

A NORMATIVE THEORY FOR ACHIEVING
LEADERSHIP EXCELLENCE: AN EXAMINATION OF
THE SELF-LEADERSHIP CONTEXT

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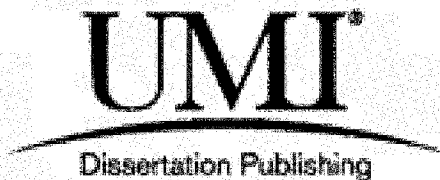
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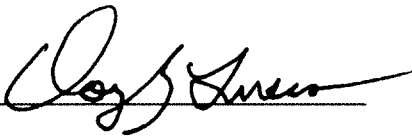
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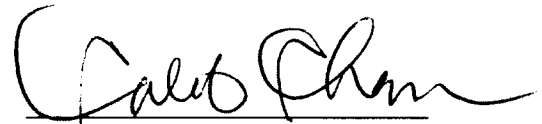


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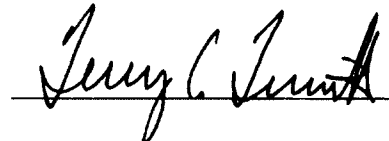


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Dedication

For my mother, the late Edith J. Knight, who instilled in me the delight for learning and the habits necessary to strive for self-leadership

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ABSTRACT

E. Allen Knight

**A NORMATIVE THEORY FOR ACHIEVING
LEADERSHIP EXCELLENCE: AN EXAMINATION OF
THE SELF-LEADERSHIP CONTEXT**

The academic and commercial community continues to search for a leadership training theory that will provide consistent results and improve leadership praxis. This study aims to determine through empirical analysis if the new contextual prescriptive model as developed by Zigarmi, Lyles, and Fowler (2007) and taught to groups of students provides a statistically significant impact to leadership outcomes. To date, only one organization, the Catholic Leadership Institute, has developed and implemented a system of training using this model.

The model proposes five practices and five contexts. This study focuses on the foundational context of self-leadership and the five practices. The Solomon four-group design was used in this study, to provide for isolation of various effects given the limitations of the quasi-experimental nature of the cohorts, the non-equivalent groups and the self-selected subjects. Comparison and treatment effects were measured using the Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) as developed by Houghton and Neck (2002). Results were analyzed through descriptive statistics, ANCOVA, ANOVA, and Student's *t*-test. A total of 134 subjects were compared using paired sample and group means to test the impact of the training on six hypotheses relating to overall self-leadership skills and the five practices of the model.

The results indicate that the subjects participating in the training based on the prescriptive model did not significantly demonstrate improved RSLQ scores for any of the six hypotheses tested.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Background and Statement of Problem

Why did David succeed in defeating the Goliath and become a great inspiring leader while King Saul failed to motivate and lead Israel? Why do the names of Margaret Thatcher, Ronald Reagan, Indira Gandhi, Steve Jobs, John Paul II, and Mother Teresa, to name a few, represent to many people, key examples of successful leadership? How do individuals encounter, embrace and empower their own journey to personal leadership?

Leadership is one of the most discussed, most studied, and least understood higher order functions of organizational activity (J. M. Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2007; Yukl, 2006). Yet, with all the study, Warren Bennis states, “In the best of times, we tend to forget how urgent the study of leadership is. But leadership always matters...” (2007, p. 2). “One of the most universal cravings of our time is hunger for compelling and creative leadership,” states James Burns (1978, p. 1). Leadership researchers, Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber, state that when,

Looking back over the past 100 years, we cannot imagine a more opportune time for the field of leadership studies. Never before has so much attention been paid to leadership, and the fundamental question we must ask is, what do we know and what should we know about leaders and leadership (2009, p. 423).

For example, Edgar Schein writes,

In an age in which leadership is touted over and over again as a critical variable in defining the success or failure of organizations, it becomes all the

more important to look at the other side of the leadership coin—how leaders create culture and how culture defines and creates leaders (2004, p. xi).

A debate concerning the essence of leadership underlies the challenge to defining the various core dynamics of how leadership happens. Should studies focus on leaders, on traits, on followers, on relationships, or on power sharing and an appropriate method for training that leads to consistent leadership outcomes? Is there then no way to settle the ongoing discussion about the effectiveness of leadership training when researchers and practitioners cannot come to a common agreement in the literature on leadership definition (J. S. Burns, 1996)? Certainly the interest in leadership is not just in the domain of academic engagement, as the popular press continually serves the general and business reader with 'how-to' books on leadership and its practices. These readers pursue the romance of leadership that reflects the cultural and societal values of the market and they sate that pursuit by reading book after book on the subject (Bligh & Meindl, 2005) with no apparent universal agreement on best practices for training.

These issues are indicative of the timeliness and importance placed on leadership studies by the academy. However, the subject of leadership development is of vital importance to the practitioner, and the need for the study of the theory and application in business is crucial, due to a widespread agreement that ineffective leadership leads to business and organizational failures (Hambleton & Gumpert, 1982; Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008; Myatt, 2012; Petty, 2012; Pienaar, 2011), a contention supported by a finding that leadership experience reduces the failure rate of business startups (Brüderl, Preisendörfer, & Ziegler, 1992).

This general conclusion is due in part to the overall attempt to define the essential components and impact of leadership, along with a “growing body of evidence” (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994, p. 494) that “supports the common sense belief that leadership matters”. In response, more and more organizations acknowledge the need to “choose better leaders” in order to improve effectiveness and efficiency. If that is the case then the theorists and instructors in a position to develop and test effective instructive and prescriptive training models must recognize the need to offer accessible means by which leadership selection and performance is improved at the point of need (Hambleton & Gumpert, 1982); Hogan et al. (1994).

One of the first steps to an improved prescriptive training model is the contingency of a leadership definition, a consensus on the terms, especially the meaning of leadership and an evolving logic of training theory. In keeping with Koontz’s (1961) concept that researchers work towards a similar if not universal set of semantics, Winston and Patterson (2006) have formulated a definition of leadership. From a base of 26,000 published studies on leadership in the Expanded Academic Database as of 2003 (pp. 6,7), these researchers reviewed a selection of 160 articles and books . After a final review and refinement of 90 leadership terms and variables (p. 6), Winston and Patterson proposed the following operational definition:

A leader is one or more people who selects, equips, trains, and influences one or more follower(s) who have diverse gifts, abilities, and skills and focuses the follower(s) to the organization’s mission and objectives causing the follower(s) to willingly and enthusiastically expend spiritual, emotional, and

physical energy in a concerted coordinated effort to achieve the organizational mission and objectives (p. 7).

The conclusion that they reached was similar to that of Barker (2002) who suggested that leadership constituted process and behaviors. In addition, the concept of leadership implies that there must be followers, but in a discerning insight researchers have noted leaders are also followers--that is of the self (Winston & Patterson, 2006, p. 7).

Other researchers have suggested that leadership is composed of specific elements that are central to understanding and defining the term. Northouse, for example, suggests four primary elements of the leadership phenomenon including process, influence, occurrence in groups, and common goals (2007, pp. 5, 6).

Zigarmi, Lyles, and Fowler (2007) imply that leadership is “something you do” suggesting that leadership is not a concept but a practice or activity with:

Repetitive acts of arousing, engaging, and satisfying the values and needs of followers in an arena of conflict, competition, or achievement that result in followers taking action toward a mutually shared vision (p. 58).

These leadership definitions suggest the importance of actions or a process leading to the accomplishment of a shared vision. This concept is in line with a leadership model put forth by Zigarmi, Lyles, and Fowler (2005; 2007). Their model presents a prescriptive method consisting of five practices by which a leader can adapt to a wide range of situations within multiple contexts, rather than relying on a single leadership solution (2007). The authors suggest that the “who, what, when, and where you lead determines how you should lead” and they emphasize that while the five

practices are consistent through the various context levels, it is necessary to adapt and adjust the practices for each context.

The practices contained in this model are reflective of an endeavor to meet the challenge of leadership definition, actions, and construct by synthesizing these elements into a structured prescriptive model as formulated by Zigarmi, Lyles, and Fowler (2007). Their theory is proposed and explained in the book, *Achieve Leadership Genius* (ALG). The model is comprehensive and consists of normative, behavioral, and applied theory resulting in five specific leadership practices in five organizational level contexts. The practices are defined as prepare, envision, initiate, assess, and respond. The contexts represent different levels of organizational interaction including self-leadership, one-to-one leadership, team, whole organization, and alliance (inter-organizational).

This model is proposed as a general leadership theory based on strong academic rigor which provides practitioners with clear guidelines for training and implementation, resulting in measurable outcomes. A model for leadership training that can be implemented across a broad spectrum of organization types and participant experience should have a broad appeal for use by businesses, ministries, non-profits, and non-government organizations. The goal of this study is to determine the validity of the ALG model. The model will undergo the testing of proposed hypotheses within one context by measuring the results of the training that subjects undergo in the five practices.

The selection of the first context, self-leadership, appears as a logical point to test the validity of the theory. While the ALG theory proposes five similar prescriptive methods for each context, the first context is the logical starting point since a leader must be able to lead self in order to lead others. This initial level is foundational to the entire

model. As the leader gains mastery of the five practices at the personal level, he/she will be prepared to inculcate those practices into the other contexts.

To that end, the authors state that their concept and methodology, “will allow a person to become an effective leader and produce results in the Self and One-to-One Leadership Contexts” (Zigarmi et al., 2007, p. 272). In the same passage, Zigarmi et al. call for leaders to attain socially responsible outcomes and further suggest that their definition of leadership implies a leader as servant (p. 272) reflective of a line of research dating back to the early 1990s (Avolio et al., 2009). These representative passages suggest that the ALG theory as proposed is a model that will facilitate measurable organizational outcomes while meeting the requirements of the integrative definition of leadership as proposed by Winston and Patterson (2006, p. 7) cited in a previous paragraph.

It is interesting to note that Manz proposes a self-leadership perspective emphasizing “purposeful leadership of self toward personal standards and “natural” rewards that hold greater intrinsic motivational value” (1986, p. 585). The purposeful and motivational aspects of self-leadership theory are rooted in the behavior focused theories of self-influence and self-regulation, self-control, and self-management as well as cognitive-oriented strategies from intrinsic motivational theories, social cognitive theories, and positive cognitive psychology (Houghton & Neck, 2002; Neck & Houghton, 2006). Can it not be said then, that in fact leadership begins with self?

Study Focus

This study will focus on the efficacy of the training developed from this normative and prescriptive theory which promises improved self-leadership skills

throughout all types of organizations. This study will assess and analyze the outcomes of training in the specific practices or processes as proposed by the ALG theory in the self-leadership context. The outcomes will be measured with a standardized response instrument completed by members of cohorts that are in various stages of training with material based on the ALG theory.

Study Purpose

The goal of the study is to determine if there is a measurable change in self-leadership scores based on the impact of the ALG five practices at the self-leadership context level. In addition, the research may provide further insight into the training and the corresponding measurability of process improvement based on the practices of prepare, envision, initiate, assess, and respond as taught in the ALG model.

Study Importance

If the results of the study indicate that the self-leadership scores are improved upon completion of ALG training, then further studies are warranted in the other contexts to determine the validity of the overall model. This model holds promise as providing a specific means for self-leadership training in other fields and levels of the organization in business, industry, professions, non-profits and government training. With the flattening of organizational structures, improvement in self-leadership is an important aspect for progress in efficiencies and effectiveness, vision and purpose, and service and stewardship.

Writing in their comprehensive overview of self-leadership, Neck and Houghton articulated that while self-leadership has a strong intuitive appeal, legitimate criticisms exist. They suggest that “the majority of self-leadership research has been conceptual

with relatively few empirical studies examining self-leadership in organizational settings” (2006, p. 274). The opportunity to provide some additional empirical data for self-leadership within the ALG prescriptive practices will add to the literature. That understanding the process and application of self-leadership is seen as elemental to leadership overall is reinforced by the comments of two leading researchers in self-leadership, Christopher Neck and Charles Manz. They write in their recent book asserting that “...if we ever hope to be effective leaders of others, we need first to be able to lead ourselves effectively” (2013, p. 1).

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this research will consist of the prescriptive normative theory for leadership as developed by Zigarmi, Lyles, and Fowler (2007) and self-leadership theory as described by Neck and Houghton (2006). The applied prescriptive model as advanced by Zigarmi et al. outlines five specific leadership practices each of which is applicable at five organizational contexts. The initial context is that of self-leadership. Consequently, an understanding of self-leadership theory which according to researchers Manz and Neck (Manz, 1986; Manz & Neck, 2004) is at its root a self-influence process through which people perform and accomplish tasks and goals (Neck & Houghton, 2006, p. 271).

Self-leadership is rooted in a number of behavioral and cognitive theories (Houghton & Jinkerson, 2004; Manz, 1986; Neck & Manz, 2013; Neck & Milliman, 1994; Neck, Neck, Manz, & Godwin, 1999; Neck, Stewart, & Manz, 1996) that have been described as three broad based strategies:

1. Behavior-focused (Neck & Houghton, 2006)

- a. Self-regulation (Carver & Scheier, 1981; Kanfer, 1970)
 - b. Self-control (Cautela, 1969; Mahoney & Arnkoff, 1979)
 - c. Self-management (Manz & Sims, 1980)
2. Natural reward and intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Neck & Houghton, 2006)
 - a. Create pleasant and enjoyable experiences into tasks (Manz & Neck, 2004)
 - b. Focus attention away from unpleasant aspects (Manz & Neck, 2004; Manz & Sims, 2001)
 3. Constructive thought pattern (Houghton & Jinkerson, 2004; Neck & Houghton, 2006)
 - a. Replace dysfunctional and irrational beliefs (D. D. Burns, 1980; Manz & Neck, 2004; Neck & Manz, 1992)
 - b. Replace negative self-talk with positive internal dialogues (Neck & Manz, 1992, 1996)
 - c. Improve mental imagery (Manz & Neck, 2004)

The recent contextual theory known as Achieve Leadership Genius (ALG) (Zigarmi et al., 2007) is prescriptive in nature. The authors point to the following influences in the development of their theory:

1. Adult learning theory (Mezirow, 1992, 1994; Zigarmi et al., 2007, p. 26)
2. Corporate life-cycle theory (Adizes & Naiman, 1988; James, 1973; Mueller, 1972; Zigarmi et al., 2007, p. 45)
3. Self-determination theory of values (Deci & Ryan, 1985)

4. Normative theory (Zigarmi et al., 2007, p. 259)
5. Contingency theory (Yukl, 2006, p. 14; Zigarmi et al., 2007, p. 259)
6. Situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1974; Hersey, Blanchard, & Natemeyer, 1979)
7. Path-goal theory (House, 1971, 1996)

Purpose and Research Question

As noted earlier the concept of self-leadership is a composite of behavioral, prescriptive, and normative theory. A team of researchers and teachers propose that the ALG model and the corresponding training with its five practices will improve self-leadership (Zigarmi, Blanchard, O'Connor, & Edeburn, 2005; Zigarmi et al., 2007). The purpose of this study is to test the effectiveness of the ALG training model at the self-leadership level. The testing at this first contextual level is necessary to determine if future research is appropriate for the other four levels of context as proposed by the theory.

The primary research question is this: Does a training program that teaches self-leadership by inculcating the five practices from the ALG model demonstrate a measurable improvement in self-leadership skills? Therefore the following null hypothesis for testing is proposed here: There is no change in the self-leadership skills (practices) for subjects completing the ALG Training Module 2 – Leading in the Self-Context training.

Inquiry Framework

The inquiry into the validity of the ALG model at the self-leadership context level will consist of an experimental framework following a model based on the Solomon Four

Group Design (Braver & Braver, 1988; Sabers & Franklin, 1985). Students participating at various stages in the formal training process will complete a testing instrument allowing the researcher to measure change scores on a recognized validated scale. The training materials and instruction process are based on the ALG theory model. The resulting scores will be subjected to a battery of standard statistical tools to determine if the model produces change in the measurement of self-leadership skills, behaviors, and cognitions.

Study Boundaries: Limitations, Assumptions, and Design Controls

This proposed study is limited in organizational scope as the target sample for the investigation is confined to a self-selected group of clergy in various cohorts at various stages of pre-training, training, and post-training in Module 2 self-leadership within the *Good Leaders, Good Shepherds* training program. This program was developed and written utilizing the ALG theory as the foundational model. In addition, the members of the sample are a self-selected group as each participant has made a conscious decision to undertake the training. The study is intended to determine if internal validity of the model exists and within the scope of the experimental design to determine if limited external validity can be indicated or suggested, with the recognition that this may not represent generalizability to other organizations.

Summary

In review, this study is designed to provide researchers and practitioners with empirical data on the efficacy of the prescriptive leadership model as developed by Zigarmi, Lyles, and Fowler (2007). The subjects for the study are a group of

professionals in leadership roles who have participated in the self-leadership training as prescribed by the model.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The main focus of this study is to determine the efficacy of a general, prescriptive model of leadership and the operational training effectiveness at the self-leadership context. Self-leadership is a component of the much larger field of study known generally as leadership. As such, an appropriate review of leadership literature to place self-leadership in a proper historical, theoretical and developmental context will aid in the connection of self-leadership within this larger context. The scope of leadership literature and formal academic studies that date back to the 1930s (Aditya, 2004) is vast.

Overview of Leadership Literature

The role of leadership has been recognized almost from the dawn of oral and written history. Of Agamemnon, who led the Greek fleet to Troy; of Patroclus, who put on the armor of Achilles in an attempt to save the honor of Greece (Homer); of Moses, who led the Hebrew tribes from Egypt to the Promised Land (Exodus); and of Leonidas, who led the Spartans to victory at Thermopylae (Herodotus, 1920) to name but a few of the mythical and historical giants, individuals who are still held as exemplary leaders. Poets, historians, and commentators have long recognized the aura of leadership and pondered the leader, the follower, and the resulting outcomes.

Early in the 20th century, starting with Thomas Carlyle (Timothy A. Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002) and continuing through today (Neck & Houghton, 2006), leadership has also come under increasing scrutiny of the academy. The outpouring of research papers, journal articles, books, and proceedings on the characteristics of leaders and the innumerable facets of leadership is almost overwhelming to comprehend. Yet, the

popular press and workshop circuit continue to intrigue the general reader and practitioner.

Throughout the long history of interest in the subject, the reflections, the biographies and the studies did not often discern, discuss, or distinguish whether a key distinction between managers and leaders occurred or even existed (Bennis, 2007; D. A. Wren, 2005; Yukl, 2006). In 1977, Zaleznik expressed the premise that a marked difference existed between managers and leaders. That difference was more than a matter of degrees, but rather one of attitudes towards goals, conceptions of work, relations with others, and sense of self (Zaleznik, 1977). In his analysis, leadership development is possible through mentorship and training. With this caveat more and more research moved to explore the theoretical and practical methodology for such a process.

Graeff suggests that in the last several decades, “leadership may well be the single most popular social science concept...” (2000, p. 320). Then as put forth by such academics as Dickson, Aditya, Chhokar, House and Wright, “leadership is embedded in a larger context of organizational and national culture” (as cited in Aditya, 2004, p. 217). While many models and theories have appeared in the last 50 years, Bass posits that these theories are not as divergent or conflicting as one supposes given the diverse leadership definitions put forth (2008, p. 1206). In a similar vein, Cragg and Spurgeon (2007) suggest that when reviewing the trajectory of leadership theory that trait, situational leadership, and transformational leadership appear to be the most commonly referenced by practitioners. According to their analysis the common denominator in all three models “is the core concept of leadership as a process of influence” (p. 109).

Yukl suggests three important variables or common denominators of leadership: (a) characteristics of leaders, (b) followers and (c) situations (2006, p. 12)? Does this suggest that leadership cannot be reduced to a description? Rather, is leadership a form of praxis with objective and measurable results based on key variables or characteristics? Yukl goes on to state that most key leadership theories focus on a set of characteristics as represented by one of these three categories. As a consequence, researchers tend to focus on one of these categories as the primary method for explaining effective leadership. Yukl suggests that most theories developed in the last five decades emphasize leader characteristics within the areas of trait, behavior, or power-influence categories (pp. 12-13). This particular focus offers the opportunity for additional research that might identify other leader characteristics. And if there are gaps in the connection of leadership to followers and situations (Yukl, 1989; 2006, p. 12), might not research in those areas lead to further practical insights? This argument is supported by Georgoudi and Rosnow (1985), who argue for the need of a “pluralistic and contextualist approach” (as cited in Aditya, 2004, p. 216) to the understanding of leadership.

All of this points to the fact that leadership is a complex phenomenon. And yet practitioners and researchers continue to search for clear direction, measures, and practices that will improve leadership activity. Is all this searching for clarification and answers due to the overall intrigue of leadership in general, or is it the case where organizations are attempting to find answers and formulate a clear normative method? Practitioners outside of the academy offer prescriptions based on their experience, while scholars continue to advance theories and studies that suggest a clearer understanding.

Yet, all too often a gap between the practical and the scholarship continues to exist (Aram & Salipante, 2003; Bartunek, 2007; Davis, 2007).

The stream of leadership research and literature within the various views, theories, and observations is vast and complex. Therefore, for the purposes of this review, the goal is to provide a background of the relative literature that appears to contribute to the prescriptive model developed by Zigarmi et al (2007). Further, additional concentration is focused on the development of the theory and literature pertaining specifically to self-leadership, the leadership context for testing the Zigarmi model as operationalized within a specific training application (Bellini & Rumrill, 1999).

Some Major Works, Models, and Developments

This study's review of the evolving literature on leadership theory included such elements as history, validity, special concerns, and measures. A major contribution was found in the *Comprehensive Handbook of Psychological Assessment* (Aditya, 2004, pp. 216-239). In the introduction to his article, Aditya offers that within leadership studies "contextual factors come into play" (p. 216), and the "fact remains that the quintessence of leadership is to be found in not one but several perspectives or social phenomena" (p. 216).

In another source, Yukl provided a sweeping panorama of the various prominent theories and developments of leadership in organizations (2006). He pointed to effective leadership behavior and participative leadership theory development, and then suggested a taxonomy of order by describing dyadic, contingency, charismatic and transformational theories, before concluding his study with a discussion of teams and decision groups. His

work concentrated on the evolution of leadership theory in respect to leaders with less emphasis on followers and context.

In the most current edition of Bass's comprehensive and detailed account of leadership (2008), which builds on previous editions and compiled with his colleague (Bass & Stogdill, 1990), is a review of the study and application of leadership. In the 1990 edition, a rather detailed discussion was provided on wide ranging leadership topics including personal and situational theories, political theories, interaction and social learning theories, perceptual and cognitive theories, hybrid theories, and methods and measures. The authors caution that the researcher should recognize potential problems with empirical measures and causal relations such as "laboratory versus field studies, erroneous law of small number, erroneous conclusions from convenience samplings and single source variance" (p. 883); measurement problems (p. 885); and "simple versus complex hypothesis testing, need for qualitative methods, theoretical biases, leniency effects, and errors in leaders self-ratings..." (p. 890).

The latest edition demonstrates the wide-ranging nature of the study from concepts, types, models and theories to the personal attributes of leaders and leadership, styles, charismatic and transformational, cultural aspects, identification of leaders, leadership development and the future of leadership research and considerations (Bass, 2008, pp. xiii-xvi). A key element for the pursuit of research in this field is found, in his concluding remarks, where Bass suggests that "new lines of investigation should be expected and welcomed" (p. 1207), because the lack of consistent results in much of the research is due to a complexity of variables that need identification and study.

One of the most recent assessments of the current state of leadership studies indicates that “the field of leadership focuses not only on the leader, but also on followers, peers, supervisors, work setting/context and culture” (Avolio et al., 2009, p. 422) and includes a much broader range of leaders. Some of the more recent theories reviewed include authentic leadership; new-genre leadership, complexity leadership, followership, servant and spirituality based leadership, as well as cross-cultural leadership. In their summation, the authors suggest that the trends in leadership studies will include more holistic approaches, more in depth examinations of how leadership takes place including additional analysis of followership processes, and the development of alternative ways of examining leadership with a greater use of mixed-methods research designs (pp. 441, 442).

Trait theory.

A resurgence of interest in trait theory emerged in the early 1990s as characterized by the studies of Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) who argued for a more holistic approach to the leadership traits. House and Baetz (as cited in House & Aditya, 1997, p. 412) reported consistent support for leadership traits such as intelligence, prosocial assertiveness, self-confidence, energy-activity, and task-relevant knowledge. Another trait that may influence the effectiveness of leadership is emotional intelligence. Goleman reports that in his studies of effective leaders that it is emotional intelligence that is the common denominator, not IQ or cognitive ability (1998, p. 93). He goes on to quantify his assessment by stating that 90% of the difference in star performers is attributable to emotional intelligence rather than cognitive abilities (p. 94). The good news according to

Goleman is that “research and practice clearly demonstrate that emotional intelligence can be learned” (p. 97).

A report on the impact of personality on leadership was released in 2004 (Bono & Judge). This meta-analysis indicated that four of the traits included in the five-factor model of personality (Norman, 1963; Tupes & Christal, 1992) often referred to as the ‘Big Five’ traits correlated to leadership in the following order: (a) extraversion, (b) conscientiousness, with (c) neuroticism and (d) openness to experience tied, and less importance given to agreeableness (Bono & Judge, 2004, pp. 904, 905). An earlier study (Timothy A. Judge et al., 2002) indicated that four lower order traits—sociability, dominance, achievement and dependability (p. 770), demonstrated a moderately strong correlation to leadership. While extraversion displayed the strongest correlation, the authors concluded that the Big Five traits and the lower order traits appeared equivocal in predicting leadership (p. 774). The Big Five traits were noted as slightly better in predicting leadership emergence than leadership effectiveness. In summary, traits do appear to have an impact on leadership, but does that negate the possibility of leadership skill training?

Behavior theory.

The study of leader characteristics was followed by the study of behaviors relating in part to various contingency. The development of contingency theories began with Fiedler (1964) and including the least-preferred coworker (LPC), the Path-goal theory (House, 1971), decision model (Vroom & Yetton, 1973), situational leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982), and cognitive resource theory (CRT) (Aditya, 2004, p. 218). Further development of behavior theories, imparted a revival of trait theory providing grounding

for new proposals in leader flexibility and social sensitivity, leader-member exchange (LMX), implicit leadership theory, and neo-charismatic theories (pp. 218-221).

Given the growth in multi-national organizations, Aditya closes out his overview of leadership studies history by summarizing cross cultural leadership as seen in *The GLOBE Study* which addressed the need to investigate the evidence for universal leadership attributes. The development and validation of scale was the first step of this project, then the collection of data and testing. The primary objective of the program was met when six distinct dimensions of cross-cultural implicit leadership theories were obtained from the data. The six facets gained from the data were: “(1) charismatic/value based leader behaviors, (2) team orientation, (3) participative leadership, (4) self-protective behaviors, (5) humane orientation, and (6) autonomous leadership” (2004, pp. 221, 222).

Transformation and transactional theory.

Transformational and transactional leadership constructs require an understanding of the actions and practices of the leader. While typically applied and understood within the context of the leader with followers, the student of leadership can recognize that the constituent components are applicable in the self-leadership context.

Mezirow, a theorist in adult education, developed a theory of perspective transformation in the 1970s (1978, 1981, 1994). While his concentration was in the process of learning, his construct suggests that if the student is more aware of self and relationships, then more engaged and inclusive learning can occur. This learning style can lead to behavior change. Likewise transformational leadership at the level of self can lead to behavior change within this same construct.

The history of leadership based around practices and actions emerged in the 1978 introduction of the distinction between transformational and transactional leadership (J. M. Burns, 1978). The distinction and component identification of these two unique approaches have achieved a high level of acceptance among scholars and practitioners alike. Bass (1985) who based his transformational theory on Burns' concept, argued that transformational and transactional leadership are separate concepts, but that the best leaders practiced both methods (T. A. Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p. 755). Bass and Avolio continued to perform and assess the validity of the transformational theory, while providing additional arguments in support for the theory (1993).

The three dimensions of contingent reward, management by exception—active, and management by exception—passive, distinguish transactional leadership (T. A. Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p. 755). Transformational leadership contains four dimensions which are charisma or idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (p. 755). Many studies from multiple researchers provide additional support for the importance of the theory. A major study, completed in 2006, recognizes that when leadership is transformational it can make it easier for change and innovation and “it can be inferred that transformational leaders will thus try to create weak situations where employees are given discretion and freedom to take *[sic]* decisions in their work hence increasing employee morale and confidence” (Masood, Dani, Burns, & Backhouse, p. 948).

The importance of the organizational context in the role of leadership was discussed as the critical factor required for leaders who are involved in a dynamic and complex environment. While transactional leadership is key in defining clear standards

and performance expectations, yet it is transformational leadership that can build on trust by enabling deeper sense of shared values, mission, and vision (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003, p. 216).

Bass recognized another key element in the realm of transformational leadership when he expanded on the concept of inspirational leadership (Bass, 1988). He suggested that part of the process of leadership was developing and encouraging others with inspiration that leads to intellectual stimulation, envisioning, purposing, impressions, and meaning.

The components of contingent reward, management by exception (from transactional leadership), along with idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (from transformational leadership) are likely constituents for the practice of self-leadership. As is suggested in this study, the effective practice of self-leadership is foundational to the ALG context model and consequently various leadership practices that apply in different contexts should be valid at this base level.

From authority to influence.

As early as 1841, Thomas Carlyle, the Scottish philosopher, formulated what is considered as the first 'modern' attempt at defining a theory of leadership (Carlyle, 1907). His theory was focused on the leader and the leader's influence on circumstances and the performance at social, political and spiritual levels, with a formidable characteristic of genius as further developed in the 'great man' theory (Popper, 2004). Does a 'great' leader gain authority from force of will or through the assent of those in

subordination to that authority (Barnard, 1938)? Ultimately, how does a leader gain influence within the various organizational contexts and societal interactions?

Micha Popper suggests that we are now in an age of “persuasive relations” (2004, p. 117), a time when traditional authority constructs are on the wane. The author goes on to state that due to the variety of “economic, social, cultural, and organizational circumstances” (p. 118) that further study with leadership as relationship is fit for further consideration. The study of relations as a key to leadership, he argues is at a stage on the way of forming a theory and moving beyond mere classification. He writes, “the perspective of leadership as relationship permits a view that is admittedly more complex but also more dynamic, and therefore more accurate” (p. 118).

Situational leadership and contingent models.

The need to recognize that subordinates or followers are part of the situational leadership construct was argued by one group of researchers suggesting that situational characteristics have an effect on subordinates’ need for supervision, which then provides an opportunity for the leader to influence by means of the appropriate style (de Vries, Roe, & Taillieu, 1998, p. 487). This view is similar to that of Graeff (1983, p. 290) who stated that the recognition of the importance of the subordinate is a justified perspective. The distinction is that the need for supervision is an asset of the subordinate in their task or circumstances.

Situational leadership as defined and promoted by Hersey, Blanchard and Natemeyer (1979) is a contingent model. Ten years earlier than the work in 1979, Hersey and Blanchard offered their critique of the focus on task and relationships as important leadership dimensions leading to a best style of leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969).

Their concern over the limitations of the Ohio State Leadership Studies started in 1954 (pp. 26, 27) as well as the popular Managerial Grid (Blake & Mouton, 1964) led to their development of Situational Leadership. Their proposal suggested that while tasks and relationships were important, a change in leadership style within a process of planned evolution in developmental changes and the “creation of mutual trust and respect” would lead to improved outcomes (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969, p. 34).

Since its inception, this situational approach to leadership has held wide popularity with organizations and managers (Grover & Walker, 2003, p. 14). Contingent models (Fiedler, 1964; House, 1971; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; D. A. Wren, 2005; J. T. Wren, Hicks, & Price, 2004) are based on the idea of accomplished leadership that is not based on one “best way”, but rather on the contingencies in the form of task, subordinate and group variables, and in the case of the Hersey and Blanchard model the idea of readiness. In 1983, Graeff expressed concern the situational leadership as a prescriptive model and the accompanying diagnostic instrument merited less than favorable evaluations (1983, p. 290). The literature on contingent models suggests that even with some problematic issues as identified by the academic community, these models “...are still required to explain how the styles required for effective leadership vary with the demands of a situation” (Bass & Stogdill, 1990, p. 910).

With the growth of telecommuting some researchers see a new role for situational leadership as a tool to help the leader through appropriate and sufficient communication to recognize the need for adapting the leader style to the readiness level of the employee (Gibson, Blackwell, Dominicis, & Demerath, 2002, p. 85). Grover et al. (2003) find

value in applying the situational leadership model in conjunction with a methodology for companies to implement and improve quality control measures.

Contextual leadership.

In their review of leadership, Vroom and Jago (2007) suggest that while contingency and situational models offer insight as normative models, a more encompassing view must be taken. They encourage theorists to undertake a more in depth analysis to reach an understanding of key behaviors and contextual variables in the leadership process (p. 23).

The idea that the setting in which leadership takes place is engendering more interest. Avolio summarizes what he sees as emerging patterns in leadership studies by quoting John W. Gardner, “leaders cannot be thought of apart from the historic context in which they arrive” (as cited in Avolio, 2007, p. 31). Another study suggests that the study of leadership effectiveness should occur over time and consider context (Svensson & Wood, 2006).

A recent contribution to provide a practical and universal method for training leaders is the normative and behavioral leadership model utilizing a contextual approach incorporating specific practices as proposed by Zigarmi, Lyles, and Fowler (2007). The authors formulated their model based on many years of combined observation, research, and practice through their work with many businesses and organizations from around the world. They propose that this model will advance the quality of leadership training and that the theoretical practices and contexts, when operationalized, are suitable for a wide range of business, government, religious, and service organizations.

This comprehensive contextual theory developed by Zigarmi, Lyles, and Fowler (2005; 2007) as Achieve Leadership Genius (ALG) is prescriptive in nature and specifies five leadership practices implemented across five organizational context levels. The contexts as outlined in their theory include self, one-to-one, team, organizational, and alliance (Zigarmi et al., 2007, pp. 10-13). The authors write, “different contexts demand different skills” (p. 11). The key to understanding context as defined by their model is “the consideration of who, what, where, and when you lead” (p. 12) and as such encourages leadership that considers social-cultural environment, organizational types, personality types, along with cross-cultural and global considerations. In the summary chapter of their seminal work on the ALG theory, they state that trait theory does not support effective leadership (p. 258) rather that it is possible to prove that certain behaviors at appropriate times “develop trust with those they lead and produce measurable results over time” (pp. 258, 259).

The practices are delineated and explained as prepare, envision, initiate, assess, and respond (Zigarmi et al., 2007, pp. 58-62). These practices are utilized at each of the contextual levels with some minor practical adjustments to accommodate the different relational aspects of the different contexts. In the summation of their model, these five practices are consistent across all five contexts and represent the basis for the normative theory they propose for this generalized leadership strategy

As described by the authors, the theory was developed by them from their personal experience and observation as well as the wealth of leadership information garnered from “over a hundred years of leadership study and practice” (Zigarmi et al., 2007, p. 1). Unlike a number of the more popular leadership titles that are more anecdotal

in nature, this theory as outlined in the 2007 book contains well over 375 references (pp. 275-304) providing evidence for a theory based on evidence, practice, and experience. Following a closer examination of the authors' proposed theory as outlined in their book, the following influences appear as primary examples of the leadership materials background used in the development of their model. These influences include (a) adult learning theory, (b) contingency theory, (c) corporate life-cycle theory, (d) normative theory, (e) Path-goal theory, (f) self-determination of values, and (g) situational leadership theory.

Adult learning theory.

While adult learning theory consists of many facets, the ALG model draws primarily from the work of Knowles (Knowles, 1970; Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2011; Zigarmi et al., 2007, p. 26). His model of andragogy suggests that adult learners are independent and self-directed. The model makes further assumptions: that

1. Adults need to know why they need to learn something;
2. Adults need to learn experientially;
3. Adults approach learning as problem solving; and
4. Adults learn best when topic is of immediate value (Knowles, 1970).

The ALG model echoes a number of the steps suggested in the adult learning theories of Mezirow (1978, 1981, 1992, 1994) as stated in his Charter of Andragogy (1981). The steps in the charter reflect a derivation from Mezirow's transformational and critical reflection model.

Contingency theory.

The ALG contextual model utilizes concepts from contingency theory (Yukl, 2006, p. 14; Zigarmi et al., 2007, p. 259) to provide a model acknowledging different skill levels of the practices at the various context levels. The contingency model of leadership is developed in part by the work of Fiedler (1964) and House (1996).

Corporate life-cycle theory.

Corporate life-cycle theory provides a basis for understanding how the requirements of leadership change over the course of the different stages of growth, stasis, and in some cases decline of organizations (Adizes & Naiman, 1988; James, 1973; Mueller, 1972; Zigarmi et al., 2007, p. 45). The recognition of these various stages provides the setting for leadership to think strategically and evaluate the organizational effectiveness in regards to the mission and purpose of the entity.

Normative theory.

The concept of normative theory as defined by Zigarmi is a “generalized leadership strategy that enables linkages across the five contexts” (Zigarmi et al., 2007, p. 259). Their theory provides for five leadership practices that should provide for a more consistent outcome of goals and objectives.

Path-goal theory.

The Path-goal theory was one of the first leadership constructs to provide a framework to identify relevant situational variables (Yukl, 2006, p. 223). This model moves to explain the contingent effects of leaders behavior in response to situational moderators (Georgopoulous, Mahoney, & Jones, 1957; House, 1971, 1996; Vroom, 1964).

Self-determination of values.

A key element of leading the self is contained in self-determination theory of values (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Zigarmi et al., 2007, p. 282). The main focus of self-determination includes the psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness that when satisfied lead to improved self-motivation and well-being.

Situational leadership theory.

Situational leadership theory suggests that the level of subordinate maturity or preparedness indicates the appropriate task and relation behavior of the leader (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; Hersey & Blanchard, 1974; Hersey et al., 1979). One of the main contributions from this model is the emphasis on adaptive and flexible behavior in the leadership process (Yukl, 2006, p. 225).

This popular theory was challenged and criticized by Blake and Mouton (1982), who suggested from their study that 'one best style' of leadership is superior to a 'situational' approach. However, this theory remains after more than 40 years one of the most recognized and popular leadership theories outside of the academy (Graeff, 1997; Thompson & Vecchio, 2009).

Self-leadership.

New and revised leadership models continue to emerge from the academy reflecting not only the broad interest of scholars and practitioners, but suggesting that there is a continued desire to ascertain a more universal model that goes beyond competencies and standards (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; Northouse, 2007; J. T. Wren et al., 2004; Yukl, 1989). In one study, a proposal was posited to focus more on leadership styles and approaches as well as leadership development (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, &

Dennison, 2003, p. 39). The goal of such a model is to produce repetitive and consistent outcomes to effective leader identification, training, and development. Several researchers suggested leading of self is a key component to effective leadership and as a consequence self-leadership is foundational.

One leading management researcher after interviewing 90 outstanding leaders identified four key competencies of leadership (Bennis, 1984). He emphasized the importance of managing the self, such that by understanding one's skills, then effectively deploying those skills, while working to understand the potential for weakness and failure, a greater impact to self and organization can occur (p. 18). Neck and Manz (2013) proposed the need for a deeper understanding of leading the self and these two long-time collaborators on leadership theory and research suggested, "We all lead ourselves. This is not to say that we are all effective self-leaders" (p. 4).

These models suggest that leadership starts with a consideration of the personality and skills of the individual. Self-leadership as proposed by Manz (1986) and authentic leadership as suggested by Gardner et al., Hill, and Walumbwa et al. (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008) are two such models. Manz discussed the concept of self-leadership as a model for personal leadership development and is credited as the primary author of over 14 articles on the subject through the 1980s and 1990s (Houghton, 2000; Manz, 1986). The primary thesis of Manz was that employee self-control should be viewed as a central element of many of the organizational processes such as leadership and control (p. 596).

The concept of authentic leadership is one of the newer theories contributing to the stream of self-leadership and is promoted by Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, and Walumbwa (2005). As a contribution to self-leadership theory development, authentic leadership suggests that genuine leaders lead by example and foster a healthy ethical climate. The characteristics of such a climate include transparency, trust, integrity, and high moral standards (p. 344). This effort builds on the prior work of Luthans & Avolio in 2003 (as cited by Gardner et al., 2005, p. 344), by advancing a self-based perspective on leaders' and followers' development.

From the individual to self-leadership in teams (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Hackman & Wageman, 2007), further proposals and ideas for impact to self was discussed in wide ranging arenas from quality control teams as espoused by such scholars as Neck, Milliman, and Manz (Manz, 1996; Neck & Milliman, 1994; Neck, Neck, & Manz, 1997; Neck et al., 1996) to spiritual fulfillment, entrepreneurship and servant hood (Goossen & Stevens, 2013). This additional interest and study is the result of studies indicating that improved self-leadership (Greg L Stewart, Carson, & Cardy, 2006) "corresponds with better affective responses and improved work performance" (Greg L. Stewart, Courtright, & Manz, 2011, p. 185).

Self-leadership theory is rooted in a number of strategies with underlying theoretical constructs. A comprehensive review was outlined and discussed by Neck and Houghton in their work detailing past developments and present trends within the field of self-leadership (2006). According to their analysis, individuals manage their own actions to attain self-control and self-influence within three broad approaches including behavior focused, natural reward, and constructive thought strategies (p. 271).

Behavior focused strategies.

The behavior focused strategies examined in this study include self-regulation, self-control and self-management.

Self-regulation.

Self-regulation consists of a behavioral modification process. The individual monitors personal performance against a set standard or desired state. If a discrepancy is found to exist then a change in behavior is facilitated in order to move closer to the standard (Carver & Scheier, 1981; Kanfer, 1970; Neck & Houghton, 2006, p. 276). Other elements of self-regulation include recognition of confidence, accomplishments, hopes, and aspirations to achieve positive outcomes.

Self-control.

According to a review of self-leadership development by Stewart, Courtright, and Manz (2011), the concept is primarily grounded in the concept of control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1981, 1982; Cautela, 1969; Mahoney & Arnkoff, 1979) leading to self-regulation by situation perception, feedback, and assessment. Additional background, classic definition, and contribution to leadership were gleaned from the work of Thoresen and Mahoney (1974).

Self-management.

The behavioral aspect of self-management rests in part on the concept of empowerment as “an enabling process” that “affects both initiation and persistence” within task actions (Conger & Kanungo, 1988, p. 476). Thus, empowerment is a motivational construct and should lead to enablement rather than a delegation from a higher authority (McClelland, 1975). Self-management from the perspective of Manz and

Sims (1980) is a substitute for hierarchical leadership and uses social learning theory to provide a reinforcement contingency or environmental cue that precedes behavior and the rewards that reinforce behavior (p. 361).

Natural reward strategies.

Individuals use natural reward strategies provide motivation or reward for a task by creating situations that make that undertaking more enjoyable. Two primary methods are recognized by Neck and Houghton (2006). The first is a strategy that builds pleasant and enjoyable features into a task to achieve a more natural reward (Manz & Neck, 2004; Manz & Sims, 2001). The second strategy to support natural rewards focuses on shaping perceptions “by focusing the attention away from unpleasant aspects of the task” (Neck & Houghton, 2006, p. 272). These two strategies help in reducing a sense of incompetence and a deficit in self-determination as suggested by Deci and Ryan (1985) building on Deci’s work in intrinsic motivation (1975).

Constructive thought strategies.

Intended to aid in the development of “constructive thought patterns” and in the formulation of “habitual ways of thinking” for positive impact to performance, constructive thought pattern strategies are the third in the triad of primary self-leadership strategies as outlined by Neck and Houghton (2006). Constructive Cognitive oriented theories (intrinsic motivation) are characterized by self-examination of thought patterns with the goal of identifying destructive self-talk, dysfunctional assumptions, and negative mental imagery (Manz & Neck, 2004; Neck & Manz, 1992). Once these damaging influences are identified, then one can develop strategies for positive outlooks, internal

dialogues, and envisioning of successful performance (Neck, 1996; Neck & Manz, 1992, 1996; Seligman, 1991).

The literature indicates that these preceding three main strategies and several other factors contribute to an understanding of a self-leadership construct. Neck and Houghton emphasize in their review of the past 20 years of research that self-motivation and self-direction coupled with natural reward, constructive thought pattern and self-correcting strategies are the key factors in the self-influence process of self-leadership (2006).

The method for training leaders utilizing a contextual approach incorporating specific practices as proposed by Zigarmi, Lyles, and Fowler (2007) stresses the importance and significance of self-leadership. The authors formulated their model based on many years of combined observation, research, and practice through their work with many businesses and organizations from around the world. Self-leadership they suggest, “is having the skill set and the mindset to accept responsibility and take the initiative for succeeding in your work-related role” (p. 15). They build the case of self-leadership as a path to more engaged and empowered employees, while their proposal contributes to the heritage of the greater body of self-leadership theory literature with their effort to provide key practices for achieving more consistent results. Self-leadership forms the foundation for organizational success by fostering responsible and participative associates that will model the leadership practices within the different contexts.

Given the emerging nature of this theory, only one organization has developed a formal training program utilizing the ALG model. The Catholic Leadership Institute of Wayne, PA based their training material on the ALG model as adjusted for their specific

student context of clergy and lay leaders with additional input and modification from the originators of the theory (Fowler, Zigarmi, & Lyles, 2007; Lyles, Zigarmi, Flanagan, & Fowler, 2007). The material is used in an 18-month training program and has included more than 800 priests and lay leaders in various cohorts by the time this study was conducted. Although this training program was ongoing, no studies had been completed to provide an empirical analysis of the model (D. Lyles, personal communication, March, 2009). The CLI training provided the means by which the ALG model could be measured and assessed, therefore, a selection of its subjects and cohorts provided the basis of the research in this study.

Measure and method.

Aditya (2004) conceded that leadership is not one but several social phenomena (p. 216). These phenomena include (a) a variety of perceptions from leaders and followers, (b) a distinction between the acts of management and leadership, (c) a determination of the cultural context of organizations, and (d) a scope of psychological and sociological paradigms. Therefore, the need for a “pluralistic and contextualist” (Georgoudi & Rosnow, 1985) approach of study would seem self-evident. Consequently, a number of scales and tests exist in an attempt to define, measure, and correlate a broad spectrum of observations.

Major leadership scales.

Aditya suggested that the effort to validate and measure leadership proved to be a real challenge and “the move from description to prediction has not been fully achieved” (Aditya, 2004, p. 222). Citing that a large number of measures on leadership exist, Aditya (pp. 223-232) pointed to four major leadership scales that are sufficiently general for a

number of applications. However, he cautions students of leadership to be aware of issues that may impact these four most used leadership instruments:

1. Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1989, 1991, 1995, 1997; Bass et al., 2003);
2. Leader-Member Exchange Questionnaire (LMX) (G. Graen & Schiemann, 1978; G. B. Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995);
3. GLOBE (House et al., 1999); and
4. Empowering Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ) (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000).

Aditya listed further concerns that included: (a) social desirability bias, (b) diversity of construct definitions, (c) standardization of scales, and (d) confounding of criterion measures in validation (2004, pp. 222,223). Other key issues encompassed: (a) apprehension with the veracity of some studies using self-reporting measures, (b) lack of delineation between management and leadership, (c) deficiency of precise measures, and (d) inflated measures of validity due to same-source use of independent and dependent variables.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.

The MLQ, first developed by Bass (1985) is among the most familiar and studied scale. This scale was developed to measure the transformational and transactional attributes of leadership. A number of versions of the MLQ exist with the MLQ 5X (revised) as the most recent one, incorporating the cumulative insights of past versions (Aditya, 2004, p. 225). In addition to its application with leaders, researchers have used the MLQ as a tool given to subordinates in order for them to rate their immediate

superior. Pairing the MLQ responses with a self-rating taken by the subordinates, a preliminary observation was made that the personality of subordinates explains only part of the interaction in leader-follower dyads (Hetland, Sandal, & Johnsen, 2008).

Leader-Member Exchange.

Several forms of the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) instrument are in use and reflect the development by various researchers (Aditya, 2004, p. 225). Originally labeled the Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) model and based on the “notion that a single leader may develop different types of relationships with different followers” (p. 225), LMX focuses on the individual relationship between leaders and followers. The LMX measure is frequently used as “a diagnostic tool to identify potential problems in a unit” (p. 227) and while primarily used for academic research, a number of organizations have adopted the underlying LMX model of leadership for leader development (p. 228).

GLOBE.

The GLOBE leadership scales were developed from a project undertaken to “explore implicit theories of leadership” across several cultures in an attempt to identify universal and culturally-specific leadership aspects (Aditya, 2004, p. 228). House et al. (1999) described the development of this scale suggesting that the GLOBE scales were developed to examine the influence of cultural variables in implicit theories of leadership, and as such they do not profile the leadership attributes of individuals (Aditya, 2004, p. 229). These scales are suited for cross-cultural research and less so for application in organizations.

Empowering Leadership Questionnaire.

The Empowering Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ) is a recent scale noted in a number of leadership studies. It was developed by Arnold et al. (2000) with a purpose of studying the leadership function in self-managed teams. The ELQ seeks to “provide a description of leaders based on behaviors that organization members in self-managed teams perceive to be effective” (Aditya, 2004, p. 231). Aditya, in his analysis, points out that while the ELQ has use in organizations, further testing of the properties of the scale to repeat factor structure is in order (p. 232).

The use and evolution of these measurement schemes is indicative of the desire for operational methods of tracking the development, practice, and efficacy of leaders and leadership methods grounded in theory. A common thread and irreducible minimum in the literature suggest that whether leader or follower the key component is the individual. From the individual to the importance of leading the self is therefore a simple and logical step.

Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire.

This step is seen with the growing interest of self-leadership in organizations. The lack of an acceptable validated instrument for measuring self-leadership led the research team of Houghton and Neck (2002) to undertake a revision of existing measures of self-leadership. The basis for the revision and improvements was rooted in two prior attempts at developing the Self-Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) (J. S. Anderson & Prussia, 1997; Cox, 1993). The result of this effort was the development and validation of the Revised Self-leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) assessment instrument. Houghton and Neck reported the results of their study which indicate that the RSLQ provides a “relatively

effective and psychometrically sound measure of self-leadership” (2002, p. 687) with the potential “to facilitate new and exciting empirical research in the self-leadership domain” (p. 687).

Implications from the Literature

The literature suggests that a number of elements are important to a broad understanding of the leadership function. By studying one aspect of the phenomenon, the most that can be hoped for is a very limited picture of the reality. It is with the blending of studies and the development of more inclusive theories containing factors from leaders, followers, context, and culture that a more complete understanding can emerge. For example, one researcher points out that while the big-five dimensions are useful for summarizations, that personality predictors of performance have higher correlations when those predictors are selected on the basis of job analysis (Hogan et al., 1994, p. 501).

A study published in 1989 (Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson, & Bond) pointed to the importance of an understanding of cross-cultural aspects of leadership. The authors were concerned that many studies had not adequately distinguished between the style of specific behaviors leaders use in a given culture and global characterizations of style. This study confirmed that four different cultures demonstrated similar factor structures or characterizations as indicated by Misumi’s Performance and Maintenance Styles (p. 97), but that the associated styles differed with each culture.

The importance of communication as a key leadership component is discussed in the recent research paper from Madlock who found that supervisor communication “competence accounted for 68% of the variance in subordinate communication

satisfaction and 18% of the variance in job satisfaction” (2007, p. 1). His findings also indicated a strong relationship between the task and the relational leadership styles and communicator competence. Madlock concluded with a call for future research to detect further support for “...association between communication competence and leadership” (p. 17). He also emphasized the need for a qualitative component in new research to help determine the actual reasons that employees attribute their perceptions of leader communication competence.

Leaders and managers should consider Koontz’s advice for management theory which is apt counsel for leadership theory. He suggests that a few criteria must be remembered (Koontz, 1961, p. 188):

1. Theory should deal with an area of knowledge and inquiry that is “manageable”....
2. The theory should be useful in improving practice....
3. The theory should not be lost in semantics, especially useless jargon not understandable to the practitioner.
4. The theory should give direction and efficiency to research and teaching.
5. The theory must recognize that it is a part of a larger universe of knowledge and theory.

From a management viewpoint certain expectations are anticipated from the application of leadership models. Often acceptance of a normative theory of leadership is of interest because those types of theories recommend specific behavior and practices which “presuppose types of performance” (Jones, 2007, p. 1). For example, Bass and Avolio’s five-factor model and the associated Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire

(MLQ) combine in a normative model concerning transformational and transactional leadership. This model has wide acceptance and credibility among academics and consultants due to the great amount of research and testing that support “the link between recommended leader behaviors and actual workplace performance” (p. 2). Normative theory must offer balance for Jones points out in his review of the five-factor model that the focus has tended to lean towards the transformational aspect of leadership while the message of earlier situational leadership theory suggested that there are situations necessitating refined transactional leadership (p. 8). While managers and companies may search for universal leadership traits, desire participation and buy in from followers, and expect measurable outcomes; acceptance of a normative theory warrants particular scrutiny to determine the acceptable risk. Researchers then should follow the leadership trends to help validate measurement tools and instruments. This will strengthen authentication of theories and models while explaining the practical outcomes of leadership and provide the tools for practical application of these models within organizations.

Summary

In review, the current literature leads to a number of important points that suggest a direction for future models and theory. Warren Bennis (2007), a student and observer of leadership over the last six decades, opines about the small body of knowledge of which he can be sure, suggesting that leaders develop by a process, which is not fully understood. Leaders, he suggests, embody six competencies: (a) creating a sense of mission, (b) motivating others to join them, (c) creating for followers an adaptive social

structure, (d) generating trust and optimism, (e) developing other leaders, and (f) getting results (p. 5).

In their 2007 article, Hackman and Wageman suggest a list of five questions that if answered could provide a basis for a tighter relationship between theory development and practical application. A summary of the questions posed to the reader include:

1. Not do leaders make a difference, but under what conditions does leadership matter?
2. Not what are the traits of leaders, but how do leaders' personal attributes interact with situational properties to shape outcomes?
3. Not does there exist common dimensions on which all leaders can be arrayed, but are good and poor leadership qualitatively different phenomena?
4. Not how do leaders and followers differ, but how can leadership models be reframed so they treat all system members as both leaders and followers?
5. Not what should be taught in leadership courses, but how can leaders be helped to learn? (Hackman & Wageman, 2007, pp. 43-46)

The stand-out points from this review suggest that future research should incorporate and encompass leaders, followers, contexts, teams, cultural diversity, and gender considerations. How will further research go beyond the academic and offer an enhanced application model for practitioners? How can such a model validate an improved standard for training, preparation, and action?

Chapter 3: Methodology

Research Approach Overview

The review of the literature in the previous chapter suggests that the search for a more objective model of leadership training and measure is a valid research pursuit. The call for a better relationship between leadership theory and practice is needed in order to improve training and consistent implementation of those aspects of leadership that respond to a method of learning. The goal for such call is to attain improved, consistent organization and human resource results with measurable, objective outcomes (Hackman & Wageman, 2007). Deming suggested that leadership training was a key factor for business success, while performance reviews did not provide an adequate structure for the real problems of people as the reviews only reflected on outcomes (1986, pp. 116,117). The normative theory crafted by Zigarmi and his co-authors (Zigarmi, Blanchard, et al., 2005; Zigarmi, Lyles, et al., 2005; Zigarmi et al., 2007) is an example of an effort to provide organizations with a method of training that replies and reflects on Deming's call. This theory was first published under the formal title of *Achieve Leadership Genius* (ALG). To date, one national organization, The Catholic Leadership Institute (CLI) of Wayne, PA, is the first instructional entity to adopt the ALG theory as the basis for their training materials under the trade name Good Leaders, Good Shepherds. These materials are the platform for training clergy and lay leaders in cohort groups scheduled throughout the U.S.A. (Catholic Leadership Institute, 2014a).

The objective of this chapter is to provide a review of the research method that was constructed and implemented in order to conduct an initial empirical study of the training process based on the ALG theory. Groups of students were selected for testing

from scheduled cohort training conducted by CLI. In addition, this design was instituted to establish a base line clarification and benchmarking for this theory in a practical application environment. The model was based on a primary hypothesis that the training would not impact the overall test scores of the chosen instrument in a pretest, treatment, and posttest event. In addition there were five additional hypotheses based on the five ALG theory practices with test instrument sub-scales representing proxies for those practices (see Appendix A for a graphic representation of the research model).

As presented in the literature review, the ALG theory consists of five practices (prepare, envision, initiate, assess and respond) that are applicable within five defined contexts (Zigarmi et al., 2007). The focus of this study was to determine if training based on the five practices did have an impact in a specific context as identified in the theory. In the hierarchy of the five contexts, self-leadership, one-to-one, team, organizational, and alliance; the self-leadership context is the first level and foundational to the rest of the theory. According to the authors, self-leadership is not only foundational, but fundamental to leadership practice. They state, “It is your energy to initiate, motivation to learn, commitment to succeed, desire to contribute, ability to produce, and your passion for work that enables your organization to fulfill its potential and sustain its success” (p. 15). Therefore, the key for future analysis of training effectiveness rests with this first and most fundamental context. To that end, the first known organization to adopt the theory for training was chosen as the source for measuring subjects.

The methodology developed for this study reflected the caveat of importance placed on approaches to the study of leadership models and theories as suggested by the authors of the leading encyclopedic study of leadership, Bass and Stogdill (1990). They

cautioned that the researcher should recognize potential problems with empirical measures and causal relations such as “laboratory versus field studies, erroneous law of small number, erroneous conclusions from convenience samplings and single source variance” (p. 883); measurement problems (p. 885); and “simple versus complex hypothesis testing, need for qualitative methods, theoretical biases, leniency effects, and errors in leaders’ self-ratings...” (p. 890).

This chapter is organized to detail the following: the first section describes the general methodology, and the second section defines the research context of the study. The third section details the subjects, while outlining the unique nature of the sample. The fourth section describes the treatment or training provided to the selected treatment groups. Section five describes the validated instrument and rationale for instrument choice as used in this research design. Sections outlining the research procedures and delineating the data analysis follow. The eighth and final section offers a summary of the methodology.

General Methodology

The nature of the treatment (training), the non-equivalent groups, and the self-selected subjects suggested a quasi-experimental design (Bellini & Rumrill, 1999, pp. 124-126; Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Dimitrov & Rumrill, 2003; Gerring, 2011; Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). A review of the elements of this study confirmed that the design encompassed the three elements of quasi-experimental design as indicated by Kenny (1975, p. 345) including: (a) non-treatment and treatment groups, (b) pretreatment and post treatment measures, and (c) explicit model of treated and untreated group differences over time. According to Kenny, four methods of statistical analysis (Kenny,

1975, p. 346) with this design were possible. However, the study design should settle on a specific method of statistical analysis due to the challenges of different conclusions derived from the four statistical methods (p. 348). The four techniques included analysis of covariance, covariance with reliability correction, raw change score analysis and standardized change score analysis.

Consequently, the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was selected for this study in order to align with the recommendation presented by Dugard and Todman (1995). The two researchers demonstrated that ANCOVA provides for more accurate assessment of the testing differences between groups in pretest and posttest designs allowing for more consistent comparisons, while neutralizing pretest effects. Therefore, ANCOVA was the preferred testing method when compared to repeated measures ANOVA and one-way ANOVA of change or gain scores.

Shadish and Cook (1999, p. 295) added support to Rosenbaum's (1999) suggestion that the relevance of the study and logic of design in developing causal inferences are valid pursuits especially when used in quasi-experimental design. These two authors suggested that this type of design can provide useful components in determining causal inference, advancing the position that "causal inference is more a matter of logic than statistics" (p. 295). The suggested review and utilization of the four major design elements: (a) assignment of groups, (b) measurement, (c) comparison groups, and (d) treatment as proposed by Rosenbaum (Shadish & Cook, 1999, p. 296) was considered during this study process.

In this model, the use of treatment groups and comparison groups (Bellini & Rumrill, 1999, p. 125) recognizing the non-equivalent group status of the training cohorts

was reflected to provide a recognition of quasi-experimental elements as outlined by Shadish & Cook (Shadish & Cook, 1999; Shadish et al., 2002). Such elements included control of group assignment, pretest and posttest observations, and comparison groups similarity (Shadish & Cook, 1999, p. 296).

To further strengthen the study design, the Solomon Four-Group Design model was selected. According to Campbell and Stanley (1963), this design, when used to measure and compare groups undergoing training, has robust features and according to Campbell and Stanley, “represents the first explicit consideration of external validity factors” (p. 24). While most often associated with true experimental design, the Solomon Four-Group Design is also valid for quasi-experimental study designs according to McGahee and Tinggen (2009, para. 3). While in this study, the subjects were self-selected; the treatment and comparison groups were chosen on a random basis for the test and treatment events as outlined in the Solomon Four-Group design (see Appendix B for details on groups, treatment and test events).

The study design incorporated a validated scale, the Revised Self Leadership Questionnaire (Houghton & Neck, 2002), to measure the self-leadership scores resulting from the self-leadership training modules conducted under the auspices of the Catholic Leadership Institute. As the subjects were self-selected and placed into cohort groups, the design conformed to the quasi-experimental construct and utilized the Solomon Four Group Design (Zikmund, 2003, p. 279) with the intent of moderating some of the concerns outlined above from Bass and Stogdill (1990). The use of the Solomon design provides a technique to control for the testing effect and to isolate the experimental treatment effect (Zikmund, 2003, p. 279). As pointed out by McGhee and Tinggen (2009),

this design allows the researcher to investigate the main effects of testing and control for instrument reactivity, to examine the interaction of testing and treatment, and to study the combined effect of maturation and history. A unique feature of this design provides for an assessment of pretest sensitization. In addition, this design allows for an increased degree of tests such as a meta-analysis of effects occurring within one study (Braver & Braver, 1988, p. 152) and the application of ANCOVA to test the pretest as a true covariate rather than just a base for gain score analysis (Dugard & Todman, 1995).

Context

Overview of Catholic Leadership Institute.

The Catholic Leadership Institute was the outgrowth of a leadership program envisioned by Thomas C. Flanagan, a successful business owner. Following a life-changing executive leadership program in New Mexico, he decided to found an organization with the express purpose of providing professional leadership training and personal development programs to the leadership within the Roman Catholic Church. The organization is now in its 21st year of service (Catholic Leadership Institute, 2014b).

The stated purpose of the organization is to provide training and access to subjects for the formation of advanced leadership and service:

Catholic Leadership Institute provides bishops, priests, deacons, and lay persons in the Roman Catholic Church with world-class, pastoral leadership formation and consulting services that strengthen their confidence and competence in ministry, enabling them to articulate vision for their local church, to call forth the gifts of those they lead, and to create more vibrant faith communities rooted in Jesus Christ. (Catholic Leadership Institute, 2014c)

Overall course design for Good Leaders, Good Shepherds.

The Catholic Leadership Institute course is designed around the normative leadership theory as proposed in the ALG normative theory. The developers of this theory and the subsequent training materials designed for the institute consisted of Drea Zigarmi, Susan Fowler, Richard Lyles and Tim Flanagan (Lyles et al., 2007; Zigarmi et al., 2007). The training process occurs over multiple week-ends scheduled periodically throughout the progressive modules of the program conducted over an 18+ month time line. The program was named and is marketed under Good Leaders, Good Shepherds (GLGS). The training program was designed to provide subjects an opportunity to explore the five leadership contexts and five normative, concomitant leadership practices. Further the program was designed to provide training in the skills and practice...that will prepare the leader for any leadership circumstance (Catholic Leadership Institute, 2014a). The material was divided into logical six logical training modules incorporating a module for program preparation and then modules for each of the five contexts (see the course overview of each module in Appendix C).

Self-leadership training module.

The cohorts were introduced to the overall leadership training program through the course materials in module one, “Self-preparation for Leadership” (details in Appendix D). The self-leadership training treatment consisted of one module within the overall Good Leaders Good Shepherds training program. The first context module entitled the “Leadership in the Self Context” was used in face-to-face cohort groups led by a learning leader according to a very detailed agenda (see Appendix E for complete self-leadership training module agenda).

Training schedules.

The training schedule and research activities occurred over the time-line from September 2011 through January 2012. The testing events were coordinated with the CLI administrative staff in the corporate office that managed and directed each cohort schedule and its progression through the program.

Training locations.

A total of nine cohorts were selected at random from the scheduled cohorts for the study time period. A total of six cohorts responded to the questionnaire. These cohorts were located at the following training sites:

1. Baltimore, MD
2. Cincinnati, OH
3. Springfield-Cape Girardeau, MO
4. Oklahoma City-Tulsa, OK
5. Grand Island, NE
6. Dayton, OH

Subjects

The samples were drawn from a number of cohorts and subjects undergoing the *Good Leaders, Good Shepherds* training program conducted by the Catholic Leadership Institute (CLI). The cohorts selected for treatment and comparison group categories were assigned to those categories on a random basis by cohort. The cohorts selected for the research consisted of male, Catholic priests, though it should be noted that there are now cohorts that include lay leaders and female subjects. The average cohort consists of between 15 and 40 students. The procedures with the training organization allowed for

tracking of the various treatment events and testing instruments by participant and sequence. This was done by utilizing a unique number identifier for anonymity on each completed survey. The administration of the survey instrument was undertaken at appropriate points in the training process to accommodate the requirements of the Solomon model. The required approval for testing of human subjects was obtained from Spring Arbor University, Anderson University and the Catholic Leadership Institute. The responses were collected and forwarded to the researcher and an assistant under supervision by this researcher.

The number of cohorts and subjects was dependent on the pool of cohorts available within the time frame of the study and the specific point in the training process where pretest and posttest events conformed to the treatment and comparison group schedules within the self-leadership module time frame boundaries. At the time of the study, approximately 1200 priests had completed or were in various stages of completion of the program which encompasses a two year training schedule for all modules. An approximation of sample size was determined by utilizing the guidelines for identifying significant factor loadings based on sample size (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006, p. 128) and the desire to attain a 95 percent confidence level with a sample appropriate to the population of students completing the leadership training (Zikmund, 2003, p. 429).

Treatment

The treatment effect tested during this study was the Module 2, "Leadership in the Self Context". This training was placed in the second segment of the six segment program (for a review of all segments see Appendix C). A course instructor or designated

learning leader provided cohort oversight and leadership to the class time. Subjects were assigned certain preparation protocol before and during the face-to-face sessions for the training period. The designated and trained learning leader for each cohort presented and led the subjects through the detailed agenda, module timeline, and course materials (daily module agenda details available in Appendix E).

Instrumentation

The Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) (Houghton & Neck, 2002) was the test instrument used to measure the leadership scale for the subjects of this study. The questionnaire consisted of 35 questions as added and revised from earlier work on self-leadership instruments (see Appendix F for text of questions). This scale was selected for the measures offered in self-leadership areas of competency. The self-report respondent marks their answer to the question on a one (1) to five (5) scale. The RSLQ was validated by Houghton and Neck using confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis to create a more reliable self-leadership scale (2002). Their work was based on previous efforts by Cox (1993) and more recently by Anderson and Prussia (1997). The scale questions contain nine distinct sub-scales representing three primary self-leadership dimensions of behavior focus, constructive thought, and natural reward (p. 677).

Houghton and Neck's research provided "support for the validity and reliability of the RSLQ as an acceptable measure of self-leadership skills and behaviors" (p. 685). This researcher requested and received permission to use the test for this research project from the authors (see Appendix G). This study was the first one conducted in a treatment environment that used the ALG leadership training theory to develop training materials for in-class training. The use of the RSLQ was deemed an acceptable instrument to test

the outcome of the training and provide additional insight into the efficacy of the instructional approach as applied in preparation for real world use. The training or operationalization of the instructional approach was highly developed by CLI and indirectly responds to the concerns of weak design interventions as discussed by Gersten, Lloyd, and Baker (2000, p. 4).

Hypotheses

In collaboration with staff members from the Catholic Leadership Institute (CLI), three additional questions were added to the RSLQ questionnaire at the institute's request. The questions included (a) years since ordination (to provide a marker that indicates completion of formal preparation for leadership), (b) ever employed outside of a church setting (to determine if participant had professional experience beyond a clerical setting), and (c) position of pastor (to determine if participant holds a chief executive position within the parish) (see specific language and final design in Appendix H). The additional questions provided data for cross tabulation and descriptive statistics. The change score analysis was the primary method used to test the general hypothesis that there is no change in the self-leadership skills (practices) for subjects completing the ALG Training Module 2 – Leading in the Self-Context training.

In addition to the overall change score analysis of the RSLQ instrument gathered from pretest and posttest events, further use of the sub-scales contributing to the three main dimensions of the scale was undertaken. Five additional hypotheses were proposed to test the efficacy of the five specific practices as outlined in the ALG model (note Appendix A for research model). The five additional hypotheses are:

1. There is no change score in the ALG practice of prepare as measured by the RSLQ sub-scale proxy for subjects completing the ALG Training Module 2 – Leading in the Self-Context training.
2. There is no change score in the ALG practice of envision as measured by the RSLQ sub-scale proxy for subjects completing the ALG Training Module 2 – Leading in the Self-Context training.
3. There is no change score in the ALG practice of initiate as measured by the RSLQ sub-scale proxy for subjects completing the ALG Training Module 2 – Leading in the Self-Context training.
4. There is no change score in the ALG practice of assess as measured by the RSLQ sub-scale proxy for subjects completing the ALG Training Module 2 – Leading in the Self-Context training.
5. There is no change score in the ALG practice of respond as measured by the RSLQ sub-scale proxy for subjects completing the ALG Training Module 2 – Leading in the Self-Context training.

In order to measure the impact of the training on these practices, proxies were developed from the sub-scale dimensions based on alignment of each ALG practice with sub-scales used by the RSLQ model (Houghton & Neck, 2002, p. 676). These sub-scales which contribute to the RSLQ dimensions were rooted in behavior strategies, natural reward strategies, and constructive thought strategies associated with self-leadership scale development by Anderson and Prussia (J. S. Anderson & Prussia, 1997), Manz (Manz, 1986), (Cox, 1993; Manz & Sims, 1991b). The decision was made to construct the proxies from scale items within the sub-scales that most closely demonstrated equivalent

definitions to the five practices as explained by the ALG theory. The practices and associated sub-scales were mapped based on the definitions as follows:

1. Prepare practice proxy was constructed with the RSLQ sub-scales of self-observation and evaluating beliefs and assumptions which, when combined, consist of 8 scale items. The RSLQ of self-observation (Mahoney & Arnkoff, 1979; Manz & Neck, 1999; Manz & Sims, 1980) leads to an awareness of one's behaviors often leading to a level of control over perceived goal achievement (Houghton & Neck, 2002) which aligns with the ALG terms for practice as introspection (Zigarmi et al., 2007, p. 64) and awareness (Zigarmi et al., 2007, p. 67). The evaluation of beliefs and assumptions (Houghton & Neck, 2002, p. 674) or reflection (D. D. Burns, 1980) suggests values and disposition (Zigarmi et al., 2007, pp. 69,81).
2. Envision practice proxy was equated with the visualizing successful performance sub-scale which consists of five scale items within the RSLQ scale. The ALG practice cites the crafting of a purpose statement, values proclamation, and vision alignment (Zigarmi et al., 2007) as elements of practice. The RSLQ sub-scale of visualizing successful performance (Houghton & Neck, 2002, p. 674) is rooted in mental imagery (Manz & Neck, 1991; Neck & Manz, 1992), covert rehearsal (Corbin, 1967), symbolic rehearsal (Sackett, 1934) and mental practice (Corbin, 1972) leading to self-influence and positive thought patterns (Manz & Neck, 1999).

3. Initiate practice proxy was constructed from the RSLQ sub-scale self-goal setting which consists of five scale items. Self-goal setting (Locke & Latham, 1990) represents proactive gap recognition coupled with a desire to close the gap by setting action steps for accomplishment. Likewise the initiate practice is described by key responsibility definition, goal-setting, and action steps (Zigarmi et al., 2007, pp. 163,165).
4. Assess practice proxy was created from three RSLQ sub-scales self-cueing (Manz & Neck, 1999; Manz & Sims, 1980; Thoresen & Mahoney, 1974) or introspection with positive evaluation of failures or missteps, self-talk (Ellis, 1962; Manz & Neck, 1991; Neck & Manz, 1992) or what we tell ourselves to nurture positive self-dialogues (Ellis, 1962, 1977; Seligman, 1991) , and focus thoughts on natural rewards (Manz, 1986; Manz & Neck, 1999) comprising ten scale items. The assess proxy is defined with such words as curious, confronting, cautious, achieving and discerning (Zigarmi et al., 2007, p. 213). Also of note are the self-indicators of ability and energy (p. 217).
5. Respond practice proxy comprised the self-reward and self-punishment sub-scales represented by seven scale items. Zigarmi et al. (2007, p. 249) propose that focus and inspiration are key factors in this practice. This step is reinforced by desirable behavior through self-reward to gain positive reinforcement and self-punishment to minimize less than desirable actions as suggested by researchers (Manz & Sims, 2001).

In summary the relationship of RSLQ sub-scales with respective scale items and ALG practice proxies are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Proxies for ALG Practices Derived from RSLQ Sub-scales (see Appendices F and H for scale item text)

Practice	Proxy (RSLQ Sub-scale)	Scale Item
Prepare	Self-observation	7, 16, 25, 31
	Evaluating beliefs and assumptions	5, 14, 23, 29
Envision	Visualizing successful performance	1, 10, 19, 27, 33
Initiate	Self-goal setting	2, 11, 20, 28, 34
Assess	Self-cueing	9, 18
	Self-talk	3, 12, 21
	Natural rewards	8, 17, 26, 32, 35
Respond	Self-reward & self-punishment	4, 13, 22, 6, 15, 24, 30

Note: Source for RSLQ subscale items: (Houghton & Neck, 2002, p. 677)

Procedures

The final RSLQ revised instrument was submitted to the IRB committees at Anderson University (see Appendix I) and Spring Arbor University (see Appendix J) for review and approval. Upon receipt of the approval, instruction packets and test forms were prepared and packaged for distribution to CLI session instructors in accordance with cohort and course module schedules.

A procedure for the handling of the test forms was reviewed and approved by the researcher and CLI personnel. An information packet (see Appendix K) and test instrument handling procedure for the RSLQ packet was developed by the researcher and staff from the Catholic Leadership Institute main offices. This information was made available to the learning leaders and was implemented during the treatment and testing process of the selected cohorts.

Instructions for the administration of the test instrument at specified points in the training module were approved by CLI (see Appendix L). The “Instructions for Learning Leaders for distribution of RSLQ instrument to cohort group (final 2011-10-13)” was placed in the packet of tests forwarded to each instructor of the chosen sample cohorts.

The instrument was administered by session instructors (learning leaders), who provided the necessary instructions and test instruments to the subjects. Data was collected at each designated test site selected for the sample on pretest, treatment, and posttest time line in accordance with the training agenda. Instructors were given specific points in the teaching agenda for test distribution to the subjects in order to conform to the necessary sequence of testing events for subjects included in treatment groups and

comparison groups. The completed test instruments were collected by the instructor and placed in an envelope for return to the researcher.

Data Analysis

The data gathered comprised of the summated and composite scores from nine sets of RSLQ instruments received from each of the observations. Additional questions included with the first administration of the RSLQ instrument provided demographic information to enrich the resulting analysis of the scores obtained from pretest and posttest change scores for each scale item by participant. The tests were associated with each participant by the use of a control number assigned during the first observation event for each group.

The data was processed to obtain descriptive statistics definition and analysis. Tabular and graphical methods provided for an organization and summation of the data for help in the discernment of patterns for interpretation. Use of scatter diagrams and cross tabulations assisted in the analysis of the relationships between variables obtained from the demographic and instrument scores. Summation of the quantitative data included frequency distributions, histograms, and distributions.

While Lenth suggests that a small sample size can yield valuable insights even at a significance level of 0.05 and a target value of .80 (2001, pp. 3,4), this study will undertake to maintain a confidence interval of .95. The key insight from Lenth's work is that in practical terms, sample size "is mostly or entirely based on non-statistical criteria". Further, sample size is but one of several quality characteristics of a statistical study (p. 6). Recognition of the trade-offs in design and access to a sufficient number of subjects when utilizing a robust design model, in a quasi-experimental study within a number of

constraints, was considered in the justification of these limitations when reporting the results (Wiley, 2009).

The data was analyzed by group as described by the following outline to conform to the Solomon Four Group design with descriptions of the tests and assessment issues considered for each of the four groups while minimizing other design type limitations and confounding variables as described by researchers Braver and Braver (1988), Kumari (2013), Moorehead (n.d.) and Shuttleworth (2009b) (see Appendix B for map of group, treatment, and observations):

- Group A: Pretest-Treatment-Posttest (EX1Pre, treatment,EX1Post)
 - Test 1: Compare Group A (EX1Pre) pretest results to Group A (EX1Post)posttest results. This test provides an assessment of the treatment effect on the test subjects.
 - Test 2: Compare Group A (EX1 Pre) pretest results to Group B (CG1Pre) pretest results. While the experiment does not include true randomization, this test helps provide some degree of reduced selection bias based on level of significance between the experimental and comparison groups. No significance indicates effectiveness in selection bias reduction.
 - Test 3: Compare Group A (Ex1Post) posttest results to Group B (CG1Post) posttest results. Comparing the differences between the treatment group posttest scores with the comparison group posttest scores provides an indication of treatment effect.

- Test 4: Compare Group A(EX1Post) posttest results to Group C (EX2Post) posttest results. The EX1Post group participated in a pretest and then the training intervention, while the EX2Post group did not take the pretest. The purpose of this test is to measure the impact or effect, if any, of the pretest on the training intervention.
- Group B: Pretest-No treatment-Posttest (CG1Pre, no treatment, CG2Post)
 - Test 5: Compare Group B (CG1Pre) pretest results to Group B (CG1Post) posttest results. Change score comparison between the pretest and posttest scores of the comparison group provides for possible confounding variable indication outside of any training intervention.
 - Test 6: Compare Group B (CG1Pre) pretest results to Group D (CG2Post) posttest results. When comparing the first comparison group pretest results with the second comparison group posttest results (no pretest, no training, only posttest), it is possible to detect if any external factors may have influenced temporal distortion. A check on other causality factors is also provided. While these factors may be difficult to isolate, factors as described by Shuttleworth (2009a) may include diffusion of treatment, compensatory rivalry, demoralization and resentment, and compensatory equalization of treatment.
 - Test 7: Compare Group B (CG1Post) posttest results to Group D (CG2Post) posttest results. A significant difference in the results

between comparison group one (pretest, posttest) and comparison group two (posttest only) may indicate that the pretest has affected behavior, independently of treatment.

- Group C: No pretest-Treatment-Posttest (treatment, EX2Post)
 - Test 8: Compare Group C (EX2Post) posttest results with Group D (CG2Post) posttest results. If a difference exists between the results of this test (Test 8) when compared to Test 3, then there is an indication that a pretest effect is present.
- Group D: No pretest-No treatment-Posttest (CG2Post)

Each of the groups were processed through a standard checklist for conducting ANCOVA (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005, p. 117). These steps which comprise the screening of the collected and summated data included (a) missing data determination and assessment, (b) outliers (identification and transformation, as necessary), (c) normality assessment (transformation, as necessary), (d) homogeneity of variance, (e) homogeneity of regression slopes, and (f) factor interaction. Following that process the ANCOVA for each group was conducted between treatment and comparison groups to follow the Solomon Four Group design.

The use of the Solomon Four Group design allowed for a reduction of many bias issues and provided access to difference scores measured using t-tests and ANOVA analysis (Lind, Marchal, & Wathen, 2012, pp. 392, 690). This design was useful in determining the impact of pretests on the treatment and when combined with ANCOVA an assessment of history and maturation effects was possible (Braver & Braver, 1988, p. 150; Sabers & Franklin, 1985, p. 102). This study which was conducted with a quasi-

experimental design utilized ANCOVA which provided a method to adjust the posttest means for differences among groups on the pretest (Dimitrov & Rumrill, 2003, p. 161).

Subjects were self-selected and assigned to cohort groups. The cohort groups selected for treatment and comparison were chosen at random from the cohorts within the time line defined for this study. The use of this design removed the artifact consisting of the pretest and made possible a more confident generalizability of the effects (Braver & Braver, 1988). Dugard and Todman strongly recommend the use of ANCOVA in the analysis of pretest, posttest and control group experimental designs (1995). The key for this study was to view the pretest score as a covariate instead of as a base in change score analysis. Doing so, according to Dugard and Todman provides a more powerful test of the relationships (p. 183). Braver and Braver also proposed an approach to the data from a meta-analytic assessment, suggesting that there is no reason that meta-analysis cannot be applied to different tests of the same effect within one study. The approach they recommended also suggests that smaller sample size can be effective in the analysis (1988, pp. 152-153).

Three additional variables were added to the RSLQ instrument for the researcher to use regression analysis to test the impact of specific qualitative aspects of the subjects. The addition of qualitative or dummy variables (Lind et al., 2012, p. 537) for treatment and comparison groups (Kenny, 1975, p. 346) allowed for the researcher to consider whether leadership status (pastor or not) and employment outside of church setting (yes or no) impacted the training outcomes. Each participant was also asked to indicate the number of years since ordination (the equivalence of achieving a particular professional status) as a discrete interval for comparison to the change scores. These additional data-

points provided an opportunity for cross-tabulation of change scores with two dummy variables and a longevity variable. The possible impact of Simpson's Paradox (D. R. Anderson, Sweeney, & Williams, 2005, pp. 48, 49; Blyth, 1972) on these comparisons was undertaken.

The preparation for conducting an ANCOVA required a number of steps following the outline provided by Mertler and Vanatta (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005, p. 117). The steps included screening for missing data, outliers, normality, homogeneity of variance, homogeneity of regression slopes and factor interaction. Additional review of the data was conducted before providing the key information on the outcome.

The concern for self-reporting response bias was considered. Self-reporting issues can lead to results that might be confounded by a response shift (Howard et al., 1979, pp. 16-21). This shift was recognized as a possible issue with this study. Based on the Howard et al. research, the use of ANCOVA was not encouraged, even though it is recognized as a traditional method of reducing the self-reporting response bias. These authors recommend a posttest-retrospective pretest difference scores comparison. However, this study followed the well-known traditional method as the training schedule in other leadership context modules within the two-year framework of the full training cycle was assumed to confound the use of retrospective pretest methods.

As mentioned previously, the subjects were self-selected subjects, who chose to participate in the training process as offered by CLI. Consequently, the study design was based on the recognition of this selection bias so that a possible stronger case for the outcome of the data was possible. A number of design modifications were implemented to reduce the impact of self-selection and non-equivalent data. Winship and Mare provide

a number of approaches to reducing the impact of sample bias (1992), while Torgerson and Torgerson (2007) offer suggestions to reduce the imbalance in covariate analysis by the use of minimization to form comparison groups in educational research.

Zikmund states that the goal factor analysis “is to discover the basic structure of a domain and to add substantive interpretation to the underlying dimensions” (2003, pp. 586, 587) and this goal provided a similar purpose for the design of this study. The ultimate goal of this analysis was to determine the minimal number of variables that explain the findings. The overall number of subjects was less than ideal. However, other researchers point out that even with a low ‘N’, the use and analysis of the data collected (Furtner, Sachse, & Exenberger, 2012) provides for insights and possible conclusions within the framework of the hypothesis (Gerring, 2011; Howard et al., 1979; Kenny, 1975; Rosenbaum, 1999; Sabers & Franklin, 1985; Torgerson & Torgerson, 2007).

Summary of Methodology

This non-equivalent group study utilized the Solomon Four Group design in a quasi-experimental environment. The subjects attended the training sessions through self-selection. They were assigned by CLI to cohort groups based on geographic location. The groups were selected on a random basis for testing as a comparison or treatment group. The study design was modelled in part on the research design criteria as outlined by Gerring (2011) to reduce the ambiguity of quasi-experimental design and thereby increase the potential for validity (internal and external) and accuracy. These criteria included theoretical fit (construct validity, severity, partition, elimination of rival hypothesis), cumulation (standardization, replication, transparency of process), treatment (variation, simple, discrete, uniformity, even distribution, strength, proximity), outcome

(free to vary), sample (representative, size of N, level of analysis, independence, comparability), and practicality (pp. 627-632).

One researcher in his discussion on the best possible standard for research design stated that “perfection becomes the enemy of scientific advance” (Gerring, 2011, p. 632). With that recognition incorporated in this study, an attempt to achieve a balance between the data gathered and the study design within the contextual, sample, and time constraints was completed. Other challenges faced included multiple cohorts, multiple instructors, and multiple locations, all with varying schedule. There are strengths and weaknesses in this design as acknowledged and discussed. This research was done outside the control of a laboratory experiment, and an attempt was made to create a baseline for this type of quasi-experimental design in the area of leadership studies relative to all possible research designs that might be possible to address the research question (p. 632). The particular results of this study as reflected in the next chapter represent an effort to recognize the challenges and achieve the necessary balances between a rigorous study and practical constraints.

Chapter 4: Results

Overview of Research Questions and Survey Process

This study focused on the possible efficacy of a leadership training module based on the Achieve Leadership Genius (ALG) model. The training is conducted by representatives of the Catholic Leadership Institute (CLI) for its Good Leaders, Good Shepherds Program. Training is conducted by module in cohort groups meeting in locations throughout the United States. This program is targeted to Roman Catholic priests as a primary audience, with lay leaders of the church as a secondary audience for the program. The research question is this: does the self-leadership training as delivered by CLI lead to improved scores on the Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) composite scale? Additional questions relating to the five practices that constitute the leadership model were also tested for change scores.

The study is intended to determine if internal validity of the model exists and, within the scope of the experimental design, to determine if limited external validity can be indicated or suggested. The reduction and minimization of testing effects is the primary goal of this design and so generalizability to other organizations is of only secondary concern. The rigor of the study results was strengthened by the use of the Solomon Four Group model.

Descriptive Information

The target sample for this study was confined to a self-selected group of clergy in six cohorts various stages of pre-training, training, and post-training in Module 2 self-leadership within the *Good Leaders, Good Shepherds* training program. Each subject of

the sample is a member of a self-selected group as each student has made a conscious decision to undertake the training.

Nine cohorts were selected as a testing sample for this study. Of the nine, the subjects from six of the cohorts completed the RSLQ scale in accordance with the instructions provided to the designated learning leader for each cohort (see Appendix L).

These cohorts were located at the following training sites:

1. Baltimore, MD
2. Cincinnati, OH
3. Springfield-Cape Girardeau, MO
4. Oklahoma City-Tulsa, OK
5. Grand Island, NE
6. Dayton, OH

Summary of respondents.

The respondents consisted of clergy of the Roman Catholic Church. These subjects were self-selected and chose to participate in the two year training program in contextual leadership as provided by CLI. As a consequence, all subjects were male and had received ordination and been trained in accordance with church policy.

The number of RSLQ survey forms completed and received for review from these six cohorts was 192. Twenty of the forms were rejected when a review of these participants indicated that they were lay people, and did not meet subject parameters. The remaining 162 respondent forms were used unless data was missing for particular questions. If the questions with missing data were pertinent to the statistical analysis then survey portion affected was excluded from analysis.

A number of subjects completed both a pretest and a posttest survey as part of the study plan. A net number of 139 unique subjects were identified following the exclusion of forms with duplicate participant identification numbers. Duplication was confirmed by a match between participant identification number and the cohort identification code.

In addition, to describing the number of subjects and completed RSLQ forms, the researcher identified three additional data markers for defining and describing the subjects. The three markers are (a) ordination longevity, (b) work experience outside of the church, and (c) senior leadership position identified as pastor.

Ordination longevity.

The church vocational experience is indicated by the number of years since ordination. The mean number of years since ordination reported is 15.5 ($SD = 12.26$). The number of subjects providing the information is 130 clergy. The median is 11.3 years and the mode is 5.0 years since ordination. The maximum number of years since ordination is 42. Of the subjects, ordained years of 5.00, 11.25, and 24.25 represent the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles.

Work experience outside of church.

Subjects ($N = 134$) with work experience outside of the church is 100 or 74.6%. Only 34 or 25.4% of the individuals report that they have no career experience outside of the church.

Senior position (pastor).

The number of subjects ($N = 134$) holding senior positions of pastor is 87 or 64.9%. The balance of the subjects ($n = 47$ or 35.1%) are not in the position of pastor.

RSLQ test score sample characteristics.

A total of 160 RSLQ test scores encompassing three different testing events were reviewed for normality. The RSLQ test scores were obtained from the pretest event (M1), the posttest event with no treatment (M2) and the posttest event with treatment (M3). The 160 RSLQ test scores consisted of 58 M1 RSLQ scores, 39 M2 RSLQ scores and 63 M3 RSLQ scores (M1 RSLQ: $M = 116.72$, $SD = 15.81$; M2 RSLQ: $M = 115.72$, $SD = 15.16$; M3 RSLQ: $M = 116.68$, $SD = 14.27$).

A Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) (Razali & Wah, 2011; Shapiro & Wilk, 1965) and a visual review of the data with histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the test scores from M1, M2, and M3 were approximately normally distributed. A skewness of -0.140 ($SE = 0.314$) and a kurtosis of 0.825 ($SE = 0.618$) was noted for M1 test scores. The M2 test scores indicated a skewness of -0.608 ($SE = 0.378$) and a kurtosis of -0.153 ($SE = 0.741$). A skewness of -0.433 ($SE = 0.302$) and a kurtosis of 0.022 ($SE = 0.595$) were calculated for M3 (Cramer, 1998; Cramer & Howitt, 2004; Doane & Seward, 2011).

Analysis of Treatment and Comparison Group

An analysis of covariance was conducted on the posttest RSLQ scores. The paired test scores were derived from the pretest and posttest results from subjects who completed both tests and were members of EX1 and CG1 pretest and posttest cohorts. The group EX1 was the treatment group and the group CG1 was the comparison group. The corresponding pretest scores from the paired tests served as the covariate and designated PreRSLQTOT. A total of 36 cases with paired tests were included in the analysis. The Module 2 Training (treatment) served as the independent variable (see

Appendix A) for the treatment group (EX1) designated as Between Treatments, with the comparison group (CG1) designated SolGp.

Sample characteristics.

The normality of EX1 and CG1 test scores were assessed with a Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) (Razali & Wah, 2011; Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). The EX1 scores were at the threshold for the Shapiro-Wilk's. A visual review of the data with histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the test scores were approximately normally distributed for both EX1 and CG1. A skewness of -0.803 (SE = .0524) and a kurtosis of -0.317 (SE = 1.014) was noted for EX1. The group CG1 indicated a skewness of 0.150 (SE = 0.564) and a kurtosis of -0.437 (SE = 1.091) (Cramer, 1998; Cramer & Howitt, 2004; Doane & Seward, 2011).

Data screening for outliers led to no transformation of RSLQ scores. The pretest RSLQ scores were used as the covariate to neutralize the posttest RSLQ scores. The ANCOVA results show that there is no significant difference, $p = .387$, between the treatment, 95% CI [108.25, 122.91] and comparison group, 95% CI [113.68, 125.53]. The effect size ($\eta^2 = .025$) of the treatment on the experimental groups only accounts for 2.5% of the score variance as indicated by the summary of the ANCOVA results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

ANCOVA Summary Table

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
Between Treatments	1004.23	2	502.12	4.04	.028	.212
PreRSLQTOT	1929.47	1	1929.44	15.50	.012	.193
SolGp	95.99	1	95.99	.77	.387	.025
Error	3733.65	30	124.46			
Total	471575.00	33				

As a cross-check of the paired tests, the researcher conducted an independent sample *t* test on comparing the group means posttest scores of the experimental groups (EX1Post and EX2Post) with the comparison groups (CG1Post and CG2Post). The results of the independent sample *t* test showed that the difference in posttest RSLQ means scores between the experimental groups ($N = 39$ $M = 115.72$ $SD = 15.16$) and the means scores of the comparison groups ($N = 63$ $M = 115.68$ $SD = 14.27$) is not significant, $t(100) = 1.829$, $p = .991$, 95% CI [-5.872, 5.943]. This is an indication that minimal, if any influence is attributable to the training effect.

Survey Instrument Summary Results by Solomon Group

As the opportunity for subject paired tests was limited to 36 subjects, *t* tests of group means were conducted for the eight comparisons necessary to complete the analysis of comparisons as required by Solomon Four Group model for each of the six

hypotheses. The assessment of group means with this model provides a rigorous method to control for the testing effect, to isolate experimental treatment effect and the testing effect, to reduce the influence of confounding variables, and to strengthen internal validity (Sabers & Franklin, 1985; Zikmund, 2003).

Results of Research Questions

Hypothesis One (H1): Self-leadership Skills.

Analysis of the data based on group means failed to reject the null hypothesis that the Good Leader, Good Shepherd training would not result in positive gain scores on the RSLQ instrument. An independent sample *t* test showed that the difference in RSLQ scores between the pretest EX1Pre group ($N = 29$ $M = 117.69$ $SD = 15.77$) and the posttest EX1Post group ($N = 32$ $M = 114.50$ $SD = 14.71$) is not statistically significant, $t(59) = .817$, $p = .417$, 95% CI [-4.621, -4.653].

An independent sample *t* test showed that the difference in RSLQ scores between the posttest CG1Post group ($N = 24$ $M = 119.13$ $SD = 13.63$) and the posttest CG2Post group ($N = 15$ $M = 110.27$ $SD = 16.34$) is slightly significant, $t(37) = 1.829$, $p = .075$, 95% CI [-.954, 18.671]. This is an indication that some minor influence on the overall results may exist from the act of the pretest (see Test 7, Table 3).

The results of the means comparisons for the RSLQ summated scores of all eight tests that comprise the model are indicated in Table 3.

Table 3

RSLQ Summated Score Assessment with Solomon four Group

Test	Group	N			Mean			Remark
			Mean	SD	Diff	t-value	p-value	
1	EX1Pre	32	117.69	15.77	3.19	0.817	.417	ns
	EX1Post	33	114.50	14.71				
2	EX1Pre	32	117.69	15.77	2.88	0.703	.485	ns
	CG1Pre	33	114.81	15.98				
3	Ex1Post	33	114.50	14.71	-4.62	-1.21	.235	ns
	CG1Post	25	119.13	13.63				
4	EX1Post	32	114.50	14.71	-2.40	-0.665	.508	ns
	EX2Post	31	116.90	13.93				
5	CG1Pre	34	114.81	15.98	-4.32	-1.06	.295	ns
	CG1Post	25	119.13	13.63				
6	CG1Pre	34	114.81	15.98	4.54	0.897	.375	ns
	CG2Post	15	110.27	16.34				
7	CG1Post	25	119.13	13.63	8.86	1.83	.075	ns
	CG2Post	15	110.27	16.34				
8	EX2Post	33	116.90	13.93	6.64	1.43	.159	ns
	CG2Post	15	110.27	16.34				

Note. 95% CI; ns = not significant; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis Two (H2): Prepare Practice.

Analysis of the data based on group means failed to reject the null hypothesis that the Good Leader, Good Shepherd training would not result in positive gain scores for the prepare practice. An independent sample t test showed that the difference in scores between the pretest EX1Pre group ($N = 29$ $M = 27.41$ $SD = 4.90$) and the posttest EX1Post group ($N = 33$ $M = 26.18$ $SD = 4.11$) is not statistically significant, $t(60) = 1.076$, $p = .286$, 95% CI [-1.058, 3.522].

An independent sample t test showed that the difference in scores between the posttest EX1Post group ($N = 33$ $M = 26.18$ $SD = 4.11$) and the posttest CG1Post group ($N = 25$ $M = 28.72$ $SD = 4.57$) is slightly significant, $t(56) = -2.219$, $p = .031$, 95% CI [-4.829, -.247]. This is an indication of some negative influence on the overall results from the act of the treatment (see Test 3, Table 4).

An independent sample t test showed that the difference in scores between the posttest CG1Post group ($N = 25$ $M = 28.72$ $SD = 4.57$) and the posttest CG2Post group ($N = 15$ $M = 25.20$ $SD = 5.03$) is slightly significant, $t(38) = 2.272$, $p = .029$, 95% CI [.383, 6.657]. This is an indication that some influence on the overall results exists from the act of the pretest (see Test 7, Table 4).

The results of the means comparisons for the prepare practice summated scores of all eight tests that comprise the model are indicated in Table 4.

Table 4

Prepare Practice Sub-scale Score Assessment with Solomon four Group

Test	Group	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	Remark
1	EX1Pre	29	27.41	4.90	1.23	1.076	0.286	ns
	EX1Post	33	26.18	4.11				
2	EX1Pre	29	27.41	4.90	0.12	0.102	0.919	ns
	CG1Pre	31	27.29	4.47				
3	Ex1Post	33	26.18	4.11	-2.54	-2.219	0.031	*
	CG1Post	25	28.72	4.57				
4	EX1Post	33	26.18	4.11	-0.52	-0.482	0.631	ns
	EX2Post	33	26.70	4.56				
5	CG1Pre	32	27.31	4.40	-1.41	-1.178	0.244	ns
	CG1Post	25	28.72	4.57				
6	CG1Pre	32	27.31	4.40	2.11	1.465	0.150	ns
	CG2Post	15	25.20	5.03				
7	CG1Post	25	28.72	4.57	3.52	2.27	0.029	*
	CG2Post	15	25.20	5.03				
8	EX2Post	33	26.70	4.56	1.50	1.02	0.313	ns
	CG2Post	15	25.20	5.03				

Note. 95% CI; ns = not significant; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

With the noted significance of test three and test seven, the researcher further analyzed the component scale impact of the RSLQ subscales that were compiled to

represent the prepare practice proxy. The results of that further analysis are represented in Table 4a for the RSLQ Self-observation sub-scale and Table 4b for the RSLQ Evaluating Beliefs sub-scale. A review of the sub-scale scores indicated that the significance occurred within the Self-observation sub-scale (Table 4a) with no impact from the Evaluating Beliefs sub-scale (Table 4b).

Of note, the significance of the results from test three suggests that there is a relatively significant indication of treatment effect on the experimental group (EX1 post). The significance indicated from test seven is suggestive of possible pretest effect on behavior that is independent of the treatment.

Table 4a

Prepare Practice Proxy Component: RSLQ Self-observation Sub-scale Score Assessment with Solomon four Group

Test	Group	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	Remark
3	Ex1Post	33	12.24	2.53	-1.84	-2.219	.005	**
	CG1Post	25	14.08	2.22				
7	CG1Post	25	14.08	2.22	2.01	2.335	.025	*
	CG2Post	15	12.07	3.24				

Note. 95% CI; ns = not significant; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 4b

Prepare Practice Proxy Component: RSLQ Evaluating Beliefs Sub-scale Score

Assessment with Solomon four Group

Test	Group	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	Remark
3	Ex1Post	33	13.94	2.45	-0.70	-1.00	.323	ns
	CG1Post	25	14.64	2.90				
7	CG1Post	25	14.64	2.90	1.51	1.54	.131	ns
	CG2Post	15	13.13	3.14				

Note. 95% *CI*; ns = not significant; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

In summary, the practice of prepare as indicated by the self-observation scores on the treatment group EX1Post indicate influence on the self-observation sub-scale, with some further indication of a pre-test influence external to the treatment as suggested by the significance scores within test seven. No influence of the treatment was indicated on the scores of the Evaluating Beliefs sub-scale.

Hypothesis Three (H3): Envision Practice.

Analysis of the data based on group means failed to reject the null hypothesis that the Good Leader, Good Shepherd training would not result in positive gain scores for the envision practice. An independent sample *t* test showed that the difference in RSLQ scores between the pretest EX1Pre group ($N = 29$ $M = 16.48$ $SD = 4.09$) and the posttest EX1Post group ($N = 33$ $M = 15.97$ $SD = 4.14$) is not statistically significant, $t(60) = .490$, $p = .626$, 95% CI [-1.582, 2.608].

The results of the means comparisons for the envision practice summated scores of all eight tests that comprise the model are indicated in Table 5.

Table 5

Envision Practice Sub-scale Score Assessment with Solomon four Group

Test	Group	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	Remark
1	EX1Pre	29	16.48	4.09	0.51	0.49	.626	ns
	EX1Post	33	15.97	4.14				
2	EX1Pre	29	16.48	4.09	1.33	1.24	.219	ns
	CG1Pre	33	15.15	4.32				
3	Ex1Post	33	15.97	4.14	1.13	1.04	.301	ns
	CG1Post	25	14.84	4.01				
4	EX1Post	33	15.97	4.14	-0.70	-0.75	.458	ns
	EX2Post	33	16.67	3.40				
5	CG1Pre	33	15.15	4.32	0.31	0.28	.780	ns
	CG1Post	25	14.84	4.01				
6	CG1Pre	33	15.15	4.32	-0.25	-0.20	.843	ns
	CG2Post	15	15.40	3.14				
7	CG1Post	25	14.84	4.01	-0.56	-0.46	.647	ns
	CG2Post	15	15.40	3.14				
8	EX2Post	33	16.67	3.40	1.27	1.225	.227	ns
	CG2Post	15	15.40	3.14				

Note. 95% CI; ns = not significant; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis Four (H4): Initiate Practice.

Analysis of the data based on group means failed to reject the null hypothesis that the Good Leader, Good Shepherd training would not result in positive gain scores for the initiate practice. An independent sample *t* test showed that the difference in initiate practice scores between the pretest EX1Pre group ($N = 29$ $M = 17.30$ $SD = 3.07$) and the posttest EX1Post group ($N = 33$ $M = 15.52$ $SD = 4.40$) is not significant, $t(60) = 1.837$, $p = .071$, 95% CI [-.160, 3.750] (See Test 1, Table 6).

The results of the means comparisons for the initiate practice summated scores of all eight tests that comprise the model are indicated in Table 6.

Table 6

Initiate Practice Sub-scale Score Assessment with Solomon four Group

Test	Group	N	Mean	SD	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	Remark
1	EX1Pre	29	17.31	3.07	1.79	1.837	.070	ns
	EX1Post	33	15.52	4.40				
2	EX1Pre	29	17.31	3.07	0.89	0.98	.332	ns
	CG1Pre	33	16.42	3.94				
3	Ex1Post	33	15.52	4.40	0.03	0.03	.976	ns
	CG1Post	25	15.48	4.24				
4	EX1Post	33	15.52	4.40	-0.42	-0.43	.669	ns
	EX2Post	33	15.94	3.58				
5	CG1Pre	33	16.42	3.94	0.94	0.88	.385	ns
	CG1Post	25	15.48	4.24				
6	CG1Pre	33	16.42	3.94	0.09	0.07	.942	ns
	CG2Post	15	16.33	4.12				
7	CG1Post	25	15.48	4.24	0.85	-0.62	.537	ns
	CG2Post	15	16.33	4.12				
8	EX2Post	33	15.94	3.58	-0.39	0.34	.737	ns
	CG2Post	15	16.33	4.12				

Note. 95% CI; ns = not significant; * p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

Hypothesis Five (H5): Assess Practice.

Analysis of the data based on group means failed to reject the null hypothesis that the Good Leader, Good Shepherd training would not result in positive gain scores on the assess practice. An independent sample t test showed that the difference in scores between the pretest EX1Pre group ($N = 29$ $M = 35.62$ $SD = 4.69$) and the posttest EX1Post group ($N = 33$ $M = 34.91$ $SD = 5.61$) is not statistically significant, $t(60) = .537$, $p = .593$, 95% CI [-1.938, 3.362].

An independent sample t test showed that the difference in scores between the posttest CG1Pre group ($N = 32$ $M = 33.63$ $SD = 5.20$) and the posttest CG1Post group ($N = 25$ $M = 36.6$ $SD = 3.71$) is significant, $t(55) = -2.417$, $p = .019$, 95% CI [-5.441, -.508]. This is an indication of strong influence on the overall results from the act of the pretest (see Test 5, Table 7).

An independent sample t test showed that the difference in scores between the posttest CG1Post group ($N = 25$ $M = 36.60$ $SD = 3.71$) and the posttest CG2Post group ($N = 15$ $M = 32.33$ $SD = 5.35$) is very significant, $t(38) = 2.978$, $p = .005$, 95% CI [1.366, 7.167]. This is an indication of very strong influence on the overall results from the act of the pretest (see Test 7, Table 7). The results of the means comparisons for the RSLQ summated scores of all eight tests that comprise the model are indicated in Table 7.

The Assess Sub-scale is a proxy that consists of three RSLQ sub-scales (a) self-cuing; (b) self-talk and (c) natural reward. Further analysis of the significant scores from the model for this practice was done by assessing the scores at the three RSLQ sub-scale level for test five and test seven.

Table 7

Assess Practice Sub-scale Score Assessment with Solomon four Group

Test	Group	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	t-value	p-value	Remark
					Diff			
1	EX1Pre	29	35.62	4.69	0.71	0.58	0.593	ns
	EX1Post	33	34.91	5.61				
2	EX1Pre	29	35.62	4.69	1.99	1.57	0.123	ns
	CG1Pre	32	33.63	5.20				
3	Ex1Post	33	34.91	5.61	-1.69	-1.30	0.197	ns
	CG1Post	25	36.60	3.71				
4	EX1Post	33	34.91	5.61	0.65	0.50	0.619	ns
	EX2Post	32	34.25	4.98				
5	CG1Pre	32	33.63	5.20	-2.98	-2.42	0.019	*
	CG1Post	25	36.60	3.71				
6	CG1Pre	32	33.63	5.20	1.29	0.79	0.436	ns
	CG2Post	15	32.33	5.35				
7	CG1Post	25	36.60	3.71	4.27	2.98	0.005	**
	CG2Post	15	32.33	5.35				
8	EX2Post	32	34.25	4.98	1.92	1.20	0.236	ns
	CG2Post	15	32.33	5.35				

Note. 95% CI; ns = not significant; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 7a

Assess Practice Proxy Component: RSLQ Self-Cueing Sub-scale Score Assessment with Solomon four Group

Test	Group	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	Remark
5	CG1Pre	32	6.69	2.33	-0.51	-0.895	.374	ns
	CG1Post	25	7.20	1.87				
7	CG1Post	25	7.20	1.87	0.33	0.501	.619	ns
	CG2Post	15	6.87	2.29				

Note. 95% *CI*; ns = not significant; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

No significance was noted for this sub-scale within the Solomon four Group model.

Table 7b

Assess Practice Proxy Component: RSLQ Self Talk Sub-scale Score Assessment with Solomon four Group

Test	Group	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	Remark
5	CG1Pre	32	9.28	3.15	-0.92	-1.23	.223	ns
	CG1Post	25	10.20	2.24				
7	CG1Post	25	10.20	2.24	0.53	0.59	.559	ns
	CG2Post	15	9.67	3.50				

Note. 95% *CI*; ns = not significant; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

No significance was noted for this sub-scale within the Solomon four Group model.

Table 7c

Assess Practice Proxy Component: RSLQ Natural Reward Sub-scale Score Assessment with Solomon four Group

Test	Group	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	Remark
5	CG1Pre	32	17.91	2.59	-1.29	-2.22	.076	ns
	CG1Post	25	19.20	2.78				
7	CG1Post	25	19.20	2.78	3.40	3.70	.001	***
	CG2Post	15	15.80	2.78				

Note. 95% *CI*; ns = not significant; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

The very significant difference within test seven scores of the comparison group (CG1) subjected to the pretest and the posttest from the comparison group (CG2) subjected only to the posttest indicates a strong influence of the pretest on behavior independently of treatment.

In summary, the significance demonstrated in test three was indicated at the proxy or sub-scale composite level as noted in Table 7, test 5 with no indication of significance for any specific sub-scale. The significance suggests that there is a possible confounding variable outside of the training intervention. However, in the case of the significant test score differences between comparison group one (CG1) and comparison group two (CG2) for test seven there was no significance attributed to the self-cueing and self-talk sub-scale. The high degree of significance was attributable to the natural reward sub-

scale. The difference between the two comparison groups suggests that the pretest event may have affected behavior, independently of treatment.

Hypothesis Six (H6): Respond Practice.

Analysis of the data based on group means failed to reject the null hypothesis that the Good Leader, Good Shepherd training would not result in positive gain scores on the respond practice. An independent sample t test showed that the difference in scores between the pretest EX1Pre group ($N = 29$ $M = 20.86$ $SD = 6.05$) and the posttest EX1Post group ($N = 32$ $M = 21.56$ $SD = 5.58$) is not statistically significant, $t(59) = -.470$, $p = .640$, 95% CI [-3.67, 2.279].

The results of the means comparisons for the respond practice scores of all eight tests that comprise the model are indicated in Table 8.

Table 8

Respond Practice Sub-scale Score Assessment with Solomon four Group

Test	Group	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	Remark
1	EX1Pre	29	20.86	6.05	-0.70	-0.47	.640	ns
	EX1Post	32	21.56	5.58				
2	EX1Pre	32	20.86	6.05	-1.26	-0.85	.0398	ns
	CG1Pre	33	22.12	5.59				
3	EX1Post	32	21.56	5.58	-2.23	-1.55	.126	ns
	CG1Post	24	23.79	4.93				
4	EX1Post	32	21.56	5.58	-1.28	-1.08	.284	ns
	EX2Post	32	22.84	3.71				
5	CG1Pre	33	22.12	5.59	-1.67	-1.17	.247	ns
	CG1Post	24	23.79	4.93				
6	CG1Pre	33	22.12	5.59	1.12	0.61	.543	ns
	CG2Post	15	21.00	6.52				
7	CG1Post	24	23.79	4.93	2.79	1.52	.137	ns
	CG2Post	15	21.00	6.50				
8	EX2Post	32	22.84	3.71	1.84	1.49	.222	ns
	CG2Post	15	21.00	6.50				

Note. 95% CI; ns = not significant; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Summary

The RSLQ summated scores provide the basis for assessing the results of the self-leadership training conducted by the Catholic Leadership Institute for the subjects involved in this study. On the basis of the eight different sets of statistical analysis performed on the six hypotheses related to the self-leadership training, no directional impact of the training was detected. Test one of the model which compares a pretest, treatment and posttest scenario showed no significance in change scores. However, the significance noted in the prepare practice (Table 4) in test three and test seven suggest possible treatment effect and pretest effect within one RSLQ sub-scale of self-observation. Likewise, the change score analysis for the assess practice (Table 7) in test five and test seven indicate a possible confounding variable outside the training intervention as well as a pretest effect.

The primary research question was to determine if the training model based on the contextual leadership theory presented by Zigarmi, Fowler, and Lyles (Fowler et al., 2007; Lyles et al., 2007; Zigarmi et al., 2007) was effective. In accordance with the procedures, no rejection of the null hypotheses could be suggested and therefore, no treatment effect to correlate with the training was observed.

Chapter 5: Summary and Discussion

Summary of Findings

The results of the study did not provide confirmation or contradiction of the efficacy to the underlying theoretical basis for the Good Leaders, Good Shepherds (GLGS) training program at the self-leadership context level. The use of the self-leadership scale at pretest and posttest events failed to support any of the six hypotheses tested.

Research questions.

The change score analysis was the primary method used to test the general hypothesis that there is no change in the self-leadership skills (practices) for subjects completing the Achieve Leadership Genius (ALG) Training Module 2 – Leading in the Self-Context training.

Overall change score analysis was obtained from pretest and posttest events through the use of the RSLQ scale instrument. The ALG theory defines specific practices as the key steps to improved leadership action. Therefore, additional research into the possible efficacy of these practices resulted in five additional hypotheses to test the usefulness of the five specific practices as outlined in the model (note Appendix A for research model). The five practices are (a) prepare, (b) envision, (c) initiate, (d) assess, and (d) respond. Sub-scales derived from the RSLQ instrument were used as proxies to measure effects of the training on these practices..

Methodology review.

This study was designed to determine the impact of leadership training on individuals in leadership positions at the first of five context levels (self-leadership) based

on the five practices of the prescriptive leadership model as proposed by Zigarmi, Fowler and Lyles (Lyles et al., 2007; Zigarmi et al., 2007). Data gathered from subjects at prescribed intervals in the training schedule was used in the assessment of training efficacy. Summated scores from pretest-treatment-posttest events with experimental and comparison groups responding to a validated scale for self-leadership, the Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ), were the basis for analysis.

Subjects completed the self-administered RSLQ scale questionnaire under the oversight of the course monitors from the Catholic Leadership Institute (CLI) within the prescribed points of the training modules. Pretest events were conducted at the beginning of Module 1 and Posttest events were held at the end of Module 1 (GLGS program introduction) or Module 2 (GLGS self-leadership context training) in accordance with experimental and comparison group procedures.

Interpretation of Findings

The findings suggest that little, if any, training impact was indicated by the robust, frequently used RSLQ scale (Houghton & Neck, 2002, pp. 685-687). However, the anecdotal evidence as reported from CLI, based on student surveys, indicates a positive response to the overall program. That this occurred while utilizing the Solomon Four Group model, along with demanding statistical analytics, the researcher must look for some other interpretation of the findings.

The participants in the cohort have all undergone the same preparation for their profession. In addition the subjects were self-selected and encouraged by their parishes and bishops to participate in the training program. Prior to their first session, they had a brief introduction to the program and some initial preparatory materials. The posttest

provided to the comparison groups were administered after the first Module (an overview of the program goals, timelines, and process) which occurred prior to the self-leadership training module.

In the analysis of the Solomon Four Group Model, there was a borderline indication of possible significance noted in Test 7 on H1 (RSLQ Score), along with Test 7 H2 (Prepare), and Test 7 H5 (Assess). The distinction with this test is that one comparison group (CG1) has responded to the pre-test while both comparison groups (CG1 and CG2) participated in the post-test. This suggests a possible pretest influence on the prepare practice. Likewise, in Test 5 on H5 (Assess) the impact of the pretest in the comparison group (CG1) was strong. The test compares pre-test to post-test scores of the comparison group (CG1). This is another indication that there is a possible pre-test event or influence impacting the subjects outside of any actual training.

Context of the Findings

This prescriptive model of leadership contributes to an understanding of contingency leadership models (Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2007; Yukl, 2006) and advances a normative theory that works well with transformative models (Bass & Avolio, 1993), while suggesting that context is an important consideration. The definition of particular practices such as preparing, envisioning, initiating, assessing, or responding offer some additional methods for consideration in light of various desirable leader traits. Hence the contribution of this study and this prescriptive model to the literature in the field is consistent with Hogan et.al. (1994) that “a number of elements are important to a broad understanding of the leadership function. ... It is with the blending of studies and the

development of more inclusive theories containing factors from leaders, followers, context, and culture that a more complete understanding can emerge”.

The importance of communication as a key leadership component is discussed by the researcher Madlock, who found that supervisor communication “competence accounted for 68% of the variance in subordinate communication satisfaction and 18% of the variance in job satisfaction” (2007, p. 1). His findings also indicated a strong relationship between the task and the relational leadership styles and communicator competence.

The practices of the CLI leadership training model continue in the literature tradition of supporting strong communication skill building. This researcher would argue that the practices of initiate, assess, and respond at the self-leadership level are internal communication activities. Enhanced understanding of these practices at this first context level will provide the basis for similar practical improvement at the other contexts where dyadic and group communication must occur.

The stand-out points from this review suggest that future research should incorporate and encompass leaders, followers, contexts, teams, cultural diversity, and gender considerations. How will further research go beyond the academic and offer an enhanced application model for practitioners? How can such a model validate an improved standard for training, preparation, and action?

Implication of the Findings

Implications to theory.

This study reviewed the prescriptive model of Zigarmi et. al. as described elsewhere in this paper. The key components of this model are five contexts starting with

self and five practices: (a) prepare, (b) envision, (c) initiate, (d) assess and (e) respond. With regards to these components, the study contributes and supports a number of leadership theoretical streams including contingency theory, transformational, transactional, and servant leadership. Further implications are possible in constructive thought, natural reward, self-cuing, and self-efficacy (Furtner et al., 2012; Neck & Houghton, 2006; Prussia, Anderson, & Manz, 1998). Importantly, Prussia et al. reiterate that “self-leadership strategies can be used as a guide for developing training programs that directly affect self-efficacy and indirectly affect performance outcomes” (Prussia et al., 1998, p. 536) and the focus of this self-leadership training is designed with similar goals.

The ALG model as presented in this study lends additional support to Koontz’s (1961, p. 188) point that leaders consider that:

1. Theory should deal with an area of knowledge and inquiry that is “manageable”....
2. The theory should be useful in improving practice....
3. The theory should not be lost in semantics, especially useless jargon not understandable to the practitioner.
4. The theory should give direction and efficiency to research and teaching.
5. The theory must recognize that it is a part of a larger universe of knowledge and theory.

This theory also provides the researcher and practitioner with specific practices and actions that are teachable and measurable in accordance with theories that “presuppose types of performance” (Jones, 2007, p. 1). For example, Bass and Avolio’s

five-factor model and the associated Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) combine in a normative model concerning transformational and transactional leadership. This model has wide acceptance and credibility among academics and consultants due to the great amount of research and testing that support “the link between recommended leader behaviors and actual workplace performance” (p. 2). Likewise, the ALG prescriptive theory model appears to offer balance and contribution to a number of normative and conceptual theories.

This study adds to the body of knowledge that helps leadership practitioners and researchers in their search for universal leadership traits, desire participation and buy in from followers, and expect measurable outcomes. The rigor of the research model encourages the practice of particular scrutiny to determine the acceptable risk for active practitioners as they implement a normative process.

Research as described in this study follows the leadership trends (Bolden et al., 2003; Gosling, Case, & Witzel, 2007; Manz & Sims, 1991a; Neck & Houghton, 2006) and has provided additional support to help validate measurement tools and instruments such as the RSLQ scale. As this theory is reviewed and then practiced, the goal is in the authentication of theories and models while explaining the practical outcomes of leadership and providing the tools for practical application of this model within organizations.

Implications to methodology.

The results of this study are not an indictment on the methodology. Rather, the strength of study framework leads the researcher to suggest that more studies should

utilize the Solomon Four Group model. The model worked well with the RSLQ scale and required a minimum of training and had little impact on the timeline of the training.

This study was modelled in part on the research design criteria as outlined by Gerring (2011) in order to achieve a reduction in ambiguity of quasi-experimental design and thereby increase the potential for validity (internal and external) and accuracy. These criteria included theoretical fit (construct validity, severity, partition, elimination of rival hypothesis), cumulation (standardization, replication, transparency of process), treatment (variation, simple, discrete, uniformity, even distribution, strength, proximity), outcome (free to vary), sample (representative, size of N, level of analysis, independence, comparability), and practicality (pp. 627-632).

However, this researcher agrees that with the discussion point, that it is possible that “perfection becomes the enemy of scientific advance” (Gerring, 2011, p. 632). So it seems that to achieve a balance between the data gathered and the study design within the contextual, sample, and time constraints was completed. This design allows the researcher to respond to the other challenges often encountered including multiple cohorts, multiple instructors, and multiple locations, all with varying schedule. The particular results of this study as reflected represent an effort to recognize the challenges and achieve the necessary balance between a rigorous study and practical constraints and as such provide some guidance for future methodology.

Implications to practice.

As CLI is the first organization to implement this theory in a training program, there is little experience from which to draw specific counsel for commercial application of the training. As the student response is very positive, CLI has seen great growth in

their program. CLI is now actively pursuing a broader audience among lay leaders of the church. There is potential then for training by other entities using this model, given the positive response from past CLI students and the growing demand by lay leaders.

While there is a number of leadership training programs, this program is suggestive of the situational leadership model that was very popular among practitioners in the last decades of the 20th century. If this model follows that trajectory, then practitioners will embrace this as a positive force for organizational leadership. This model offers practices for several contexts of leadership from self to inter-organizational relationships. But as a contingency model, it will likely face the skepticism from the academic community that situational leadership received (Blank, Weitzel, & Green, 1990; Cashman, Goodson, & McGee, 1989; Graeff, 1983, 1997; Thompson & Vecchio, 2009).

This model is more complex than that of situational leadership. For application into a wider context and audience, training sessions and the total program timeline may be much too long. Also, the impact of technology on training suggests that there are possibilities to incorporate a more simple blended learning and self-directed model (Cho, 2002; Ellinger, 2004)

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited in organizational scope as the target sample for the investigation was confined to self-selected individuals ordained to serve as clergy, participating in assigned cohort groups at various stages of pre-training, training, and post-training in Module 2 self-leadership within the *Good Leaders, Good Shepherds* training program. This program was developed and written utilizing the ALG theory as

the foundational model. The study was intended to determine if internal validity of the model exists and within the scope of the experimental design to ascertain if limited external validity was indicated.

Additional limitations were encountered when the intent to gain a larger number of paired tests from the primary experimental group and comparison group were not achieved. While group means scores were used for the bulk of the study, the researcher would have felt more comfortable with a larger sample. The collection of data was limited by the cohort schedules and proper sequence of training within the time limits of the study and the vagaries of working with multiple locations, training multiple monitors, and maintaining communication with the field through a third party at a central location.

Internal and external validity issues.

The research design chosen, the Solomon Four Group model is the most robust model available to insure internal validity. The statistical analysis method chosen for paired tests and group means tests to use in accordance with the research model are well supported in the literature.

There were no history effects due to multiple cohorts, multiple physical locations, and multiple start dates for various modules. There was no maturation and no general testing effect as the scores reflect that no change occurred between the pretest and posttest events.

If the training had any impact, and that impact was not measured by the instrument used, then other confounding variables beyond the scope of the study must exist and one can only speculate. This researcher would suggest that there may be a self-

selection effect due to the demographics, psychographics, and spiritual/mental status of the subjects.

There was no detectible mortality effect noted.

Due to the test results and the failure to support the hypotheses there is neither indication nor support for external validity.

Measurement and statistical issues.

The use of a validated instrument in this study, the Revised Self Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ), provided a high level of confidence that the measurement scale was accurate for the purposes intended (Houghton & Neck, 2002). Also the literature supported the use of the ANCOVA for testing the paired test subjects (Dugard & Todman, 1995), ANOVA and *t* tests for group means comparisons (Dimitrov & Rumrill, 2003).

The possibility exists that the students were impacted by a self-imposed Pygmalion effect (White & Locke, 2000), a response shift bias (Rohs, 1999), or a testing effect associated with self-reporting (Howard et al., 1979).

Future Directions and Research

The importance of leadership and consequently the field of leadership studies is still of great interest to practitioners, researchers, and students. This interest manifests itself from the informal team environment on the playing field to the highest ranks of the military, government, commerce, and non-profit service organizations (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009; Lanctot & Irving, 2007; Williams, 2005) .

While this researcher agrees with Benson (1994) that there is not one right way to do leadership, the research into prescriptive leadership models deserves continued effort

and resources. For example, the Good Leaders, Good Shepherds program requires a commitment of several days over almost two years to complete. While that may be a model that works for a few organizations, the vast majority of potential students and organizations will find that multiple offsite training sessions lasting several days are too demanding. Therefore, a reduction in overall time commitment, improved outcome assessment, and new models for training delivery may offer fruitful areas of research and development.

Potential areas of research that can build on the foundation laid by Zigarmi et al., Catholic Leadership Institute and this researcher include:

- Development and testing of a more reflective scale for testing of five practices
- Utilization of the rigorous research model performed in this study into other studies conducted with quasi-experimental designs for leadership training research
- Expand research into other professional training arenas
- Determine the essential elements of GLGS training components
- Research the perception and contrary reality to specialized leadership training treatments

Conclusion

This study suggests that leadership theories offering a prescriptive and normative model are in demand given CLI's experience. The popularity of self-improvement and the desire by many to be good leaders drives the demand. However, this new model is a demonstration that even with 'happy' customers that providing study results to validate

objective outcomes is illusive. This, not to accept defeat, but to recognize the need to continue in the pursuit of establishing measurable credentials for what seems an intuitively plausible and implicitly practical way to lead.

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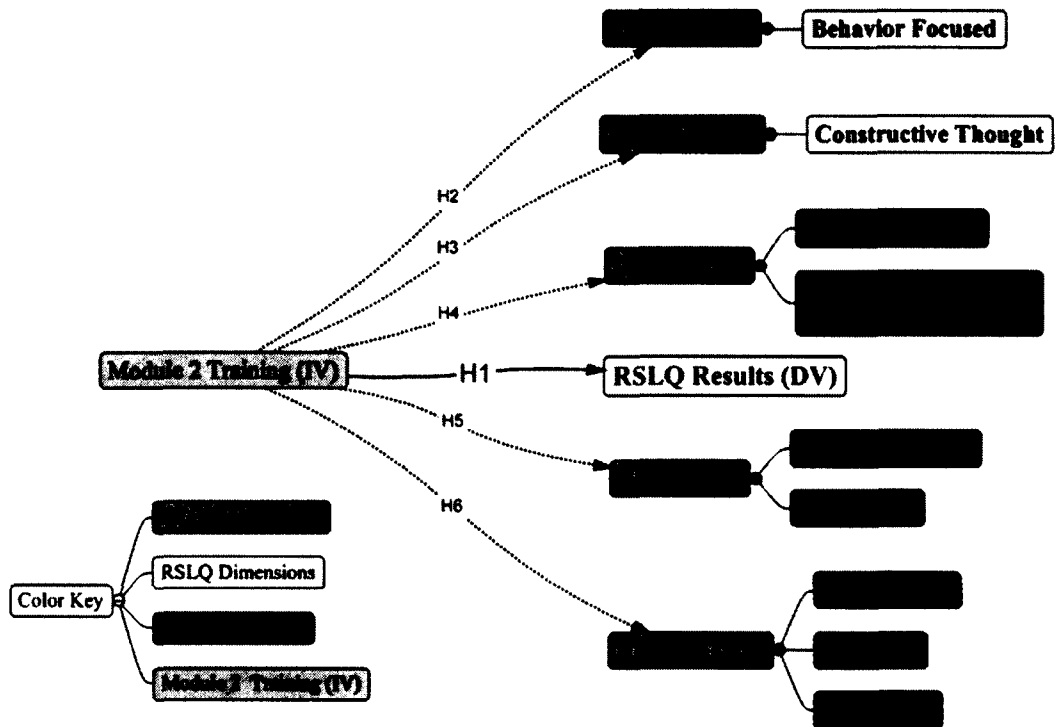
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Appendix A

Research Model for Self-leadership and Achieve Leadership Genius



Appendix B

Solomon Four Group Design for Self-leadership Study

Group A: Experimental 1	(EX1)	\boxed{A}	O ₁	X	O ₂
Group B: Comparison 1	(CG1)	\boxed{A}	O ₃		O ₄
Group C: Experimental 2	(EX2)	\boxed{A}		X	O ₅
Group D: Comparison 2	(CG2)	\boxed{A}			O ₆

Key

\boxed{A} = assignment of test subjects

O = measurement of DV in form of Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire

X = exposure of group to Module 2 Self-leadership training (treatment)

Appendix C

Training Curriculum Overview

Good Leaders Good Shepherds (Catholic Leadership Institute, 2014a)

Good Leaders, Good Shepherds is designed just for priests, so each learning module includes ample time for prayer, liturgy, and building priestly fraternity. All sessions are highly interactive, pastoral, and relevant to the vocation of priestly life and day-to-day pastoring.

Using parish-based examples, and the best of our Catholic tradition, the curriculum explores five leadership contexts and provides the skills and practices that will allow you to be a happy, holy, and healthy shepherd in any leadership circumstance.

Module 1 — Self Preparation for Leadership

- Discover your own leadership behavior style and learn how to keep your instinctive behaviors from sabotaging your leadership effectiveness.
- Define and proclaim your values to strengthen your priestly identity and ministry.
- Investigate your overall persona and explore the tensions it creates in your life and learn to put those tensions to good use.

Module 2 — Leadership in the Self Context

- Create a vision for your priestly role and identify your key responsibility areas so you can bring focus and clarity to your ministry.
- Write personal goals and learn to assess your energy and ability for those goals so you can keep yourself motivated.
- Learn to apply important time management skills as part of your strategy for keeping yourself on track with your goals and vision—and, a healthier life balance.

Module 3 — Leadership in the One-to-One Context

- Lead and develop another to articulate his/her role, responsibilities, and goals in your parish or ministry.
- Learn to give effective feedback to staff members and volunteers and to help them follow action plans and solve their own problems.
- Learn to help those you lead resolve conflicts effectively.

Module 4 — Leadership in the Team Context

- Review your committees and councils and learn to create high impact teams that get things done for your parish or organization (and do not necessarily require you to be a member!).
- Become a part of a learning team and learn to facilitate good team dynamics and help teams solve their own problems.
- Learn to plan and run effective meetings where things actually get accomplished.

Module 5 — Leadership in the Organizational Context

- Create a vision for your parish or organization and determine your key ministry goals to achieve the vision.
- Understand the needs of the members of your parish/organization as you lead them towards the vision and learn to respond appropriately.
- Create an accessible priority plan, and learn to implement this plan through good communication as you lead your parish/organization into the future.

Module 6 — Leadership in the Relationship Context

- Learn the value of Strategic Relationships in helping you fulfill your pastoral leadership with others.

- Recognize the “big ideas” that can become reality through the creation and growth of a strategic alliance.
- Apply the strategic alliance model to form mutually beneficial relationships with other organizations or ministries to help you accomplish your parish’s/organization’s goals.

Appendix D

Module 1 Training Agenda: Self Preparation



GOOD LEADERS, GOOD SHEPHERDS
MODULE 1: SELF PREPARATION FOR LEADERSHIP
TRAINING AGENDA

Cohort:
 Learning Leaders:

Date:
 Observers:

VA	LA	Activity	Start	Min	LL
Intro INTRODUCTION					
1-4	ii	Opening—Good Leaders, Good Shepherds Priestly Ministry—Holy Ordering Three-Fold Office—Priesthood of Jesus Christ	9:00	8	
5	Intro 1	Holy Ordering—Pastoral Governance	9:08	7	
6-8	Intro 2	Think About Your Parish... Show of Hands, Please...	9:15	20	
9-12		Call to Pastoral Leadership	9:35	18	
13-17	Intro 3	Understanding Parishes	9:53	10	
18-19	Intro 4	Look at My Faith Community	10:03	12	
20-21	Intro 4	Discuss Opportunities	10:15	8	
22-24	Intro 5	Program Goals	10:23	6	
25	Intro 5	Reticular Activation Mapping and Habbakuk 2:2-3	10:29	10	
27		Meeting Norms—CLI's Top Five	10:39	6	
		BREAK	10:45-11:00	15	
29-31	Intro 6	Leadership in Context	11:00	15	
32-33	Intro 6	Who, What, Where, and When Do You Lead?—Part I	11:15	5	
34-46	Intro 7-12	Leadership in Context: A New View of Leadership	11:20	30	
47-48	Intro 6	Who, What, Where, and When Do You Lead?—Part II	11:50	10	
		LUNCH	12:00-1:00	60	
49-55	Intro 13	Questions in Context	1:00	20	
56-63	Intro 14-15	Leadership in Context: The Five Practices of Leadership	1:20	10	
64-65	Intro 16	Good Leaders, Good Shepherds Curriculum	1:30	6	
66	Intro 17-18	Ideas, Insights, and Intentions	1:36	5	



VA	LA	Activity	Start	Min	LL
PREPARE					
67	Prepare tab	Prepare for Leadership	1:41		
68-70	Prepare 1	Outcomes for Module 1 Who Are You?	1:41	5	
71-74	Prepare 2-3	Why Do We Behave as We Do?	1:46	6	
75-77	Prepare 4	Prepare for Leadership—Definitions	1:54	5	
78	Prepare 5-6	Ideas, insights, and Intentions	1:57	5	
DISC					
79-82	DISC tab-DISC 2	DISCover Self & Others	2:02	12	
BREAK			2:15-2:30	15	
83-85	DISC 3	Three Words that Describe You	2:45	15	
86-87	DISC 4-6	Self-Reflection Why We Behave as We Do— Personality-Based Response	3:00	5	
88-89	DISC 7	Building the DISC Model	3:05	15	
90-98	DISC 8-12	DISCribers	3:20	15	
99-100	DISC 13	Completed DISC Model	3:35	5	
101	DISC 14-15	What Style Was Jesus?	3:40	5	
BREAK			3:45-4:00	15	
102-106		Your Online Profile Results	4:00	15	
107-123	DISC 16-18	Self-Development Activity—Build Your Personal Profile	4:15	20	
124		The DISC Model— Self- Development Activity Debrief	4:35	15	
125	DISC 22-23	Observer Perceptions	4:50	10	
End of Day 1 Evening prayer followed by dinner			5:00	1:20	
DISC Model Re-creation			9:00	20	
126-127		Strategies for Increasing Effectiveness	9:20	55	
128-131	DISC 24-27	Strategies for Working with the DISCposition	10:15	15	
BREAK			10:30-10:45	15	
132-136	DISC 28-29	The DISC Model—Strategies for Working with the DISCposition Debrief DISC Review	10:45	15	



VA	LA	Activity	Start	Min	LL
137-138	DISC 30	DISCision Tree	11:00	5	
139	DISC 31-32	Mini Case Studies	11:05	20	
140		DISCover Self & Others Profiler Job Aid	11:25	5	
141-144	DISC 33-35	DISC Performance Game	11:30	30	
		LUNCH	12:00-1:15	75	
145-150	DISC 36-41	Influencing Practice Case Activities-Case 1	1:15	70	
		BREAK	2:25-2:40	15	
145-150	DISC 36-41	Influencing Practice Case Activities-Case 2	2:40	55	
		BREAK	3:35-3:50	15	
151-152	DISC 42	DISC Principles Platinum Rule of Leadership	3:50	15	
153-157	DISC 44-45	Observe DISCpositions in Ministry	4:05	15	
158	DISC 46-49	Back-Home Application in Ministry	4:20	20	
159-160	DISC 50-52	Ideas, Insights, and Intentions	4:40	10	
VALUES					
		Opening Prayer; What Has Become Clear?	9:00	20	
161-162	Values tab-Values 1	Explore Values	9:20	5	
163	Values 2	Why We Behave as We Do— Personality-Based Response	9:25	10	
164-165	Values 3	From DISCover Self & Others to Values	9:35	10	
166	Values 4	Identifying Values	9:45	15	
167-169	Values 6	Archbishop Oscar Romero	10:00	20	
170-171	Values 7	Identifying Values—DISC Profile	10:20	15	
		BREAK	10:35-10:50	15	
172	Values 8-9	The School Board President Case	10:50	10	
173-175	Values 10	Programmed vs. Developed Values	11:00	15	
176-177	Values 11	Developed Value Check	11:15	10	
178-180	Values 12-18	Proclaim Values	11:25	30	
		LUNCH	12:00-1:15	75	
		Twelve Angry Men video	1:15	100	
		BREAK	2:55-3:10	15	



VA	LA	Activity	Start	Min	LL
181-195	Values 19-22	Twelve Angry Men Case Study	3:10	70	
		BREAK	4:20	15	
196	Values 23-26	Ideas, Insights, and Intentions	4:35	12	
		Persona Set-up for Day 4	4:47	13	
PERSONA					
197-198	Persona Tab	Investigate Your Persona	8:45	3	
199	Persona 1	Investigate Your Persona— Outcomes Checklist	8:48	4	
200	Persona 2	Why We Behave as We Do— Personality-Based Response	8:52	3	
201	Persona 3	Persona—The Social Mask	8:55	4	
202	Persona 4-5	Questions of Persona	8:59	10	
203-205	Persona 6	Investigate the Self You Think You Are	8:59	15	
206	Persona 7	Tensions of Persona	9:14	6	
207-209		Lion King: Background	9:20	15	
210-212	Persona 8-9	Tensions of Persona: "Me to Me"	9:35	15	
213-215	Persona 10-11	Tensions of Persona: "Me to Them"	9:50	15	
		BREAK	10:05-10:20	15	
216-221	Persona 12-16	Tensions of Persona—Four Choices	10:20	8	
222	Persona 17	Mutually Shared Vision	10:28	8	
223-225	Persona 18-21	Personal Purpose Statement	10:36	12	
226	Persona 23-26	Ideas, Insights, and Intentions	10:48	5	
CLOSURE					
227-229	Closure tab- Closure 2	Closure Wrap-up Questions Action Planning Sheet	10:53	5	
230	Closure 3	Before Module 2 Assignments	10:58	5	
231	CIF	Valued Feedback	11:03	12	
232		Honorable Closure	11:15	30	

Appendix E

Module 2 Training Agenda: Leadership in the Self Context



Catholic Leadership INSTITUTE

GOOD LEADERS, GOOD SHEPHERDS
MODULE 2: LEADERSHIP IN THE SELF CONTEXT
TRAINING AGENDA

Cohort:
 Learning Leader:

Date:

VA	LA	#	Activity	Clock	Min	Notes	Leader
INTRODUCTION							
1-4	Intro 1		Opening Prayer & Remarks	9:00	7		
5-13	Intro 2-6		Recreation – Way to remember & Review -Leadership in Context -Personality Based Response -DISC Model -Values – symbols & words -Persona	9:07	53	-5 Set-up activity -15 Table groups -Approx 5-7 min each for all 5 recreations	
			Break	10:00	15		
14-25	Intro 7-11		Leading in the Self Context -Outcomes *also includes GLGS program goals followed by Mod 2 outcomes *Leadership Model of Alignment introduced here	10:15	15		
PREPARE							
27-29	Prepare 1		Prepare in the Self-Context	10:30	3		
30-33	Prepare 2-6		Where do expectations come from: -tensions among expectations -ecclesial persona: self reflection	10:33	5 3 34	Ecclesial persona: 34 min= 15 min self, 10 min w/ partner, 9 min large group	



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VA	LA	#	Activity	Clock	Min	Notes	Leader
34	Prepare 7		Integrate definition	11:15	10	5-Min Self-reflection 5-min Group Discussion	
35-38	Prepare 8-9		Reconciling my DISC position	11:25	10		
39-55	Prepare 10-14		Role Behavior Analysis PART 1 -RBA page 10(5 min) - Instructions and 1 st sort (15min)	11:35 (split into two parts; more after lunch)	20	RBA Cards, job aid to bring to Module 3 Do Rnd 1 together and then Rnd 2 w. a partner who has similar role and pick 1 of 2 scenarios	
			Lunch	12:00	75		
39-55	Prepare 10-14		Role Behavior Analysis PART 2 -Score round 1(15min) - Analyze round 1(10min) - Sort 2(10min) - Analyze and Score(10min) -Flip Chart posting(5min) - Group Analyses of 2,3(10min) - Large group summary (10min)	1:15 (part 2)	70	RBA Cards, job aid to bring to Module 3 Do Rnd 1 together and then Rnd 2 w. a partner who has similar role and pick 1 of 2 scenarios	

ENVISION



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VA	LA	#	Activity	Clock	Min	Notes	Leader
56-58	Envision 1		Envision in Self-Context Intro Outcomes	2:25	10		
59-60	Envision 2-5		St. Gregory the Great Reflection	2:35	15	Gives 10 minute cushion for wrap up...	
			Break	2:50	15		
61-80	Envision 6-17		Visualize Role as Ideal -Challenge Assumed Constraints -Big Dreams Role Related Purpose Statement Proclaim Values Align Vision	3:05	90	Need to have guided reflection questions at hand for slide 71 visualization.	
			EVENING PRAYER / DINNER	5:00			

			Opening: <i>What is Becoming Clear?</i>	9:00	15		
			INITIATE				
82-84	Initiate 1		Initiate – Outcomes	9:15	5		
85-88	Initiate 2-4		Wisdom of St. Augustine	9:20	25	Self- Reflection, then group reflection	
89-96	Initiate 5-7		KRA, Goal, Task, Card Sort, 1 & 2	9:45	35	Initiate Job Aid	
97-99	Initiate 8		Rewrite KRA Imposter	10:10	10		
			Break	10:20	10		
100-108	Initiate 9-17		KRA Practice Lab – (See new worksheets)	10:30	80		



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VA	LA	#	Activity	Clock	Min	Notes	Leader
109			In Their Own Words	11:50	10	Film: 7 min	
			LUNCH	12:00	75	12:00-1:15	
110-113	Initiate 18-19		SMART Goals – set-up	1:15	15		
114-137	Initiate 20-26		Tim Smith Case	1:30	90		
			Break	3:00	20		
138-145	Initiate 27-39		KRA & SMART Goal Lab	3:20	70		
146-147			Wrap up and Questions	4:30	30	Plenty of time!	
			EVENING PRAYER / DINNER	5:00			

			<i>What's Becoming Clear</i>	9:00	15		
ASSESS							
148-152	Assess 1		Assess – Introduction Outcomes "Have you ever?.."	9:15	10		
153-160	Assess 2-3		Step 1: Driving through Phases of Performance	9:25	15		
161-170	Assess 2-3		Step 2: Driving	9:40	15		
171-173	Assess 2-3		Phases of Performance	9:55	8		
174-180	Assess 2-3		Step 3: Driving		7		
181-182	Assess 4		Remember When	10:10	20		
			Break	10:30	20		



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VA	LA	#	Activity	Clock	Min	Notes	Leader
183-206	Assess 5		Once the Most Famous Personality	10:50	35		
207-210	Assess 7		Questions in Context	11:25	35		
			LUNCH	12:00	75	12:00-1:15	
211-216	Assess 9-13		PoP Self-Assessment	1:15	25		
217	Assess 15-17		Practice: Initiate and Assess Homework	1:40	5		
218-219			Ideas, Insights, ...	1:45	5		
RESPOND							
220-224	Respond 1-2		Respond in the Self Context - Outcomes	1:50	3		
225-230	Respond 3-4		Plan to respond	1:53	7		
231	Respond 5		Skills for Focusing and Inspiring	2:00	5		
232	Respond 6-7		Ideas, Insights...	2:05	5		
CLOSURE							
234-236	Closure 1-4		Action Plan, CIF, Good News	2:10	25		
237			Honorable Closure	2:30	30		
<i>End of Day 3</i>							

Appendix F

The Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire

INSTRUCTIONS: Read each of the following items carefully and try to decide how true the statement is in describing you					
	N	So	A	M	Co
	ot at all	mewhat	little	ostly	mpletely
	accurate	accurate	accurate	accurate	accurate
	1	2	3	4	5
1. I use my imagination to picture myself performing well on important tasks.					
2. I establish specific goals for my own performance.					
3. Sometimes I find I'm talking to myself (out loud or in my head) to help me deal with difficult problems I face.					
4. When I do an					

<p>assignment especially well, I like to treat myself to some thing or activity I especially enjoy.</p>					
<p>5. I think about my own beliefs and assumptions whenever I encounter a difficult situation.</p>					
<p>6. I tend to get down on myself in my mind when I have performed poorly.</p>					
<p>7. I make a point to keep track of how well I'm doing at work (school).</p>					
<p>8. I focus my thinking on the pleasant</p>					

<p>rather than the unpleasant aspects of my job (school) activities.</p>					
<p>9. I use written notes to remind myself of what I need to accomplish.</p>					
<p>10. I visualize myself successfully performing a task before I do it.</p>					
<p>11. I consciously have goals in mind for my work efforts.</p>					
<p>12. Sometimes I talk to myself (out loud or in my head) to work through difficult situations.</p>					
<p>13. When I do</p>					

<p>something well, I reward myself with a special event such as a good dinner, movie, shopping trip, etc.</p>					
<p>14. I try to mentally evaluate the accuracy of my own beliefs about situations I am having problems with.</p>					
<p>15. I tend to be tough on myself in my thinking when I have not done well on a task.</p>					
<p>16. I usually am aware of how well I'm doing as I perform an activity.</p>					

<p>17. I try to surround myself with objects and people that bring out my desirable behaviors.</p>					
<p>18. I use concrete reminders (e.g., notes and lists) to help me focus on things I need to accomplish.</p>					
<p>19. Sometimes I picture in my mind a successful performance before I actually do a task.</p>					
<p>20. I work toward specific goals I have set for myself.</p>					
<p>21. When I'm in difficult situations I will sometimes talk to</p>					

myself (out loud or in my head) to help me get through it.					
22. When I have successfully completed a task, I often reward myself with something I like.					
23. I openly articulate and evaluate my own assumptions when I have a disagreement with someone else.					
24. I feel guilt when I perform a task poorly.					
25. I pay attention to how well I'm doing in my work.					

<p>26. When I have a choice, I try to do my work in ways that I enjoy rather than just trying to get it over with.</p>					
<p>27. I purposefully visualize myself overcoming the challenges I face.</p>					
<p>28. I think about the goals I that intend to achieve in the future.</p>					
<p>29. I think about and evaluate the beliefs and assumptions I hold.</p>					
<p>30. I sometimes openly express displeasure with myself when I have not done well.</p>					

<p>31. I keep track of my progress on projects I'm working on.</p>					
<p>32. I seek out activities in my work that I enjoy doing.</p>					
<p>33. I often mentally rehearse the way I plan to deal with a challenge before I actually face the challenge.</p>					
<p>34. I write specific goals for my own performance.</p>					
<p>35. I find my own favorite ways to get things done.</p>					

Appendix G**RSLQ Permission Letter: Jeff Houghton, Ph.D.**

On Tue, Jun 9, 2009 at 12:04 PM,
Jeff Houghton <jeff.houghton@mail.wvu.edu> wrote:

Hi Allen,

Thanks for your interest in self-leadership! I'd be interested in hearing more about your plans for your dissertation research and how you will incorporate self-leadership, but to answer your question: yes--you are certainly welcome to use the Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) in your research. We ask only that you cite our work appropriately and share your results, especially any scale reliability data. I have attached a .pdf file containing a copy of the JMP article (Houghton & Neck, 2002) in which we published the RSLQ. The entire scale is included in an appendix, but I have also attached an MS Word document containing the scale for your convenience. As you will see from the paper, you can calculate a score for each of the SL strategy dimensions (behavior focused, natural reward and constructive thought) or an overall score for self-leadership. There's no magic scoring formula...you can just use the items the best way they fit within your research design. I usually just total all of the items when I want to get an overall score for self-leadership. But it's a large number...somewhere in the 70 to 140 range. You can also divide by the total number of items to convert the overall SL score back to a 5-point scale.

One final piece of advice...you might want to consider excluding the self-punishment items from the scale (items 6, 15, 24 & 30). Although the concept of self-punishment in moderation was included in the original conceptualization of self-leadership, it can often be detrimental to one's self-leadership, especially when used excessively. In fact, Manz & Sims (2001) have reconceptualized this dimension as "self-correcting feedback." Anyhow, I usually suggest that people either omit these items or reverse scale them.

I have also attached a file containing an updated list of self-leadership references that may be helpful to you. Please let me know if you have any questions about the RSLQ or self-leadership in general. I wish you all the best with your research endeavors.

Cordially,
Jeff Houghton

--

Jeffery D. Houghton, Ph.D.
Associate Professor and Director
MSIR Program
West Virginia University
College of Business and Economics

Appendix H

Revised Self Leadership Questionnaire/Catholic Leadership Edition

MM, DD, YYYY – Cohort Name – Location

Internal use only

The Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire*

Catholic Leadership Institute
 440 East Swedesford Road, Suite 3040
 Wayne, PA 19087
 610.363.1315

Participant ID	Please place your four digit ID (last four digits of SS #) here:					
Please complete:	a.	How many years have you been ordained:				
	b.	Have you ever been employed outside of the Church? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No				
	c.	Are you currently a pastor? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No				
INSTRUCTIONS:	Read each of the following items carefully and try to decide how accurate the statement is in describing you. Place an 'X' in the box that indicates your choice.					
		Not at all Accurate	Somewhat Accurate	A little Accurate	Mostly Accurate	Completely Accurate
1.	I use my imagination to picture myself performing well on important tasks.					
2.	I establish specific goals for my own performance.					
3.	Sometimes I find I'm talking to myself (out loud or in my head) to help me deal with difficult problems I face.					
4.	When I do an assignment especially well, I like to treat myself to some thing or activity I especially enjoy.					
5.	I think about my own beliefs and assumptions whenever I encounter a difficult situation.					
6.	I tend to get down on myself in my mind when I have performed poorly.					
7.	I make a point to keep track of how well I'm doing at work (the parish).					
8.	I focus my thinking on the pleasant rather than the unpleasant aspects of my job (parish) activities.					
9.	I use written notes to remind myself of what I need to accomplish.					
10.	I visualize myself successfully performing a task before I do it.					
11.	I consciously have goals in mind for my work efforts.					
12.	Sometimes I talk to myself (out loud or in my head) to work through difficult situations.					
13.	When I do something well, I reward myself with a special event such as a good dinner, movie, shopping trip, etc.					
14.	I try to mentally evaluate the accuracy of my own beliefs about situations I am having problems with					

See page 2 for additional statements (v3)

Page 1

	Not at all Accurate	Somewhat Accurate	A little Accurate	Mostly Accurate	Completely Accurate
15. I tend to be tough on myself in my thinking when I have not done well on a task					
16. I usually am aware of how well I'm doing as I perform an activity.					
17. I try to surround myself with objects and people that bring out my desirable behaviors.					
18. I use concrete reminders (e.g., notes and lists) to help me focus on things I need to accomplish.					
19. Sometimes I picture in my mind a successful performance before I actually do a task.					
20. I work toward specific goals I have set for myself.					
21. When I'm in difficult situations I will sometimes talk to myself (out loud or in my head) to help me get through it.					
22. When I have successfully completed a task, I often reward myself with something I like.					
23. I openly articulate and evaluate my own assumptions when I have a disagreement with someone else.					
24. I feel guilt when I perform a task poorly.					
25. I pay attention to how well I'm doing in my work					
26. When I have a choice, I try to do my work in ways that I enjoy rather than just trying to get it over with.					
27. I purposefully visualize myself overcoming the challenges I face.					
28. I think about the goals I that intend to achieve in the future.					
29. I think about and evaluate the beliefs and assumptions I hold.					
30. I sometimes openly express displeasure with myself when I have not done well.					
31. I keep track of my progress on projects I'm working on.					
32. I seek out activities in my work that I enjoy doing.					
33. I often mentally rehearse the way I plan to deal with a challenge before I actually face the challenge.					
34. I write specific goals for my own performance.					
35. I find my own favorite ways to get things done.					
<p>*Noughton, J. D., & Neck, C. P. (2002). The Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire: Testing a hierarchical factor structure for self-leadership. <i>Journal of Managerial Psychology, 17</i>, 672-691.</p> <p>Note: Information gathered is confidential and will contribute to an academic study and doctoral thesis on self-leadership.</p>					

Appendix I

Anderson University Human Subjects Approval Letter



July 11, 2011

Edgar Allen Knight, Jr.
1901 Chicory Ridge Rd.
Ann Arbor, MI 48103

Dear Allen,

Regarding your request for approval to conduct research using human subjects: The DBA Human Subjects Committee has reviewed your proposed questionnaire and your method for gathering information for your dissertation entitled,

"A Normative Theory for Achieving Leadership Excellence: An Examination of the Self-Leadership Context"

After discussing your request and reviewing the current version of your survey instrument, the DBA Human Subjects Committee **approves** your request to continue the conducting of your research.

You will need to continue to respond to editing and methodological requirements of your chair as well as other members of your dissertation committee.

Should the need arise for you to significantly modify your data gathering process then you will need to resubmit a request to the DBA Human Subjects Committee.

We wish you well as you progress towards the completion of your dissertation and your DBA degree.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "Doyle J. Lucas".

Doyle J. Lucas, Ph. D.
DBA Program Director

Appendix J**Spring Arbor University HSA Approval**

From: Darling, Terry

Sent: Thursday, July 14, 2011 12:27 PM

To: Knight, Allen

Subject: RE: DBA Allen Knight: Seeking Approval for Research on Human Subjects

Allen,

I have looked over your instrument and materials and it looks like an easy slam-dunk approval by the HSR committee—my favorite kind of proposal! Let me know if you need an official form filled out. If not, consider this email to be your approval. I wish you well in your research!

Terry

From: aknig51@gmail.com [mailto:aknig51@gmail.com] On Behalf Of Knight, Allen

Sent: Tuesday, July 12, 2011 8:12 AM

To: Darling, Terry

Cc: Coe, James

Subject: Fwd: DBA Allen Knight: Seeking Approval for Research on Human Subjects

Dr. Darling: I was speaking with Prof. Globig yesterday concerning my progress on my dissertation. He suggested that you might need to see my request to Anderson University for approval of research on human subjects to determine if a similar request should be made to Spring Arbor University (I did receive approval from the committee at Anderson). If so, please consider this my formal request for review and approval. If you

need to see my full proposal I can email you a copy. Otherwise, I have three documents with the written request that outline the survey instrument and the overview of my research.

I would be happy to speak with you by phone, if you have any questions, My cell phone is: 734-678-7732. Thanks for your consideration.

Appendix K

Research Study Overview for CLI Personnel

Self-Leadership Training Study

Purpose

The Catholic Leadership Institute (CLI) and Professor Allen Knight of Spring Arbor University are collaborating on a study to collect information on self-leadership and self-leadership training. The leadership training delivered by CLI represents a major advancement in leadership theory. The data collection will provide the institute and Professor Knight with information relating to the key components and outcomes of the self-leadership module.

Research limitations/implications

The research is limited to a sample drawn from a self-selected group of male clergy in leadership positions. The results from the study findings are intended to test the CLI training model at the self-leadership context for internal validity and as such may suggest application to other leadership contexts for application and testing.

Practical implications

If this study indicates a likely causal connection between the training in the practices for self-leadership as advanced by the CLI training theory and the actual improvement of self-leadership as measured by the Revised Self Leadership Questionnaire, then a major addition to the self-leadership training arsenal for individuals in business, government, and religion has occurred.

Knight Bio

Allen Knight is currently Assistant Professor of Marketing in the Gainey School of Business at Spring Arbor University. He joined Spring Arbor University in February of 2008 as Director of the Hosmer Center for Entrepreneurship and Innovation and as an Affiliate Professor of Marketing for the MBA program. He recently completed his doctoral studies at Anderson University and is a doctoral candidate working to complete his dissertation.

Professor Knight's background and training include over 25 years in book publishing and distribution, primarily in the religious product area. His areas of interest encompass managerial accounting and finance, marketing and sales, and leadership. He has held senior management positions at Baker and Taylor Distributors, InterVarsity Press, Spring Arbor Distributors, and Ingram Book Company. He and his wife own and operate two small businesses, one a stock and custom apparel company known as Living Epistles and the other is a consulting firm, A & B Consulting Associates, Inc.

His hobbies and interests include traveling, walking and reading. Professor Knight's reading interests include business, history, theology, philosophy, railroading, and firefighting. His favorite periodicals include Books and Culture, First Things, The Atlantic, Forbes and The Economist.

Appendix L**Instructions for Learning Leaders**

1. Open envelope marked: RSLQ Forms for CLI Cohort: Baltimore 1 M2 from the special mail packet sent to you from E. Allen Knight, Assistant Professor of Marketing, Spring Arbor University for Module: 2 Day 3. Envelope contains blank survey forms for distribution to the cohort after 2 p.m. on Day 3 (December 15, 2011). (The questionnaires are pre-printed with the survey date and the cohort name that corresponds to the label on the envelope.)
2. After opening the envelope, inform the cohort that they have been asked to participate in a survey to gather information about self-leadership.
3. Read the following instructions to the cohort subjects:
 1. The Catholic Leadership Institute along with Professor Allen Knight is conducting an academic study on self-leadership. The members of this cohort are asked to complete the survey instrument that I will be distributing in a few moments.
 2. You will have 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. You will read each statement in the document and then determine how accurate the statement is in describing you. Please respond by placing an 'X' in the box that indicates your choice.
 3. When you are finished, please return the document to me.
 4. All of your responses will be submitted and tracked in confidence, and no one will know of your specific responses.

4. Distribute survey to the cohort members. (Note if a survey participant needs help with reading the questions on the form, place an 'X' in the box marked 'H' at top right of the RSLQ form.)
5. Ask subjects to complete survey. Instruct them by saying:
 1. You may begin.
6. Give the subjects 10 minutes to complete. Remind them when 5 minutes are left for completion of survey.
7. Gather up completed surveys from cohort members.
8. Thank the cohort members for their participation.
9. Collate the surveys and place in provided return envelope (marked "Completed RSLQ Survey Forms Envelope"). Place envelope into padded addressed packet (label is prepaid via FedEx ground).
10. Seal the packet and place the packet with the other cartons for return to the CLI shipping center at the designated place at the conference center for FedEx Ground pick up. (The RSLQ Survey Forms Packet will indicate a return address to Professor Knight in Michigan.)
11. If you encounter any problems or issues contact Professor Knight: cell: 734-678-7732 or email eknight@arbor.edu

Curriculum Vitae

The author completed his Bachelor of Science degree in 1973 with a major in business administration from Milligan College in Tennessee. In 1989, he earned the Masters of Business Administration degree from Olivet Nazarene University in Bourbonnais, IL. Doctoral studies in business administration were started at Anderson University, Falls School of Business, in 2007.

The author holds the position of Assistant Professor of Marketing in the Gainey School of Business at Spring Arbor University in Spring Arbor, MI. He has been associated with the university since 2008. His primary teaching responsibilities include courses in entrepreneurship, advertising, communications, and marketing. His prior experience includes over 30 years in various senior level executive positions in book publishing, book and music wholesaling, logistics and distribution services, as well as marketing and management consulting.