of followers, much like the transformational leader, nor work with followers on a rewards-and-consequences basis for reaching goals or achieving high performance, as does the transactional leader. The laissez-faire leader generally takes a “hands-off” approach and rarely shows initiative or actively works with followers to achieve goals, either individual or organizational. An example of a laissez-faire leader is a president of an organization or club who does not hold meetings with the executive team and does not set agendas for meetings. This president likely relies on other executive team members to do most of the leading and participates only when asked a question or for input.

These three leadership styles—transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire—comprise the *full range model of leadership*. These leadership constructs can be measured via the MLQ. This study compares the leadership styles of collegiate student leaders who have participated in leadership development training to those of collegiate student leaders who have not participated in leadership development training, using the MLQ to determine leadership style.

Methodology

Participants

This study used a sample of undergraduate CSLs (presidents, vice presidents, executive directors, or directors) of student organizations at a large land grant research institution in Texas. During the 2013-2014 academic year, when data were collected, the institution had an undergraduate enrollment of approximately 41,890 and a total enrollment, including graduate students, of more than 56,000. CSLs are central in this study. To take on the role of CSL, most organizations require only that the interested student have been a member of the organization for a specific period of time. However, these students are not required to have completed any leadership development training to be elected or appointed a CSL (although some have such experience or training).

The student leaders who participated in this study attended the target university. The gender distribution of the undergraduate population of the university was as follows: 21,633 males (51.64%) and 20,256 females (48.36%; TAMU, 2015). The ethnic makeup of the undergraduate student population was as follows: 28,253 White (67.45%), 8,323 Hispanic (19.98%), 2,182 Asian/Pacific Islander (5.21%), 1,368 African

American/Black (3.27%), and 1,001 Biracial or Multiracial (2.39%; TAMU, 2015). The racial/ethnic distribution of the sample was as follows: 7.1% African American ($n = 10$), 6.4% Asian/Pacific Islander ($n = 9$), 63.8% Caucasian/White ($n = 90$), 14.9% Hispanic/Latin American ($n = 21$), 6.4% Biracial or Multiracial ($n = 9$), and 1.4% Other ($n = 2$). Gender distribution was 37.6% male ($n = 53$) and 62.4% female ($n = 88$). Class distribution of the sample was as follows: 9.2% sophomores ($n = 13$), 28.4% juniors ($n = 40$), and 62.4% seniors ($n = 88$). In the sample, 43.3% ($n = 61$) reported that they had participated in a leadership development program and 56.7% ($n = 80$) reported that they had not participated in a leadership development program. Table 1 summarizes the demographic composition of the sample based on class year, , ethnicity, gender, and participation in a leadership development program.

The MLQ 5X was administered to determine the leadership styles of the participants. The survey was sent to 304 student leaders. Some emails were not delivered, leaving 275 students who actually received the email. By the deadline for returning the survey, 155 students had responded, with 141 responding to every question, for a response rate of 51.27%. Each participant was provided an electronic informed consent (Appendix C), which had to be electronically signed before the participant could access the instrument. In addition to completing the MLQ, participants answered demographic questions (Appendix D) regarding gender, classification, ethnicity, organizational position, and whether or not they had participated in a leadership development program. Student leaders who did not respond to the survey were sent a follow-up email 1 week after the original request. Another email reminder

Table 1

Demographic Composition of Target Population

Characteristic and category	<i>n</i>	%
Gender		
Male	53	37.6
Female	88	62.4
Classification		
Freshman	0	0.0
Sophomore	13	9.2
Junior	40	28.4
Senior	88	62.4
Ethnicity		
Caucasian/White	90	63.8
Hispanic/Latino	21	14.9
African American/Black	10	7.1
Asian/Pacific Islander	9	6.4
Biracial or multiracial	9	6.4
Other	2	1.4
Participated in a leadership development program		
Yes	61	43.3
No	80	56.7

was sent 2 weeks after the original request. A total of 75 (53.19% of completed responses) students completed the survey after the follow-up email reminders were sent. There were no differences found in the responses by student leaders who completed the survey before the reminders were sent and those who completed the survey after having received a reminder.

Instrument

The MLQ 5X, developed by Bass (1990), was administered to determine the leadership style of each participant. The MLQ is the most frequently used instrument to

test for attributes related to transformational and transactional leadership (Tejeda et al., 2001). The MLQ 5X is a 45-item inventory that measures frequencies with which leaders demonstrate attributes of transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire leadership. The measure implies that “every leader displays a frequency of both transactional and transformational factors, but each leader’s profile involves more of one and less of the other” (Bass, 1999, p. 11). Participants select responses from a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 4 = *frequently, if not always* to 0 = *not at all*. Permission to use the instrument was obtained from Mind Garden (Appendix B).

While the MLQ is helpful in determining the frequencies of characteristics of transformational and transactional leadership, it has undergone some criticism, mostly with regard to structural validity (Tepper & Percy, 1994). In addition, wording, lack of discriminant validity, and incorporation of behaviors and attitudes in the same scale have been identified as problematic (Bass, 1999). The MLQ has been revised several times; the most recent version, MLQ 5X, has addressed the issues of the earlier versions, making it a widely respected and commonly used instrument in research on transformational and transactional leadership (Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008).

The MLQ assesses four dimensions of transformational leadership: idealized influence (charisma), inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. The dimensions of transactional leadership are contingent reward, management by exception (active), and management by exception (passive). The final dimension measured by the MLQ is laissez-faire leadership. The components of

transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership were discussed in the section on the study's theoretical framework.

Procedures

After receiving approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB), electronic mail invitations (Appendix E) were sent to CSLs, who were asked to complete a web-based version of the MLQ 5X (Appendix A) via Survey Monkey™. The names, organizational positions, and email addresses of the CSLs were obtained from the university's student activities webpage. While the university has more than 800 student organizations, several had not provided current information, the link to the page was broken, or the organization represented graduate students. The instrument was sent to 275 CSLs, made available online in the spring 2014 semester, January 16 through February 7. As an incentive to participation, students were offered an opportunity to be placed in a drawing to win a \$50 Visa™ gift card.

An independent-samples *t* test was performed, using SPSS® version 22 to measure the difference between mean scores for each leadership construct on the MLQ 5X and participation in a leadership development program. The independent-samples *t* test met the required assumptions in that the data were independent of each other, the test variable was normally distributed in each of the two groups, and the variances of the test variable in the two groups were equal (Coolidge, 2006; A. Fields, 2009).

Results and Discussion

The results of this study did not provide significant statistical evidence of a difference in leadership styles of undergraduate student leaders who participated in some

form of leadership development program and leadership styles of undergraduate student leaders who did not participate in such programs; thus, the null hypothesis was not rejected. However, the results descriptively indicate that students who had participated in some type of leadership development program tended to be more transformational in their leadership style (scoring slightly higher on the transformational leadership constructs of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Table 2 summarizes the comparison of means and standard deviations on the MLQ leadership constructs of student leaders who participated in a leadership development program and student leaders who did not participate in a program. It also shows Cohen's *d* effect size, which describes the magnitude of the difference (Rosch, 2015). The results of the descriptive analysis revealed that student leaders who had participated in a leadership development program displayed attributes of transactional leadership at a higher frequency than students who did not participate in a program (scoring slightly higher on the transformational leadership constructs of contingent reward, management by exception [active], and management by exception [passive]). Leadership educators and theorists have held that transformational and transactional leadership are not mutually exclusive; that is, the best form of leadership occurs when the styles work in conjunction, with transformational being the dominant style of leadership (Bass, 1999, 2000). The fact that student leaders who had participated in a leadership development program displayed attributes of transformational and transactional leadership more often than those who had not suggests that leadership development programs have an effect on the leadership styles of undergraduate student

Table 2

Comparison of Means, Standard Deviations, and Effect Sizes for Leadership Constructs by Participation in a Leadership Development Program

Leadership construct	Participation in leadership development program				Cohen's <i>d</i> Effect size	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	Yes (<i>n</i> = 61)		No (<i>n</i> = 80)				
	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>			
Idealized influence (attributed)	3.04	0.47	2.89	0.54	0.29	1.70	.09
Idealized influence (behavior)	3.07	0.61	2.95	0.61	0.19	1.13	.26
Inspirational motivation	3.30	0.56	3.23	0.52	0.14	0.85	.40
Intellectual stimulation	3.07	0.51	2.91	0.56	0.30	1.76	.08
Individualized consideration	3.11	0.54	3.02	0.55	0.17	1.01	.32
Contingent reward	3.22	0.42	3.01	0.51	0.44	2.57	.01
MBE (active)	2.07	0.78	1.98	0.83	0.11	0.65	.52
MBE (passive)	0.80	0.46	0.88	0.69	-0.15	-0.88	.38
Laissez-faire leadership	0.46	0.40	0.57	0.52	-0.24	-1.40	.16

Note. MBE = management by exception.

leaders. While, based on the sample in this study, the effect was not statistically large, there was some effect.

The results of the *t* test also indicated that students who had not participated in a leadership development program tended to score slightly higher on the laissez-faire leadership construct than students who had not participated in a leadership development program. This suggests that students who do not participate in a leadership development

program or training are more likely to possess the leadership style that has been shown to be less effective and desirable.

Further examination of the data revealed that both students who had participated in a leadership development program and students who had not done so scored highest on the transformational leadership construct of inspirational motivation. Students who had participated in a leadership development program had a mean inspirational motivation score of 3.30, compared to 3.23 for those who had not participated. This suggests that both groups of students were adept at inspiring, energizing, building confidence and empowering followers (McGuire & Hutchings, 2007). However, the results imply that students who participate in a leadership development program inspire followers at a descriptively greater tendency than students who do not participate in a program.

The lowest mean score by both groups of student leaders was on laissez-faire leadership. Student leaders who had participated in a leadership development program had a mean score of 0.46, compared to 0.57 for students who had not participated in a program. These mean scores suggest that students who do not participate in a leadership development program have a greater propensity to be laissez-faire leaders, which is the least effective and desirable style of leadership (Northouse, 2004).

The data revealed other findings. First, approximately one third of the sophomores and juniors (there were no freshmen in the sample) had participated in some form of leadership development training, compared to half of the seniors. In terms of leadership styles, seniors were slightly more transformational (scoring higher on the

transformational leadership constructs of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration). While the mean differences were not statistically significant, participation in a leadership development program apparently had some impact on leadership style, descriptively. It should be noted that seniors had had more time to practice their leadership skills. Looking at experience coupled with participation in a leadership development program should be a goal for future studies.

In addition to seniors scoring slightly higher on the transformational leadership constructs, sophomores and juniors displayed attributes of transactional leadership at a higher frequency than seniors (scoring higher on the transactional leadership constructs of contingent reward, management by exception [active], and management by exception [passive]; Table 3). The slightly lower mean scores by sophomores and juniors on the transformational leadership constructs suggests they may not have been as confident or salient in motivating and inspiring followers, while seniors had had more time to develop these skills. Instead, the sophomores and juniors may use “this for that” tactics in persuading followers. For example, a transactional leader might give a follower a reward for organizing an event successfully or reaching certain goals, whereas, transformational leaders articulate a vision and goals to followers in very inspirational and motivational ways, which prompts followers to work to reach goals and fulfill tasks for intrinsic rewards rather relying on extrinsic motivation.

Students who self-identified as a person of color (African American/Black, Asian/Pacific Islander, Hispanic/Latino(a), or Biracial or Multiracial) responded that

Table 3

Comparison of Means, Standard Deviations, and Effect Sizes for Leadership Constructs by Classification

Leadership construct	Seniors (<i>n</i> = 88)		Others (<i>n</i> = 53)		Cohen's <i>d</i>		
	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Effect size	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Idealized influence (attributed)	2.98	0.52	2.92	0.50	0.12	0.70	.49
Idealized influence (behavior)	3.04	0.60	2.94	0.63	0.16	0.98	.33
Inspirational motivation	3.31	0.47	3.18	0.64	0.23	1.37	.17
Intellectual stimulation	3.05	0.51	2.87	0.59	0.32	1.87	.06
Individualized consideration	3.07	0.54	3.06	0.56	0.02	0.09	.93
Contingent reward	3.09	0.50	3.11	0.47	-0.03	-0.17	.86
MBE (active)	1.98	0.82	2.09	0.77	-0.14	-0.82	.42
MBE (passive)	0.81	0.56	0.91	0.09	-2.05	-0.92	.36
Laissez-faire leadership	0.50	0.44	0.57	0.54	-0.12	-0.83	.41

Note. MBE = management by exception.

they displayed “extra effort” as a leader but were less effective. Students who self-identified as White self-identified as effective leaders but did not display extra effort (Table 4).

Students of color likely feel elements of intimidation when leading a group, especially when the majority of the group is White. Being leaders in a student organization comprised primarily of students from the same ethnic background provides some consolation for student leaders of color. In a study of African American student

Table 4

Comparison of Means, Standard Deviations, and Effect Sizes for the Leadership Constructs of Extra Effort and Effectiveness by Ethnicity (Caucasian Student Leaders vs. Student Leaders of Color)

Leadership construct	Caucasian (n = 90)		Of color (n = 51)		Cohen's <i>d</i> Effect size	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>			
Extra Effort	2.72	0.61	2.86	0.62	-0.23	1.35	.18
Effectiveness	3.34	0.44	3.18	0.45	0.36	-2.03	.04

leaders at a predominately White institution (PWI), Hotchkins (2014) reported that “ethnic organizations have shielded African-American students from racial prejudice, perceptions of racial tension, racism-based stressors, assimilation versus cultural pluralism, and ultimately how race is defined and viewed on PWI campuses” (p. 171). This can arguably be applied to other students of color as well. Hotchkins found that the African American students in his study were worried about how they were perceived as leaders, specifically with regard to race and gender. As indicated by the results of the present study, students of color reported that they exerted “extra effort” but were less effective. Students of color likely feel they must exert more effort when leading majority students in order to be credible as a leader.

The racial and ethnic makeup of the student organization can often determine how students lead (Hotchkins, 2014). Students of color often feel more comfortable in student organizations comprised of other students with the same racial background.

Also, connecting with faculty and staff mentors who identify the same racially is critical in persistence and success at a PWI by students of color (Guiffrida & Douthit, 2010).

When students of color lead in a student organization in which White students are in the majority, they can doubt their abilities and think that they are perceived to be weak or embody stereotypes often associated with their race. These self-perceptions of others viewing students of color as an embodiment of their stereotypes have been labeled by Steele and Aronson (1995) as “stereotype threat.” “Whenever African American students perform an explicitly scholastic or intellectual task, they face the threat of confirming or being judged by a negative societal stereotype—a suspicion—about their group’s intellectual ability and competence” (p. 797). Stereotype threat is a strong indicator of belief by students of color that they exert extra effort but are still perceived to be less effective than their White counterparts in leading student organizations.

The fact that there was no statistical difference in the leadership styles of student leaders of color and White student leaders, based on participation in a leadership development program, shows that students of color arguably display characteristics of effective leadership practices, including elements of both transformational and transactional leadership. Therefore, even though students of color feel less effective as leaders, their leadership behaviors are likely more effective than they believe.

Implications and Conclusion

The results of this study showed no statistical difference in leadership styles of student leaders who had participated in a leadership development and student leaders who had not done so; therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. However,

descriptively, based on analysis of an independent-samples *t* test, student leaders who had participated in a leadership development program were slightly more transformational in leadership style than students who had not participated, although not at a statistically significant level. The finding that student leaders who participate in a leadership development program may be descriptively more transformational indicates a need for university professionals who work with student leaders to advocate for leadership development programs for college students. While student leaders may not be required to participate in a leadership development program, their participation in such a program should be strongly encouraged by student affairs professionals and organizational advisors. Since studies have shown that transformational leadership tends to be more effective than other styles (Bass, 1999; Gundersen, Hellesoy, & Raeder, 2012) and the results of the present study showed that students who had participated in leadership development programs were somewhat more transformational than those who had not done so, universities should strongly consider requiring students who are elected or appointed to a CSL role (president, vice president, executive director, or director) to participate in a leadership development program.

The university classification and ethnicity of the participating students in this study also provide insight for further exploration of leadership styles of undergraduate student leaders. The results of this study showed no statistical difference in leadership styles of seniors versus sophomores and juniors. However, descriptively, again, seniors displayed elements of transformational leadership at a slightly higher frequency than did sophomores and juniors. This indicates the need for strong advocacy for early leadership

development training by student affairs professionals, leadership educators, and other personnel who work with student leaders, to expose them to the skills needed to become effective leaders.

Students of color in this study reported feelings of inadequacy related to being a leader at a PWI. Although they reported that they exerted effort as a leader, they questioned the effectiveness of their leadership. In contrast, White students self-identified as effective leaders, without exerting special effort. This shows a need to incorporate cross-cultural communication, sensitivity, and diversity curriculum into leadership development programs to aid in making student leaders more effective. Rosch (2015) explained the need for discussions on various topics, including “cross-cultural issues also can provide students with increased content knowledge to apply to their work in teams” (p. 114). Furthermore, Riutta and Teodorescu (2014) found that good interactions with peers from different backgrounds was important for leaders and that having conversations that address differences “is the strong environmental predictor of leadership outcomes” (p. 835). These efforts build confidence in students of color and serve as a conduit for other students to understand students of color as leaders. Efforts aimed at diversity and inclusion can also increase White students’ awareness and understanding of other cultures and help them to communicate with peers and others from diverse backgrounds.

Connecting students of color with faculty and staff who have the same racial background can contribute to the success of student leaders of color. Guiffrida and Douthit (2010) noted that strong relationships with faculty and staff “positively

correlated with student satisfaction with college, academic achievement, and retention” (p. 312). Also, due to various experiences because of racial background, African-American students often find it difficult to relate to White faculty and staff (Guiffrida & Douthit, 2010). Providing student leaders of color with mentors from the same racial group can help them to feel more connected to the university and more confident in their abilities.

This research project was conducted at a single institution; it is strongly recommended that future studies on this subject be multi-institutional. While the results of this study did not show a significant difference in mean scores of students who had participated in a leadership development program and students who had not done so, there was a slight difference: Students who had participated in a leadership development program scored higher on transformational leadership than students who had not participate in such a program. A multi-institutional study could produce a broader comparison of student leadership styles based on participation in a leadership development program by increasing the sample size. Also, a multi-institutional study would likely include a diversity of leadership development programs, as institutions of higher education provide different curricula for various programs. The statistical difference in the leadership styles of student leaders based on participation in a leadership development program was relatively small in this study; a multi-institutional study could identify a significant difference with a substantial increase in the sample size.

The current research study did not take into consideration any training that students may have had prior to entering college. The students who took part in this study could have held leadership positions in high school organizations that may have provided leadership training. This could speak to the reason for no statistical differences in the sample population. Students may have had training, although not at the collegiate level. Future studies should investigate high school leadership training opportunities, as well as collegiate training opportunities. This focus could provide a holistic understanding of student leadership styles, based on participation in training.

As universities strive to educate the world's future leaders, leadership development programs can be crucial to the development of effective leaders. Leadership development programs can provide knowledge and skills for student leaders to use in their collegiate student organizations and to transfer to their professional lives after college. While the results of this study did not show a large statistical difference in leadership styles between participants in leadership development programs and nonparticipants, there was a small descriptive difference. Participation in collegiate leadership development programs can assist in developing and honing the leadership skills of students to be more transformational, which is one of the most effective styles of leadership, especially if coupled with transactional leadership when necessary. When student leaders participate in leadership development programs, they are preparing to be the future leaders of society.

CHAPTER IV

AN EXAMINATION OF STUDENT LEADER EFFECTIVENESS

Institutions of higher education continuously answer the call, rooted in the growing need in society, to develop students into leaders (Cress et al., 2001). Through various leadership development programs, both curricular and cocurricular, many colleges and universities acknowledge in their mission statements the importance of developing student leaders (Cress et al., 2001; Dugan, 2006; Riutta & Teodorescu, 2014; Thompson, 2006). Not only is it necessary for colleges and universities to create platforms for students to learn leadership skills so they can be effective leaders both pre and after graduation; it is equally important for students to learn to use these acquired leadership skills effectively. Even though most universities in the United States offer some, if not several, forms of leadership development programs, students are typically not required to participate in these programs in order to be a student leader in an organization. Furthermore, there is a paucity of literature in which student leaders' effectiveness is evaluated by the members of their student organizations. This study was designed to determine whether there is a difference in perceived leadership effectiveness by followers of student leaders based on whether the student leader has participated in a leadership development program. The results of this study could be evidence for continuation and evaluation of leadership development programs in American colleges and universities.

Student leadership development is essential in creating leaders of the future for government, corporations, education, the community, and other areas of society (Ewing,

Bruce, & Ricketts, 2009; Ostrom-Blonigen et al., 2010). Prior to leaving the university, students have an opportunity to practice leadership skills as officers or executives in various student organizations or in other leadership roles, such as student government. It is important for professional educators, whether leadership educators or student affairs professionals, to ensure that students are using skills acquired through participation in various leadership development programs effectively.

The Researcher's Perspective

Having worked in higher education for the past 15 years, I have had opportunities to work with a variety of student leaders. I was also a student leader as an undergraduate, serving as president of two organizations simultaneously while participating in two other student organizations. However, as an undergraduate student at a small, liberal arts PWI, I did not have many opportunities for leadership development training. I believe that I was considered to be charismatic and engaging. I believed then that I could motivate members of my organizations and build strong interpersonal relationships. In essence, I was an effective student leader.

After studying various leadership theories, I believe that I displayed characteristics of a transformational leader. Since I have studied leadership theories and leadership training over the past few years, I have realized that I was probably only a mediocre student leader and that those skills that came innately could have been enhanced by participation in leadership training. This is one of the reasons for my keen interest in student leader effectiveness and its relationship to leadership development training.

As an African American male who was well known on campus by students, faculty, and administrators, I felt pressure to ensure that I was doing well and representing my community in a way that made its members proud and secure in my leadership abilities. While I was personally motivated by my own intrinsic need to succeed, making my family and those who supported me proud was important as well. However, at times I felt somewhat tokenized. I was often chosen to represent the university because I was said to be “well spoken” or “very articulate.” As I reflect on my time as an undergraduate student, I realize that those compliments were actually microaggressions. While I do not believe that the microaggressions were intended to be negative, they were in fact microaggressions. Fortunately, I was able to turn those times into opportunities that other Black students did not have and to share with my community my experiences to enhance their leadership potential.

The majority of the students in my focus groups for this study were students of color (not a criterion). I wondered whether they had had experiences similar to mine and, if so, how these experiences had affected their leadership. All of my experiences as a student leader and then advisor of student leaders have combined to guide the direction of the current research project.

Statement of the Problem

While there is a variety of leadership development programs in U.S. colleges and universities (Brungardt, 1996; Chesnut & Tran-Johnson, 2013; Cress et al., 2001; Hirschorn, 1988), the evaluation of the effectiveness of the CSL (president, director, or executive director) is rarely undertaken. One of the goals of leadership development

programs in American colleges and universities is to prepare students to move from “student to employee” (Ostrom-Blonigen et al., 2010, p. 249). Annual performance evaluations are commonly used in many sectors of employment to determine how effective employees are at their particular duties. Some companies and organizations have even instituted 360-degree reviews to gain knowledge from various constituents on the effectiveness of an employee. However, there is seldom a similar process in place for student leaders, whether by the university Department of Student Activities, the organization’s advisor, or members of the organization. Evaluating student leader effectiveness and providing the student leader with feedback can aid in meeting the objective of leadership development programs to prepare students for life after graduation.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there is a difference in the perceived effectiveness of student leaders (CSLs) by their organizational members, based on whether the CSL had participated in a leadership development program. The findings of this research project can provide a blueprint for the need to implement evaluation processes for CSLs at institutions of higher education. An evaluation of the effectiveness of student leaders can contribute to the goals of leadership development programs to prepare students for the world after graduation.

Research Questions

This research project examined whether there is a difference in the effectiveness of student leaders, as rated by organizational members, based on whether the student

leader had participated in a leadership development program. Two research questions guided this study:

1. What is the relationship between leadership style and perceived effectiveness of student leaders by their organizations' members?

2. What is the relationship between perceived leader effectiveness of student leaders by the organizations' members and participation in leadership development programs?

Review of Literature on Leadership Development Programs and Student Leader Effectiveness

Leadership practices and leader effectiveness have been the subject of many research studies. However, there has not been much research related to the perceived effectiveness of student leaders by their peers, especially in relation to whether the student leader participated in a leadership development program. This review of literature examines studies on leader development programs and leader effectiveness, as related to college students. The purpose of this review was to explore research on college student leadership and show how the current research study can further influence the leadership literature.

In a study on the influences of college student leadership, Dugan and Komives (2010) examined the impact of higher education on college student leaders' socially responsible leadership. Based on the SCML and with a sample of "14,252 college seniors from fifty institutions" (p. 525), the researchers sought to find key influences on leadership efficacy. One of the findings related to participation in leadership

development programs. The researchers found that “participation in short- and moderate-duration programs significantly enhanced students’ capacities, in comparison with peers with no formal training” (p. 540). Although this finding was based on components of the SCML, it has positive implications for leadership development programs overall. As authorities on leadership theories and leadership development, Dugan and Komives provided empirical evidence for sustaining leadership development programs for college students.

Posner (2009) contended that teaching leadership skills are necessary in order to lead effectively. Posner stated that leadership is learnable and that leaders learn through practice. One question that is continuously asked in the study of leadership is whether leaders are born or made.

Leadership is not a gene, and it is not a secret code that cannot be deciphered by ordinary people. The truth is that leadership is an observable set of skills and abilities that are useful whether one is seated in the executive suite or standing on the frontline on Wall Street, Main Street or College Avenue. And any skill can be developed, strengthened and enhanced given the motivation and desire along with practice and feedback, role models, and coaching. (Posner, 2009, pp. 1-2)

This assertion by Posner further supports the need for leadership development programs.

Leadership development refers to the theories and styles of leadership; holistic leadership development programs give participants opportunities to put the theory into action: learning by doing. Students not only develop as leaders but also develop as persons by exploring the internal forces that drive who they are (Posner, 2009). For

students, this is particularly important as it relates to student development theory, which is discussed in the section on theoretical framework. Leadership development training also provides students a platform in which to find their voice, recognize their personal values and beliefs, organize well, and use all of these skills collectively to be effective leaders.

Studies have examined the effectiveness of student leaders, using various variables. For example, Adams and Keim (2000) examined the leadership practices and leadership effectiveness of chapter presidents of Greek organizations (both fraternities and sororities). Participants from three public universities completed the SLPI and the Leadership Effectiveness Survey. The researchers conducted a two-way ANOVA and found that women were rated more effective than men; however, both men and women agreed that their chapter presidents represented the organization well to outside constituents. Even though followers agreed that chapter presidents were effective overall, the researchers made several recommendations for student affairs professionals based on the results of the study. It was recommended that Greek chapter presidents “increase their awareness of leadership skills” (p. 266). The researchers endorsed leadership training programs, regardless of format (credit bearing, one-day or week-long seminars, retreats, etc.). This research project examined leader effectiveness and recommended participation in leadership development training, strengthening the empirical evidence to support leadership development programs.

Posner and Rosenberger (1997) examined student leader effectiveness. Their research explored student orientation advisors (OA) at a small private college. The goal

was to determine the relationship between leadership practices of OAs and leader effectiveness, both by OAs and their followers (new students in their orientation groups). Using the Leadership Practices Inventory and leadership effectiveness surveys, the researchers found that “leadership behaviors of OAs were directly related both to their own effectiveness and to those of the members of their orientation groups (Posner & Rosenberger, 1997, p. 53). Followers found that OAs were more effective when followers observed the OAs actively displaying leadership practices. Posner and Rosenberger recommended that OA training incorporate aspects of leadership development through a range of leadership skill-building activities. The researchers considered OAs to be student leaders and added to the empirical data the need for and support for leadership development programs.

The researched discussed in this review of literature has provided empirical evidence for the need for leadership development programs. Leadership development creates platforms for students to develop as individuals as well as leaders (Posner, 2009). Leadership development programs are further supported by various researchers who have suggested such programs as a result of their research projects. While leadership development programs have been the subject of various research studies, including some on student leader effectiveness, there is not much empirical data to compare the effectiveness of student leaders, as perceived by their peer groups, based on whether the student leaders have participated in a leadership development program or training. The current study explores this area to add to the empirical evidence on the study of college student leadership.

Theoretical Framework

One of the most effective ways to ensure that student leadership development programs, whether curricular or cocurricular, are adequately preparing students to become the world's future leaders, is to design programming that meets students where they are developmentally. Knowledge and understanding of student development theory is crucial in student leadership development. Owen (2012) noted that student development and learning theories “are particularly important in leadership education because they make prescriptions about how people can adopt increasingly complex ways of being, knowing, and doing—essential forms of development for leadership learning” (p. 17). Leadership development programs should be designed to help students to grow not only as leaders but also as people. Owen (2012) described the connection between leadership development and human development as “inextricably intertwined” (p. 18).

There are several types of student development theories, including psychosocial, cognitive, identity, and typology. While all of these types of developmental theories can correlate to how a student develops a leadership identity, psychosocial and cognitive theories are key in LID (Komives et al., 2006). For the purposes of this study, Chickering and Reisser's identity development theory, a psychosocial development theory, is examined, along with the grounded theory of LID by Komives and associates.

Arthur Chickering's influential work on identity development, later revised by Chickering and Reisser, is one of the most highly acclaimed and widely used student development theories (Evans et al., 1998; Owen, 2012). Chickering posited that students develop by moving through seven vectors: developing competence, managing emotions,

moving through autonomy toward interdependence, developing mature interpersonal relationships, establishing identity, developing purpose, and developing integrity. It is important to note that students move through these vectors differently and at varying rates; students do not necessarily go through the vectors in order, and they sometimes reexamine “issues associated with vectors they had previously worked through” (Evans et al., 1998, p. 38). Each vector has significant implications for leadership education and development (Owen, 2012). Although not a fully exhaustive list, associations of vectors with leadership development were discussed by Owen (2012) follows:

1. Developing competence. Leadership development can be a catalyst for students gaining competence in interpersonal skills, communication, and working effectively with others. These skills are sought by employers and can be transferred from the classroom to leadership positions on campus to careers and jobs after graduation.

2. Managing emotions. This vector promotes positive emotions such as caring, optimism, and inspiration. Learning to manage emotions more effectively, students are able “to recognize, appropriately express, and control emotions” (Owen, 2012, p. 20).

3. Moving through autonomy toward interdependence. By allowing students the opportunity to self-reflect and explore various personal values and goals, leadership development educators can help students to develop “instrumental independence, which includes self-direction, problem-solving ability, and mobility (Evans et al., 1998, p. 39). These are characteristics and abilities that can extend far beyond the realms of the collegiate experience into professional and corporate sectors of society after graduation.

4. Developing mature interpersonal relationships. While moving through this vector, students not only learn the value of meaningful relationships, both personal and professional; they also develop an appreciation for differences and tolerance for intercultural and interpersonal backgrounds not like their own. The ability to work well with others is instrumental in being an effective leader. Leadership theories, such as transformational and transactional, address the importance of relationships in leading.

5. Establishing identity. When students know who they are individually, what their values are, and issues for which they stand, they not only find themselves but also have the opportunity to establish their identities as leaders. Being comfortable with the multiple identities, including race, gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and ability, among others, helps students to gain not only pride in who they are but also appreciation for others who identify similarly to or differently from themselves—translating back to the vector of developing interpersonal relationships.

6. Developing purpose. This vector deals with developing meaningful personal and professional commitments. Leadership theories and leadership development programs, such as LeaderShape, focus on helping students understand their purpose and vision and how to inject them appropriately into their leadership style and identity.

7. Developing integrity. Developing a value system that is congruent with how one behaves is pivotal with this vector—not only talking the talk, but also walking the walk. The SCML and transformational leadership convey the need for integrity and a sense of morality in effective leadership.

As students grow and develop, their capacity for leadership development has the potential to grow and develop as well. Intentionally designing leadership development programs, while keeping student development in mind, is fundamental to the holistic growth of student leaders. In addition to adding to their personal development, it helps to shape how students identify themselves as leaders—leadership style, vision, method of communicating, and so forth. When students know and understand who they are as leaders, they are more effective and better able to articulate expectations, visions, and goals, and work more effectively with others, establishing their leadership identity.

The grounded theory of LID specifically examines how college students develop as leaders. Komives, Lucas, and McMahon (2007) were interested in how leadership identity develops and how this development helps leaders to work effectively with others. LID is grounded in relational leadership, which is defined as “a complex process aimed at positive purposes. Student leaders should be inclusive of others and diverse points of view, ethical in their practice, and empowering of group members” (Rosch & Anthony, 2012, p. 43). To understand how leadership identity develops, the researchers interviewed students, predominantly junior, seniors, and recent graduates, from various backgrounds. Having students from diverse backgrounds gave the study a holistic representation of all students. These students were nominated by faculty and staff members who recognized the students to have practiced relational leadership (Komives et al., 2007).

Analyzing the interviews, Komives et al. (2005) found five categories of leadership identity: developmental influences, developing self, group influences,

changing view of self with others, and broadening view of leadership. The first category, developmental influences, includes adult and peer influences, meaningful involvements, and reflective learning. The adult influences include family, teachers, and youth group leaders such as church youth pastors and scoutmaster. According to LID, adults influence students early in life by providing a support system and by helping them to build confidence. Adults served as role models and were the first to “recognize the students’ leadership potential” (Komives et al., 2005, p. 596). Similarly, peer influences include same-aged peers, as well as older peers who had shown interest in the leadership potential of the student. The researchers found that participants were motivated by same-aged peers to pursue various leadership positions in their adolescence, and they were inspired by older peers to emulate the success of older peers in their leadership roles. Both adult and peer influences play a role in student leadership identity and all of its complexities.

The two other dimensions of developmental influence were meaningful experiences and reflective learning. Meaningful experiences included group and team activities that gave students the opportunity to interact and communicate with others. These experiences were team sports and athletics, student government, band, theater, and so forth (Komives et al., 2005). The researchers found that students were able to “clarify personal values and interests, experience diverse peers, learn about self, and develop new skills” (p. 598) while participating in these groups. They were also able to make friends.

The final developmental influence, which strongly ties to meaningful experiences, is reflective learning. This is categorized by students thinking about their experiences and uncovering various aspects of their being: their passions, their ideas, their integrity, and so forth. Most of this reflective learning comes in the form of journal writing or conversations with other people, most of whom have been influential in the student's life (Komives et al., 2005).

The next category of leadership identity is developing self. Komives et al. (2005) identified five properties within this category: deepening self-awareness (knowing oneself and what one represents, including implications of race, gender, and various personality traits), building self-confidence (being confident in whom one is and one's ability), establishing interpersonal efficacy (learning to appreciate the values of knowing people from various backgrounds and developing relationships with them), applying new skills (recognizing newly acquired abilities and using them effectively), and expanding motivations (moving beyond the comfort zone and putting passions, ideas, and goals into action). A key finding in the study was that students were able to develop their leadership identity more readily when they understood and valued who they were and who they were becoming.

Komives et al. (2005) found that group influences closely related to developing of self and contained three elements: engaging in groups, learning from membership continuity, and changing perceptions of groups. When engaging in groups, students were said to have found groups that "fit their developing self-image" (p. 602). Groups also gave the students in the study a sense of belonging and feelings of importance. The

researchers found that as students became more engaged in their individual groups, they began to find purpose for the group; it was no longer just a “collection of friends of people they knew” (p. 604). In finding purpose with their organizations, the students began to want to do things to make the organization more effective; they worked harder to improve the organization. This perpetuates leadership identity by enhancing the passion students have for fulfilling the purpose, goals and objectives of their groups or organizations.

The final two categories of the grounded theory of LID are changing view of self with others and broadening view of leadership. In changing view of self with others, the researchers found that students moved from being dependent on other people (adults, older peers) for some form of validation to being more independent. This new-found independence sparked the desire to seek leadership roles and positions in various organizations. With a broadening view of leadership, students began to have a more holistic view of leadership and no longer saw it as just a place of position. These two final categories round off the theory and students’ leadership identity is developed.

While all of the categories of the grounded theory are important, the researchers found leadership identity to be the central theme (Komives et al., 2005). In the grounded theory of LID, leadership identity develops in six stages: awareness, exploration/engagement, leader identified, generativity, and integration/synthesis. Below are brief explanations of each of the six stages as defined by Komives et al., based on findings from their research (2005, 2007).

1. Awareness. This stage typically occurs early in life with the acknowledgement that leaders exist. Students often see their parents and teachers as leaders, as well as external figures such as the President of the United States or well-known figures such as Gandhi. In this stage students in the study did not see themselves as leaders.

2. Exploration/engagement. In the second stage, students joined various groups and organizations. They did not assume leadership roles but rather joined to make friends. During this time students patterns of behavior of influential leaders in their lives (e.g., adults and older peers) were observed.

3. Leader identified. Study participants in this stage saw leadership within their organizations and groups as positional (president, captain, etc.). The participants saw leaders and followers and the roles were distinctly defined: The leader does the leading.

4. Leadership differentiated. During Stage 4 students began to realize that leadership is not necessarily positional; anyone can lead, from officers to regular group members. Leaders were facilitators and members were jointly responsible for the engagement of fellow members; they were also leaders, without titles.

5. Generativity. In Stage 5 students were ignited by the passion that stems from values, beliefs, and a desire to make a difference. They were truly committed “to groups and individuals who sustain them” (Komives et al., 2005, p. 607). Students in this stage are also committed to mentoring others and helping them to succeed.

6. Integration/synthesis. In Stage 6 the students began to incorporate being a leader into their daily routines; it became a part of who they were. They strived to live congruently and work well with others to make positive change.

Some studies have incorporated the grounded theory of LID. For example, Boettcher and Gansemer-Topf (2015) discussed how outdoor recreation programs (ORPs) develop leadership skills in college students. Using the grounded theory of LID as the framework, the researchers found that “students’ identity development aligned with the final three stages” (p. 52) of the LID theory. The researchers contended that students who participate in ORPs, as leadership development training, enhance their skills as effective leaders.

The grounded theory of LID considers how students, specifically college students, become leaders. When students recognize who they are as leaders, they can key in on their particular style of leadership and learn how to lead others effectively. Learning more about their particular style of leadership also helps students to develop as individuals, can be an influence on the remainder of their collegiate experience, and extends into their professional lives after college.

Leadership Styles

In addition to the theories reviewed above, a consideration of leadership style helped to develop this study, particularly the styles of leadership in the full range model of leadership and task-oriented versus relationship-oriented leadership. The full range model of leadership includes transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. Transformational leaders inspire, motivate, mentor, and advise (Bass, 1990; Humphreys & Einstein, 2003; Northouse, 2004). Transformational leadership inspires change through the vision that the leader sets. It is based on four ideal leader behaviors: inspirational motivation (charismatically inspiring followers through

carefully communicating the vision, setting high expectations, and giving encouragement), intellectual stimulation (challenging followers to think outside the box, take more risks, and take ownership for their creativity, contributions, and at times, mistakes), individualized consideration (building trust with the follower to coach and advise followers so they can reach their full potential), and idealized influence (leading by example and following a set of high moral standards; Bass, 1990; Humphreys & Einstein, 2003; McGuire & Hutchings, 2007; Northouse, 2004, Qu et al., 2015). Transformational leadership has been deemed one of the more effective styles of leadership (Bass, 2000).

The style of leadership to which transformational leadership is commonly compared is transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is based primarily on the exchanges between the leader and follower. For example, a leader giving a reward to the employee who makes the most sales at the end of the quarter is a form of transactional leadership. This type of leader is not as concerned with the personal growth of the follower, but more concerned with making sure that goals are met and tasks are completed. The two elements of transactional leadership are contingent reward and management by exception. Contingent reward is the basis of transactional leadership; it focuses on the exchange between the leader and the follower in which expectations are laid out and exact rewards are made known to the follower (Groves & LaRocca, 2011; Northouse, 2004; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Management by exception comes in two forms: active and passive. It “involves corrective criticism, negative feedback, and negative reinforcement” (Northouse, 2004, p. 179). In the active form of management by

exception the leader is upfront with the follower about expectations and explicitly outlines the consequences of noncompliance (Groves & LaRocca, 2011). In the passive form of management by exception the leader takes corrective measures with the follower only when an issue arises. An example of the passive form is a supervisor waiting until a performance review to tell an employee that he or she is not meeting expectations (Northouse, 2004). While transactional leadership is not as effective as transformational leadership, some empirical studies have shown that transactional leadership has been effective, more so when it is coupled with transformational leadership (Bass, 2000).

The last style of leadership in the full range model is laissez-faire leadership. Studies have shown that followers find this to be the least desirable form of leadership (Bass, 1990; Den Hartog et al., 1997). The laissez-faire leader typically takes a hands-off approach and does not take initiative to articulate a vision or support the follower in individual development or growth. There is little empirical evidence that shows this to be an effective form of leadership.

Outside of the full range model of leadership, there are other styles, specifically task-oriented leadership and relationship-oriented leadership. Similar to transactional leadership, task-oriented leaders are primarily concerned with meeting goals and objectives (Bass, 1990). Both the leader and the follower are vigilant about tasks and the leader initiates “planning, task coordination, and execution” (Sherwood & DePaolo, 2005, p. 67). While the leader needs followers to accomplish tasks, the most important aspect of task-oriented leadership is reaching goals and higher productivity. Conversely, leaders who are more concerned with the development of followers are considered

relationship-oriented leaders (Bass, 1990). Relationship-oriented leaders render support and cultivate leader-follower consanguinity to build trust, analogous to the transformational leader. In order to support a strong leader-follower relationship, the relationship-oriented leader may have “open lines of communication, discussion of personal concerns, and provide socio-emotional support” (Sherwood & DePaolo, 2005, p. 67). While the styles of the full range model of leadership, task-oriented leadership and relationship-oriented leadership are not an exhaustive list of leadership styles, they provide support and are integral in this research study.

Methodology

Participants

A large land grant research institution in Texas was the site for this research project. A total of 13 students agreed to participate in two separate focus groups. Six students participated in the focus group in which the CSLs had been involved in some form of leadership development training, and seven students participated in the focus group in which the CSLs had not participated in a leadership development training. The ideal focus group has 6 to 12 participants because “focus groups should include enough participants to yield diversity in information provided; yet they should not include too many participants because large groups can create an environment where participants do not feel comfortable sharing their thoughts, opinions, beliefs, and experiences” (Onwuegbuzie, Dickinson, Leech, & Zoran, 2009, p. 3). The purposeful sampling method of snowballing was used to recruit students to participate in the focus groups. Snowballing is defined as a method of sampling in which “one subject gives the

researcher the name of another subject, who in turn provides the name of a third, and so on” (Atkinson & Flint, 2001, p. 2). For this study, the organizations’ advisors were asked (Appendix F) to identify students who actively participated in the organizations that the advisors served. In turn, those students identified other possible participants. Each participant signed an informed consent form (Appendix G) that explained the nature of the study, that participation was voluntary, and that they could terminate participation at any time. The participants completed an information sheet to assess demographics (Appendix D). Pseudonyms were assigned to participants. Table 5 shows the demographics for the focus group participants whose CSLs had some form of leadership development training (Focus Group 1), and Table 6 shows the demographics of the focus groups participants whose CSLs did not have any leadership development training (Focus Group 2). It is interesting to note that all but one of the participants in Focus Group 1 had some form of leadership development training, like the CSL of the organization in which they were a member. All but one of the participants in Focus Group 2 did not have any leadership development training, like the CSL of the organization in which they were a member. This likely speaks to the culture of the organizations represented in the focus groups, where leaders are expected to participate in a leadership development program or where such participation is not expected or strongly recommended. Each focus group had three CSLs central to the discussions.

Procedures

This research project used the qualitative method of focus groups to gain a holistic understanding of students’ perceptions of the effectiveness of the CSL of their

Table 5

Demographics of Focus Group 1 (Chief Student Leader Had Training)

Participant and pseudonym	Classification	Gender	Race	Leadership training
1 Calvin	Junior	Male	Black	Yes
2 James	Junior	Male	Black	Yes
3 Gina	Sophomore	Female	Black	Yes
4 Maria	Sophomore	Female	Hispanic	Yes
5 Monica	Sophomore	Female	Black	Yes
6 Sue	Junior	Female	Black	No

Table 6

Demographics of Focus Group 2 (Chief Student Leader Did Not Have Training)

Participant and pseudonym	Classification	Gender	Race	Leadership training
1 Ray	Junior	Male	White	No
2 Anna	Sophomore	Female	Hispanic	No
3 Amanda	Sophomore	Female	Hispanic	No
4 Julie	Sophomore	Female	Hispanic	Yes
5 Omar	Junior	Male	Hispanic	No
6 Jessica	Sophomore	Female	Biracial	No
7 Betsy	Junior	Female	White	No

individual student organization. Using qualitative methods for this study “allowed for more questioning and probing, which led to a more in-depth understanding of the perceptions” (Shertzer & Schuh, 2004, p. 114). The focus group participants discussed the effectiveness of their CSL; however, they were not aware of whether their CSL had

had leadership development training. This detail was intentionally omitted so the discussion would produce unbiased results.

Each focus group was asked the same questions (Appendix H), although additional probing questions were asked to ensure that answers were accurately understood. The questions used for the focus groups were adapted from a research study by Posner and Brodsky (1992). Posner and Brodsky designed the Student Leader Effectiveness Survey in a study to find the relationship between leadership practices (using the Leadership Practices Inventory) and leader effectiveness. The initial participants in the effectiveness survey were all fraternity presidents. However, a subsequent study was conducted with sorority presidents. There were no statistical differences in male leader effectiveness and female leader effectiveness. Therefore, this instrument was deemed appropriate for use with both genders. The final adapted focus group questions were reviewed and approved by a panel of experts and the IRB to determine whether the questions were appropriate for the purposes of this study.

To achieve trustworthiness, member checking was conducted. Given (2008) defined *member check* as

a strategy most often used to optimize the validity of qualitative research findings. Research participants are asked to evaluate one or more of the following: whether (a) researchers accurately rendered their experiences that were the target of the study; (b) researchers fully captured the meaning of those experiences had for them; (c) researchers final interpretive accounts of those experiences do them justice. (p. 502)

Each participant was provided a transcript of his or her answers to the focus group questions to ensure that what they said was accurately captured. Participants were invited to expound on their answers and give feedback and suggestions for interpretation.

Constant comparative analysis was used to analyze the data from the focus groups. Developed by Glaser and Strauss, the constant comparative method of analyzing qualitative data has been instrumental in the development of theories (Boeije, 2002; Merriam, 1998). However, it has also been found to be useful in analyzing “many other types of data, including focus groups” (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009, p. 5). During the analysis, the three major stages in constant comparative analysis were used: open coding (grouping data in small chunks using descriptors), axial coding (placing chunks into categories), and selective coding (extracting themes from each group of categories; (Merriam, 1998; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009). The themes discussed in the results section are direct outcomes of using the constant comparative method.

Results

The findings of this study contribute to the research and literature on leadership, especially with regard to college student leaders. This study examined the effectiveness of CSLs as perceived by followers in the student organizations in which the CSLs served. Several themes emerged as a result of constant comparative analysis. The emergent themes were evident in both focus groups and were therefore used to compare the effectiveness of CSLs who had participated in leadership development training to CSLs who had not participated in leadership development training, as perceived by the

focus groups participants. The themes derived from the analysis were (a) leading by example, (b) passion for the organization, (c) task-oriented versus relationship-oriented leadership, and (d) organizational skills.

Leading by Example

The participants in Focus Group 1 reported that the CSLs of their organizations served as examples. James shared his thoughts on his CSL: “I think he sets the example. He’s not going to tell us to do something that he’s not willing to do. So he’s definitely setting the example.” Likewise, Maria, from Focus Group 1, said, “She was the one I looked up to and if I had any questions or concerns, she’s the one I would go to.” The CSLs were perceived to be examples not only to members of their organizations but also to others on campus and in the community. Calvin stated, “He’s [CSL] an eminent figure on campus. He’s a positive figure on campus. He sets an example for younger males and the entire community on campus.” Similarly, Monica noted, “She’s a pillar. She’s an example of who we should follow and who we should look to.”

Parallel to the opinions of Focus Group 1 participants, the participants in Focus Group 2 were expressive of how their CSL led by example. Ray and Julie captured the essence of the focus group sentiments in their statements:

One of the things I really took note of was how he led by example. He was one of the most organized, driven individuals I’ve ever seen. He really led by example, which is one of the qualities I look for most in someone who is leading.

Julie also had expectations of her CSL to lead by example:

Through her selfless service, she was always willing to help you in any way, shape, form or fashion. And she was always coming up with ideas and community service. And so that inspires me to want to be like her. She's leading by example and I feel that's important.

Both focus groups shared the importance of leading by example and how it has helped inspire them to care more about the organization and want to be better leaders themselves.

Passion for the Organization

The second theme that emerged from the focus groups was passion for the organization. Participants in both Focus Group 1 and Focus Group 2 viewed their CSLs as having passion for the organization. The passion the participants described ignited a like passion in the participants and, in the participants' opinion, in other members of the organizations as well. Table 7 compares the statements that reflect the opinions of the participants in both focus groups.

The statements expressed by participants in both focus groups show that the leader's passion for the organization motivated the members. The passion that the CSLs had for their organizations was transmitted to the participants in both focus groups, igniting a passion for the organization. The participants also acknowledged that the passion that the CSLs displayed reached other members of the organization. This was evident in the statement made by Ray (Table 6). James indicated that "the effort and excitement he puts into it definitely inspires guys to want to join and do just as much as he does."

Table 7

Theme: Passion for the Organization

Focus Group 1 (Training)	Focus Group 2 (No training)
<p>James: “For me, it was just seeing his love and passion for it. I mean he loves lives and breathes it. And how much work and effort he puts into it definitely inspires you to want to join and want to do as much as he does.”</p> <p>Calvin: “Yeah, his passion for it. It made me have my passion for it.”</p> <p>Gina: “She takes a lot of pride in the organization and she’s really serious about it.”</p> <p>Sue: “She keeps the energy in the room at a positive note instead of a negative one. It’s all because of how excited she is about the organization”</p>	<p>Jessica: “He’s one of the most charismatic people I’ve ever met. The way he spoke about what we did was very, very passionate.”</p> <p>Ray: “So any time he would talk in front of them [organizational members], when we had weekly meetings, any time he would relay information, it was all very, very passionate and so they got to see his excitement and his love for the organization.”</p> <p>Amanda: “Her passion for community service and everything. I don’t know; it was like osmosis or something, but it kind of transmitted to us.”</p> <p>Betsy: “I believe he was effective because of his determination and just his motivation to get stuff done. Just how passionate he was about the organization.”</p>

In the previous two themes, leading by example and passion for the organization, the participants in both focus groups conveyed that the CSL of their organization possessed positive attributes in relation to his or her leadership style. The participants in both focus groups indicated that these positive attributes affected their perception of the CSL’s effectiveness. However, the next two themes that emerged showed the differences in opinions of the participants in Focus Group 1 and Focus Group 2. The themes of

organizational skills and task versus relationship orientation reflected differences in the opinions of the focus group members.

Organizational Skills

Participants in both focus groups indicated that strong organizational skills were important for a leader. However, participants in Focus Group 1, where the CSLs had leadership training, described the organizational skills of the CSLs more positively. For example, Gina said,

She's [CSL] one who is on time and there when she is supposed to be there. She does whatever she's asked to do and more to keep our organization running. She always has everything together. She makes sure all I's are dotted and all T's are crossed.

Likewise, Calvin stated, "He's [CSL] big on deadlines and making sure we meet all deadlines and making sure everything run smoothly and as planned. At our meetings he always has his planner and to-do list and always has everything together." These statements synthesize the overall feelings of the participants in Focus Group 1. A clear majority of the participants in Focus Group 1 made statements that reflected the CSL's strong organizational skills and ability to multitask effectively.

The participants in Focus Group 2 discussed organizational skills mostly as an area of improvement for the CSLs in their organizations. Jessica said, "He [CSL] can improve on his organizational skills. He's such a social person, very one-on-one with people. He could have excelled more being organized." Betsy echoed Jessica's statement: "His [CSL] organization isn't the best. He's busy, but I guess everyone is."

Similarly, Julie said, “Yes, I guess prioritizing is not her extreme forte. Sometimes she’s kinda all over the place.” While participants in both focus group expressed the importance of organizational skills, the participants in Focus Group 1 noted the organizational skills of their CSLs more positively than did the participants in Focus Group 2.

Task-Oriented Versus Relationship-Oriented Leadership

The participants in Focus Group 1 made statements that conveyed the belief that their CSLs preferred a relationship-oriented leadership style. On the contrary, the participants in Focus Group 2 made statements that indicated that their CSLs were more task-oriented leaders. The statements in Table 8 show the contrast in leadership style of the CSLs based on the statements of the participants in Focus Group 1 and participants in Focus Group 2.

As evident by the statements in Table 8, the participants in Focus Group 1 indicated that their CSLs were more relationship oriented and participants in Focus Group 2 indicated that their CSLs were more task oriented. In each focus group, however, there was at least one outlier. For example, Jessica, a participant in Focus Group 2, said, “He always was saying how we were like a little family. He was a really good friend to everyone; everyone felt close to him.” A similar group outlier was Sue, from Focus Group 1, who said, “She sets up different groups and committees and does a really good job of keeping track of everything and each committee; she’s pretty organized.” While there was one outlier in each focus group, the results still indicated that the participants in Focus Group 1 perceived their CSLs to be more relationship

Table 8

Theme: Task-Oriented Versus Relationship-Oriented Leadership

Focus Group 1 (Training)	Focus Group 2 (No training)
<p>Gina: “We spent time together and built relationships. She [CSL] made sure we had an opportunity to do things together. It’s like at the end of the day, we’re a little family.”</p> <p>Monica: “My president makes it a point to include everyone; she’s very inclusive.”</p> <p>James: “He’s [CSL] definitely good at working with people and other organizations. He’s great at bringing people together.”</p> <p>Maria: “She’s [CSL] really open and concerned too. You know like ‘hey, how are you doing?’ Not only in regards to school, but also personal too.”</p>	<p>Anna: “She [CSL] implemented this system to where you could only miss two events and if not you would be kicked out. And she was strict about that.”</p> <p>Omar: “I think she [CSL] is like pretty on task in whatever needs to be done. She is always focused on what needs to be done at a given time.”</p> <p>Julie: “She’s [CSL] good at giving people certain jobs or tasks.”</p> <p>Ray: “Sometimes there was a disconnect with all of us [organizational members] and him [CSL], especially in forming good relationships. I guess it’s hard to really build relationships in organizations with a lot of people, but that’s an area he can work on.”</p>

oriented in their leadership style and the participants in Focus Group 2 perceived their CSLs to be more task oriented in leading.

Discussion

The analysis of the focus groups of this study identified four themes related to the leadership of the CSLs who were the subjects of discussion. In Focus Group 1, the participants were members of student organizations in which the CSLs had engaged in some form of leadership development training. The participants in Focus Group 2 were

members of student organizations in which the CSL had not engaged in a leadership development program. The four themes that emerged from the constant comparative analysis were (a) leading by example, (b) passion for the organization, (c) organizational skills, and (d) task-oriented versus relationship-oriented leadership.

The themes derived from the focus groups yielded attributes that are characteristic of both transformational and transactional leadership. The themes *leading by example* and *passion for the organization* were positively akin in both focus groups and relate well to transformational leadership. Statements made by the participants in both focus groups showed that both CSLs who had leadership development training and CSLs who did not encompassed characteristics of a transformational leader. The theme *passion for the organization* is parallel to aspects of the definition of transformational leadership. In transformational leading, the leader inspires and motivates followers to understand and carry out the vision that the leader sets. The passion possessed by the CSLs, who were the subject of discussion for both focus groups, was the catalyst for many of the participants to embrace the vision and goals of the organization. For example, Maria, a participant in Focus Group 1, stated,

She [CSL] always communicates and lets us know what our goals are and what our purpose is. She tells us how important they are and also asks for our input.

This is so inspiring to me; just how she does it.

Similar to Maria's sentiments, Amanda, a participant in Focus Group 2, said, "She [CSL] made sure all the other officers were sticking to the objectives and our goals to get more members and get stuff done. Her energy was contagious." The nonverbal

agreements (head nodding) by other participants in both focus groups solidified this finding, indicating an aspect of transformational leadership that, according to Humphreys and Einstein (2003), means setting high expectations and motivating followers to be part of the vision.

The theme *leading by example* is also characteristic of a transformational leader. Again, this characteristic of the CSLs was acknowledged in both focus groups. Idealized influence is the element of transformational leadership from which this trait is obtained. Idealized influence requires the leader to be a strong role model for followers (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003; McGuire & Hutchings, 2007; Northouse, 2004). Most, if not all, of the participants, in both focus groups, noted that their CSL was an example. Being an example or role model was important to the participants in both focus groups. In idealized influence, the follower is also able to identify with the leader. The participants described developing and building relationships with the CSLs, which is paramount in transformational leadership. The participants in this study outlined characteristics of transformational leadership and were clear that these attributes were instrumental in the effectiveness of the CSLs discussed.

While clear similarities existed among the themes of *passion for the organization* and *leading by example*, differences were found in the themes of *organizational skills* and *task-oriented versus relationship-oriented leadership*. Examples of these themes, given by the focus group participants, resemble characteristics of transactional leaders. The CSLs who were the topic of discussion in Focus Group 1 were described as having good organizational skills. These skills can be the result of participating in a leadership

development program. Among learning leadership theories and the various styles of leadership, good leadership development programs are holistic and encompass other skills, such as time management, goal setting, problem solving, and conflict resolution (Osteen & Coburn, 2012). These skills are key to being organized effectively.

Participants in Focus Group 1 reported that their CSLs possessed positive characteristics of transactional leadership. For example, Calvin noted that his CSL praised him in front of the entire organization for chairing a social event and presented a certificate of appreciation. This is a clear example of contingent reward, an element of transactional leadership in which there is an exchange between the leader and the follower (Groves & LaRocca, 2011; Northouse, 2004; Walumba et al., 2008). The participants in Focus Group 1 described CSLs to have a combination of transformational and transactional leadership styles. While transformational leadership is the preferred style of leadership, the most effective form comes with a combination of both styles, with transformational leadership being the dominant style (Bass, 1999, 2000).

In addition to attributing to their CSLs a combination of transformational and transactional leadership characteristics, Focus Group 1 conveyed the image of a relationship-oriented leader. The participants discussed building relationships, inclusivity, and bringing groups together. Having these traits not only supports relationship-oriented leadership but also increases the dominance of transformational leadership. Positive, cohesive relationships are an aspect of the transformational leadership element called *individualized consideration*. In this element the leader gets to know the follower and develops a level of trust in order to coach and advise the follower.

The participants in Focus Group 1 positively attributed this element to their CSLs (Table 8). Building strong relationships also shows the developmental growth of the CSLs, which is one of the vectors of Chickering and Reisser's theory: developing mature interpersonal relationships. Possessing a relationship-oriented leadership style, in conjunction with elements of both transformational and transactional leadership, further supports the argument for engaging in a leadership development program, as represented by the statements made by participants in Focus Group 1, whose CSLs had participated in a leadership development program.

The participants in Focus Group 2, in which the CSLs had not participated in leadership development training, described the CSLs as being less organized or needing to improve organizational skills. While the participants rated their CSLs as effective overall, improvement in organizational skills (many of which are taught in leadership development programs) would likely increase the leadership effectiveness of these CSLs. However, Focus Group 2 participants described their CSLs as having some elements of transactional leadership. Two participants discussed a point system that the CSL had implemented for attending organizational events: After missing two events, the member is "kicked out" of the organization. This is an example of the transactional leadership factor, management by exception (active). While one participant viewed this style positively, saying that it helped to hold members accountable, others did not view it as favorably, implying that it made them feel forced to come rather than wanting to attend events on their own accord. This is also a quality of task-oriented leadership: a

leader who is more concerned with meeting goals and objectives than the personal development of the follower.

The participants in Focus Group 2 were quite positive in their description of the CSLs in areas of passion for the organization and leading by example. These are characteristics of transformational leadership, a style of leadership that empirical research has shown to be effective. However, the participants cited organizational skills as an area for improvement of the CSL. Improving organizational skills would increase the effectiveness of the CSLs, as perceived by the participants in Focus Group 2.

The majority of the students who participated in the focus groups were students of color. Focus Group 1 consisted of predominately African American (Black) student leaders, and Focus Group 2 consisted of predominately Hispanic student leaders. White students were in the minority in both groups. The racial makeup of the focus groups was not intentional; it was happenstance.

When the focus group participants arrived, they seemed somewhat shocked that I was African American. I had communicated with them only through email. The African American and Hispanic participants seemed at ease in the focus group discussions and quite honestly impressed by the fact that a Black male was pursuing a doctorate. After I introduced myself and explained the research project, I could see admiration, especially among the African American students, who smiled and nodded in a congratulatory fashion.

As the researcher conducting the focus groups, I noticed a sense of comfort with me on the part of the students of color. The university that these students attend is a PWI

and the number of students of color, especially African American students, is significantly small in comparison to majority students (African American students make up only 3.67% of enrollment and Hispanic students make up 19.03%; TAMU, 2015). I believe that the students of color in the focus groups were excited to relate to someone who looked like them.

Every single student of color congratulated me at the end of the focus group discussion. They smiled and gave well wishes; a few even hugged me. To me, this represented the pride and respect that they felt for an African American male pursuing a terminal degree. The few White students who participated in the study were quite amiable and shared freely; however, the sense of gratitude that I perceived from the students of color, especially the African American students, was evident in their illuminated smiles, compliments, and thanks.

Students of color may often feel isolation at PWIs and gravitate toward student organizations, faculty, and staff who resemble their racial and or ethnic identity, which often helps them to succeed (Guiffrida & Douthit, 2010; Hotchkins, 2014). I believe that the students of color in the focus groups connected with me because of our commonality as persons of color. This connection helped them to feel at ease and to express their experiences with their chief student leaders freely.

Implications and Conclusion

The need for effective leaders continues to grow (Cress et al., 2001). Institutions of higher education are meeting this need by providing students opportunities to enhance their leadership performance through various leadership development programs, both

curricular and cocurricular. However, student leaders are not required to participate in a leadership development program in order to be the CSL of an organization. This research study was designed to determine whether there was a difference in the effectiveness of student leaders, as perceived by followers, based on whether or not the student leader had participated in a leadership development program. The results of this study can be the impetus for the promotion, continuation, and evaluation of leadership development programs at American colleges and universities.

This research study used the qualitative method of focus groups to examine the effectiveness of CSLs based on participation in a leadership development program. Focus Group 1 consisted of participants who were in organizations in which the CSL had participated in a leadership development program and Focus Group 2 consisted of participants who were in organizations in which the CSL had not participated in a leadership development program. Four themes emerged from the focus group discussions: (a) leading by example, (b) passion for the organization, (c) organizational skills, and (d) task-oriented versus relationship-oriented leadership. The first two themes were positively attributed to the CSLs who were the topic of discussion in both focus groups. These two themes have direct implications for transformational leadership, a style of leadership that has been shown to be effective. The areas in which the focus group participants discussed differences were in the themes of organizational skills and task-oriented versus relationship-oriented leadership. Much of the discussion in Focus Group 1 pointed to the CSLs having good organizational skills, which directly relates to aspects of transactional leadership. Being transformational in their leadership styles

while building good relationships, partnered with positive aspects of transactional leadership, made the CSLs of Focus Group 1 quite effective. Although many of the CSLs who had leadership training may have been introduced to certain organizational skills prior to their participation in leadership development training, the training more than likely enhanced these skills and helped the CSLs to incorporate them in their style of leadership.

Focus Group 2 expressed that organizational skills were areas in which their CSLs needed improvement. While organizational skills are not necessarily the center of leadership development programs, well-developed programs encompass said skills. The task-oriented style of leadership, although adding the transactional leadership component, was not well received by participants in Focus Group 2, decreasing the level of effectiveness of the CSLs.

The participants in both Focus Group 1, whose CSLs had attended some form of leadership development training, and Focus Group 2, whose CSLs had not attended leadership development training, rated their CSLs as overall effective. However, the CSLs discussed in Focus Group 1 were more effective because of relationship building skills and a strong organizational skill set. Enhanced organizational skills can be the direct result of a well-developed leadership training, as indicated by the outcomes of Focus Group 1. Participation in a leadership development program would likely increase the effectiveness of the CSLs from Focus Group 2, who had not attended leadership development training.

As leadership educators and student affairs personnel at universities across the United States continue to develop student leaders, it is important to emphasize the importance of leadership development training to students and to stress the outcomes of attending such programs. Based on the results of this study, four recommendations are suggested to increase the effectiveness of student leaders. First, as student leaders register with their student activities departments as the CSL of an organization, there should be a way for the CSL to indicate whether or not he or she has participated in a leadership development program. This would alert the appropriate personnel in charge of leadership development programs at the institution. Second, all CSLs should be strongly encouraged, if not required, to attend some form of leadership development program. Having an initial leadership development training for new CSLs is ideal, whether in person or web based. Exposure to an initial training program is likely to indicate the need for further training. Third, a peer evaluation system should be in place so CSLs can receive constructive feedback from peers about their performance. The goal of a peer evaluation system would be to allow CSLs to become aware of the feelings, needs, and expectations of their followers. Fourth, while this study showed that students perceived the CSLs who had attended leadership development training to be more effective than those who had not, this research project was conducted at a single institution. Future studies should be multi-institutional. While a multi-institutional study would likely yield the same results, a larger study with similar results would have a stronger empirical impact and could be the stimulus for requiring or strongly recommending that student leaders participate in a leadership development program.

As evident by the results of the focus groups in this study, followers perceived student leaders who had attended a leadership development program to be more effective than those who had not. As colleges and universities strive to cultivate the leaders of the future, leadership development training will become increasingly important. Well-developed leadership development programs expose student leaders to various leadership theories and leadership styles; these programs also incorporate transferrable skills such as time management, goal setting, and conflict resolution. Having a strong skill set in these areas not only assists student leaders to lead their student organizations effectively but also prepares student leaders to be effective leaders in the world after graduation.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Developing students into effective leaders is a continuous goal for universities across the United States. Many institutions contend that leadership development is so crucial that it is part of the university mission statement (Cress et al., 2001; Ruita & Teodorescu, 2014; Thompson, 2006). Not only does leadership development assist student leaders with skills to lead their student organizations effectively; it also prepares student leaders to lead effectively after graduation in their professional lives. The skills that leadership development programs help to cultivate include, but are not limited to, goal setting, decision making, teamwork, problem solving, and conflict resolution (Osteen & Coburn, 2012; Ostrom-Blonigen et al., 2010). The overall goal of this research project was to determine whether there was a difference in the leadership styles of undergraduate student leaders based on whether they had participated in a leadership development program. This study was also designed to determine whether there was a difference in the perceived effectiveness of student leaders, according to their followers, based on participation in a leadership development program. The results of this study contribute to the empirical research on both leadership and college students.

As a professional in higher education for the past 15 years, I have worked with many student leaders; I was a student leader as an undergraduate. In conjunction with my studies on leadership development theories and training programs, my experiences with various student leaders have guided my curiosity to learn more about their leadership styles and effectiveness. Having conducted and presented at leadership

programs, I have found these programs to be effective in helping student leaders not only to enhance their leadership skills but also to articulate their vision and goals.

The format for this dissertation study was the journal article style. In lieu of the traditional dissertation chapters, the journal article style requires an introduction (Chapter 1), three individual connected manuscripts (Chapters 2 through 4), and an overall summary (Chapter 5). Manuscript 1 reviewed studies on the effectiveness of leadership development programs and provided an executive summary of notable programs. Manuscript 2 took a quantitative look at the leadership styles of undergraduate student leaders and compared their styles of leadership based on participation in a leadership development program. Manuscript 3 implemented qualitative measures to determine whether there was a difference in the effectiveness of student leaders as perceived by their peers, based on participation in a leadership development program. The combination of manuscripts make this full dissertation a study on the effectiveness of leadership development programs and their impact on student leader effectiveness.

In Manuscript 1, the studies that were reviewed provided positive implications for the effectiveness of leadership development programs (Cress et al., 2001; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Rosch & Caza, 2012; Tingle et al., 2013). As evidenced by the studies reviewed in Manuscript I, collegiate leadership development programs help students to develop skills that they can use to lead their student organizations effectively and to transfer those skills into their professional lives after graduation. Noteworthy programs from TAMU, The Pennsylvania State University, and the University of Texas at Austin were discussed. These programs are holistic and incorporate practices that researchers

have determined are necessary to make the programs effective. These practices include leadership identity, cultural exposure (diversity), meaningful learning environments, experiential learning and reflection (ASHE, 2013). The overall goal of Manuscript 1 was to show the effectiveness of leadership development programs through various empirical research and to give examples of notable programs that employ learning experiences that implement effective leadership practices.

Manuscript 2 examined student leadership styles and compared the styles of student leaders based on participation in a leadership development program. Using the transformational leadership theory as a framework, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles were explored. In order to determine leadership style, the MLQ was employed. The results of this study did not provide significant statistical evidence of a difference in the leadership styles of undergraduate student leaders who had participated in some form of leadership development program and undergraduate student leaders who had not done so. Descriptively, however, the results indicated that students who had participated in some type of leadership development program tended to be more transformational in their leadership style (scoring slightly higher on the transformational leadership constructs of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration). The results of the analysis also descriptively revealed that student leaders who had participated in a leadership development program displayed attributes of transactional leadership at a higher frequency than students who had not (scoring slightly higher on the transformational leadership constructs of contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), and

management-by-exception (passive). Leadership educators and theorists contend that transformational and transactional leadership are not mutually exclusive; that is, the best form of leadership occurs when they are used in conjunction, with transformational being the dominant style of leadership (Bass, 1999, 2000; Qu et al., 2015). The fact that student leaders who had participated in a leadership development program displayed attributes of transformational and transactional leadership more often than those who had not suggests that leadership development programs have an effect on the leadership styles of undergraduate student leaders. Based on the sample of this study, the effect was not statistically large but there was some effect.

Manuscript 2 also yielded other interesting findings. The results indicated that upperclassmen (seniors) were slightly more transformational than underclassmen (sophomores and juniors; no freshmen participated). Also, students of color reported that they exerted extra effort in leading but did not consider themselves to be effective. In contrast, Caucasian students reported that they did not put forth as much extra effort but considered themselves to be effective leaders. The following recommendations are made as a result of the findings of this study:

1. Student affairs professionals should strongly encourage or require student leaders to participate in leadership development training.
2. Student affairs professionals and leadership educators should advocate leadership development programs to students early in their college career.
3. Leadership development programs should include curriculum on cross-cultural communications, sensitivity, and diversity.

4. Student leaders of color should be connected to faculty and staff mentors of the same cultural background to assist in their success and confidence building.

Complementary to other students on leadership development program, this study showed that participation in collegiate leadership development programs can assist in creating and honing the leadership skills of students to be more transformational, which is one of the most effective styles of leadership, especially if coupled with transactional leadership when necessary. When student leaders participate in leadership development programs, they are preparing to be the future leaders of society.

Manuscript 3 reported the effort to determine whether there was a difference in effectiveness of student leaders, as perceived by their peers, based on participation in a leadership development program. This study used the qualitative method of focus groups. Focus Group 1 consisted of students whose CSL had participated in a leadership development program and Focus Group 2 consisted of students whose CSL had not participated in a leadership development program. Analysis of the focus group sessions identified four emergent themes: (a) leading by example, (b) passion for the organization, (c) task-oriented versus relationship-oriented leadership, and (d) organizational skills. While the CSLs who were the topic of discussion in each focus group were described similarly on the themes of leading by example and passion for the organization, the differences occurred in task-oriented versus relationship-oriented leadership and organizational skills. Focus Group 1 participants stated that their CSLs were more relationship oriented and possessed a higher level of organizational skills than did the CSLs who were the focus of discussion in Focus Group 2. This made the

CSLs of Focus Group 1 more effective because they employed practices of both transformational and transactional leader.

The focus groups in reported in Manuscript 3 were unintentionally predominately students of color. The evident comfort of these students indicated the importance of connecting with someone in authority with the same racial background. As an African American researcher conducting the focus groups, I believe that these students felt a sense of connection with me because of our commonality as persons of color.

Based on the findings of Manuscript 3, the following recommendations are made.

1. As student leaders register with their student activities departments as the CSL of an organization, student activities personnel should develop a way to indicate whether the student has participated in a leadership development program. This would alert appropriate personnel regarding the available leadership development programs at the institution.

2. All CSLs should be strongly encouraged, if not required, to attend some form of leadership development program. Having an initial leadership development training for new CSLs is ideal, whether in person or web based. Exposure to an initial training could indicate the need for further training.

3. A peer evaluation system should be in place so CSLs can receive constructive feedback from peers about their performance. The goal of a peer evaluation system would be to allow CSLs to become aware of the feelings, needs, and expectations of their followers.

4. While this study showed that students perceived the CSLs who had attended leadership development training to be more effective than those who had not, this research project was conducted at a single institution. Future studies should be multi-institutional. A multi-institutional study would likely yield the same results but ; a larger study with similar results would have a stronger empirical impact and could be the stimulus for requiring or strongly recommending that student leaders participate in a leadership development program.

While there have not been many studies on the effectiveness of student leaders based on participation in leadership development programs, this study is consistent with the results of extant studies. It provides positive implications for participation in leadership development programs and gives evidence that leadership development programs should continue to receive support and resources from universities.

As evident in the results of this study, overall, student leaders who had participated in some form of leadership development training tended to be more effective than student leaders who had not. As colleges and universities strive to cultivate the leaders of the future, leadership development training will become increasingly important. Well-developed leadership development programs will expose student leaders to various leadership theories and leadership styles, incorporating transferrable skills such as time management, goal setting, and conflict resolution. Having a strong skill set in these areas not only assists student leaders to lead their student organizations effectively but also prepares them to be effective leaders in the world after graduation.

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APPENDIX A

**MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE
LEADER FORM (5X-SHORT)**

For use by Arthur Watson only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on January 8, 2014

**MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Leader Form (5x-Short)**

My Name: _____

Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #:

This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.**

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

Use the following scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently,
0	1	2	3	4

1. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.....0
1 2 3 4
2. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.....0
1 2 3 4
3. I fail to interfere until problems become serious.....0
1 2 3 4
4. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.....0
1 2 3 4
5. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise.....0
1 2 3 4

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APPENDIX B

PERMISSION TO USE THE INSTRUMENT

For use by Arthur Watson only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on January 8, 2014



www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

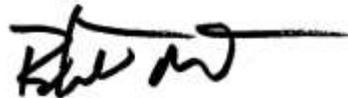
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for his/her thesis research.

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,



Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

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APPENDIX C

INFORMED CONSENT (MLQ) UPDATED

Project Title:

An examination of student leadership styles and their relationship to leadership development training and student leader effectiveness

Researcher:

Arthur C. Watson

Dr. Chanda Elbert (Dissertation Chair)

Department:

Agricultural Leadership, Education and Communications at Texas A&M University

You are being asked to take part voluntarily in the research project described below. Please take your time making a decision. Before agreeing to take part in this research study, it is important that you read the consent form that describes the study. Please ask the study researcher to explain any words or information that you do not clearly understand.

You have been asked to take part in a research study of student leadership styles and how they relate to leadership development training. Approximately, 312 students will be enrolling in this study at TAMU. You are being asked to be in the study because you hold the position of president, vice president or chair a student organization at Texas A&M University. If you decide to enroll in this study, your involvement will last about 30 minutes. This is the amount of time it will take you to complete a leadership survey.

If you agree to participate in this study the researcher will use the results of the survey you take and compare it to other student leaders who take the survey. The researcher will look to see if there is a difference in the leadership styles of student leaders at Texas A&M University. You will also have an opportunity to have your effectiveness as a leader evaluated by members of your student organization.

Your involvement in this study is strictly voluntary and you will not be penalized in any way if you choose to not participate. You can decide to leave the

study at any point. However, if you do choose to participate, you have the option of being entered into a drawing for \$50 gift card.

Confidentiality is guaranteed in this study. There will be no identifiable information that could link you back to this study. After the completion of the study, the completed surveys will be destroyed and or deleted.

If you have any questions about this research, please contact the Texas A&M University Institutional Research Board at irb@tamu.edu.

Authorization Statement

I have read each page of this paper about the study (or it was read to me). I know that being in this study is voluntary and I choose to be in this study. I know I can stop being in this study without penalty. I will get a copy of this consent form now and can get information on results of the study later if I wish.

Participant name (Printed): _____

Participant Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX D

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

Demographic Questions:

1. What is your current student classification? (Please choose one)
 - a. Freshman
 - b. Sophomore
 - c. Junior
 - d. Senior

2. What is your ethnicity? (Please choose one)
 - a. African-American/Black
 - b. Asian/Pacific Islander
 - c. Caucasian/White
 - d. Hispanic/Latino(a)
 - e. Bi or Multiracial
 - f. Other (please list: _____)

3. What is your major field of study? _____

4. What is your gender? (Please choose one)
 - a. Male
 - b. Female

5. Have you participated in a leadership development program while in college?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

If yes, please check all that apply:

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> LeaderShape | <input type="checkbox"/> Leadership Institute |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Emerging Leaders | <input type="checkbox"/> Freshman Leadership Organization (FLO) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Gilbert Leadership Conference (GLC) | <input type="checkbox"/> Freshman Leadership Advisor Council (FLAC) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Building Young Leaders Together (BYLT) | <input type="checkbox"/> ALEC Course |
| <input type="checkbox"/> SCOMS Course | <input type="checkbox"/> Freshman Leadership Development Retreat |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Freshman Leadership Experience | <input type="checkbox"/> Sophomores Advancing in Leadership |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Southwestern Black Student Leadership Conf. | <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please list: _____) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please list: _____) | <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please list: _____) |

6. Would you like to have your effectiveness as a leader evaluated by your organization's members?
- a. Yes
 - b. No

If yes, please list the student organization for which you are the Chief Student Leader

APPENDIX E

INVITATION TO CHIEF STUDENT LEADERS

Dear Fellow Aggie,

My name is Arthur Watson and I am a candidate for my PhD in Organizational Leadership here at Texas A&M University. For my research, I am interested in looking at the leadership styles of undergraduate students leaders at the university, namely the presidents and vice presidents of student organizations, Chief Student Leaders (CSLs).

You have been identified as a chief student leader (president, vice president or chair) of a student organization at Texas A&M University. Please take 10-15 minutes to complete the surveys at the links below. Your assistance in completing this survey would be a tremendous help to me as I complete my doctoral degree and it would also benefit the literature as it relates to research on leadership.

Please know that your participation in this research project is on a voluntary basis and your answers and leadership style will be completely confidential. As the researcher, I, only with my dissertation committee, will be the only one(s) to see the information you provide.

Thank you in advance for your participation. Upon completing the survey, you will be entered into a drawing for a \$50 Visa gift card.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at the email address below.

Thanks and Gig'em,
Arthur C. Watson
Candidate for Doctor of Philosophy
acwatson@neo.tamu.edu

APPENDIX F

LETTER TO ADVISORS

Dear Organization Advisor,

My name is Arthur Watson and I am a candidate for my PhD in Organizational Leadership here at Texas A&M University. For my research, I am interested in looking at the leadership styles of undergraduate students leaders at the university, namely the presidents and vice presidents of student organizations, Chief Student Leaders (CSLs).

The CSL (president, vice president or chair) of the organization for which you advise, (organization name), recently participated in a survey to determine their leadership style. Additionally, they have indicated that they would like their effectiveness as a leader evaluation by members of their organization. Can you please identify 2-3 active members of the organization who could provide feedback through a focus group on their CSLs leadership? The focus group will last approximately 45 minutes to an hour and lunch or dinner will be served (depending on time of the focus group).

Please know that the organization members that you recommend in this research project may participate on a voluntary basis and their answers will be completely confidential. As the researcher, I, along with my dissertation committee, will be the only one(s) to see the information you provide.

Thank you in advance for your assistance. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at the email address below.

Thanks and Gig'em,
Arthur C. Watson
Candidate for Doctor of Philosophy
acwatson@neo.tamu.edu

APPENDIX G

INFORMED CONSENT (FOCUS GROUP)

Project Title:

An examination of student leadership styles and their relationship to leadership development training and student leader effectiveness

Researcher:

Arthur C. Watson

Dr. Chanda Elbert (Dissertation Chair)

Department:

Agricultural Leadership, Education and Communications at Texas A&M University

You are being asked to take part voluntarily in the research project described below. Please take your time making a decision. Before agreeing to take part in this research study, it is important that you read the consent form that describes the study. Please ask the study researcher to explain any words or information that you do not clearly understand.

You have been asked to take part in a research study of student leadership styles and how they relate to leadership development training. Approximately, 312 students will be enrolling in this study at TAMU. You are being asked to be in the study because of your involvement in a student organization at Texas A&M University. If you decide to enroll in this study, your involvement will last about 1 hour to 1.5 hours.

If you agree to participate in this study the researcher will use the results of the focus group in which you participate and analyze your comments to determine the effectiveness of the student leaders of your organization. The researcher will look to see if there is a difference in the effectiveness of student leaders who participate in a leadership development training versus those who do not participate in a leadership development training.

Your involvement in this study is strictly voluntary and you will not be penalized in any way if you choose to not participate. You can decide to leave the study at any point. However, if you do choose to participate, you have the option of being entered into a drawing for \$50 gift card. Confidentiality is guaranteed in this study. There will be no identifiable information that could link you back to this study. After the completion of the study, the transcripts and recordings will be destroyed and/or deleted.

Additionally, to ensure the accuracy of your responses to the questions asked during the focus group, the focus group session will be both audio and video recorded. The recordings will only be seen by the principal researcher and the possibly the dissertation committee.

If you have any questions about this research, please contact the Texas A&M University Institutional Research Board at irb@tamu.edu.

Authorization Statement (please check one (1):

_____ I have read each page of this paper about the study (or it was read to me). I know that being in this study is voluntary and I choose to be in this study. I know I can stop being in this study without penalty. Also, I agree to have my statements both audio and video recorded. I will get a copy of this consent form now and can get information on the results of the study, later if I wish.

_____ I have read each page of this paper about the study (or it was read to me). I know that being in this study is voluntary and I choose to be in this study. I know I can stop being in this study without penalty. However, I do not want or agree to have my statements either audio or video recorded. I will get a copy of this consent form now and can get information on the results of the study later, if I wish.

Participant name (Printed): _____

Participant Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX H

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are the objectives/goals of your student organization?
2. How did the Chief Student Leader (CSL) of your organization help the organization meet its objectives/goals?
3. How did the CSL of your organization develop a sense of cohesion and build team within your organization?
4. What did your CSL do to get organizational members to volunteer for responsibilities?
 - a. Do you believe this was effective? Why? Why not?
5. How did your CSL inspire members to care about the organization?
 - a. Do you believe this was effective? Why? Why not?
6. How would you describe your CSL's interactions with the organization's advisor?
7. Based on your observations and experience, do you believe the advisor feels the CSL is effective in meeting the organization's objectives/goals? Why? Why not?
8. Do you believe your CSL represents your organization well to constituents outside the organization (alumni, university administrators, community, etc.)? Why? Why not?
9. What are some areas in which you believe your CSL could improve? Why?
10. Please complete one of the following sentences:
 - a. Overall, I believe my CSL is effective because.....
 - b. Overall, I believe my CSL is not effective because.....