

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AGREEABLENESS AND TRANSFORMATIONAL
LEADERSHIP IN UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS

By

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To my wife, Alexa, and daughter, Charlotte

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Abstract of Thesis Presented to the Graduate School
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**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AGREEABILITY AND TRANSFORMATIONAL
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Within organizations there are conflicting messages as to what constitutes effective leaders (Collins, 2001). One of the primary differentiators between effective and ineffective leadership appears the difference between self-oriented leaders, or individuals that are primarily concerned with their own needs, (Kellerman, 2004) and other-oriented leaders, or individuals that are primarily concerned with the needs of their followers (Collins, 2001). Transformational leadership is a leadership style that is primarily oriented towards the care and development of the leader's followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The personality trait of agreeableness is primarily concerned with relationships with others and ability to trust others while maintaining social harmony (Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991). However, there is limited evidence to indicate that agreeableness and transformational leadership are related (Judge & Bono, 2000). The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between agreeableness, including the facet level (trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty and tender-mindedness) and transformational leadership, including specific factors (individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence).

Results indicate that undergraduate leadership students in the observed class had high levels of agreeableness ($M = 3.84$, $SD = .44$) and transformational leadership ($M = 3.24$, $SD = .35$).

Of the agreeableness items, tender-mindedness had the strongest statistically significant correlation with transformational leadership overall. Modesty also had a statistically significant relationship in the negative direction. The factor of individualized consideration had the greatest number of statistically significant correlations with agreeableness items. Trust, straightforwardness, altruism, and tender-mindedness all had moderate positive correlations with individualized consideration at the facet level.

Overall agreeableness was not found to be a statistically significant predictor of transformational leadership. The facets of agreeableness tended to be much more robust in predicting transformational leadership and transformational leadership factors. The regression model including agreeableness facets predicted 18% of the variance in transformational leadership.

Recommendations include using the results to effectively teach transformational leadership to the class of undergraduate leadership students. Using differences between demographic groups (gender for example) would be an efficient way to have students engage in peer learning and hear how different personality traits can have an effect of transformational leadership factors.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Overview of the Study

Modern society has been full of contradictions related to concepts of leadership and concern for others. “As Peter Drucker has pointed out, the chief object of leadership is the creation of a human community held together by the work bond for a common purpose” (Bennis, 2009, p. 155). However, Bossidy, Charan, and Burck (2004) stated “leaders with growth potential should receive some kind of education on specific topics like ethics or strategy or business model construction” (p. 240). These authors have called for leaders to be primarily concerned with more functional business related skills, omitting people skills. Although functional and business oriented skills have been necessary, they have not been sufficient to adequately provide leaders with the skills needed to be successful in organizations today (Bennis, 2009).

Functional business skill development has represented a trend to be more focused on individual results and actions, and as a consequence, leaders have tended to be more self-oriented than other-oriented (Collins, 2001). This has resulted in “one of the most damaging trends in recent history...the tendency (especially by boards of directors) to select dazzling, celebrity leaders and to deselect potential Level 5 [other-oriented] leaders” (Collins, 2001, p. 39). Grant (2013) stated “because of their tendencies toward powerful speech and claiming credit, successful takers [self-oriented] tend to dominate the spotlight” (p. 255). Yet, “despite the paradox that unduly commanding, or pacesetting, [self-oriented] bosses create a disastrous dissonance, everyone can name a rude, hard-hitting CEO who, by all appearances, epitomizes the antithesis of residence [other-orientation] yet seems to reap great business results”

(Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee, 2002, p. 80). From one perspective concern for others has appeared to be central to effective leadership. Simultaneously, self-oriented leaders have appeared to be rewarded and judged to be successful.

Bad Leadership

Bad leadership has been estimated to cost the average organization \$1 million annually (Blanchard, 2009). Defining what constitutes bad leadership has been a challenging task. Bass (1981) observed, “there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept” (p. 7). Kellerman (2004) defined seven categories of bad leadership: incompetent, rigid, intemperate, callous, corrupt, insular, and evil. Of these seven, three have been easily attributable to self-oriented leadership behavior: callous, corrupt, and insular (Kellerman, 2004).

According to Kellerman (2004), callous leaders have been generally characterized as unkind or uncaring. They are not attuned to the needs of others and tend to discount the desires of those they come in contact with. Corrupt leaders puts their own interests ahead of those of others through their willingness to lie, cheat or steal. Finally, the insular leader is one that disregards the welfare of others, especially those outside the leader’s purview (Kellerman, 2004).

Several different theories have been proposed to describe how leadership is established; first, humans have an evolutionary predisposition (nature) towards a specific type of behavior, including leadership (Caspi, Roberts, & Shiner, 2005; Kellerman, 2004). Other theories have focused on the environments in which individuals exist (nurture). For example, Grant (2013) stated:

Workplaces and schools are often designed to be zero sum environments, with forced rankings and required grading curves that pick group members against one another in win or lose contests. In this setting it's only natural to assume that peers will lean in the taker [self-oriented] direction. (p. 241)

Regardless of where bad leadership characteristics have derived from, whether through nature or nurture, the impact on organizations have been well documented (Kellerman, 2004). Bad leaders have had a direct effect on their organizations and those around them because “the culture of the company is the behavior of its leaders. Leaders get the behavior they exhibit and tolerate” (Bossidy, Charan, & Burck, 2002, p. 105). In general, bad, self-oriented leaders have tended to be characterized as more disagreeable, and in turn, “more competitive, critical, and tough – they're more comfortable with conflict, coming across as skeptical and challenging” (Grant, 2013, p. 191). Consequences of this approach to leadership have been pervasive and range from corporate and political scandals to revelations regarding religious organization wrongdoings (Kellerman, 2004). For example, the executive suite of Enron acted as “agents of change. What they did affected the lives and pocketbooks of tens of thousands of Americans...These men were not just a few rotten apples. Rather they created, indeed encouraged, an organizational culture that allowed many apples to spoil and, in turn, ruin others” (Kellerman, 2004, p. 11).

The selfish, self-oriented point of view has been manifested not only in scandal at a broad corporate level but also through a myriad of interactions experienced in organizational settings every day, including activities such as workplace deviance, counterproductive work behaviors, and workplace incivility (Grant, 2013). “By encouraging us to expect the worst in others it brings out the worst in us” (Grant, 2013, p. 23).

Bad leadership has led to a culture of mistrust (Grant, 2013). According to the Pew Research Center (2007), 50% of those polled felt that "...you can't be too careful in dealing with people" (para. 6). Interactional incivility and rudeness also appear to have been on the rise - 78% of respondents had experienced rudeness in online settings (Edelson, 2007). The negative consequences of self-oriented leadership have been observed. Fortunately, there have also been trends to indicate a greater appreciation for good, or other-oriented, leadership (Grant, 2013).

Good Leadership

As organizations have recognized the limitations associated with self-oriented leaders, they have been actively beginning to focus on the benefits associated with other-oriented leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Blanchard, 2009; Grant, 2013). "The fact is that any business expecting to stay around in the new environment has to raise the bar for leadership...Several qualities that often got short shrift in the selection of leaders are now high on the list of leadership criteria" (Bossidy et al., 2004, p. 216). These previously neglected qualities have included a focus on individual character (Covey, 1989), modesty (Collins, 2001), giving (Grant, 2013), trust (Bennis, 2009), and empathy (Hughes & Terrell, 2007). Subsequently these other-oriented qualities have a direct and meaningful impact on organizations (Bennis, 2009; Blanchard, 2009; Collins, 2001; Grant, 2013).

For example, Collins (2001) found that leaders at the top of the world's great corporations tended to be modest, understated, and self-effacing. This was in comparison to peer organizations led by self-oriented leaders. Organizations led by other-oriented leaders performed significantly better financially over longer periods of time. The influence these other-oriented leaders had on their organizations has been

profound (Collins, 2001). “Leadership makes a tremendous difference in team performance. The leader, whether by position or by influence, can establish positive behavioral norms...the leader can show team members how to be empathetic...and to be smart enough to get the resources and support they need” (Hughes & Terrell, 2007, p. 170). The importance of other-orientation beyond organizational settings have also been made, “as Charles Darwin once wrote, a tribe with many people acting like givers, who ‘were always ready to aid one another, and to sacrifice themselves for the common good, would be victorious over most other tribes; and this would be natural selection’” (as cited in Grant, 2013, p. 239). As an outcome of these interpersonal behaviors a fundamental shift in leadership have been observable, it “...goes beyond transactional [self-oriented] leadership into transformational [other-oriented] leadership, transforming the individuals involved as well as the relationship” (Covey, 1989, p. 222).

Transformational leadership has served as a model for good, or other-oriented, leadership, based on its emphasis on motivation and follower development (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Northouse, 2013). “Transformational leadership is a process that changes and transforms people and is concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals. It includes assessing followers’ motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings” (Northouse, 2013, p. 185). Transformational leadership has been empirically evaluated and is considered to be one of the most popular forms of contemporary leadership. (Northouse, 2013) In combination with a focus on follower development, transformational leadership served as an appropriate model of good, other-oriented, leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Covey, 1989).

Transformational Leadership Development

The question has been whether leadership (as a set of observable behaviors) has been an outcome of nature (natural born ability) (McCrae et al., 2000) or nurture (developed ability) (Goleman et al., 2002; Grant, 2013). From a nature perspective the argument has been made that observed behaviors are a result of neuro-configuration (Caspi et al., 2005; McCrae et al., 2000; Srivastava, John, Gosling, & Potter, 2003). These patterns are hardwired into our brains and are subsequently manifested in our behavior and personality. Human brains cease to generate new neural tissue beyond the mid-teen years, consequently patterns established prior to this point are biologically wired to continue to manifest throughout a lifetime (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001).

To the contrary, new evidence has indicated that behavioral development is possible and is the direct result of desire and intent to change (Begley, 2007). As Gladwell (2008) found "...the closer psychologists look at the careers of the gifted, the smaller the role talent seems to play and the bigger the role preparation seems to play" (p. 38). Furthermore, the idea that human brains atrophy and lack any regenerative capacity has been found to be no longer valid. Laboratory studies have concluded that human brains can regenerate new neural tissue, and that existing tissue is highly adaptable, a process known as neuroplasticity (Goleman et al., 2002). Furthermore, it has been shown that leadership development has been possible (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2009; Day & Sin, 2011); however, "When it comes to building leadership skills that last, motivation and how a person feels about learning matter immensely" (Goleman et al., 2002 p. 99).

Agreeableness

The personality trait of agreeableness has been historically classified as a poor predictor of individual work performance (Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001). Research has shown that agreeableness has little to no performance predictive capacity (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Piedmont & Weinstein, 1994). However, this finding has been contrary to intuition. Humans are social in nature; consequently an ability to get along with others would seem to be a prerequisite for performance and happiness (Frone, 2000). Additionally, Fearrington (2004) found that agreeableness was directly related to individuals' tendency to be team players and to be receptive to teamwork.

Today, the use of teams and interdependent work situations has never been greater. Grant (2013) stated "even if you don't work in a team, odds are you hold a service job...By 1995, the service sector was responsible for nearly two-thirds of the world GDP. Today, more than 80% of Americans work in service jobs" (p. 17). Therefore, people have become the primary resources in most organizations today, and the value these resources bring to bear has been directly related to the quality of interpersonal relationships (Bennis, 2009). While individuals have been asked to work together with greater frequency, they simultaneously have had to deal with significantly more challenges to do so due to bad leadership (Grant, 2013).

Problem Statement

The problem addressed by this study was the proliferation of bad, self-oriented, leadership within organizations. As an alternative, the development of other-oriented, or transformational leaders was proposed. To assist in the effective development of transformational leaders, an investigation into the nature of the relationship between the personality trait of agreeableness and transformational leadership was undertaken. This

course of action was proposed, as there was a lack of knowledge around the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership characteristics.

Purpose and Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between agreeableness, including the facet level (trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty and tender-mindedness) and transformational leadership, including specific factors (individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence). The study was driven by the following research objectives:

1. Describe the levels of agreeableness in undergraduate leadership students.
2. Describe the levels of transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.
3. Identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and agreeableness.
4. Identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and transformational leadership.
5. Identify the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.
6. Identify how agreeableness predicts transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.

Significance of the Study

Leadership research has been extensive over the past three decades (Judge & Bono, 2000). However, a limited number of studies has been conducted that specifically looked at the relationship between personality facets and transformational leadership characteristics, especially at the most granular level (Barrick et al., 2001; Judge & Bono, 2000). This represented a gap in the literature, as well as an issue of practical utility

(Barrick et al., 2001). Without being able to clearly articulate the nature of the relationship between personality and transformational leadership educators and practitioners focused on leadership development have been challenged to design and provide instruction accordingly (Judge & Bono, 2000).

Although Barrick et al. (2001) called for the suspension of further personality-based research until such time that a novel, or substantial, contribution could be made; an extensive review of the literature revealed a notable absence of studies that focused on agreeableness. Because humans are gregarious, tend to prefer being in groups rather than alone, and tend to want to help one another, the absence of existing literature was noteworthy (Cosmides, 1989; McGuire, 2003).

The significance of this study was two-fold. First, there was a gap in the existing literature examining agreeableness and its relationship with leadership. This study was intended to inform this current deficiency (Judge & Bono, 2000). Second, by examining the nature and magnitude of the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership, educators may be able to better tailor instructional interventions to support the development of leadership capacities (McCormick, Dooley, Lindner, & Cummins, 2007). This research was directly supportive of the National Research Agenda for Agricultural Education priority area number four, specifically, meaningful and engaged learning in all environments (Doerfert, 2011). Leadership development has been a top priority in both academic and professional settings (McCormick et al., 2007), illuminating this important relationship will enhance the quality of subsequent educational interventions (Judge & Bono, 2000).

Based on the absence of empirical research examining agreeableness facets and leadership characteristics the results of this study will be significant to the literature and practice (Barrick et al., 2001). Additionally, the results of the study may contribute to the broader field of personality and performance research (Barrick et al., 2001). For example, the results may have implications for ongoing professional development investment decisions.

The population of interest for this study was undergraduate leadership students. The chosen population represented the next generation of leaders and one that has been often overlooked in the literature (Senge, 2006). Senge (2006) stated “often ignored as leaders, teenagers and young adults have a strong stake in the future, perhaps the strongest. They are also the least invested in the past, giving them a distinctive ability...to create something new” (p. 370). The population was also selected due to the dramatic increase in undergraduate leadership development programs, it is important to understand this population so as to provide the most effective instruction possible (Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003). Furthermore, “higher education has the potential to produce future generations of transformative leaders who can devise more effective solutions to some of our most pressing social problems” (Astin & Astin, 2000, p. 16).

There were a number of groups that will benefit from this information (Barrick et al., 2001). First, educators, and leadership development practitioners have been provided a better understanding of leadership characteristics as founded in individual personality dispositions (Barrick et al., 2001). Next, participants in leadership development programs have benefited as future programming efforts will be more

comprehensive (Senge, 2006). Finally, organizations have benefited from the development of individuals who have completed more comprehensive transformational leadership development programs (Barrick et al., 2001; Judge & Bono, 2000; McCormick et al., 2007; Northouse, 2013)

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms were defined:

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| Agreeableness | One of the Big Five traits of personality, a dimension of interpersonal behavior, specifically the quality of interaction between individuals. This trait also contributes to social attitudes, personal philosophy, and self-image. The facets of Trust, Straightforwardness, Altruism, Compliance, Modesty, and Tender-mindedness constitute this trait (Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991). In this study, agreeableness was measured by International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) (Goldberg et al., 2006) agreeableness inventory developed by Johnson (2011). |
| Altruism | One of the facets of the personality trait of agreeableness, a selflessness and concern for others (Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991, p. 888). In this study, altruism was measured by International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) (Goldberg et al., 2006) agreeableness inventory developed by Johnson (2011). |
| Bad Leadership | Self oriented leadership, particularly callous, corrupt, and insular leadership (Kellerman, 2004). |
| Compliance | One of the facets of the personality trait of agreeableness, individuals defer to others instead of fighting when conflicts arise (Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991, p. 888). In this study, compliance was measured by International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) (Goldberg et al., 2006) agreeableness inventory developed by Johnson (2011). |
| Follower | An individual that has a direct or indirect reporting relationship with a supervisor in a position of power, whether through formal or informal means. |
| Good Leadership | Other oriented leadership, “a process that changes and transforms people. It is concerned with the emotions, values, ethics, standers, long-term goals” (Northouse, 2013, p. 185). |

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| Idealized Influence | One of the factors of transformational leadership, describes leaders who act as strong role models for followers (Northouse, 2013, p. 191). In this study, idealized influence was measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio (2000). |
| Individualized Consideration | One of the factors of transformational leadership, describes leaders who provide a supportive climate in which they listen carefully to the individual needs of followers (Northouse, 2013, p. 193). In this study, individualized consideration was measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio (2000). |
| Inspirational Motivation | One of the factors of transformational leadership, describes leaders who communicate high expectations to followers, inspiring them through motivation to become committed to and a part of the shared vision in the organization (Northouse, 2013, p. 193). In this study, inspirational motivation was measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio (2000). |
| Intellectual Stimulation | One of the factors of transformational leadership, describes leaders who stimulate followers to be creative and innovative and to challenge their own beliefs and values as well as those of the leader and the organization (Northouse, 2013, p. 193). In this study, idealized influence was measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio (2000). |
| Leadership | A process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2013, p. 5). |
| Modesty | One of the facets of the personality trait of agreeableness, a lack of preoccupation with oneself (Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991, p. 888). In this study, modesty was measured by International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) (Goldberg et al., 2006) agreeableness inventory developed by Johnson (2011). |
| Race/Ethnicity | Self-perceived membership in population groups that define themselves by cultural heritage, language, physical appearance, behavior, or other characteristics ("Standards", 1995, p. 26). In this study, race was defined as: American Indian or Alaska native; Asian or Pacific Islander; Black or African American; White; or Other. Ethnicity is defined as either Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) or not. These categories were based on United States of America Office of Management and Budget standards for the classification of Federal Data on Race and Ethnicity ("Standards", 1995, p. 29). |
| Straight- | One of the facets of the personality trait of agreeableness, |

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| forwardness | frankness in dealing with others (Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991, p. 888). In this study, straightforwardness was measured by International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) (Goldberg et al., 2006) agreeableness inventory developed by Johnson (2011). |
| Superior | An individual in a position of authority over a supervisor. |
| Supervisor | An individual with at least one follower reporting to them through direct or indirect channels. |
| Tender-mindedness | One of the facets of the personality trait of agreeableness, a tendency to be guided by feelings, particularly those of sympathy, in making judgments and forming attitudes (Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991, p. 888). In this study, tender-mindedness was measured by International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) (Goldberg et al., 2006) agreeableness inventory developed by Johnson (2011). |
| Transformational Leadership | The process whereby a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower...attentive to the needs and motives of followers and tries to help followers reach their fullest potential (Northouse, 2013, p. 186). In this study, transformational leadership was measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio (2000). |
| Trust | One of the facets of the personality trait of agreeableness, the tendency to attribute benevolent intent to others (Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991, p. 888). In this study, trust was measured by International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) (Goldberg et al., 2006) agreeableness inventory developed by Johnson (2011). |
| Undergraduate student | An individual enrolled in an undergraduate level course. Institutional classification is irrelevant. |

Limitations of the Study

Due to the nature of the subject matter and proposed population, a number of limitations were present. Specifically, the sample consisted of undergraduate students at a single, southern land-grant university. Due to the somewhat limited nature of this audience, the results were not generalizable to other student groups. An additional limitation associated with the study was that the dependent variable of interest,

transformational leadership, was measured through self-report. An assumption was made that all responses were accurate and truthful.

Synopsis

Chapter 1 provided an introduction, background, purpose, and significance of the research as it relates to the problem of the proliferation of bad, self-oriented, leadership within organizations.. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between agreeableness, including the facet level (trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty and tender-mindedness) and transformational leadership, including specific factors (individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence). Developing individuals with transformational leadership characteristics has been shown to benefit individuals and organizations (Collins, 2001; Covey, 1990). Consequently, informing transformational leadership development has been important for educators, participants, and organizations (Barrick et al., 2001; Judge & Bono, 2000; McCormick et al., 2007; Northouse, 2013).

The significance of this study was two-fold. A gap in the existing literature examining agreeableness and its relationship with leadership existed. In addition, by examining the nature and magnitude of the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership, educators may be able to better tailor instructional interventions to support the development of leadership capacities.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the personality trait of agreeableness and transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students. The objectives of the study were to describe levels of agreeableness, describe levels of transformational leadership, identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and agreeableness, identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and transformational leadership, identify the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership, and Identify how agreeableness predicts transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature related to transformational leadership and agreeableness. Specifically, this chapter focuses on transformational leadership, the factors of transformational leadership, the five factor model of personality, agreeableness, the facets of agreeableness, and demographic variable relationships with transformational leadership and agreeableness. Additionally, the theoretical frameworks of transformational leadership and the five factor model of personality are presented. Lastly, a conceptual framework for the study is presented. The chapter is divided into the following sections: transformational leadership, agreeableness, demographic relationships to transformational leadership and agreeableness, relationship between transformational leadership and agreeableness.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is focused on the individual beyond just the task (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leadership includes serving as a role model for

followers, inspiring and motivating followers to pursue challenging goals, encouraging followers to be creative, and treating each follower as an individual (Bass & Riggio, 2006). “Transformational leadership involves fundamentally changing the values, goals, and aspirations of followers, so that they perform their work because it is consistent with their values” (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rick, 2001, p. 118). As a consequence, transformational leaders have been found to improve the performance of organizations, teams, and individuals (Judge & Bono, 2000).

At the supervisor-follower level, followers have tended to view their supervisors to be more effective when they have transformational leadership characteristics (Judge & Bono, 2000). This finding was consistent with previous research that found followers tend to identify transformational leader characteristics when asked to describe their ideal leader (Bass, 1997). Transformational leaders have been shown to have a large effect on what followers think and feel (Avolio et al., 2009). The ability to accurately assess and respond to follower emotional cues is an indication of emotional intelligence (Goleman et al., 2002). High levels of correlation between transformational leaders and emotional intelligence have also been observed (Bowling, 2010).

Followers of transformational leaders have tended to demonstrate higher levels of satisfaction with the leader (Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996) and work unit effectiveness (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Additionally, followers of transformational leaders have been shown to have higher levels of affective and normative commitment (Jackson, Meyer, & Wang, 2013). When conducting a meta-analysis of transformational leadership, Wang, Oh, Courtright, and Colbert (2011) found

that followers of transformational leaders had higher levels of performance across a number of measures, especially in contextual versus task performance settings.

At the supervisor-team level, teams led by transformational leaders have tended to report higher levels of perceived effectiveness, productivity, and learning (Burke et al., 2006). In particular, leader behaviors associated with follower empowerment was the single largest predictor in team learning (Burke et al., 2006). Wang et al. (2011) found that teams led by transformational leaders tended to have higher levels of performance, especially in contextual versus task performance settings.

At the supervisor-superior level, superiors have been found to view supervisors with transformational leadership characteristics as more effective (Judge & Bono, 2000). From this perspective, transformational leadership was not only positively related to follower outcomes, but also to intra-individual outcomes; specifically, supervisors that exhibit transformational leadership behaviors were perceived to be higher performing (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011) and thus may be more prepared for promotions and greater levels of responsibility (Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998).

Although transformational leadership has been related to a number of positive organizational outcomes (Judge & Bono, 2000), some research findings have been inconclusive. For example, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996) found that followers of transformational leaders were not more committed to their organization than followers of non-transformational leaders. Similarly, Barling, Weber, and Kelloway (1996) found there was no difference in job satisfaction between followers of transformational and non-transformational leaders. Additionally, the universality of

transformational leadership characteristics has not been perceived as positive in all cultural contexts in which it has been examined (Chemers, 2000; Leong & Fischer, 2011). Avolio (2007) has called for the inclusion of context when researching the nature of relationships between leaders and followers, claiming that what is effective in one context may be ineffective in another leading to these inconclusive results. As a potential solution to some of the limitations posed by context, Dinh and Lord (2012) recommended event level analysis, with the event aggregate serving a better representation of the true self.

Factors of Transformational Leadership

According to Bass and Riggio (2006), transformational leaders are able to achieve superior results with followers by exercising one or more of four factors associated with transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration). These four core areas of transformational leadership have evolved and been refined based on a number of previous conceptualizations (Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978). Although the independence of four factors has been questioned (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995), additional research has demonstrated that the factors are in fact unique and possible to quantify independently through questionnaire measures (Bono & Judge, 2004).

Idealized influence

Transformational leaders have been held in high regard by their followers based on their high moral standards (Bono & Judge, 2004). Through ethical and admirable behavior, transformational leaders have been trusted and respected by their followers leading to a strong sense of loyalty (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Followers have viewed

transformational leaders as having extraordinary skills and capabilities, an attributed set of qualities that followers have projected on to transformational leaders (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Consequently, idealized influence is composed of two sub-factors: behaviors of the transformational leader and characteristics attributed to the leader by followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Transformational leaders with high levels of idealized influence have been likely to behave in a moral and ethical manner and are likely to be consistent and fair with their decisions (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Individuals with high levels of idealized influence tended to be willing to take risks and demonstrate above average persistence (Bass & Riggio, 2006), and research has found that followers have rated leaders higher in idealized influence when they use rational and inspirational appeals (Charbonneau, 2004). This finding was consistent with research that found idealized influence is related to levels of emotional intelligence in leaders (Clarke, 2010).

At the sub-factor level, research has shown that the attributed idealized influence is a significant predictor of leadership effectiveness (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012). Both attributed idealized influence and idealized influence behavior have been found to be predictive of innovative workplace behavior (Abbas, Iqbal, Waheed, & Riaz, 2012). However, some follower outcomes have been contradictory at the sub-factor level. For example, Franke and Felfe (2011) found that attributed idealized influence was negatively related to follower perceptions of strain while idealized influence behavior was positively related to follower perceptions of strain.

Inspirational motivation

Bono and Judge (2004) found that transformational leaders exercised inspirational motivation when they articulate a vision for the future based on their

values. Inspirational motivation provides meaning to follower work and facilitates a shared vision for an appealing future (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders build team spirit and individual motivation by clearly articulating expectations, building confidence and arousing enthusiasm (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bono & Judge, 2004). In a study of leadership effectiveness Sadeghi and Pihie (2012) found that effectiveness has been predicted by inspirational motivation. Furthermore, Charbonneau (2004) found that rational and inspirational appeals with followers predicted inspirational motivation.

Research has shown inspirational motivation is positively related to innovative work behavior in followers (Abbas et al., 2012), as well as increased group creativity (Sosik et al., 1998). Inspirational motivation has been a positive effect in reducing both cognitive and relational conflict in teams and organizations (Doucet, Poitras, & Chenevert, 2009). Additionally, research has shown successful completion of training activities (Hardy et al., 2010) and work projects (Elkins & Keller, 2003) have been directly related to levels of transformational leader inspirational motivation. However, inspirational motivation has not been found to be related to levels of follower psychological strain, demonstrating a set of unique characteristics from idealized influence (Franke & Felfe, 2011). Idealized influence and inspirational motivation have been frequently combined into a single charismatic-inspirational factor (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Intellectual stimulation

Transformational leaders have exercised intellectual stimulation with followers by encouraging them to question norms, as well as engage in innovative and creative thinking (Bono & Judge, 2004). Creative ideas and solutions have been solicited from followers in a criticism free environment (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Sadeghi and Pihie

(2012) found that intellectual stimulation was predictive of perceptions of leadership effectiveness. Additionally, intellectual stimulation was found to be predictive of transformational leaders' levels of situational awareness and interpersonal influence (Eid et al., 2004).

Transformational leaders frequently engaged in rational persuasion when exercising intellectual stimulation with followers (Charbonneau, 2004). When transformational leaders provided intellectual stimulation, followers exhibited higher levels of innovative work behavior (Abbas et al., 2012), organizational commitment (Emery & Barker, 2007; Joo, Yoon, & Jeung, 2012), and job satisfaction (Emery & Barker, 2007). Additionally, Elkins and Keller (2003) found that intellectual stimulation was related to higher levels of leader member exchange (LMX) between leaders and followers, as well as higher probabilities of project team success.

There have been a few examples where intellectual stimulation has not resulted in positive organizational outcomes. For example, in a computer mediated environment group, creativity was negatively related to intellectual stimulation (Sosik et al., 1998). Additionally, cognitive conflicts in the workplace were positively related to intellectual stimulation (Doucet et al., 2009).

Individualized consideration

Transformational leaders exercised individualized consideration by providing individualized attention to each follower, by focusing on individual growth and achievement needs (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Providing coaching to each follower individually allowed the transformational leader to recognize each follower's unique goals and needs (Bono & Judge, 2004). Individualized consideration may be demonstrated in behaviors such as providing more autonomy, providing more

constructive feedback, or providing a more formalized task structure; however, all behaviors have stemmed from the transformational leader's ability to recognize and appreciate individual differences (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Leadership effectiveness (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012), emotional intelligence (Clarke, 2010), and humble self-deprecating behaviors (Hoption, Barling, & Turner, 2013) have all been shown to be positively related to levels of individualized consideration.

Transformational leaders frequently engaged in rational persuasion when exercising individualized consideration with followers (Charbonneau, 2004). When transformational leaders provided individualized consideration, followers responded positively by demonstrating more innovative workplace behavior (Abbas et al., 2012), and lower levels of psychological strain (Franke & Felfe, 2011). Individualized consideration has also been found to have a positive direct effect on follower organizational citizenship behaviors (Cho & Dansereau, 2010).

Nevertheless, examples exist where individualized consideration was not related to positive organizational outcomes. For example, individualized consideration was positively related to relational conflicts in the workplace (Doucet et al., 2009). Furthermore, group creativity was negatively related to individualized consideration in online environments (Sosik et al., 1998).

Demographic Variables and Transformational Leadership

Gender and transformational leadership

The relationship between gender and transformational leadership has been the subject of numerous studies (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Generally, studies have focused on whether men and women lead differently, and in particular, if there are characteristics of leadership that tend to apply to one sex more frequently (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The

analysis of gender-specific leadership characteristics relative to shifts in organizational structures has also been noteworthy (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Shifts in organizations have tended to be toward team orientation and interdependency, with increased empowerment tending to favor transformational leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Rosener (1990) found that traditionally women have tended to be interactive in their leadership style, while men have shown a more transactional approach. Transformational leadership served as an effective channel for women to fill both leadership and gender roles (Manning, 2002). However, based on organizational shifts, both men and women have equally employed transformational leadership behaviors effectively; the key determinant has been personal fit and effectiveness (Rosener, 1990).

Previous studies have found that women generally possess and employ transformational leadership more frequently than men (e.g., Bass & Avolio, 1994, Bass, Avolio, & Atwater, 1996; Druskat, 1994; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003). In addition to overall transformational leadership characteristics, women have also been found to have a more positive orientation toward particular transformational leadership factors. For example, Bass et al. (1996), and Bass and Avolio (1994), found that women tended to have higher levels of charisma (idealized influence) and individualized consideration than men. These findings have been consistent with similar studies conducted in the Roman Catholic Church (Druskat, 1994) public school principals (Eagly, Karau, & Johnson, 1992), undergraduate students (Lopez-Zafra, Garcia-Retamero, & Martos, 2012), and managers in mid-size to large-size corporations (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Brandt & Laiho, 2013).

However, the gender-based results that have consistently found females to demonstrate higher transformational leadership characteristics may also have been related to local expectations, power and status variances between men and women, and the context in which the relationships were examined (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). Specifically, recent research has shown that gender and leadership may have also been impacted by perceptions of gender stereotype (Kark, Waismel-Manor, & Shamir, 2012).

In a study of leadership effectiveness Kark et al. (2012) found that effectiveness was more strongly related to femininity versus masculinity. However, men were perceived to be more effective leaders when they exhibited masculine traits while leading other men (Kark et al., 2012). The net result of this research indicated that both men and women are perceived as effective leaders; however, when leading teams of both men and women, a combination of both masculine and feminine traits may result in the highest overall perceptions of leadership (Kark et al., 2012).

Maher (1997) found that ratings of transformational leadership were impacted by whether the follower was male or female. Findings showed stereotypical males and stereotypical female leaders were rated differently, depending on whether the respondent was male or female; specifically, female respondents tended to rate leadership performance differently, depending on whether the leader acted consistent with gender stereotypes (Maher, 1997). As it relates to leadership performance, Saad and Sackett (2002) found that in a military environment leadership performance was over predicted for women but not for men, specifically because performance criteria tended to align with female leadership stereotypes.

Age and transformational leadership

Little research has been conducted examining the relationship between age and transformational leadership (Zacher, Rosing, & Frese, 2011). Nonetheless, age has been shown to be negatively related to transformational leadership, including both the charisma (idealized influence and inspirational motivation) and intellectual stimulation factors (Zacher et al., 2011). Zacher et al. (2011) also found that follower perceptions of transformational leadership also appeared to be a function of age difference between leader and follower.

In a study of team performance Kearney (2008), found performance was positively related to transformational leadership when the team leader was older than their followers; however, the performance effect was reduced when the team leader was approximately the same age as their followers. Additionally, Tucker, Turner, Barling, and McEvoy (2010) found team and individual aggression in youth sports were negatively related to the transformational leadership level of the coach. Furthermore, Zacharatos, Barling, and Kelloway (2000) found that parental transformational leadership was predictive of adolescent child transformational leadership. However, somewhat contrary to the findings of Kearney (2008), Zacharatos et al. (2001) found subsequent levels of adolescent transformational leadership was predictive of peer satisfaction, perceptions of effectiveness, and expended effort.

Race/ethnicity and transformational leadership

Transformational leadership has been researched in a number of cultural contexts; however, the majority of existing research has focused on Caucasian males in the United States (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). Nevertheless, when the behaviors associated with transformational leadership have been examined under different cultural

contexts, they have been found to be universally applicable (Ayman & Korabik, 2010; Bass, 1997; Mohammed, Othman, & D'Silva, 2012).

The charismatic aspect of transformational leadership has been most frequently associated with leadership effectiveness, regardless of cultural context (Gandolfi, 2012). Additionally, the charismatic leader has been generally associated with a prototypical leader, regardless of culture (Gandolfi, 2012). For example, Reuver and Woerkom (2009) found that transformational leadership led to higher performance ratings of leaders in an intercultural context.

However, a number of contradictory studies have found that context has been consistently a moderating variable between transformational leadership and effectiveness. For example, the cultural trait of uncertainty avoidance was negatively related to transformational leadership (Ergeneli, Gohar, & Temirbekova, 2007). Additionally, Lisak and Erez (2009) found that in multicultural teams transformational leadership was only associated with improved communication, team identity, and overall effectiveness when leaders were also high in global identity. Furthermore, when organizations from different countries (Japan and the United States) entered into joint value creation agreements or alliances transformational leadership was negatively related to innovation (Osborn & Marion, 2009).

Agreeableness

Agreeableness has been included as part of the Five Factor Model (FFM) of personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992). The FFM is composed of the following primary personality constructs: Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism (Costa & McCrae, 1995). The agreeableness trait is comprised of six facets: trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty and tender-

mindedness (Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991). Individuals high in agreeableness tended to be helpful, supportive, considerate, and honest (Driskell, Goodwin, Salas, & O'Shea, 2006). Each of the facets has been expected to uniquely contribute to the overall personality construct, as well as evaluations of performance (Hough & Ones, 2001). In particular, facet level agreeableness data has been expected to provide a more reliable performance prediction when compared to the broader FFM agreeableness construct (Hough & Ones, 2001).

Multiple studies, and subsequent meta-analysis, have shown the FFM of personality had predictive qualities related to individual performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, et al., 2001; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Schmidt & Hunter, 1992; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991). Performance in previous studies included measures of leadership effectiveness and career success (Judge, 1999; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). In an attempt to better operationalize the analysis of the five constructs, taxonomies have been established (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991; Goldberg, 1981). The five constructs are each comprised of six unique facets (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

While the FFM has been widely accepted in the literature as a predictive measure of organizational performance, criticisms of the personality-based approach have been made. For example, Guion and Gottier (1965) found personality studies to have negligible relationships with observed outcomes. More recently, the FFM taxonomy has been questioned in its ability to adequately address comprehensive organizational behaviors and performance (McAdams, 1992). To address some of these concerns, one must consider that the source of some of these issues may not be with

the FFM but rather with incompatibility between independent variable (FFM) and measure of performance (Cronbach & Gleser, 1957). More simply, broad constructs better predicted broad criteria, and narrow facets better predicted narrow criteria, also known as the bandwidth-fidelity debate (John, Hampson, & Goldberg, 1991; Moon & Livne, 2011). From this perspective, “weak relations among broad measures obscured important linkages at the specific level, including several cases of cancellation (i.e. specific traits loading on the same factor in the same direction correlated with criteria in opposite directions)” (Tett, Steele, & Beauregard, 2003 p.335).

Facet Level Analysis

To address the criticism, numerous scholars have called for the investigation of facet level personality items relative to the criteria of interest (Barrick et al., 2001; Hough, 1997; Hough, Oswald, & Ployhart, 2001; Murphy & Dziewczynski, 2005; Ones et al., 2007; Moon, 2011; Thomason et al., 2011). Subsequent studies have shown that examining the facets has provided supplementary value and clarity to the specific performance contributions. For example, in a study by Thomason et al. (2011) managerial performance was incrementally predicted by the facets of conscientiousness beyond the construct of conscientiousness. Additionally, managerial performance was incrementally predicted by dominance (a facet of extraversion) beyond the construct of extraversion (Ones et al., 2007). Finally, a comprehensive meta-analysis found that performance across a number of criteria was incrementally predicted by the facets of conscientiousness beyond the construct of conscientiousness (Dudley, Orvis, Lebiecki, & Cortina, 2006). In a review of 11 previous studies Rothstein and Goffin (2006) found that facet-level personality data outperformed, or provided incremental validity, beyond construct-level data in all cases. Kausel and Slaughter (2011) identified two reasons

facet-level data contributed additional value over construct-level data. First, construct scores obscured important facet level details and second, “predictive validity increases when the predictor and the criterion are thematically linked, and specificity bolsters the advantage by refining conceptual linkages” (Kausel & Slaughter, 2011 p.11). Although facets have been shown to have additional predictive validity when appropriately aligned to performance criteria, the use of facet-level data must be grounded in robust theoretical underpinnings, otherwise results and analysis may suffer from randomness, and erroneous results may be misinterpreted as significant (Dudley et al., 2006).

While the FFM facets have been shown to contribute uniquely to predicting performance, these facets may share certain characteristics. Consequently, subsequent analysis will likely identify relationships between the facets, as well as agreeableness (Dudley et al., 2006). From a linguistics and lexical perspective there are certain interpretations and definition limitations that have been impossible to remove completely (Cattell, 1943; Moon & Livne, 2011). It has been appropriate to acknowledge this potential concern, but also necessary to compartmentalize the issue and continue with the expectation that such relationships have been natural and expected and should not serve as an impediment to conducting facet level analysis (Costa & McCrae, 1995).

Agreeableness is comprised of six facets: trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty and tender-mindedness (Costa et al., 1991). Driskell, Goodwin, Salas, and O’Shea (2006) found that individuals that are high on agreeableness tend to be helpful, supportive, considerate, and honest. Each of the facets is expected to uniquely contribute to the overall personality construct, as well as evaluations of performance (Costa et al., 1991).

Facets of Agreeableness

Trust

Trust is one of the classic personality variables (Erikson, 1950) and has been defined as “the tendency to attribute benevolent intent to others; distrust as the suspicion that others are dishonest or dangerous” (Costa et al., 1991 p.888). Norman assigned trust as the first descriptive adjective to the agreeableness construct (Costa et al., 1991). Trustworthy individuals have been shown to be predisposed to believe that others have positive motives and are honest about those motives (Costa et al., 1991). An ability to trust has been shown to directly impact employees’ ability to free the cognitive resources necessary to focus on their tasks, versus focusing on self-protective behaviors (Mayer & Gavin, 2005). Trust, viewed as a set of positive expectations, has been examined extensively in the literature (Cook & Wall, 1980; Lewicki & Bunker, 1995; McAllister, 1995).

McAllister (1995) found that effective organizational operations relied on the coordinated efforts of independent individuals working together as social networks. Social networks of individuals were found to be the driver behind organizational activity (Bradach & Eccles, 1989; Fichman & Levinthal, 1991; Larson, 1992). Trust between individuals within social networks has been shown to be a determining factor in organizational success (Pennings & Woiceshyn, 1987; Seabright, Leventhal, & Finchman, 1992). Dirks and Ferrin (1999) found that groups with high levels of trust had higher motivation, increased cooperation, and better performance than groups with lower levels of trust. Intra-team trust, or the shared perceptions of trust the individual team members have towards their teammates, has been found to be fundamental to the effective performance of teams (De Jong & Elfring, 2010). De Jong and Elfring (2010)

found that although trust resides within the individual, team performance was affected by team monitoring and effort at the generalized intra-team trust level; consequently, intra-team trust positively impacted team performance. Similarly, Zaheer, McEvily, and Perrone, (1998) found performance of inter-organizational relationships was positively related to trust.

Straightforwardness

Straightforwardness has been defined as frankness and directness when interacting with others (Costa et al., 1991). Low straightforwardness was highly correlated with admissions of dishonesty (Paunonen & Nicol, 2001). However, in combination with high extraversion, low straightforwardness has been perceived as leadership, a typically positive perception (Piedmont & Weinstein, 1994). Based on these contradictory findings, the importance of the straightforwardness facet has been unclear.

As indicated, Paunonen and Nicol (2001) found that individuals high in straightforwardness were more likely to be honest than those low in straightforwardness; a positive characteristic. The opposite pole of straightforwardness has been characterized as Machiavellianism, or a willingness to engage in duplicitous or dishonest acts (Costa et al., 1991). Paulhus and Williams (2002) found that Machiavellianism was negatively correlated to agreeableness. However, facet level analysis was not conducted, leaving an unexplored avenue for further investigation. Although generally considered to be negative, Machiavellian tendencies of both managers and subordinates have not been shown to provide additional predictive validity to perceptions of control in either task or relationship dimensions (Durand & Nord, 1976). From a contradictory perspective, Drory and Gluskinos (1980) found

evidence to suggest that the Machiavellian characteristic manifested in a negative manner depending on context. For example, when individuals with a strong disposition for Machiavellianism were placed in a group situation they tended to give more orders and to be less concerned with reducing group tension (Drory & Gluskinos, 1980).

Altruism

Altruism has been defined as selflessness and a concern for others, especially in a considerate and courteous manner, as opposed to more obvious self-sacrifice (Costa et al., 1991). Altruism motivation has been defined as “the self-initiated desire to work for the benefit of others, without expectation of external rewards sufficient to justify the desire” (Deckop, 1995 p.359). As such, certain individuals will be more or less motivated to perform for altruistic motives, rather than extrinsic or pay based ones (Deckop, 1995).

Jaros, Jermier, Kowhler, and Sincich (1993) found that individuals high in dispositional altruism established higher levels of moral commitment that appealed to their altruism motivation. Moral commitments have been defined as “the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through internalization of its goals, values, and missions” (Jaros, Jermier, Kowhler, & Sincich, 1993 p.955). High levels of moral commitment linked altruism motivation to pro-social organization behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) and organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988).

Organizational citizenship behaviors directed at the individual level have been more likely to be observed and appreciated by co-workers or peers, with observations by supervisors or evaluating managers occurring less frequently (Thomason et al., 2011). However, Barksdale and Werner's (2001) found that altruism, and in role

behavior, were significant predictors of overall performance and therefore recognized by supervisors.

Compliance

Individuals with a disposition towards compliance tended to defer to others and are willing to cooperate rather than being confrontational when conflict occurs (Costa et al., 1991). Costa et al. (1991) found that the opposite of compliance is aggression. Individuals high in aggression tend to be antagonistic, vindictive, and quarrelsome (Costa et al., 1991). Driskell et al. (2006) found that when an individual had a disposition towards compliance and compliant behaviors they tended to be willing to follow the directives of supervisors and were generally seen as cooperative. Subsequently, when individuals were more compliant and followed directives thoroughly, they tended to perform their charged duties with greater accuracy (Greene, 1972).

Drawing on the theory of planned behavior, Elliot, Armitage, and Baughan (2003) found that when individuals intended to comply with a directive and felt that they had the perceived control necessary to comply, they were much more likely to demonstrate compliant behavior. Elliot et al. (2003) found that intentionality (from an externally applied stimulus or predisposition) along with an environment, or context, that did not include perceived barriers resulted in a higher occurrence of the desired behavior.

Individuals with a tendency towards compliance have also been viewed as more cooperative (Driskell et al., 2006). Individuals low in compliance, or cooperation, have been considered to be more competitive, and competitive individuals have been shown to draw competitive behavior out in others (Kelley & Stahelski, 1970). In a study of organizations, Kelley and Stahelski (1970) found that when competitive individuals were placed in an interdependent team they influenced the team in a negative manner.

Furthermore, Driskell et al. (2006) found that through competitive nature, individuals did not always act in a manner that was best for the group, and also elicited competitive behavior from otherwise cooperative teammates.

Modesty

Modest, or humble, individuals have tended not to be preoccupied with themselves (Costa et al., 1991). Modesty has been viewed as “a positive human virtue, one that produces social betterment” (Bright, Cameron, & Caza, 2006 p.251). It has also been identified as a core organizational virtue (Owens & Hekman, 2012), one that leads to exceptional performance, altruistic behaviors, and prosocial behaviors (Cameron & Caza, 2004). From a historical perspective, the idea that modesty has been foundational to leading a virtuous life has been well established (Morris, Brotherridge, & Urbanski, 2005). “Happiness and freedom begin with a clear understanding of one principle: Some things are within our control, and some things are not” (Epictetus, 1995 p.3). Morris et al. (2005) found that modesty or humility was not a lack of confidence or ability, but rather a persistent orientation towards objectively appraising one’s abilities and limitations. Individuals that were modest and high in humility “are likely to avoid being competitive with others in a zero-sum game and to avoid disrespectful behaviors such as ridiculing, interrupting, or coercing others, they are more likely to form supportive relationships” (Morris et al., 2005 p.1341).

The importance of modesty has been further illustrated in research that shows individuals high in the modesty characteristic are less likely to exploit or harm others (Lee, Gizzarone, & Ashton, 2003). Lee, Gizzarone, and Ashton (2003) found that individuals that were high in modesty were more likely to be aware of their own strengths and weaknesses, more supportive, and less likely to abuse coworkers.

Tender-mindedness

Tender-mindedness has been related to an individual's tendency to be guided by feelings (Costa et al., 1991). Costa et al. (1991) found that individuals high in tender-mindedness were concerned with others and were capable of expressing sympathy. Based on concern, tender-minded individuals tended to emphasize the human side of policies (Thomason et al., 2011). From an organizational perspective Costa and McCrae (1992) found that tender-minded individuals were good team players with strong cooperative tendencies.

Organizationally, tender-minded traits were frequently observed and appreciated by peers or coworkers, the individuals that were direct beneficiaries of such behaviors (Thomason et al., 2011). Given these positive collegial actions, peers tended to evaluate tender-minded individuals as higher performing, with the potential for future performance (Thomason et al., 2011). In a study of supervisors Thomason et al. (2011) found that supervisors were less likely to observe tender-minded behaviors, or to be the direct recipient of them, and were subsequently less likely to consider these behaviors when making performance or potential judgments.

Empirically, the value tender-minded or sympathetic individuals bring to groups has been observed. Baron (1984) conducted a laboratory study where a group was manipulated through the use of an actor introducing conflict into a team environment. When the actor explained his actions through the use of sympathetic statements, the group reported a significant increase to their positive mood. In the control group no sympathetic explanation for the conflict was provided. Subjects in this environment reported a stronger dislike for the actor and were more likely to attempt to avoid working in situations where conflict may arise in the future.

Individuals that are low in tender-mindedness have been shown to have a predisposition towards being competitive (Fletcher & Nusbaum, 2008). Although competitiveness (composed of self-aggrandizement and interpersonal success) has been shown to be negatively correlated to several facets of agreeableness, it is specifically related to tender-mindedness, based on a competitive individual's mistrust of others and lack of social concern (Houston, McIntire, Kinnie, & Terry, 2002). In a study of organizations Fletcher and Nusbaum (2008) found that in organizational situations, where group achievement and team success trumped individual accomplishment, a lack of sympathy and awareness was counterproductive.

Incremental Validity of Facets Beyond Constructs

Numerous studies have examined the relationship between FFM traits, or constructs, and constituent facets. Researchers have found that facets of FFM traits are highly correlated with the FFM trait. For example, Costa and McCrae (1995) found that each of the six agreeableness facets were correlated with the overall agreeableness construct between 0.44 and 0.69. However, contradictory studies found modest or limited correlations between these facets and the FFM trait. Specifically, Hough and Ones (2001) found that the FFM is an inadequate taxonomy, because each of the constructs consists of facets that are individually valid based on criteria. These conflicting findings have indicated that no consensus within the field existed, and further, more structured measurement and analysis were required (Piedmont & Weinstein, 1993).

The simplicity and ease with which the FFM has been employed at the construct level in research has been shown to come at the expense of performance and behavior specificity (Tett et al., 1991). This acknowledgment emphasized the need to make

appropriate trait-performance linkages, thus mitigating the potential for erroneous results as a consequence of construct level application to situations that would benefit from facet level analysis (Tett et al., 1991). The congruence of trait to performance measurement has been a consistent theme in the literature (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1996). However, the ability to appropriately gauge and align items has been shown to be challenging and often inaccurate (Tett & Christiansen, 2007). Instead of attempting to align items at an aggregate or broad level Rothestein and Goffin (2006) found evidence indicating that facet level data better predicted performance. This predication was due in large part to the multidimensionality of the main FFM constructs (Rothestein & Goffin, 2006).

Facets level analysis has been shown to add significant incremental validity to broader trait constructs (Dudley et al., 2006; Mershon & Gorsuch, 1988; Stewart, 1999). Dudley et al. (2006) found that facets provided incremental performance prediction above and beyond the overall conscientiousness construct. Paunonen and Nicol (2001) demonstrated that, of the FFM constructs, dishonesty was best predicted by agreeableness. However, of the constituent facets only straightforwardness accounted for the majority of the agreeableness predictive power (Dudley et al., 2006). The other facets were negligible in their contributions (for example tender-mindedness was only correlated at -0.13). Dudley et al. (2006) found that the trend in the literature has been to move beyond bivariate correlations has been supported by the proposal to examine the incremental validity of facets on performance beyond construct correlations.

Demographic Variables and Agreeableness

Gender and agreeableness

In general, research has shown personality differences are relatively small between men and women (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001). However, in a meta-analysis of all personality-related research conducted between 1940 and 1992, Feingold (1994) found statistically significant differences between men and women, especially at the facet level. Specifically, women tended to be more trusting and have higher levels of tender-mindedness (Feingold, 1994). Costa et al. (2001) found that women tended to exhibit a stronger tendency toward being agreeable in general. Eysenck, Eysenck, and Barrett (1995) found men tended to be more aggressive and less empathetic. Furthermore, levels of agreeableness have been shown to have differential effects between men and women related to counterproductive work behaviors (Gonzalez-Mulé, DeGeest, Kiersch, & Mount, 2013). Specifically, agreeableness negatively predicted counterproductive work behaviors for men, but not for women (Gonzalez-Mulé et al., 2013).

The tendency for men and women to have behaved in this manner may be due to gender stereotypes of socially desirable and undesirable traits (Gerber, 2009; Woods & Hampson, 2010). In particular, research has shown that women typically exhibited expressive traits (agreeableness) behaviors that are interpersonally oriented, focusing on harmony and the needs of others (Gerber, 2009). Men tended to act in a more instrumental-assertive manner, focusing more on tasks and less on relationships (Gerber, 2009). Gerber (2009) found that for both men and women these findings were due to social constructs and stereotypes, in addition to pure psychological personality disposition.

Age and agreeableness

Extensive research has found that personality and age appear to be related (Terracciano, McCrae, & Costa, 2010). For example, Chan et al. (2012) found that older members of a community were consistently perceived to have higher levels of agreeableness, regardless of culture. Similarly, agreeableness was found to increase, regardless of age, starting from middle teen years beyond age 70 (Allemand, Zimprich, & Hertzog, 2007; Allemand, Zimprich, & Hendriks, 2008; Lucas & Donnellan, 2009). This finding was consistent with research that found agreeableness increased from adolescence (13 to 17 years old) to early adulthood (19 to 23 years old) (Ryan, 2009).

Other studies have found that personality stabilizes during middle adulthood, at approximately 30 years old, with very little inter-individual variation over time (Terracciano, McCrae, & Costa, 2010). Nonetheless, during the developmental period from adolescence to middle adulthood the personality trait of agreeableness tended to increase (McCrae et al., 1999).

Race/ethnicity and agreeableness

Personality has been described as a direct consequence of culture, specifically, personality has been developed based on social interactions, social interactions have been generally determined by social norms, and social norms have been dictated by culture (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). Consequently, culture has been found to have a relationship to personality (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). To the contrary, other researches have found that differences in personality based on culture have been more subtle when measured using an alternate personality measures (Allik, 2005).

Nonetheless, the personality trait of agreeableness, as measured by the NEO-PI-R, has been found to negatively predict uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede & McCrae,

2004). In cultures that tolerate more uncertainty, individuals tended to rate themselves as more agreeable (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). Additional studies have found agreeableness to be related to a number of other cultural dimensions, including lower power distance between superiors and subordinates, lower conservatism, higher levels of individualism, and higher levels of affective autonomy (McCrae & Terracciano, 2005).

Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Agreeableness

The relationship between transformational leadership and agreeableness has been investigated previously. Judge and Bono (2000) analyzed the relationship between the FFM and transformational leadership in a population of community leadership program participants (2000). The researchers found that agreeableness was positively related to all four factors of transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Additionally, agreeableness was positively predictive of overall transformational leadership. Furthermore, four of the agreeableness facets were also found to be correlated with transformational leadership: trust, straightforwardness, altruism, and tender-mindedness (Judge and Bono, 2000).

A meta-analysis of 26 personality and transformational leadership studies reported relationships between agreeableness and transformational leadership (Bono & Judge, 2004). Specifically, agreeableness was positively related to transformational leadership ,as well as transformational leadership factors: charisma (combined idealized influence and inspirational motivation), intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bono & Judge, 2004). These findings were consistent with those of Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt (2002) who found that agreeableness was weakly correlated to leadership. Based on the generally weak relationships found between

transformational leadership and trait level agreeableness, Bono and Judge (2004) identified the “importance of future research to focus on both narrower personality traits and non-dispositional determinants of transformational and transactional leadership” (p. 901).

Conceptual Model

Based on the review of the existing literature, a conceptual model of the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership has been proposed (Figure 2-1). The model synthesized transformational leadership, including the four constituent factors (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) (Bass, 1985), with the personality trait of agreeableness, including the six facets (trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tender-mindedness) (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Additionally, the role of gender, ethnicity, and age have been included as demographic variables.

Synopsis

Chapter 2 reviewed the existing research on transformational leadership, including the factors of transformational leadership including idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Additionally, the existing research on the personality trait of agreeableness was reviewed, including the facets of agreeableness including trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tender-mindedness, as well as the incremental validity of facets beyond the broader constructs. Furthermore, gender differences in transformational leadership and agreeableness, race/ethnicity differences in transformational leadership and agreeableness, age differences in transformational leadership and agreeableness, and the relationship between transformational

leadership and agreeableness were reviewed. Additionally, a conceptual model was proposed as the basis for the study.

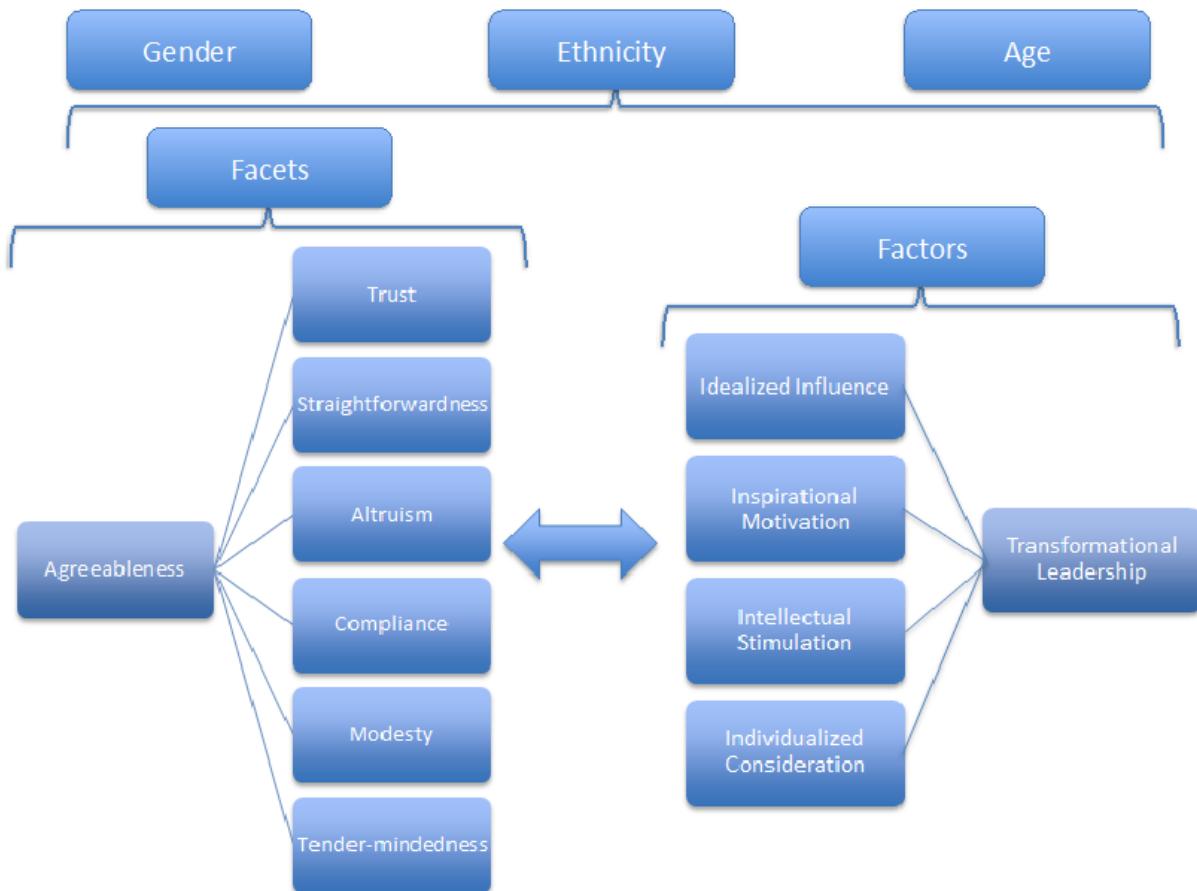


Figure 2-1. Model of relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between the personality trait of agreeableness and transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students. This research study addressed the following research objectives:

1. Describe the levels of agreeableness in undergraduate leadership students.
2. Describe the levels of transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.
3. Identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and agreeableness.
4. Identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and transformational leadership.
5. Identify the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.
6. Identify how agreeableness predicts transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.

Chapter 3 describes the methods used to investigate the research objectives identified.

Furthermore, Chapter 3 will address the research design, population and sample, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis.

The research perspective, or epistemology, of this study was based on positivism. Positivism is based on the belief that ordered and observable laws govern the social sciences, and that observation is the primary mechanism through which to identify and quantify such laws (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, Razavieh, 2010). Positivism is the source of quantitative research. Quantitative research is appropriate when the variables are represented as numbers or measured values (Ary et al., 2010);

consequently, a quantitative method was identified as most appropriate to investigate the research objectives identified.

Research Design

A descriptive correlational research design was utilized for this study. “Correlational research methods are used to assess relationships among variables in a single group of subjects” (Ary et al., 2010, p. 351). The correlational research design includes: identifying variables of interest, a population of interest, appropriate measures of variables, and data analysis (Ary et al., 2010).

The first step in a correlational study is identifying of variables of interest and the nature of the relationship between the variables. Generally, hypotheses related to the relationship between variables are grounded in theory to avoid the misinterpretation of relationships based on random chance (Ary et al., 2010). In this case the variables of interest were transformational leadership and agreeableness.

After variables of interest are identified the population of interest is determined, specifically, the group of individuals in which the variables will be measured and analyzed (Ary et al., 2010). The population of interest for this study was undergraduate leadership students.

Once variables and the population are identified, the instruments through which the variables of interest will be measured are determined (Ary et al., 2010). In quantitative research the validity and reliability of instrumentation is critical (Ary et al., 2010). To minimize limitations associated with findings, two previously established measures were employed. Transformational leadership was measured using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass and Avolio (1995).

Agreeableness was measured using the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP-NEO) instrument developed by Johnson (2011).

Based on the research design the researcher identified potential threats to measurement, sampling, internal validity and non-response error. In particular selection bias and confounding were identified as the two primary threats to internal validity. The threat of selection bias was addressed through the use of an entire class included in the research (Ary et al., 2010). Because the research was conducted with a convenience sample, results are not generalizable beyond the sampled population. Consequently, any selection bias related to students in a leadership class versus those not in a leadership class was not applicable. The second threat to internal validity was confounding. Based on the dynamic nature of human personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992) multiple independent variables may have interacted and influenced observations on the dependent variable (Ary et al., 2010). To minimize confounding the researcher employed pre-existing measures of agreeableness and transformational leadership.

After data were collected, appropriate statistical techniques were used to analyze and interpret the results (Ary et al., 2010). The correlation between transformational leadership and agreeableness was calculated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, as it “is the most widely used descriptive statistic of correlation” (Ary et al., 2010, p. 353). Correlations require a number of assumptions to be satisfied for results to be interpretable (Agresti & Finlay, 2009). First, a simple random sample is required. This assumption was addressed by including all individuals in class on a particular day in the sample. Next, a quantitative response is required. This assumption was addressed by the use of a five-point Likert-type scale, resulting in quantitative,

linear relationship between the two variables and a minimum of interval data responses. Regression analysis was performed to determine the magnitude and directionality of the relationship (Ary et al., 2010) between transformational leadership and agreeableness. Regression analysis also requires a number of assumptions to be satisfied prior to interpretation of results (Agresti & Finlay, 2009). The first two assumptions, a simple random sample and a quantitative response, were addressed previously. Additionally, assumptions around the normality of the distribution of error terms and of the response (dependent) variable must be addressed. These assumptions were addressed by analyzing plots of the error terms and response variable, both sets of data were found to satisfy the assumptions regarding normality of distribution.

Population and Sample

The population for this study was undergraduate leadership students. A convenience sample was employed and included students enrolled in the leadership development course in the spring semester of 2013. The sample was limited to those students attending class on April 17, 2013 ($n = 65$). The course selected was AEC3414, Leadership Development, which was a requirement for the university-wide leadership minor. The selection of a single core class within the population of interest ensured the researcher was able to access the population without the risk of respondent duplication. Convenience sampling of college students is frequently used in psychology research (Peterson, 2001) and was appropriate given the population of interest.

Ideally, a census or comprehensive sample would have been employed with all undergraduate leadership students (Ary et al., 2010); however, based on the time associated with this approach, this approach was determined to be impractical for the purposes of this study. Using an alpha value of .05 and a moderate correlation value of

0.30, based on Davis' (1971) convention, a minimum of 47 respondents was necessary to calculate the Pearson product moment correlation (Agresti & Finlay, 2009). A single class with 60 respondents was determined to be sufficient to run the proposed inferential statistics.

Instrumentation

The study employed two primary questionnaires to gather respondent levels of transformational leadership and agreeableness. The use of previously established measures significantly improves data validity and reliability (Ary et al, 2010). Demographic data were obtained through participant self-report.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Participants self-reported their transformational leadership characteristics using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X-Short (MLQ) (Avolio & Bass, 1995). The 45-item instrument included questions for each transformational leadership factor: eight idealized influence items (four attributed items and four behavior items), four inspirational motivation items, four intellectual stimulation items, and four individual consideration items. Additionally, the MLQ measures contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), management-by-exception (passive) and Laissez-faire leadership. Only those items specifically related to transformational leadership factors were analyzed. Questions were established on a five-point Likert-type scale and included the following options: 0 – *Not at all*, 1 – *Once in a while*, 2 – *Sometimes*, 3 – *Fairly often*, 4 – *Frequently, if not always*. The MLQ was identified as the preferred measure to gather transformational leadership data, due to its frequency of use in the empirical literature to measure transformational leadership, as well as its high validity and reliability characteristics (Bass & Riggio, 2006). For example, Antonakis, Avolio,

and Sivasubramaniam (2003) found that model fit of the MLQ was adequate with root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) values below .08 and comparative fit index (CFI) values above .90, regardless of context. Furthermore, Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1999) found coefficient alpha values ranging from .78 to .92 for each of the MLQ factors. Both studies were conducted using pooled responses with over 3000 respondents each. A limitation of using the MLQ with undergraduate students is that findings have been inconsistent (e.g. Mahar, 2004; Schriesheim, C.; Wu, J.; Scandura, T., 2009). The MLQ is typically administered to an audience with experience in leadership roles, undergraduates may have very limited job or leadership experience to draw upon when responding to the questionnaire (Mahar, 2004). Nonetheless, for instructional purposes with undergraduate students, the MLQ has been shown to be an appropriate tool for gathering results and discussing implications (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

IPIP-NEO

Agreeableness was measured using the IPIP-NEO, specifically the version developed by Johnson (2011). Individuals responded to four statements per agreeableness facet, or 24 statements total. Individuals indicated their response on a five-point, Likert-type scale. Possible responses to each item included: 1 – *Strongly Disagree*, 2 – *Disagree*, 3 – *Neutral*, 4 – *Agree*, 5 – *Strongly Agree*. The measure was based on the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) established by Goldberg et al. (2006). The measure was selected based on reliability characteristics with coefficient alpha values greater than .70 previously observed for each facet construct (Johnson, 2011). Based on established social science research standards, a Cronbach's alpha of .70 or greater is considered sufficient (Cortina, 1993; Schmitt, 1996; Streiner, 2003).

Data Collection

Before data were collected the researcher submitted a proposal to conduct the research with the University of Florida Institutional Review Board (IRB). A research proposal and informed consent document were submitted to the IRB-02 (UF Campus/Non Medical) office for review. Approval was obtained for protocol U-924-2012 on January 31, 2013.

Following IRB approval the researcher contacted the instructor of a large undergraduate leadership course to assess the potential to conduct research during a regularly scheduled class period. The instructor agreed to allow the research to occur, and a date for administering the questionnaire was scheduled - April 17, 2013. Individuals received no compensation or course credit for participating in the study.

On April 17, 2013 the researcher attended the class and verbally introduced himself, the questionnaire, and reason for the research. The researcher then identified the informed consent form and alerted the class that if they chose to participate in the study they would need to read and sign the form. The researcher asked the participants to respond to the questions based on their typical interactions with others. No specific limitations were placed on whether the interaction was professional, academic, or social. The researcher then distributed a paper-based questionnaires to all individuals in the class that day ($n = 65$), 61 questionnaires were returned for a 94% response rate, one response was incomplete resulting in a total of 60 usable questionnaires and an effective response rate of 92%. The researcher requested that the instructor enquire about the four missing questionnaires during the next class. No additional questionnaires were returned to the researcher after April 17, 2013. The questionnaire took approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Data Analysis

Data were manually entered from the paper based surveys into an online survey tool, Qualtrics. Once data were entered into the online tool, results were run and subsequently analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21. Descriptive statistics were calculated to determine the level of agreeableness and transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students (Ary et al., 2010). Next, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the magnitude of the relationship between transformational leadership, agreeableness, and respondent demographic characteristics. The Pearson product-moment correlation was also used to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference in level of transformational leadership or level of agreeableness based on respondent gender, race/ethnicity, or age (Agresti & Finlay, 2009). Similarly, factors of transformational leadership and facets of agreeableness were analyzed to determine if a correlation existed (Agresti & Finlay, 2009). Finally, regression analysis was completed to determine if any agreeableness or demographic characteristics accounted for any of the variation in transformational leadership (Agresti & Finlay, 2009). Specifically, sequential multiple regression using block entry techniques were employed (Keith, 2006). The purpose of the regression was to determine whether agreeableness had an effect of transformational leadership after controlling for the effects of demographic characteristics. To accomplish this purpose, respondent scores on transformational leadership were regressed on demographic variables in block one to control for demographics, overall agreeableness or the six facets of agreeableness were then included in block two.

Synopsis

Chapter 3 described the methodology employed to study the relationship between transformational leadership and agreeableness in undergraduate leadership students. The research was conducted using a descriptive correlational design. The population of interest was undergraduate leadership students, and a convenience sample of students in a single undergraduate leadership course was utilized. Instruments that have been previously established as valid and reliable were used to collect data on transformational leadership and agreeableness. Data were collected through a paper-based questionnaire that the researcher distributed during a regularly scheduled class period. Data obtained were subsequently analyzed using appropriate statistical techniques.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

Overview

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the personality trait of agreeableness and transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students. The research objectives for the study were to:

1. Describe the levels of agreeableness in undergraduate leadership students.
2. Describe the levels of transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.
3. Identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and agreeableness.
4. Identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and transformational leadership.
5. Identify the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.
6. Identify how agreeableness predicts transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.

Chapter 4 provides the results of the research study. A review of overall response data is presented. Furthermore, results are presented based on study objectives.

Demographics

The population for this study was undergraduate leadership students in a southern land grant institution. A convenience sample was employed and included students enrolled in the leadership development course in the spring semester of 2013. Convenience sampling includes selecting a sample based on access and availability (Ary et al., 2010). The sample was limited to those students attending class on April 17, 2013 ($n = 65$). The sample was 36.7% ($n = 22$) male (identified with a value of 1) and 60.0% ($n = 36$) female (identified with a value of 2) (Table 4-1). The average age of

respondents was 21 ($M = 20.5$, $SD = 1.2$), with a range of ages between 18 and 24. Respondent were grouped in to three age groups: 18 to 19 years, 20 to 21 years, and 22 to 24 years. Age categories were established based on whether respondent age was less than one standard deviation from the mean, within one standard deviation of the mean, or greater than one standard deviation from the mean. There were 13 (21.7%) respondents in the 18 to 19 age category, 35 (58.3%) respondents in the 20 to 21 age category, and 11 (18.3%) of respondents in the 22 to 24 age category (Table 4-2).

The respondents represented all classes within the university, 8.3% ($n = 5$) freshman, 25.0% ($n = 15$) sophomore, 41.7% ($n = 25$) junior, 21.7% ($n = 13$) senior, and 1.7% ($n = 1$) graduate student (Table 4-3). Although the population of interest was undergraduate students the single graduate student respondent was included in subsequent analysis as they were enrolled in a leadership course intended for undergraduate students. Respondent class was not included in subsequent analysis, this variable was collected for descriptive purposes but was not considered germane to the objectives of the study.

From an ethnicity perspective, 15.0% ($n = 9$) of respondents identified themselves as Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) (Table 4-4). In regard to respondents' race, 75.4% ($n = 46$) identified themselves as White, 11.5% ($n = 7$) identified themselves as Black or African American, 6.6% ($n = 4$) identified themselves as Asian or Pacific Islander, and 6.6% ($n = 4$) identified themselves as Other (Table 4-5). The race question block allowed for respondents to select as many options as were applicable. One individual selected two options; consequently there are 61 responses across all race categories.

Table 4-1. Number of respondents by gender

| Gender | f | % |
|--------------|----|--------|
| Male | 22 | 36.70 |
| Female | 36 | 60.00 |
| Not Provided | 2 | 3.30 |
| Total | 60 | 100.00 |

Table 4-2. Number of respondents by age

| Age | f | % |
|---------------|----|--------|
| 18 – 19 years | 13 | 21.70 |
| 20 – 21 years | 35 | 58.30 |
| 22 – 24 years | 11 | 18.30 |
| Not Provided | 1 | 1.70 |
| Total | 60 | 100.00 |

Table 4-3. Number of respondents by class

| Age | f | % |
|------------------|----|--------|
| Freshman | 5 | 8.30 |
| Sophomore | 15 | 25.00 |
| Junior | 25 | 41.70 |
| Senior | 13 | 21.70 |
| Graduate Student | 1 | 1.70 |
| Not Provided | 1 | 1.70 |
| Total | 60 | 100.00 |

Table 4-4. Number of respondents by Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a)

| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | f | % |
|-------------------------------|----|--------|
| Yes | 9 | 15.00 |
| No | 51 | 85.00 |
| Total | 60 | 100.00 |

Table 4-5. Number of respondents by race

| Race | f | % |
|----------------------------------|---|-------|
| American Indian or Alaska Native | 0 | 0.00 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 6.56 |
| Black or African American | 7 | 11.48 |

Table 4-5. Continued

| | | |
|-------|----|--------|
| White | 46 | 75.41 |
| Other | 4 | 6.56 |
| Total | 61 | 100.00 |

Objective 1: Describe the Levels of Agreeableness in Undergraduate Leadership Students

Levels of agreeableness in undergraduate leadership students were calculated using the IPIP-NEO scoring key. IPIP-NEO agreeableness scale scores are based on a 1 to 5 scale. The facet of altruism had the highest mean score ($M = 4.32$, $SD = .51$). The facet of modesty had the lowest mean score ($M = 2.90$, $SD = .76$). The overall agreeableness trait had a minimum score of 2.50 and a maximum score of 4.63 ($M = 3.84$, $SD = .44$). The mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum scores for each facet of agreeableness (trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tender-mindedness) as well as overall trait agreeableness are presented in Table 4-6.

Table 4-6. Agreeableness scale scores

| Agreeableness Scale Scores | n | M | SD | Min | Max |
|----------------------------|----|------|------|------|------|
| Altruism | 60 | 4.32 | 0.51 | 3.00 | 5.00 |
| Straightforwardness | 60 | 4.26 | 0.61 | 2.25 | 5.00 |
| Compliance | 60 | 4.22 | 0.80 | 1.50 | 5.00 |
| Tender-mindedness | 60 | 3.83 | 0.77 | 2.25 | 5.00 |
| Trust | 60 | 3.52 | 0.74 | 1.00 | 4.75 |
| Modesty | 60 | 2.90 | 0.76 | 1.25 | 4.75 |
| Agreeableness Overall | 60 | 3.84 | 0.44 | 2.50 | 4.63 |

Objective 2: Describe the Levels of Transformational Leadership in Undergraduate Leadership Students

Levels of transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students were calculated using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) scoring key. MLQ

transformational leadership scale scores are based on a 0 to 4 scale. The factor of inspirational motivation had the highest mean score ($M = 3.37$, $SD = .50$). The factor of intellectual stimulation had the lowest mean score ($M = 3.07$, $SD = .55$). Overall transformational leadership had a minimum score of 2.15 and a maximum score of 3.95 ($M = 3.24$, $SD = .35$). The mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum scores for each factor of transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) as well as overall transformational leadership are presented in Table 4-7.

Table 4-7. Leadership style scale scores

| Leadership Style Scale Scores | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | Min | Max |
|--|----------|----------|-----------|------|------|
| Inspirational Motivation | 60 | 3.39 | 0.47 | 2.00 | 4.00 |
| Idealized Influence Behavior | 60 | 3.36 | 0.47 | 2.25 | 4.00 |
| Charisma (Idealized Influence and Inspirational Motivation) | 60 | 3.34 | 0.36 | 2.17 | 4.00 |
| Idealized Influence Combined | 60 | 3.31 | 0.38 | 2.00 | 4.00 |
| Idealized Influence Attributed | 60 | 3.26 | 0.46 | 1.75 | 4.00 |
| Individualized Consideration | 60 | 3.21 | 0.44 | 2.25 | 4.00 |
| Intellectual Stimulation | 60 | 3.08 | 0.55 | 1.50 | 4.00 |
| Transformational Leadership | | | | | |
| Overall | 60 | 3.26 | 0.33 | 2.50 | 3.95 |

Objective 3: Identify the Relationship Between Individual Demographic Characteristics and Agreeableness

Agreeableness scale scores were calculated based on respondent gender, age, and race/ethnicity. Additionally, relationships between respondent demographic characteristics and agreeableness were calculated using a bivariate correlational technique, specifically Pearson's product-moment correlation. Correlational results were evaluated according to Davis' (1971) convention. Davis' (1971) convention categorizes correlation coefficients into six categories (Table 4-8).

Table 4-8. Davis' convention for interpreting correlations (Davis, 1971)

| <i>r</i> | Description |
|-----------|-------------|
| 1.0 | Perfect |
| .70 - .99 | Very High |
| .50 - .69 | Substantial |
| .30 - .49 | Moderate |
| .10 - .29 | Low |
| .01 - .09 | Negligible |

Agreeableness and Gender

Levels of agreeableness were calculated based on respondent gender (Table 4-9). Males scored highest in altruism ($M = 4.38$, $SD = .38$) and lowest in modesty ($M = 2.67$, $SD = .65$). Females scored highest in compliance ($M = 4.43$, $SD = .58$) and lowest in modesty ($M = 3.04$, $SD = .82$). Compliance had the largest difference between males and females (.44), altruism had the smallest difference (.05). Females ($M = 3.92$, $SD = .44$) scored higher than males ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .43$) in overall agreeableness. Mean and standard deviations of all agreeableness items and gender are provided in Table 4-9.

Table 4-9. Agreeableness by gender

| | Gender | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|-----------------------|--------|----------|----------|-----------|
| Trust | Male | 22 | 3.70 | 0.77 |
| | Female | 36 | 3.42 | 0.66 |
| Straightforwardness | Male | 22 | 4.15 | 0.71 |
| | Female | 36 | 4.33 | 0.55 |
| Altruism | Male | 22 | 4.38 | 0.38 |
| | Female | 36 | 4.33 | 0.54 |
| Compliance | Male | 22 | 3.99 | 0.97 |
| | Female | 36 | 4.43 | 0.58 |
| Modesty | Male | 22 | 2.67 | 0.65 |
| | Female | 36 | 3.04 | 0.82 |
| Tender-mindedness | Male | 22 | 3.68 | 0.86 |
| | Female | 36 | 3.94 | 0.72 |
| Agreeableness Overall | Male | 22 | 3.76 | 0.43 |
| | Female | 36 | 3.92 | 0.44 |

Compliance is the only facet where the difference between males and females is statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level (Table 4-13). Furthermore, compliance had the strongest correlation ($r = .28$) between gender and agreeableness, according to Davis (1971) the magnitude of the correlation is categorized as low. The remaining correlations ranged from $r = -.19$ to $r = .23$, and are not statistically significant. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients and statistical significance between gender and agreeableness items are provided in Table 4-10.

Table 4-10. Intercorrelations among agreeableness, gender, age, ethnicity, and race

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
|---------------------------------|--------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|----|
| 1. Gender | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Age | -0.11 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Hispanic | 0.14 | -0.18 | - | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.07 | -0.06 | -0.11 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Black or African American | 0.27* | 0.02 | -0.15 | -0.10 | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. White | -0.32* | -0.08 | 0.02 | -0.16 | -0.63* | - | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Other | 0.07 | 0.05 | 0.45** | -0.07 | -0.10 | -0.31* | - | | | | | | | |
| 8. Trust | -0.19 | -0.16 | 0.04 | -0.08 | -0.15 | 0.28* | -0.03 | - | | | | | | |
| 9. Straight- forwardness | 0.14 | -0.14 | -0.04 | -0.11 | -0.03 | 0.22 | -0.31* | 0.18 | - | | | | | |
| 10. Altruism | -0.05 | -0.10 | 0.04 | -0.27* | -0.13 | 0.33* | -0.10 | 0.33* | 0.31* | - | | | | |
| 11. Compliance | 0.28* | -0.20 | -0.19 | -0.01 | 0.13 | 0.08 | -0.24 | 0.18 | 0.54** | 0.32* | - | | | |
| 12. Modesty | 0.23 | -0.11 | -0.05 | -0.01 | -0.06 | 0.00 | -0.03 | 0.03 | 0.27* | 0.20 | 0.31* | - | | |
| 13. Tender- mindedness | 0.16 | -0.10 | 0.02 | -0.21 | 0.27* | -0.06 | -0.03 | 0.21 | 0.45** | 0.42** | 0.47** | 0.07 | - | |
| 14. Overall Agreeableness | 0.17 | -0.21 | -0.06 | -0.16 | 0.03 | 0.19 | -0.19 | 0.51** | 0.71** | 0.63** | 0.76** | 0.51** | 0.69** | - |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Agreeableness and Age

Levels of agreeableness were calculated based on respondent age (Table 4-11).

Respondents age 18 to 19 years scored highest in compliance ($M = 4.56$, $SD = .47$) and lowest in modesty ($M = 3.00$, $SD = .95$). Respondents age 20 to 21 years scored highest in altruism ($M = 4.24$, $SD = .55$) and lowest in modesty ($M = 2.91$, $SD = .77$). Respondents age 22 to 24 years scored highest in straightforwardness ($M = 4.34$, $SD = .54$) and lowest in modesty ($M = 2.73$, $SD = .52$). Trust had the largest difference between age groups, specifically 18 to 19 years and 20 to 21 years (.42). Respondents in the 18 to 19 years ($M = 4.09$, $SD = .36$) scored highest in overall agreeableness. Respondents in the 22 to 24 years category ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .24$) scored in the middle in overall agreeableness. Respondents in the 20 to 21 years category ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .50$) scored lowest in overall agreeableness. Respondents in the 18 to 19 years category scored higher on all agreeableness items than did either of the other two age categories. Mean and standard deviations of all agreeableness items and age are provided in Table 4-11.

Table 4-11. Agreeableness by age

| | Age (years) | n | M | SD |
|---------------------|-------------|----|------|------|
| Trust | 18 - 19 | 13 | 3.83 | 0.63 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 3.41 | 0.75 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 3.43 | 0.75 |
| Straightforwardness | 18 - 19 | 13 | 4.50 | 0.52 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 4.13 | 0.64 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 4.34 | 0.54 |
| Altruism | 18 - 19 | 13 | 4.54 | 0.48 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 4.24 | 0.55 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 4.32 | 0.37 |
| Compliance | 18 - 19 | 13 | 4.56 | 0.47 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 4.15 | 0.88 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 4.16 | 0.71 |

Table 4-11. Continued

| | | | | |
|-----------------------|---------|----|------|------|
| Modesty | 18 - 19 | 13 | 3.00 | 0.95 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 2.91 | 0.77 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 2.73 | 0.52 |
| Tender-mindedness | 18 - 19 | 13 | 4.10 | 0.61 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 3.74 | 0.88 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 3.84 | 0.53 |
| Agreeableness Overall | 18 - 19 | 13 | 4.09 | 0.36 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 3.76 | 0.50 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 3.81 | 0.24 |

There are no statistically significant correlations between age and agreeableness (Table 4-10). Age had a negative low correlation to all agreeableness items. Compliance had the strongest correlation ($r = -.20$) between age and agreeableness at the facet level; overall agreeableness had the strongest correlation ($r = -.21$). The remaining correlations ranged from $r = -.10$ to $r = -.16$, and are not statistically significant. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients and statistical significance between age and agreeableness items are provided in Table 4-10.

Agreeableness and Race/Ethnicity

Levels of agreeableness were calculated based on respondent race/ethnicity (Table 4-12 and Table 4-13). First, levels of agreeableness were calculated based on respondent ethnicity, specifically whether a respondent considered themselves to be Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a). Respondents that considered themselves Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) scored highest in altruism ($M = 4.36$, $SD = .52$) and lowest in modesty ($M = 2.81$, $SD = .69$). The high and low items are consistent for respondents that did not consider themselves Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a). Altruism ($M = 4.31$, $SD = .51$) had the highest mean and modesty ($M = 2.92$, $SD = .78$) had the lowest mean. The largest difference between ethnic groups is found in the compliance facet (.42). Respondents considering themselves to be Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a)

($M = 3.78$, $SD = .56$) scored lower in overall agreeableness than those that did not ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .42$). Mean and standard deviations of all agreeableness items and ethnicity are provided in Table 4-12

There are no statistically significant correlations between ethnicity and agreeableness (Table 4-10). Compliance had the strongest correlation ($r = -.19$). The remaining correlations ranged from $r = -.06$ to $r = .04$, and are not statistically significant. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients and statistical significance between ethnicity and agreeableness items are provided in Table 4-10.

Table 4-12. Agreeableness by Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a)

| | Hispanic/ Latino(a)/ Chicano(a) | n | M | SD |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------------|----|------|------|
| Trust | No | 52 | 3.51 | 0.77 |
| | Yes | 9 | 3.58 | 0.56 |
| Straightforwardness | No | 52 | 4.27 | 0.57 |
| | Yes | 9 | 4.19 | 0.85 |
| Altruism | No | 52 | 4.31 | 0.51 |
| | Yes | 9 | 4.36 | 0.52 |
| Compliance | No | 52 | 4.28 | 0.71 |
| | Yes | 9 | 3.86 | 1.19 |
| Modesty | No | 52 | 2.92 | 0.78 |
| | Yes | 9 | 2.81 | 0.69 |
| Tender-mindedness | No | 52 | 3.83 | 0.75 |
| | Yes | 9 | 3.86 | 0.88 |
| Agreeableness Overall | No | 52 | 3.85 | 0.42 |
| | Yes | 9 | 3.78 | 0.56 |

Levels of agreeableness were also calculated based on respondent race (Table 4-13). Respondents indicated whether they considered themselves Asian or Pacific Islander, Black or African American, White, or Other. Respondents that considered themselves Asian or Pacific Islander scored highest in compliance ($M = 4.19$, $SD = .55$)

and lowest in modesty ($M = 2.88$, $SD = .78$). The high and low items are consistent for respondents that considered themselves Black or African American. The compliance facet ($M = 4.50$, $SD = .75$) is highest and the modesty facet ($M = 2.77$, $SD = .93$) is lowest. Respondents that considered themselves White scored highest in altruism ($M = 4.41$, $SD = .47$) and lowest in modesty ($M = 2.90$, $SD = .76$). The high and low items are consistent for respondents that considered themselves Other with compliance highest ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .48$) and modesty lowest ($M = 2.81$, $SD = .85$). Between groups overall agreeableness mean scores ranges from 3.53 to 3.89. Mean and standard deviations of all agreeableness items and race are provided in Table 4-13.

A number of statistically significant Pearson product-moment correlations are identified (Table 4-10). A positive moderate correlation between the category of White and altruism ($r = .33$) and a negative moderate correlation between the category of Other [race] and straightforwardness ($r = -.31$) are observed. A positive low correlation between the category of White and trust ($r = .28$), and the category of Black or African American and tender-mindedness ($r = .27$) are observed. A negative low correlation between the category of Asian or Pacific Islander and altruism ($r = -.27$) is also observed. All statistically significant observations are made at the $p < .05$ level. The remaining correlations ranged from $r = -.24$ to $r = .22$, and are not statistically significant. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients and statistical significance between race and agreeableness items are provided in Table 4-10.

Table 4-13. Agreeableness by race

| Race | n | M | SD |
|-------|---------------------------|---|----------------------|
| Trust | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 3.31 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 0.24 3.21 0.76 |

Table 4-13. Continued

| | | | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|----|------|------|
| | White | 46 | 3.64 | 0.66 |
| | Other | 4 | 3.44 | 0.55 |
| Straightforwardness | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 4.00 | 0.68 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 4.21 | 0.44 |
| | White | 46 | 4.33 | 0.60 |
| | Other | 4 | 3.56 | 1.03 |
| Altruism | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 3.81 | 0.13 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 4.14 | 0.66 |
| | White | 46 | 4.41 | 0.47 |
| | Other | 4 | 4.13 | 0.48 |
| Compliance | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 4.19 | 0.55 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 4.50 | 0.75 |
| | White | 46 | 4.25 | 0.80 |
| | Other | 4 | 3.50 | 1.49 |
| Modesty | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 2.88 | 0.78 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 2.77 | 0.93 |
| | White | 46 | 2.90 | 0.76 |
| | Other | 4 | 2.81 | 0.85 |
| Tender-mindedness | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 3.25 | 0.74 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 4.39 | 0.52 |
| | White | 46 | 3.81 | 0.73 |
| | Other | 4 | 3.75 | 1.14 |
| Agreeableness Overall | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 3.57 | 0.28 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 3.88 | 0.43 |
| | White | 46 | 3.89 | 0.41 |
| | Other | 4 | 3.53 | 0.66 |

Objective 4: Identify the Relationship Between Individual Demographic Characteristics and Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership scale scores were calculated based on respondent gender, age, and race/ethnicity. Additionally, relationships between respondent demographic characteristics and transformational leadership were calculated using a bivariate correlational technique, specifically Pearson product-moment correlation. Correlational results were evaluated according to Davis' (1971) convention.

Transformational Leadership and Gender

Levels of transformational leadership were calculated based on respondent gender (Table 4-14). Males scored highest in idealized influence - attributed ($M = 3.41$,

$SD = .33$) and lowest in intellectual stimulation ($M = 2.96$, $SD = .57$). Females scored highest in inspirational motivation ($M = 3.48$, $SD = .42$) and lowest in intellectual stimulation ($M = 3.15$, $SD = .54$). Idealized influence - attributed had the largest difference between males and females (.25). Charisma (.01) and transformational leadership overall (-.01) had the smallest differences. Females ($M = 3.27$, $SD = .34$) scored slightly higher than males ($M = 3.26$, $SD = .31$) in overall transformational leadership. Means and standard deviations of all transformational leadership items and gender are provided in Table 4-14.

Table 4-14. Transformational leadership by gender

| | Gender | n | M | SD |
|--|--------|----|------|------|
| Idealized Influence Attributed | Male | 22 | 3.41 | 0.33 |
| | Female | 36 | 3.16 | 0.51 |
| Idealized Influence Behavior | Male | 22 | 3.38 | 0.52 |
| | Female | 36 | 3.40 | 0.41 |
| Idealized Influence Combined | Male | 22 | 3.39 | 0.35 |
| | Female | 36 | 3.28 | 0.40 |
| Inspirational Motivation | Male | 22 | 3.31 | 0.49 |
| | Female | 36 | 3.48 | 0.42 |
| Intellectual Stimulation | Male | 22 | 2.96 | 0.57 |
| | Female | 36 | 3.15 | 0.54 |
| Individualized Consideration | Male | 22 | 3.25 | 0.42 |
| | Female | 36 | 3.19 | 0.47 |
| Charisma (Idealized Influence and Inspirational Motivation) | Male | | | |
| | Female | 22 | 3.36 | 0.33 |
| Transformational Leadership Overall | Female | 36 | 3.35 | 0.38 |
| | Male | 22 | 3.26 | 0.31 |
| | Female | 36 | 3.27 | 0.34 |

Idealized influence - attributed is the only factor of transformational leadership where the difference between males and females is statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level (Table 4-15). Idealized influence - attributed had the strongest correlation ($r = -.26$)

with gender, with the magnitude of the correlation categorized as low. The remaining correlations ranged from $r = -.07$ to $r = .19$, and are not statistically significant. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients and statistical significance between gender and agreeableness items are provided in Table 4-18.

Table 4-15. Intercorrelations among transformational leadership, gender, age, ethnicity, and race

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
|---|--------|-------|--------|--------|---------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1. Sex | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Age | -0.15 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Hispanic | 0.14 | -0.20 | - | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.07 | -0.09 | -0.11 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Black or African American | 0.27* | 0.02 | -0.15 | -0.10 | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. White | -0.31* | -0.03 | 0.01 | -0.17 | -0.66** | - | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Other | 0.07 | 0.01 | 0.45** | -0.07 | -0.10 | 0.33* | - | | | | | | | |
| 8. Idealized Influence Attributed | -0.26* | 0.00 | 0.21 | -0.12 | 0.14 | 0.06 | -0.01 | - | | | | | | |
| 9. Idealized Influence Behavior | 0.02 | 0.06 | 0.02 | -0.28* | -0.06 | 0.18 | 0.19 | 0.37** | - | | | | | |
| 10. Idealized Influence Combined | -0.14 | 0.03 | 0.14 | -0.24 | 0.04 | 0.14 | 0.11 | 0.83** | 0.83** | - | | | | |
| 11. Inspirational Motivation | 0.19 | 0.00 | 0.08 | -0.12 | 0.22 | 0.00 | -0.08 | 0.42** | 0.48** | 0.54** | - | | | |
| 12. Intellectual Stimulation | 0.16 | -0.15 | 0.10 | -0.07 | 0.00 | 0.15 | 0.09 | 0.21 | 0.22 | 0.26* | 0.49** | - | | |
| 13. Individualized Consideration | -0.07 | -0.08 | 0.14 | -0.13 | 0.00 | 0.20 | -0.05 | 0.34** | 0.20 | 0.33* | 0.33* | 0.33** | - | |
| 14. Charisma (Idealized Influence and Inspirational Motivation) | -0.02 | 0.02 | 0.13 | -0.22 | 0.13 | 0.10 | 0.04 | 0.76** | 0.79** | 0.93** | 0.81** | 0.40** | 0.37** | - |
| 15. Transformational Leadership Overall | 0.02 | -0.06 | 0.16 | -0.21 | 0.08 | 0.17 | 0.04 | 0.67** | 0.66** | 0.80** | 0.79** | 0.69** | 0.63** | 0.90** |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Transformational Leadership and Age

Levels of transformational leadership were calculated based on respondent age (Table 4-16). Respondents 18 to 19 years old scored highest in inspirational motivation ($M = 3.45$, $SD = .43$) and lowest in idealized influence - attributed ($M = 3.22$, $SD = .62$). Respondents age 20 to 21 years scored highest in inspirational motivation ($M = 3.39$, $SD = .46$) and lowest in intellectual stimulation ($M = 2.97$, $SD = .50$). Respondents age 22 to 24 years scored highest in idealized influence - behavior ($M = 3.48$, $SD = .48$) and lowest in intellectual stimulation ($M = 3.11$, $SD = .64$). Intellectual stimulation had the largest difference between age groups, specifically 18 to 19 years and 20 to 21 years (.38). Respondents in the 18 to 19 years ($M = 3.35$, $SD = .41$) scored highest in overall transformational leadership. Respondents in the 22 to 24 years category ($M = 3.30$, $SD = .26$) scored in the middle in overall transformational leadership. Respondents in the 20 to 21 years category ($M = 3.22$, $SD = .31$) scored lowest in overall transformational leadership. Mean and standard deviations of all agreeableness items and age are provided in Table 4-16.

Table 4-16. Transformational leadership by age

| | Age (years) | n | M | SD |
|--------------------------------|-------------|----|------|------|
| Idealized Influence Attributed | 18 - 19 | 13 | 3.22 | 0.62 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 3.29 | 0.44 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 3.20 | 0.33 |
| Idealized Influence Behavior | 18 - 19 | 13 | 3.38 | 0.49 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 3.34 | 0.46 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 3.48 | 0.48 |
| Idealized Influence Combined | 18 - 19 | 13 | 3.30 | 0.53 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 3.31 | 0.35 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 3.34 | 0.32 |
| Inspirational Motivation | 18 - 19 | 13 | 3.45 | 0.43 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 3.39 | 0.46 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 3.45 | 0.47 |

Table 4-16. Continued

| | | | | |
|--|---------|----|------|------|
| Intellectual Stimulation | 18 - 19 | 13 | 3.35 | 0.55 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 2.97 | 0.50 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 3.11 | 0.64 |
| Individualized Consideration | 18 - 19 | 13 | 3.37 | 0.39 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 3.13 | 0.45 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 3.27 | 0.47 |
| Charisma (Idealized Influence and Inspirational Motivation) | 18 - 19 | | 3.35 | 0.49 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 3.34 | 0.32 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 3.38 | 0.33 |
| Transformational Leadership Overall | 18 - 19 | 13 | 3.35 | 0.41 |
| | 20 - 21 | 35 | 3.22 | 0.31 |
| | 22 - 24 | 11 | 3.30 | 0.26 |

There are no statistically significant correlations between age and transformational leadership (Table 4-15). Intellectual stimulation had a negative low correlation ($r = -.15$) with age. The remaining correlations are all negligible, are not statistically significant, and ranged from $r = -.08$ to $r = .06$. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients and statistical significance between age and transformational leadership items are provided in Table 4-15.

Transformational Leadership and Race/Ethnicity

Levels of transformational leadership were calculated based on respondent race/ethnicity (Table 4-17 and Table 4-18). First levels of transformational leadership were calculated based on respondent ethnicity, specifically whether a respondent considered themselves to be Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a). Respondents that considered themselves Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) scored highest in idealized influence - attributed ($M = 3.48$, $SD = .34$) and lowest in intellectual stimulation ($M = 3.20$, $SD = .56$). Respondents that did not consider themselves Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) scored highest in inspirational motivation ($M = 3.38$, $SD = .48$) and lowest in intellectual stimulation ($M = 3.05$, $SD = .55$). Idealized influence -

attributed had the largest difference between ethnic groups (-.26). Respondents that considered themselves to be Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) ($M = 3.24$, $SD = .33$) scored lower in overall transformational leadership than those that did not ($M = 3.38$, $SD = .31$). Mean and standard deviations of all transformational leadership items and ethnicity are provided in Table 4-17.

Table 4-17. Transformational leadership by Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a)

| | Hispanic/ Latino(a)/ Chicano(a) | n | M | SD |
|--|---------------------------------------|----|------|------|
| Idealized Influence Attributed | No | 52 | 3.22 | 0.47 |
| | Yes | 9 | 3.48 | 0.34 |
| Idealized Influence Behavior | No | 52 | 3.36 | 0.46 |
| | Yes | 9 | 3.39 | 0.55 |
| Idealized Influence Combined | No | 52 | 3.29 | 0.39 |
| | Yes | 9 | 3.43 | 0.33 |
| Inspirational Motivation | No | 52 | 3.38 | 0.48 |
| | Yes | 9 | 3.48 | 0.38 |
| Intellectual Stimulation | No | 52 | 3.05 | 0.55 |
| | Yes | 9 | 3.20 | 0.56 |
| Individualized Consideration | No | 52 | 3.19 | 0.46 |
| | Yes | 9 | 3.36 | 0.31 |
| Charisma (Idealized Influence and Inspirational Motivation) | No | 52 | 3.32 | 0.37 |
| | Yes | 9 | 3.45 | 0.31 |
| Transformational Leadership Overall | No | 52 | 3.24 | 0.33 |
| | Yes | 9 | 3.38 | 0.31 |

There are no statistically significant correlations between ethnicity and transformational leadership (Table 4-15). All correlations between ethnicity and transformational leadership are positive and low or negligible. Idealized influence - attributed had the strongest correlation ($r = .21$) between ethnicity and transformational leadership. The remaining correlations ranged from $r = .02$ to $r = .16$. Pearson product-

moment correlation coefficients and statistical significance between ethnicity and transformational leadership items are provided in Table 4-15.

Levels of transformational leadership were also calculated based on respondent race (Table 4-18). Respondents indicated whether they considered themselves Asian or Pacific Islander, Black or African American, White, or Other. Respondents that considered themselves Asian or Pacific Islander scored highest in inspirational motivation ($M = 3.19$, $SD = .38$) and lowest in idealized influence - behavior ($M = 2.88$, $SD = .32$). Respondents that considered themselves Black or African American scored highest in inspirational motivation ($M = 3.68$, $SD = .43$) and lowest in intellectual stimulation ($M = 3.07$, $SD = .31$). Respondents that considered White scored highest in idealized influence - behavior ($M = 3.41$, $SD = .45$) and lowest in intellectual stimulation ($M = 3.12$, $SD = .54$). Respondents that considered themselves Other [race] scored highest in idealized influence - behavior ($M = 3.69$, $SD = .31$) and lowest in individualized consideration ($M = 3.13$, $SD = .60$). Respondents that considered themselves Asian or Pacific Islander scored lower on all items of transformational leadership than respondents in the other categories. Between groups overall transformational leadership mean scores ranges from 3.01 to 3.34. Mean and standard deviations of all transformational leadership items and race are provided in Table 4-18.

Table 4-18. Transformational leadership by race

| | Race | n | M | SD |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------|----|------|------|
| Idealized Influence Attributed | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 3.06 | 0.52 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 3.43 | 0.45 |
| | White | 46 | 3.27 | 0.46 |
| | Other | 4 | 3.25 | 0.35 |
| Idealized Influence Behavior | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 2.88 | 0.32 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 3.29 | 0.51 |

Table 4-18. Continued

| | | | | |
|--|---------------------------|----|------|------|
| | White | 46 | 3.41 | 0.45 |
| | Other | 4 | 3.69 | 0.31 |
| Idealized Influence Combined | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 2.97 | 0.41 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 3.36 | 0.44 |
| | White | 46 | 3.34 | 0.37 |
| | Other | 4 | 3.47 | 0.26 |
| Inspirational Motivation | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 3.19 | 0.38 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 3.68 | 0.43 |
| | White | 46 | 3.39 | 0.44 |
| | Other | 4 | 3.25 | 0.54 |
| Intellectual Stimulation | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 2.94 | 0.24 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 3.07 | 0.31 |
| | White | 46 | 3.12 | 0.54 |
| | Other | 4 | 3.25 | 0.61 |
| Individualized Consideration | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 3.00 | 0.29 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 3.21 | 0.51 |
| | White | 46 | 3.26 | 0.40 |
| | Other | 4 | 3.13 | 0.60 |
| Charisma (Idealized Influence and Inspirational Motivation) | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 3.04 | 0.38 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 3.46 | 0.42 |
| | White | 46 | 3.36 | 0.34 |
| | Other | 4 | 3.40 | 0.29 |
| Transformational Leadership Overall | Asian or Pacific Islander | 4 | 3.01 | 0.29 |
| | Black or African American | 7 | 3.34 | 0.30 |
| | White | 46 | 3.29 | 0.30 |
| | Other | 4 | 3.31 | 0.40 |

Idealized influence - behavior is the only factor of transformational leadership where the difference between race is statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level (Table 4-15). Specifically, there is a negative low correlation between respondents that considered themselves Asian or Pacific Islander and idealized influence – behavior. All other correlations are not statistically significant and are in the low to negligible categories. The remaining correlations ranged from $r = -.24$ to $r = .22$. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients and statistical significance between race and transformational leadership items are provided in Table 4-15.

Objective 5: Identify the Relationship Between Agreeableness and Transformational Leadership in Undergraduate Leadership Students

Pearson product-moment correlations between agreeableness and transformational leadership were completed to further illuminate the nature of the relationship between the two sets of variables. Correlation coefficients and statistical significance between agreeableness and transformational leadership items are provided in Table 4-19.

Table 4-19. Intercorrelations between agreeableness and transformational leadership

| Variable | Overall Agreeableness | Trust | Straight-forwardness | Altruism | Compliance | Modesty | Tender-mindedness |
|---|-----------------------|--------|----------------------|----------|------------|---------|-------------------|
| Idealized Influence Attributed | -0.16 | 0.03 | -0.10 | 0.06 | -0.08 | -0.48** | 0.03 |
| Idealized Influence Behavior | 0.01 | -0.02 | -0.03 | 0.20 | 0.09 | -0.31* | 0.14 |
| Idealized Influence Combined | -0.09 | 0.01 | -0.08 | 0.16 | 0.01 | -0.47** | 0.10 |
| Inspirational Motivation | 0.20 | 0.05 | 0.08 | 0.10 | 0.36** | -0.15 | 0.30* |
| Intellectual Stimulation | 0.20 | 0.06 | 0.03 | 0.12 | 0.12 | 0.06 | 0.35** |
| Individualized Consideration | 0.39** | 0.38** | 0.36** | 0.33** | 0.22 | -0.14 | 0.41** |
| Charisma (Idealized Influence and Inspirational Motivation) | 0.03 | 0.03 | -0.02 | 0.15 | 0.16 | -0.40** | 0.20 |
| Transformational Leadership Overall | 0.19 | 0.14 | 0.09 | 0.23 | 0.21 | -0.28* | 0.36** |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

The overall trait of agreeableness had a positive moderate correlation ($r = .39$) with the transformational leadership factor of individualized consideration. The relationship is statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level. Agreeableness had no other statistically significant correlations. Agreeableness had a negative correlation with idealized influence – attributed ($r = -.16$) and idealized influence – combined ($r = -.09$). Agreeableness had positive negligible and low correlations with all other transformational leadership items with correlations ranging from $r = .01$ to $r = .20$. Agreeableness had a positive low correlation with overall transformational leadership ($r = .19$).

The agreeableness facet trust had a positive moderate correlation ($r = .38$) with the transformational leadership factor of individualized consideration. The relationship is statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level. Trust had no other statistically significant correlations. Trust had a negative correlation with idealized influence – behavior ($r = -.02$). Trust had positive negligible correlations with all other transformational leadership items with correlations ranging from $r = .01$ to $r = .06$. Trust had a positive low correlation with overall transformational leadership ($r = .14$).

The agreeableness facet straightforwardness had a positive moderate correlation ($r = .36$) with the transformational leadership factor of individualized consideration. The relationship is statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level. Straightforwardness had no other statistically significant correlations. Straightforwardness had a negative correlation with idealized influence – attributed ($r = -.10$), idealized influence – combined ($r = -.08$) idealized influence – behavior ($r = -.02$), and charisma ($r = -.02$). Straightforwardness had positive negligible correlations with intellectual stimulation ($r = .03$) and inspirational

motivation ($r = .08$). Straightforwardness had a positive negligible correlation with overall transformational leadership ($r = .09$).

The agreeableness facet altruism had a positive moderate correlation ($r = .33$) with the transformational leadership factor of individualized consideration. The relationship is statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level. Altruism had no other statistically significant correlations. Altruism had positive low and negligible correlations with all transformational leadership items with correlations ranging from $r = .06$ to $r = .20$. Altruism had a positive low correlation with overall transformational leadership ($r = .23$).

The agreeableness facet compliance had a positive moderate correlation ($r = .36$) with the transformational leadership factor of inspirational motivation. The relationship is statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level. Compliance had no other statistically significant correlations. Compliance had a negative correlation with idealized influence – attributed ($r = -.08$). Compliance had positive low and negligible correlations with all other transformational leadership items with correlations ranging from $r = .01$ to $r = .22$. Compliance had a positive low correlation with overall transformational leadership ($r = .21$).

The agreeableness facet modesty had multiple negative moderate correlations with the transformational leadership items. Modesty had three correlations that are statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level: idealized influence – attributed ($r = -.48$), idealized influence – combined ($r = -.47$), and charisma ($r = -.40$). Additionally, modesty had two negative moderate correlations that are statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level: idealized influence – behavior ($r = -.31$) and overall transformational leadership (r

$= -.48$). Modesty had a positive correlation with intellectual stimulation ($r = .06$). Modesty had negative low correlations with individualized consideration ($r = -.14$) and inspirational motivation ($r = -.15$).

The agreeableness facet tender-mindedness had multiple positive moderate correlations with the transformational leadership items. Tender-mindedness had three correlations that are statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level: intellectual stimulation ($r = .35$), individualized consideration ($r = .41$), and overall transformational leadership ($r = .36$). Additionally, tender-mindedness had a positive moderate correlation with inspirational motivation ($r = .30$) that is statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. Tender-mindedness had positive low and negligible correlations with all other transformational leadership items with correlations ranging from $r = .03$ to $r = .20$.

Objective 6: Identify how Agreeableness Predicts Transformational Leadership in Undergraduate Leadership Students

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between agreeableness and transformational leadership. Transformational leadership, and each of the transformational leadership factors, were treated as dependent variables. Agreeableness, agreeableness facets, and demographic characteristics were treated as independent variables. Unstandardized regression coefficients, coefficients of determination (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models are provided in Table 4-20 through Table 4-51.

Transformational Leadership, Agreeableness, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between overall agreeableness and transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership was treated as the dependent variable. Overall agreeableness was treated as the independent variable of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-20. In Model 1 transformational leadership was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is not statistically significant ($R^2 = .10$, $F(6,51) = .95$, $p = .47$). No demographic variables are statistically significant predictors of transformational leadership. In Model 2 overall agreeableness was included. Adding overall agreeableness as a predictor variable in the model is not associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(1,50) = .82$, $p = .37$). Overall agreeableness is not a statistically significant predictor of transformational leadership.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-21. Model 1 explained 10% of the variance in transformational leadership. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is not statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 2% of the variance in transformational leadership.

Table 4-20. Multiple regression of transformational leadership on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| Constant | 5.20 | 4.66 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | -0.04 | -0.06 |
| Age | -0.04 | -0.03 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | 0.12 | 0.12 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.26 | -0.23 |
| Black or African American | 0.14 | 0.13 |

Table 4-20. Continued

| | | |
|---------------------|-------|--------------|
| Other Agreeableness | -0.02 | 0.02 0.10 |
|---------------------|-------|--------------|

Table 4-21. Hierarchical regression of transformational leadership on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R ² | R ² Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|---|----------------|-----------------------|----------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.10 | 0.10 | 0.95 | 0.47 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness | 0.12 | 0.00 | 0.82 | 0.37 |

Transformational Leadership, Agreeableness Facets, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between the facets of agreeableness and transformational leadership. Transformational leadership was treated as the dependent variable. The facets of agreeableness were treated as the independent variables of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-22. In Model 1 transformational leadership was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is not statistically significant ($R^2 = .10$, $F(6,51) = .95$, $p = .47$). No demographic variables are statistically significant predictors of transformational leadership. In Model 2 the facets of agreeableness were included. Adding the facets of agreeableness as predictor variables in the model is associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .20$, $F(6,45) = 2.10$, $p = .06$). Modesty

is a statistically significant predictor of transformational leadership at an alpha level of .05.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-23. Model 1 explained 10% of the variance in transformational leadership. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 30% of the variance in transformational leadership.

Table 4-22. Multiple regression of transformational leadership on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| Constant | 5.20 | 4.47 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | -0.04 | 0.00 |
| Age | -0.04 | -0.03 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | 0.12 | 0.11 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.26 | -0.17 |
| Black or African American | 0.14 | -0.01 |
| Other | -0.02 | 0.02 |
| <i>Agreeableness Facets</i> | | |
| Trust | | 0.01 |
| Straightforwardness | | -0.04 |
| Altruism | | 0.06 |
| Compliance | | 0.08 |
| Modesty | | -0.16** |
| Tender-mindedness | | 0.10 |

** $p < .01$

Table 4-23. Hierarchical regression of transformational leadership on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R^2 | R^2 Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|--|-------|--------------|------------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.10 | 0.10 | 0.95 | 0.47 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness Facets | 0.30 | 0.20 | 2.20 | 0.06 |

Idealized Influence Attributed, Agreeableness, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between overall agreeableness and idealized influence attributed. Idealized influence attributed was treated as the dependent variable. Overall agreeableness was treated as the independent variable of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-24. In Model 1 idealized influence attributed was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is statistically significant ($R^2 = .22$, $F(6,51) = 2.36$, $p = .04$). The demographic variable of gender is statistically significant at an alpha level of .01, the demographic variable of ethnicity is statistically significant at an alpha level of .05. In Model 2 overall agreeableness was included. Adding overall agreeableness as a predictor variable in the model is not associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $F(1,50) = 1.64$, $p = .21$). Overall agreeableness is not a statistically significant predictor of idealized influence attributed.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-24. Model 1 explained 22% of the variance in idealized influence attributed. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is not statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 24% of the variance in idealized influence attributed.

Table 4-24. Multiple regression of idealized influence attributed on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|--|---------|---------|
|--|---------|---------|

Table 4-24. Continued

| | | |
|------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| <i>Constant</i> | 5.51 | 6.50 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | -0.36** | -0.34** |
| Age | -0.04 | -0.05 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | 0.40* | 0.38* |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.17 | -0.23 |
| Black or African American | 0.38 | 0.40* |
| Other | -0.17 | -0.23 |
| <i>Agreeableness</i> | | -0.18 |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 4-25. Hierarchical regression of idealized influence attributed on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R ² | R ² Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|---|----------------|-----------------------|----------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.22 | 0.22 | 2.36 | 0.04 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness | 0.24 | 0.03 | 1.64 | 0.21 |

Idealized Influence Attributed, Agreeableness Facets, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between the facets of agreeableness and idealized influence attributed. Idealized influence attributed was treated as the dependent variable. The facets of agreeableness were treated as the independent variables of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-26. In Model 1 idealized influence attributed was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is statistically significant ($R^2 = .22$, $F(6,51) = 2.19$, $p = .04$). The demographic variable of gender was statistically significant at an alpha level of .01. In Model 2 the facets of agreeableness were included. Adding the facets of

agreeableness as predictor variables in the model is associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .19$, $F(6,45) = 2.41$, $p = .04$). Modesty is a statistically significant predictor of idealized influence attributed at an alpha level of .001.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-27. Model 1 explained 22% of the variance in idealized influence attributed. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 41% of the variance in idealized influence attributed.

Table 4-26. Multiple regression of idealized influence attributed on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|----------|---------|
| <i>Constant</i> | 5.51 | 5.80 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | -0.36** | -0.28* |
| Age | -0.04 | -0.04 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | 0.40* | 0.38 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.17 | -0.15 |
| Black or African American | 0.38 | 0.28 |
| Other | -0.17 | -0.12 |
| <i>Agreeableness Facets</i> | | |
| Trust | -0.05 | |
| Straightforwardness | -0.06 | |
| Altruism | 0.14 | |
| Compliance | 0.13 | |
| Modesty | -0.28*** | |
| Tender-mindedness | -0.06 | |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 4-27. Hierarchical regression of idealized influence attributed on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R^2 | R^2 Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|-----------------------------|-------|--------------|------------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.22 | 0.22 | 2.36 | 0.04 |

Table 4-27. Continued

| | | | | |
|--|------|------|------|------|
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness Facets | 0.41 | 0.19 | 2.41 | 0.04 |
|--|------|------|------|------|

Idealized Influence Behavior, Agreeableness, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between overall agreeableness and idealized influence behavior. Idealized influence behavior was treated as the dependent variable. Overall agreeableness was treated as the independent variable of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-28. In Model 1 idealized influence behavior was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is not statistically significant ($R^2 = .14$, $F(6,51) = 1.37$, $p = .25$). The demographic variable race category of Asian or Pacific Islander is statistically significant at an alpha level of .05. In Model 2 overall agreeableness was included. Adding overall agreeableness as a predictor variable in the model is not associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(1,50) = 0.57$, $p = .45$). Overall agreeableness is not a statistically significant predictor of idealized influence behavior.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-29. Model 1 explained 14% of the variance in idealized influence behavior. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is not statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 15% of the variance in idealized influence behavior.

Table 4-28. Multiple regression of idealized influence behavior on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| <i>Constant</i> | 4.77 | 5.38 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | 0.00 | 0.02 |
| Age | -0.02 | -0.03 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | -0.18 | -0.19 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.56* | -0.60* |
| Black or African American | -0.01 | 0.00 |
| Other | 0.40 | 0.37 |
| <i>Agreeableness</i> | | -0.11 |

* $p < .05$

Table 4-29. Hierarchical regression of idealized influence behavior on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R ² | R ² Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|---|----------------|-----------------------|----------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.14 | 0.14 | 1.37 | 0.25 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness | 0.15 | 0.01 | 0.57 | 0.45 |

Idealized Influence Behavior, Agreeableness Facets, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between the facets of agreeableness and idealized influence behavior. Idealized influence behavior was treated as the dependent variable. The facets of agreeableness were treated as the independent variables of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-30. In Model 1 idealized influence behavior was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender,

ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is not statistically significant ($R^2 = .14$, $F(6,51) = 1.37$, $p = .25$). The demographic race category of Asian or Pacific Islander is statistically significant at an alpha level of .05. In Model 2 the facets of agreeableness were included. Adding the facets of agreeableness as predictor variables in the model is not associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .16$, $F(6,45) = 1.68$, $p = .15$). Modesty is a statistically significant predictor of idealized influence behavior at an alpha level of .01.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-31. Model 1 explained 14% of the variance in idealized influence behavior. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is not statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 30% of the variance in idealized influence behavior.

Table 4-30. Multiple regression of idealized influence behavior on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| <i>Constant</i> | 4.77 | 4.93 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | 0.00 | 0.06 |
| Age | -0.02 | -0.03 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | -0.18 | -0.21 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.56* | -0.50* |
| Black or African American | -0.01 | -0.13 |
| Other | 0.40 | 0.46 |
| <i>Agreeableness Facets</i> | | |
| Trust | | -0.09 |
| Straightforwardness | | -0.01 |
| Altruism | | 0.14 |
| Compliance | | 0.08 |
| Modesty | | -0.24** |
| Tender-mindedness | | 0.02 |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 4-31. Hierarchical regression of idealized influence behavior on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R ² | R ² Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|--|----------------|-----------------------|----------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.14 | 0.14 | 1.37 | 0.25 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness Facets | 0.30 | 0.16 | 1.68 | 0.15 |

Idealized Influence Combined, Agreeableness, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between overall agreeableness and idealized influence combined. Idealized influence combined was treated as the dependent variable. Overall agreeableness was treated as the independent variable of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-32. In Model 1 idealized influence combined was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is not statistically significant ($R^2 = .13$, $F(6,51) = 1.30$, $p = .28$). No demographic variables are statistically significant. In Model 2 overall agreeableness was included. Adding overall agreeableness as a predictor variable in the model is not associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $F(1,50) = 1.39$, $p = .25$). Overall agreeableness is not a statistically significant predictor of idealized influence combined.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-33. Model 1 explained 13% of the variance in idealized

influence combined. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is not statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 16% of the variance in idealized influence combined.

Table 4-32. Multiple regression of idealized influence combined on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| <i>Constant</i> | 5.14 | 5.94 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | -0.18 | -0.16 |
| Age | -0.03 | -0.04 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | 0.11 | 0.10 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.36 | -0.41* |
| Black or African American | 0.19 | 0.20 |
| Other | 0.11 | 0.07 |
| <i>Agreeableness</i> | | -0.15 |

* $p < .05$

Table 4-33. Hierarchical regression of idealized influence combined on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R ² | R ² Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|---|----------------|-----------------------|----------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.13 | 0.13 | 1.30 | 0.28 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness | 0.16 | 0.03 | 1.39 | 0.25 |

Idealized Influence Combined, Agreeableness Facets, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between the facets of agreeableness and idealized influence combined. Idealized influence combined was treated as the dependent variable. The facets of agreeableness were treated as the independent variables of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-34. In Model 1 idealized influence

combined was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is statistically not significant ($R^2 = .13$, $F(6,51) = 1.30$, $p = .28$). No demographic variables are statistically significant. In Model 2 the facets of agreeableness were included. Adding the facets of agreeableness as predictor variables in the model is associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .24$, $F(6,45) = 2.87$, $p = .02$). Modesty is a statistically significant predictor of idealized influence combined at an alpha level of .001.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-35. Model 1 explained 13% of the variance in idealized influence combined. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 37% of the variance in idealized influence combined.

Table 4-34. Multiple regression of idealized influence combined on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|---------|----------|
| <i>Constant</i> | 5.14 | 5.36 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | -0.18 | -0.11 |
| Age | -0.03 | -0.03 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | 0.11 | 0.08 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.36 | -0.33 |
| Black or African American | 0.19 | 0.08 |
| Other | 0.11 | 0.17 |
| <i>Agreeableness Facets</i> | | |
| Trust | | -0.07 |
| Straightforwardness | | -0.04 |
| Altruism | | 0.14 |
| Compliance | | 0.11 |
| Modesty | | -0.26*** |
| Tender-mindedness | | -0.02 |

*** $p < .001$

Table 4-35. Hierarchical regression of idealized influence combined on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R ² | R ² Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|--|----------------|-----------------------|----------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.13 | 0.13 | 1.30 | 0.28 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness Facets | 0.37 | 0.24 | 2.87 | 0.02 |

Inspirational Motivation, Agreeableness, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between overall agreeableness and inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation was treated as the dependent variable. Overall agreeableness was treated as the independent variable of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-36. In Model 1 inspirational motivation was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is not statistically significant ($R^2 = .13$, $F(6,51) = 1.23$, $p = .31$). No demographic variables are statistically significant. In Model 2 overall agreeableness was included. Adding overall agreeableness as a predictor variable in the model is not associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(1,50) = 0.63$, $p = .43$). Overall agreeableness is not a statistically significant predictor of inspirational motivation.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-37. Model 1 explained 13% of the variance in inspirational

motivation. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is not statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 14% of the variance in inspirational motivation.

Table 4-36. Multiple regression of inspirational motivation on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| <i>Constant</i> | 4.97 | 4.34 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | 0.10 | 0.08 |
| Age | -0.04 | -0.03 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | 0.14 | 0.15 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.20 | -0.16 |
| Black or African American | 0.33 | 0.32 |
| Other | -0.25 | -0.21 |
| <i>Agreeableness</i> | | 0.12 |

Table 4-37. Hierarchical regression of inspirational motivation on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R ² | R ² Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|---|----------------|-----------------------|----------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.13 | 0.13 | 1.23 | 0.31 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness | 0.14 | 0.01 | 0.63 | 0.43 |

Inspirational Motivation, Agreeableness Facets, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between the facets of agreeableness and inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation was treated as the dependent variable. The facets of agreeableness were treated as the independent variables of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-38. In Model 1 inspirational motivation

was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is not statistically significant ($R^2 = .13$, $F(6,51) = 1.23$, $p = .31$). No demographic variables are statistically significant. In Model 2 the facets of agreeableness were included. Adding the facets of agreeableness as predictor variables in the model is not associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .13$, $F(6,45) = 1.36$, $p = .25$). No facets of agreeableness are statistically significant.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-39. Model 1 explained 13% of the variance in inspirational motivation. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is not statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 26% of the variance in inspirational motivation.

Table 4-38. Multiple regression of inspirational motivation on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| <i>Constant</i> | 4.97 | 4.46 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | 0.10 | 0.09 |
| Age | -0.04 | -0.02 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | 0.14 | 0.20 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.20 | -0.19 |
| Black or African American | 0.33 | 0.14 |
| Other | -0.25 | -0.25 |
| <i>Agreeableness Facets</i> | | |
| Trust | | 0.03 |
| Straightforwardness | | -0.12 |
| Altruism | | -0.07 |
| Compliance | | 0.19 |
| Modesty | | -0.13 |
| Tender-mindedness | | 0.10 |

Table 4-39. Hierarchical regression of inspirational motivation on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R ² | R ² Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|--|----------------|-----------------------|----------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.13 | 0.13 | 1.23 | 0.31 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness Facets | 0.26 | 0.13 | 1.36 | 0.25 |

Intellectual Stimulation, Agreeableness, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between overall agreeableness and intellectual stimulation.

Intellectual stimulation was treated as the dependent variable. Overall agreeableness was treated as the independent variable of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-40. In Model 1 intellectual stimulation was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is not statistically significant ($R^2 = .06$, $F(6,51) = 0.54$, $p = .77$). No demographic variables are statistically significant. In Model 2 overall agreeableness was included. Adding overall agreeableness as a predictor variable in the model is not associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, $F(1,50) = 1.94$, $p = .17$). Overall agreeableness is not a statistically significant predictor of intellectual stimulation.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-41. Model 1 explained 6% of the variance in intellectual

stimulation. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is not statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 10% of the variance in intellectual stimulation.

Table 4-40. Multiple regression of intellectual stimulation on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| <i>Constant</i> | 5.15 | 3.74 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | 0.17 | 0.14 |
| Age | -0.07 | -0.04 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | 0.01 | 0.03 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.15 | -0.06 |
| Black or African American | -0.10 | -0.12 |
| Other | 0.15 | 0.23 |
| <i>Agreeableness</i> | | 0.26 |

Table 4-41. Hierarchical regression of intellectual stimulation on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R ² | R ² Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|---|----------------|-----------------------|----------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.06 | 0.06 | 0.54 | 0.77 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness | 0.10 | 0.04 | 1.94 | 0.17 |

Intellectual Stimulation, Agreeableness Facets, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between the facets of agreeableness and intellectual stimulation. Intellectual stimulation was treated as the dependent variable. The facets of agreeableness were treated as the independent variables of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-42. In Model 1 intellectual stimulation was

regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is not statistically significant ($R^2 = .06$, $F(6,51) = 0.54$, $p = .77$). No demographic variables are statistically significant. In Model 2 the facets of agreeableness were included. Adding the facets of agreeableness as predictor variables in the model is not associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .15$, $F(6,45) = 1.45$, $p = .22$). Tender-mindedness is a statistically significant predictor of intellectual stimulation at an alpha level of .01.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-43. Model 1 explained 6% of the variance in intellectual stimulation. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is not statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 21% of the variance in intellectual stimulation.

Table 4-42. Multiple regression of intellectual stimulation on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| <i>Constant</i> | 5.15 | 4.41 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | 0.17 | 0.18 |
| Age | -0.07 | -0.05 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | 0.01 | 0.01 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.15 | -0.03 |
| Black or African American | -0.10 | -0.35 |
| Other | 0.15 | 0.00 |
| <i>Agreeableness Facets</i> | | |
| Trust | | 0.02 |
| Straightforwardness | | -0.19 |
| Altruism | | -0.04 |
| Compliance | | -0.03 |
| Modesty | | 0.03 |
| Tender-mindedness | | 0.35** |

** $p < .01$

Table 4-43. Hierarchical regression of intellectual stimulation on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R ² | R ² Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|--|----------------|-----------------------|----------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.06 | 0.06 | 0.54 | 0.77 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness Facets | 0.21 | 0.15 | 1.45 | 0.22 |

Individualized Consideration, Agreeableness, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between overall agreeableness and individualized consideration. Individualized consideration was treated as the dependent variable. Overall agreeableness was treated as the independent variable of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-44. In Model 1 individualized consideration was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is not statistically significant ($R^2 = .09$, $F(6,51) = 0.80$, $p = .58$). No demographic variables are statistically significant. In Model 2 overall agreeableness was included. Adding overall agreeableness as a predictor variable in the model is associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .14$, $F(1,50) = 8.75$, $p = .01$). Overall agreeableness is a statistically significant predictor of individualized consideration at an alpha level of .01.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-45. Model 1 explained 9% of the variance in individualized

consideration. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 22% of the variance in individualized consideration.

Table 4-44. Multiple regression of individualized consideration on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| <i>Constant</i> | 5.50 | 3.27 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | -0.12 | -0.17 |
| Age | -0.05 | -0.02 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | 0.23 | 0.27 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.22 | -0.08 |
| Black or African American | 0.11 | 0.07 |
| Other | -0.21 | -0.09 |
| <i>Agreeableness</i> | | 0.41** |

** $p < .01$

Table 4-45. Hierarchical regression of individualized consideration on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R ² | R ² Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|---|----------------|-----------------------|----------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.09 | 0.09 | 0.80 | 0.58 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness | 0.22 | 0.14 | 8.75 | 0.01 |

Individualized Consideration, Agreeableness Facets, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between the facets of agreeableness and individualized consideration. Individualized consideration was treated as the dependent variable. The facets of agreeableness were treated as the independent variables of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-46. In Model 1 individualized consideration was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is not statistically significant ($R^2 = .09$, $F(6,51) = 0.80$, $p = .58$). No demographic variables are statistically significant. In Model 2 the facets of agreeableness were included. Adding the facets of agreeableness as predictor variables in the model is associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .29$, $F(6,45) = 3.54$, $p = .01$). No facets of agreeableness are statistically significant.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-47. Model 1 explained 9% of the variance in individualized consideration. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 38% of the variance in individualized consideration.

Table 4-46. Multiple regression of individualized consideration on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| <i>Constant</i> | 5.50 | 2.65 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | -0.12 | -0.05 |
| Age | -0.05 | -0.02 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | 0.23 | 0.17 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.22 | 0.02 |
| Black or African American | 0.11 | -0.01 |
| Other | -0.21 | 0.01 |
| <i>Agreeableness Facets</i> | | |
| Trust | | 0.14 |
| Straightforwardness | | 0.17 |
| Altruism | | 0.15 |
| Compliance | | 0.04 |
| Modesty | | -0.16* |

Table 4-46. Continued

| | |
|-------------------|------|
| Tender-mindedness | 0.10 |
| * $p < .05$ | |

Table 4-47. Hierarchical regression of individualized consideration on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R ² | R ² Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|--|----------------|-----------------------|----------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.09 | 0.09 | 0.80 | 0.58 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness Facets | 0.38 | 0.29 | 3.54 | 0.01 |

Charisma, Agreeableness, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between overall agreeableness and charisma. Charisma was treated as the dependent variable. Overall agreeableness was treated as the independent variable of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-48. In Model 1 charisma was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is not statistically significant ($R^2 = .11$, $F(6,51) = 1.06$, $p = .40$). No demographic variables are statistically significant. In Model 2 overall agreeableness was included. Adding overall agreeableness as a predictor variable in the model is not associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(1,50) = 0.24$, $p = .63$). Overall agreeableness is not a statistically significant predictor of charisma.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and

are provided in Table 4-49. Model 1 explained 11% of the variance in charisma. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is not statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 12% of the variance in charisma.

Table 4-48. Multiple regression of charisma on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| <i>Constant</i> | 5.08 | 5.40 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | -0.09 | -0.08 |
| Age | -0.03 | -0.04 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | 0.12 | 0.11 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.31 | -0.33 |
| Black or African American | 0.23 | 0.24 |
| Other | -0.01 | -0.03 |
| <i>Agreeableness</i> | | -0.06 |

Table 4-49. Hierarchical regression of charisma on agreeableness and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R ² | R ² Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|---|----------------|-----------------------|----------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.11 | 0.11 | 1.06 | 0.40 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness | 0.12 | 0.01 | 0.24 | 0.63 |

Charisma, Agreeableness Facets, and Demographic Characteristics

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine whether a predictive relationship existed between the facets of agreeableness and charisma. Charisma was treated as the dependent variable. The facets of agreeableness were treated as the independent variables of interest; demographic characteristics were treated as control variables.

Unstandardized regression coefficients in the form of variable level effects and statistical significance are provided in Table 4-50. In Model 1 charisma was regressed against the demographic control variables of age, gender, ethnicity and race. The omnibus model is not statistically significant ($R^2 = .11$, $F(6,51) = 1.06$, $p = .40$). No demographic variables are statistically significant. In Model 2 the facets of agreeableness were included. Adding the facets of agreeableness as predictor variables in the model is associated with a statistically significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .21$, $F(6,45) = 2.31$, $p = .05$). Modesty is a statistically significant predictor of charisma at an alpha level of .001.

Model level variance (R^2), changes in R^2 between models, changes in F statistics, and significance of F statistic changes between models were calculated and are provided in Table 4-51. Model 1 explained 11% of the variance in charisma. The difference between Model 1 and Model 2 is statistically significant. Model 2 accounted for 21% of the variance in charisma.

Table 4-50. Multiple regression of charisma on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| <i>Constant</i> | 5.08 | 5.06 |
| <i>Demographic Characteristics</i> | | |
| Gender | -0.09 | -0.04 |
| Age | -0.03 | -0.03 |
| Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) | 0.12 | 0.12 |
| Asian or Pacific Islander | -0.31 | -0.28 |
| Black or African American | 0.23 | 0.10 |
| Other | -0.01 | 0.03 |
| <i>Agreeableness Facets</i> | | |
| Trust | | -0.04 |
| Straightforwardness | | -0.06 |
| Altruism | | 0.07 |
| Compliance | | 0.13 |

Table 4-50. Continued

| | |
|-------------------|----------|
| Modesty | -0.22*** |
| Tender-mindedness | 0.02 |
| *** $p < .001$ | |

Table 4-51. Hierarchical regression of charisma on agreeableness facets and demographic characteristics

| Variable Entered | R ² | R ² Change | F Change | Sig. of Change |
|--|----------------|-----------------------|----------|----------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | 0.11 | 0.11 | 1.06 | 0.40 |
| Demographic Characteristics & Agreeableness Facets | 0.32 | 0.21 | 2.31 | 0.05 |

Synopsis

Chapter 4 presented the results of the study. The results were organized according to the study objectives:

1. Describe the levels of agreeableness in undergraduate leadership students.
2. Describe the levels of transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.
3. Identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and agreeableness.
4. Identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and transformational leadership.
5. Identify the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.
6. Identify how agreeableness predicts transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.

Results obtained were subsequently summarized and discussed based on practical and empirical significance.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this descriptive correlational quantitative study was to examine the relationship between the personality trait of agreeableness and transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students. The following research objectives were addressed:

1. Describe the levels of agreeableness in undergraduate leadership students.
2. Describe the levels of transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.
3. Identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and agreeableness.
4. Identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and transformational leadership.
5. Identify the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.
6. Identify how agreeableness predicts transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.

The problem addressed by this study was the proliferation of bad, self-oriented leadership within organizations. As an alternative, the development of other-oriented, or transformational leaders was proposed. To assist in the development of transformational leaders, an investigation into the nature of the relationship between the personality trait of agreeableness and transformational leadership was undertaken. This course of action was proposed due to a lack of knowledge around the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership characteristics.

A convenience sample of 65 undergraduate leadership students was used in the study. The study participants provided a number of demographic variables. The study included 22 (36.7%) males and 36 (60%) females and ranged in age from 18 to 24.

Participants were grouped into three age categories: there were 13 (21.7%) individuals age 18 to 19, 35 (58.3%) individuals age 20 to 21, and 11 (18.3%) individuals age 22 to 24. Nine (15.0%) respondents indicated a Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) ethnicity, 51 (85.0%) respondents indicated they did not consider themselves of Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) ethnicity. Forty-six (75.4%) respondents indicated a White racial background, seven (11.5%) respondents indicated a Black or African American racial background, four (6.6%) respondents indicated an Asian or Pacific Islander racial background, and four (6.6%) respondents indicated an Other racial background.

Chapter 5 presents a summary of the study findings based on study objectives, conclusions, discussions and implications, and recommendations.

Synopsis of Findings

Objective 1: Describe the Levels of Agreeableness in Undergraduate Leadership Students

The intent of objective one was to describe the level of agreeableness in undergraduate leadership students. At the overall trait level the sample had a mean agreeableness score of 3.84 (out of a maximum of five on a five point Likert-type scale) with a standard deviation of .44. Participants scored highest on the altruism facet of agreeableness ($M = 4.32$, $SD = .51$). Straightforwardness was the second highest scored facet of agreeableness ($M = 4.26$, $SD = .61$), followed by compliance ($M = 4.22$, $SD = .80$), tender-mindedness ($M = 4.83$, $SD = .77$), and trust ($M = 3.52$, $SD = .74$). Participants scored lowest on the modesty facet of agreeableness ($M = 2.90$, $SD = .76$).

Objective 2: Describe the Levels of Transformational Leadership in Undergraduate Leadership Students

The intent of objective two was to describe the level of transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students. At the overall transformational leadership level the sample had a mean transformational leadership score of 3.26 (out of a maximum of four) with a standard deviation of .33. Participants scored highest on the inspirational motivation factor of transformational leadership ($M = 3.39$, $SD = .47$). Idealized influence - behavior was the second highest scored factor of transformational leadership ($M = 3.36$, $SD = .47$), followed by idealized influence - attributed ($M = 3.26$, $SD = .46$), and individualized consideration ($M = 3.21$, $SD = .44$). Participants scored lowest on the intellectual stimulation factor of transformational leadership ($M = 3.08$, $SD = .55$).

Objective 3: Identify the Relationship Between Individual Demographic Characteristics and Agreeableness

The intent of objective three was to identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and agreeableness. Demographic variables were collected to establish whether subsequently observed interactions between agreeableness and transformational leadership might be attributable to demographic controls, rather than personality variables.

The intent of demographic data collection and analysis was not to identify whether individual demographic characteristics were predisposed to levels of agreeableness or transformational leadership. The literature is clear that individuals from all demographic categories are capable of personifying a full range of agreeableness (Costa et al., 2001) and leadership (Stogdill, 1948) characteristics. Nevertheless, the literature also indicates that differences between groups are expected

(e.g. Bass & Riggio, 2006; Costa et al., 2001; McCrae et al., 2005). Demographic variable analysis is included for thoroughness, but should not be misinterpreted to be generalizable beyond the scope of the sample studied.

The first relationship analyzed was that of agreeableness and gender. Results indicated that females ($M = 3.92$, $SD = .44$) scored higher than males ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .43$) in overall agreeableness. The difference in overall agreeableness between males and females was not statistically significant. At the facet level there were also differences between genders, males scored highest in altruism ($M = 4.38$, $SD = .38$) females scored highest in compliance ($M = 4.43$, $SD = .58$). Both genders scored lowest in modesty. Compliance was the only facet where the difference between genders was statistically significant.

The second relationship analyzed was that of agreeableness and age. Respondents in the 18 to 19 years ($M = 4.09$, $SD = .36$) scored highest in overall agreeableness, followed by respondents in the 22 to 24 years category ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .24$). Respondents in the 20 to 21 years category ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .50$) scored lowest in overall agreeableness. There were no statistically significant differences between the three age groups. Nonetheless, respondents in the 18 to 19 years category scored higher on all agreeableness items than did either of the other two age categories.

The final relationship analyzed was that of agreeableness and race/ethnicity. Based on previous findings culture has been found to be an antecedent of personality (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). Consequently, “self-perceived membership in population groups that define themselves by cultural heritage” (“Standards”, 1995, p. 29) is germane. Respondent ethnicity was defined as either Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) or

not. Respondents that considered themselves to be Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) ($M = 3.78$, $SD = .56$) scored lower in overall agreeableness than those that did not ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .42$). However, the difference between the two groups was not statistically significant.

Next, respondent race was analyzed. Respondents that identified themselves as White ($M = 3.89$, $SD = .41$) scored highest in agreeableness, respondents that identified themselves as Black or African American ($M = 3.88$, $SD = .43$) followed. Next were respondents that identified themselves as Asian or Pacific Islander ($M = 3.57$, $SD = .28$), with respondents that identified themselves as Other ($M = 3.53$, $SD = .66$) scoring lowest in agreeableness. However, there were no statistically significant relationships between any of the race categories and levels of agreeableness. The very limited nature of the study is extremely pertinent when interpreting race/ethnicity results, the lack of statistical significance is most critical to acknowledge. Based on this result, differences between groups at the overall agreeableness level were not generalized or interpreted.

Objective 4: Identify the Relationship Between Individual Demographic Characteristics and Transformational Leadership

The intent of objective four was to identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and transformational leadership. The first relationship analyzed was that of transformational leadership and gender. Results indicated that females ($M = 3.27$, $SD = .34$) scored slightly higher than males ($M = 3.26$, $SD = .31$) in overall transformational leadership. At the factor level there were also differences between genders. Males scored highest in idealized influence - attributed ($M = 3.41$, $SD = .33$) and females scored highest in inspirational motivation ($M = 3.48$, $SD = .42$). Both

genders scored lowest in intellectual stimulation. Idealized influence - attributed was the only factor where the difference between genders was statistically significant.

The second relationship analyzed was that of transformational leadership and age. Respondents in the 18 to 19 years ($M = 3.35$, $SD = .41$) scored highest in overall transformational leadership, followed by respondents in the 22 to 24 years category ($M = 3.30$, $SD = .26$). Respondents in the 20 to 21 years category ($M = 3.22$, $SD = .31$) scored lowest in overall transformational leadership. There were no statistically significant differences between the three age groups.

The final relationship analyzed was that of transformational leadership and race/ethnicity. Respondent ethnicity was defined as either Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) or not. Respondents that considered themselves to be Hispanic/Latino(a)/Chicano(a) ($M = 3.38$, $SD = .31$) scored higher in overall transformational leadership than those that did not ($M = 3.24$, $SD = .33$) but the difference between the two groups was not statistically significant.

Next, respondent race was analyzed. Respondents that identified themselves as Black or African American ($M = 3.34$, $SD = .30$) scored highest in overall transformational leadership, respondents that identified themselves as Other ($M = 3.31$, $SD = .40$) followed. Next were respondents that identified themselves as White ($M = 3.29$, $SD = .30$), with respondents identifying themselves as Asian or Pacific Islander ($M = 3.01$, $SD = .29$) scoring lowest in overall transformational leadership. There were no statistically significant relationships between any of the race categories and levels of overall transformational leadership.

Lack of statistical significance in interpreting race/ethnicity results is critical to acknowledge. Differences between groups should not be generalized or interpreted. Although there was a statistically significant relationship between the race category of Asian or Pacific Islander and the transformational leadership factor of idealized influence – behavior, extreme caution was exercised in interpreting the result. The small number of respondents in race categories limited the interpretability of the correlations.

Objective 5: Identify the Relationship Between Agreeableness and Transformational Leadership in Undergraduate Leadership Students

The intent of objective five was to identify the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students. Overall transformational leadership had a positive low correlation ($r = .19$) with overall agreeableness. When examined at the facet level transformational leadership had the strongest relationship with tender-mindedness ($r = .36$) and modesty ($r = -.28$).

Idealized influence was analyzed at the attributed, behavior, and combined level. In general the three idealized influence items had consistent relationships with agreeableness items as it relates to magnitude and directionality. Idealized influence items had the strongest relationship to modesty where negative moderate correlations ($r = -.48$ to $r = -.31$) were observed. Idealized influence had positive low relationships with altruism and tender-mindedness. Idealized influence had negative negligible relationships with trust. Both positive and negative relationships were observed with overall agreeableness, trust, and compliance.

Inspirational motivation had the strongest relationship to compliance ($r = .36$). Inspirational motivation had positive negligible and low relationships with overall

agreeableness, trust, straightforwardness, altruism, and tender-mindedness.

Inspirational motivation had negative low relationship with modesty.

Intellectual stimulation had the strongest relationship to tender-mindedness ($r = .35$). Intellectual stimulation had positive negligible and low relationships with all other agreeableness items: overall agreeableness, trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance and modesty.

Individualized consideration had the greatest quantity of moderate positive and statistically significant relationships with agreeableness items. Individualized consideration had the strongest relationship to tender-mindedness ($r = .41$). Additional moderate positive correlations were observed with overall agreeableness ($r = .39$), trust ($r = .38$), straightforwardness ($r = .36$), and altruism ($r = .33$). Individualized consideration had a positive low relationship with compliance and a negative low relationship with modesty.

The compound factor of charisma had the strongest relationship to modesty ($r = -.40$). Charisma had positive negligible and low relationships with overall agreeableness, trust, altruism, compliance and tender-mindedness. Charisma had a negative negligible relationship with straightforwardness.

Objective 6: Identify how Agreeableness Predicts Transformational Leadership in Undergraduate Leadership Students

The intent of objective six was to identify how agreeableness predicts transformation leadership in undergraduate leadership students. For overall transformational leadership, as well as each factor of transformational leadership, a total of four regression models were run. In the first set of models demographic variables were controlled for. Agreeableness (overall or facets) was added in the second model to

determine incremental predictive capacity of agreeableness beyond demographic variables.

Models predicting overall transformational leadership ranged in predictive capacity from $R^2 = .10$ to $R^2 = .30$. When overall agreeableness was added it was not found to be a significant predictor of transformational leadership. When the agreeableness facets were included, modesty had a statistically significant negative effect (-.16). None of the omnibus models were statistically significant.

Models predicting idealized influence – attributed ranged in predictive capacity from $R^2 = .22$ to $R^2 = .41$. The demographic variables of gender and ethnicity were found to be statistically significant. When overall agreeableness was added it was not found to be a significant predictor of idealized influence attributed. When the agreeableness facets were included, modesty had a statistically significant negative effect (-.28). The omnibus models including only demographic variables, as well as agreeableness facets when controlling for demographic variables were statistically significant.

Models predicting idealized influence – behavior ranged in predictive capacity from $R^2 = .14$ to $R^2 = .30$. When overall agreeableness was added it was not found to be a significant predictor of idealized influence behavior. When the agreeableness facets were included, modesty had a statistically significant negative effect (-.24). None of the omnibus models were statistically significant.

Models predicting idealized influence – combined ranged in predictive capacity from $R^2 = .13$ to $R^2 = .37$. None of the demographic variables were found to be statistically significant. When overall agreeableness was added it was not found to be a significant predictor of idealized influence combined. When the agreeableness facets

were included, modesty had a statistically significant negative effect (-.26). The omnibus model including agreeableness facets when controlling for demographic variables was statistically significant.

Models predicting inspirational motivation ranged in predictive capacity from $R^2 = .13$ to $R^2 = .26$. None of the demographic variables were found to be statistically significant. When overall agreeableness was added it was not found to be a significant predictor of inspirational motivation. When the agreeableness facets were included none were found to be statistically significant. None of the omnibus models were statistically significant.

Models predicting intellectual stimulation ranged in predictive capacity from $R^2 = .06$ to $R^2 = .21$. When overall agreeableness was added it was not found to be a significant predictor of intellectual stimulation. When the agreeableness facets were included, tender-mindedness had a statistically significant positive effect (.35). None of the omnibus models were statistically significant.

Models predicting individualized consideration ranged in predictive capacity from $R^2 = .09$ to $R^2 = .38$. When overall agreeableness was added it was found to have a positive statistically significant effect on individualized consideration (.41). When the agreeableness facets were included modesty was found to have a statistically significant negative effect (-.16). The omnibus models including overall agreeableness controlling for demographic variables, as well as agreeableness facets when controlling for demographic variables were statistically significant.

Models predicting charisma ranged in predictive capacity from $R^2 = .11$ to $R^2 = .32$. When overall agreeableness was added it was not found to be a significant

predictor of charisma. When the agreeableness facets were included, modesty had a statistically significant negative effect (-.22). The omnibus model including agreeableness facets when controlling for demographic variables was statistically significant.

Conclusions

Based on the results of the study a number of conclusions were made. There were more females than males in the undergraduate leadership course studied. The highest number of respondents were in the 20 to 21 years category. The majority of respondents indicated they considered their race to be White.

Overall respondents scored highest in altruism and lowest in modesty. Although there were differences in mean scores between gender, age, and agreeableness, differences were not statistically significant. Agreeableness facet rankings from highest to lowest were somewhat similar to those found by Terracciano, McCrae, Brant, and Costa (2005). In their study Terracciano et al. (2005) found trust rated highest, followed by altruism, straightforwardness, compliance, tender-mindedness, and modesty. The primary difference being Terracciano et al. (2005) found trust to be rated highest, whereas in the present study trust was found to be ranked second lowest.

Mean levels of agreeableness were measured between males and females. Females had higher levels of agreeableness than did their male counterparts. These findings were consistent with those of Costa et al. (2001). Additionally, mean levels of agreeableness were measured between age groups. Study findings are inconsistent with previous research that found that levels of agreeableness tend to increase with age (Ryan, 2009; McCrae et al., 1999). A possible explanation for the inconsistent finding is the small difference between age categories. With a minimum age of 18 and a

maximum age of 24 perhaps there was an insufficient range of ages and developmental stages represented to identify statistically significant differences. Furthermore, it is plausible that the previous findings are more attributable to generational differences as opposed to ages. There were statistically significant differences between race categories and agreeableness; however, these differences were not interpreted, as the number of respondents in the majority of categories was very low.

Transformational leadership factor rankings from highest to lowest were identical with those found by Judge and Bono (2000). However, Judge and Bono (2000) obtained lower overall mean values for each of the factors of transformational leadership, values ranged from $M = 3.03$ to $M = 2.63$. An interesting distinction between the studies is that Judge and Bono (2000) ratings of transformational leadership were provided by subordinates rather than by self-report.

Respondents scored highest in the inspirational motivation factor of transformational leadership and lowest in intellectual stimulation. The only statistically significant difference between males and females was idealized influence – attributed where males had a higher mean score than females. Overall, females scored slightly higher in transformational leadership than did males. This finding is consistent with Bass and Avolio's (1994) findings. However, in this study the difference in transformational leadership between males and females was extremely small and not statistically significant. Results from this study were inconclusive as to whether transformational leadership decreased with age as Zacher, Rosing, and Frese (2011) found. The youngest group had the highest transformational leadership score which is consistent with previous studies. However, the oldest group did not have the lowest

transformational leadership score. The small difference between age categories may account for the inconsistent findings. Additionally, it is plausible that the previous findings are more attributable to generational differences as opposed to age differences.

Previously context has been found to predict levels of transformational leadership more than culture (e.g. Ayman & Korabik, 2010). However, transformational leadership has been related to cultural predisposition (Ergeneli et al., 2007). This study found no statistically significant differences between race or ethnic groups.

Of the agreeableness items, tender-mindedness had the strongest statistically significant correlation with transformational leadership overall. Modesty also had a statistically significant relationship in the negative direction. The two facets of modesty and tender-mindedness has the greatest number of statistically significant negative and positive correlations accordingly. Modesty had moderate negative correlations with idealized influence – attributed, idealized influence-behavior, idealized influence – combined, and charisma. Tender-mindedness had moderate positive correlations with individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational motivation. The strength, directionality, and statistical significance of this findings is noteworthy as it indicates the amount of variance that is shared between the variables. Based on the inverse relationship it would appear that modesty is strongly related to idealized influence, and that as modesty increased idealized influence decreases.

The factor of individualized consideration had the greatest number of statistically significant correlations with agreeableness items. Trust, straightforwardness, altruism, and tender-mindedness all had moderate positive correlations with individualized

consideration at the facet level. Agreeableness overall also had a moderate positive correlation to individualized consideration.

The agreeableness facet of compliance had a statistically significant moderate positive correlation with inspirational motivation. The compliance facet did not have a statistically significant relationship with any other transformational leadership items.

Regression analysis illuminated the predictive nature of agreeableness items relative to transformational leadership. Overall agreeableness was not found to be a statistically significant predictor of transformational leadership. This was consistent with the factors of transformational leadership, with the exception of individualized consideration. Overall agreeableness was a statistically significant predictor of individualized consideration and accounted for 14% of the change in individualized consideration when controlling for demographic variables. Only the factor of idealized influence – attributed was significantly predicted by demographic variables. That model accounted for 22% of the change in idealized influence – attributed.

The facets of agreeableness tended to be much more robust in predicting transformational leadership and transformational leadership factors. The regression model including agreeableness facets predicted an additional 20% of the variance in transformational leadership when controlling for demographic variables. In that model only modesty had a statistically significant negative effect on transformational leadership. The agreeableness facets model also accounted for an additional 19% of the variance in idealized influence – attributed after controlling for demographic variables. Again modesty had the only statistically significant negative effect. Agreeableness facets also accounted for an additional 24% of the variance in idealized

influence – combined after controlling for demographic variables. Modesty was again the only facet with a statistically significant negative effect.

The facets of agreeableness also predicted other factors of transformational leadership. Agreeableness facets accounted for an additional 29% of the variance in individualized consideration after controlling for demographic variables. Charisma, the compound variable comprised of idealized influence and inspirational motivation, was also predicted by agreeableness facets. The agreeableness facets model accounted for an additional 21% of the variance after controlling for demographic variables. Modesty was the only facet that had a statistically significant negative effect on charisma.

Discussions and Implications

A significant limitation of the study is that the results are only attributable to the sample and not generalizable. In addition, the lack of ethnic and racial diversity does not allow for interpretation additionally the limited age range makes interpretation of these results difficult as well. Therefore, all discussion and implications are only relevant to the single undergraduate class used in the study.

One of the most challenging aspects to effective teaching and development work, regardless of audience or content area, is to ensure the content is relevant and personally meaningful to the audience. The demographic characteristics collected in this study provided insights into the composition and potential differences between the different respondents. For example, results of this study are consistent with previous empirical research as it relates to gender and agreeableness (Costa et al., 2001); on average females in the class had higher levels of agreeableness than males. This would imply that because females tend to score higher in agreeableness, spending an inordinate amount of time on the topic might lack applicability to the female audience. If

agreeableness interventions are planned, a more effective approach may be to pair individuals based on agreeableness scores to have peer-based discussions. Individuals with higher scores may be able to provide practical examples to individuals with lower agreeableness scores without feeling the banality of lecture-based intervention that is not generally applicable to them. To expedite peer pairings, the data would indicate that matching males and females at random should result in a satisfactory distribution of high agreeableness individuals paired with low agreeableness individuals.

A similar approach might be applicable for the agreeableness facet of compliance. Females tended to have higher mean scores than males on this particular facet. This would imply that pairing males and females at random to improve levels of compliance may be sufficiently effective. A strategy of this nature would be more robust if there was statistical significance between the genders related to the facet of interest.

The difference in mean levels of transformational leadership between males and females was negligible. Although the existing literature indicated that females tended to demonstrate transformational leadership more frequently (Bass & Riggio, 2006), the results of this study were inconclusive. This finding is noteworthy and would imply that empirical findings can be instructive, but are not always applicable. The insignificant difference in overall transformational leadership between genders would suggest that females likely score higher on certain factors than do males and vice versa. The study findings are helpful to expose the differences between genders and to identify the significant antecedents that can then be exploited for maximum effectiveness. Additionally, the study findings imply that undergraduate students may require unique instructional approaches based on their differences from professional audiences.

Based on study results it would not be advisable to randomly pair respondents based on gender if the intent was pairing an individual with a high transformational leadership score with an individual with a low transformational leadership score. However, the data would indicate that the transformational leadership factor of idealized influence – attributed would be a good candidate for such random pairing. Males tended to score higher than females, and the difference between the genders for this factor is statistically significant.

Study findings indicate limited differences between age groups as it relates to agreeableness or transformational leadership. The youngest age group, those individuals 18 to 19 years old, scored highest in agreeableness and transformational leadership; however, those results were not statistically significant. These findings may indicate that younger respondents have fewer legacy beliefs about leadership in general and are more open to transformational leadership concepts, similar to what was reported by Zacher, Rosing, and Frese (2011). However, the highest level of agreeableness in the youngest age group is inconsistent with previous findings that stated agreeableness tends to increase over time (Allemand et al., 2007). These results imply that agreeableness and transformational leadership interventions based on respondent age are not suggested.

Beyond the identification of respondent mean levels of agreeableness and transformational leadership reported at the overall, gender, age, and race/ethnicity levels, a number of significant correlations between agreeableness and transformational leadership were identified. Based on the findings, transformational leadership has the strongest correlation with tender-mindedness and modesty. However, the directionality

of the relationship with the two facets is opposed. This finding would indicate that levels of transformational leadership increase as tender-mindedness increases and as modesty decreases. These findings imply that the most critical agreeableness facets to focus on are modesty and tender-mindedness. To increase levels of transformational leadership individuals should avoid being too humble. Additionally, individuals should attempt to empathize with others.

Individualized consideration had the highest number of statistically significant correlations with agreeableness items. Based on these findings one can surmise that of the factor of transformational leadership most closely associated with agreeableness is individualized consideration. This finding is consistent with the primary motivations of agreeableness, to be helpful, supportive, considerate, and honest (Driskell et al., 2006). Actions are executed at the individual level and are intended to benefit another individual. These results imply that focusing on agreeableness will have the largest impact on the individualized consideration factor of transformational leadership. Conversely, an effective way to improve levels of individualized consideration is to focus on agreeableness.

From an agreeableness facet perspective, modesty had several negative statistically significant correlations with transformational leadership. Upon closer inspection, the significant correlations are all within the idealized influence area. All three categories of idealized influence (attributed, behavior, and combined) are negatively correlated with modesty. These findings imply that when an individual is too humble potential followers no longer aspire to emulate them. The negative effects of too

much modesty flow through to the composite factor of charisma (a combination of idealized influence and inspirational motivation) as well.

The other agreeableness facet with several statistically significant correlations was tender-mindedness. Unlike modesty, all tender-mindedness correlations were in the positive direction. Inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration all have moderate positive correlations with tender-mindedness. Because tender-mindedness is significantly correlated with three of the four primary factors of transformational leadership it may be surmised that the tender-mindedness facet is most closely associated with transformational leadership. This finding would imply that concept of empathy (tender-mindedness) is highly related to transformational leadership.

When directionality and causation is modeled through regression analysis, the nature of the relationship between transformational leadership and agreeableness is greatly transformed. Additionally, the concept of bandwidth fidelity is clearly evident based on observed results. Specifically, that narrow facets of agreeableness had more predictive power on narrow factors of transformation leadership than did the broader trait of overall agreeableness. None of the variance of overall transformational leadership was accounted for by overall agreeableness after controlling for demographic variables. However, the facets of agreeableness accounted for an additional 18% of the variance of overall transformational leadership after controlling for demographic variables. This finding implies that the most effective way to improve transformational leadership is by focusing on the individual facets of agreeableness, not the overall trait of transformational leadership.

Of the facets, only modesty had a significant effect. This is noteworthy as it illuminates a risk associated with assuming causation due to correlation. Specifically, tender-mindedness had the strongest correlation with transformational leadership relative to all agreeableness items; however, based on regression analysis it is clear that tender-mindedness was not a statistically significant predictor of transformational leadership. The implication for instruction is that the most time should be focused on modesty, and specifically avoiding too much modesty, to improve transformational leadership.

The transformational leadership factor of idealized influence also had striking results. Overall agreeableness accounted for 3% of the variance in idealized influence – attributed after controlling for demographic variables. The facets of agreeableness accounted for 19% of the variance in idealized influence – attributed after controlling for demographic variables. Modesty was the only facet with a significant effect. Idealized influence – behavior had a similar result. Overall agreeableness accounted for 1% of the variance after controlling for demographic variables, agreeableness facets accounted for 16% of the variance after controlling for demographic variables. Again, modesty was the only facet with a significant effect. Idealized influence – combined followed the same pattern. Overall agreeableness accounted for 3% of the variance after controlling for demographic variables, agreeableness facets accounted for 24% of the variance after controlling for demographic variables. Modesty was the only facet with a significant effect. These findings indicate that providing instruction on modesty will have the greatest impact on idealized influence.

Not surprisingly, the composite trait of charisma had a similar result. As a combination of idealized influence and inspirational motivation the flow through of idealized influence was expected. Indeed, overall agreeableness accounted for 1% of the variance in charisma after controlling for demographic variables. Agreeableness facets accounted for 21% of the variance after controlling for demographic variables. Modesty was the only facet with a statistically significant effect. This finding implies that instruction on modesty will have the greatest effect on charisma.

Based on the charisma results, it would be predicted that agreeableness would have a lower effect on inspirational motivation. Overall agreeableness accounted for 1% of the variance in inspirational motivation after controlling for demographic variables. Agreeableness facets accounted for 13% of variance in inspirational motivation after controlling for demographic variables. However, the omnibus models including agreeableness and agreeableness facets were not statistically significant and consequently further interpretation is limited.

Overall agreeableness only predicted 4% of the variance in intellectual stimulation after controlling for demographic variables. Agreeableness facets predicted an additional 15% of the variance in intellectual stimulation after controlling for demographic variables. Of the facets tender-mindedness had a statistically significant effect. However, the omnibus models including agreeableness and agreeableness facets were not statistically significant and consequently further interpretation is limited.

The final transformational leadership factor, and the factor best predicted by agreeableness, was individualized consideration. Overall agreeableness accounted 14% of the variance in individualized consideration after controlling for demographic

variables. Agreeableness had a statistically significant positive effect on individualized consideration after controlling for demographic variables. Agreeableness facets accounted for an additional 29% of the variance in individualized consideration after controlling for demographic variables. Modesty was the only agreeableness facet that was statistically significant in predicting individualized consideration. The results are interesting because in this particular situation it would appear as though overall agreeableness is a more robust predictor of individualized consideration than the individual facets; however, the omnibus model that included the facets was statistically significant. For this factor the recommendation may be focus on overall agreeableness, including all facets, with slightly more time spent on modesty.

Recommendations

Based on the study results and discussion a number of recommendations are proposed for practice and future research. Recommendations for practice are organized based on the groups identified in Chapter 1 as potential beneficiaries of the study.

Recommendations for Practice

The group most proximal to the study, and consequently best positioned to benefit in the shortest time period, is the instructor of the undergraduate leadership course and the respondents of the study, or the class students. By having a more comprehensive understanding of the composition of the leadership class the instructor will be able to tailor learning interventions accordingly. A more customized learning environment will benefit students and encourage more meaningful and engaged learning in all environments.

To improve the student learning experience, the instructor can use the demographic, correlational, and regression results to customize teaching accordingly. It

is appropriate to focus on overall level of transformational leadership first because the primary intent of the course is leadership development. A dynamic iteration between result sets will result in the most customized and meaningful instruction.

For example, based on demographic analysis there was a very small difference in transformational leadership between males and females. To increase transformational leadership capacity in all students, the instructor could refer to the regression analysis to determine which facet of agreeableness had the most significant effect. For this class modesty had a statistically significant negative effect with overall transformational leadership.

Given this information, the instructor can then refer back to additional agreeableness data broken down by demographic categories. Based on the agreeableness by gender results, males had lower levels of modesty than females. An appropriate training strategy might be to randomly pair a student low in modesty with a student high in modesty. The student low in modesty might be able to describe how they handle interpersonal interactions. Through peer interaction the student with low modesty may be able to make a personal connection with the student with high modesty, acting as a catalyst for the student with high modesty to internalize the concept and be more open to instruction and change. Based on the demographic results an efficient approach to random pairing would be done by pairing males with females. The intent of the exercise is not to encourage the exploitation of differences between genders; it is simply a suggested approach to encourage student engagement based on study results.

This pairing activity can lead to a broader classroom discussion than more traditional lecture-based instruction. The instructor can describe how modesty is related to transformational leadership and why it is necessary to have a healthy, but not over abundant, amount of humility. This instruction could include references to popular literature such as Grant (2013) who specifically advises those that tend to give of themselves freely to be aware and avoid the “doormat effect” (p. 189), or too much modesty.

A similar approach can be used as it relates to teaching idealized influence. Previous research, found that idealized influence was related to innovative workplace behavior (Abbas et al., 2012). By focusing on the agreeableness item that is most predictive of idealized influence, modesty, the instructor can encourage the development of idealized influence, and subsequently workplace innovation in students.

The instructor could introduce the composite factor of charisma following instruction on idealized influence. Charisma has been referred to as the core transformational leadership factor (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001). Because the primary predictor of charisma is modesty, the instruction on idealized influence should have positive flow through effect on charisma as well.

The transformational leadership factor of intellectual stimulation has also been shown to precede a number of positive organizational outcomes. Teams led by individuals high in intellectual stimulation had higher levels of workplace innovation (Abbas et al., 2012) and greater job satisfaction (Emery & Barker, 2007). Based on results from the study it would be suggested that teaching about the subject directly might be most effective. It appeared that females in the class tended to score higher in

this factor than their male counterparts. However, when reviewing the regression analysis it is clear that agreeableness, and agreeableness facets, are not necessarily good predictors of the factor. To create a meaningful learning environment agile teaching techniques must be employed. Given the study results a lecture based instructional approach would be recommended.

Finally, individualized consideration is the transformational leadership factor that is best predicted by agreeableness. Based on regression analysis overall agreeableness best predict individualized consideration. Given the results of the regression analysis it is the integration of all facets of agreeableness into the overall agreeableness trait that is a statistically significant predictor of individualized consideration. It would be recommended that the instructor discuss all of the facets of agreeableness and how they are all incrementally important towards the prediction of the individualized consideration.

Based on all of the results, focusing on the agreeableness facet of modesty would likely have the greatest impact in teaching transformational leadership. With significant predictive relationships with several factors of transformational leadership, as well as overall transformational leadership, focusing on the facet of modesty represents an opportunity for significant return on learning investment. Leveraging demographic data on agreeableness and transformational leadership is supportive of instructional discretion, but should not be misinterpreted as prescriptive. The recommendations are examples of how the data could be interpreted and used, but should not be a substitute for active learning development and instructional dexterity depending on the needs of students or classroom context.

It is interesting to note that the direction of the primary effect between agreeableness and transformational leadership was negative, as manifested in the modesty facet. This result was unexpected, and adds to the personality and leadership literature. Without examining the nature of the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership through this study it would be difficult to predict the outcome. However, given the results, the primary recommendation for increasing transformational leadership capacity by modifying agreeableness items would be to not be too modest.

As a result of the improved, tailored instructional approach by the instructor, it is expected the students in the class will have a more efficacious learning experience. Students should have a more comprehensive understanding of the concept of transformational leadership, a better understanding of the nuance and personality antecedents of overall transformational leadership, and the factors of transformational leadership. Based on the review of the literature in Chapter 2, each of the factors of transformational leadership has been found to uniquely contribute to a number of positive organizational outcomes. Using classroom trends and encouraging student engagement, the overall learning experience should be much more meaningful.

Distal beneficiaries of improved transformation leadership development of the study respondents are the organizations that the students will subsequently be associated with. Increased transformational leadership capacity will have positive organizational outcomes ranging from increased innovation (Abbas et al., 2012) and team member job satisfaction (Emery & Barker, 2007) to improved project completion

(Elkins & Keller, 2003) and increased team member perceptions of leadership effectiveness (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012).

Recommendations for Future Research

Based on study results a number of future research areas were identified. One of the primary limitations of the study was the sample used. Without multiple classes of undergraduate students it is impossible to generalize result findings. It is suggested that the study be replicated with multiple undergraduate classes, ideally at different institutions, to confirm the results. Future studies are also encouraged to determine whether the MLQ is the most appropriate instrument to collect levels of undergraduate transformational leadership. For example, alternate instruments such as the Student Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 1998) should be included in future research.

In addition to undergraduate leadership students, it is also recommended that future research replicate the study with non-student audiences, particularly adult learners engaged in leadership development programs. A non-student audience would provide a larger range of ages against which to analyze results. Additionally, a larger audience would provide more statistical power to results and would subsequently increase levels of confidence associated with those results. Another complimentary line of inquiry is suggested around whether observed differences between ages are more related to generational identification as opposed to numeric age. Future research is suggested to examine the nature of the relationship between agreeableness, transformational leadership, and different generations.

For both undergraduate and adult audiences the use of longitudinal studies would also add clarity to the value of transformational leadership development over

time. Tracking the performance of individuals that have completed transformational leadership development over time will be beneficial when describing the organizational outcomes associated with the development.

Another limitation of the study was the small number of respondents that were represented in numerous race/ethnicity categories. Hofstede (1980) and House (2004) presented models to quantify numerous cultural characteristics, typically based on individual countries, or clusters of countries. Replication of the study in multiple undergraduate leadership courses may increase the audience size to a level necessary to interpret results. Although the sample size was small there do appear to be differences between various ethic and racial groups. These differences should be further explored when a sufficient level of statistical power is obtained. Additionally, it is suggested to replicate the study in countries outside of the United States. Studying undergraduate leadership students in countries outside the United States would be the preferred approach to being able to determine if there are cultural differences among audiences that are statistically significant as it relates to agreeableness or transformational leadership.

A final recommendation would be to design an experiment to test whether including agreeableness training had the expected impact on transformational leadership. Although the results for this study are clear that there is a significant amount of variance in transformational leadership that is predicted by agreeableness it is not clear that the results are causal. Specifically, it is unclear if attempts to modify the agreeableness antecedents will have the expected result on transformational

leadership. An experimental design used to test this supposition would contribute additional clarity and further inform effective, engaged, and meaningful learning.

Synopsis

Chapter 5 presented a summary of the study results, study conclusions, study discussion and implications, as well as study recommendations. The objectives of the study were to describe levels of agreeableness, describe levels of transformational leadership, identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and agreeableness, identify the relationship between individual demographic characteristics and transformational leadership, identify the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership, and Identify how agreeableness predicts transformational leadership in undergraduate leadership students.

APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

Personality & Leadership Survey (NOTE: MLQ is copyright protected and consequently is not included)

We are interested in finding out how individuals think about themselves and their leadership style. Your input will help us develop opportunities for students like yourselves to have the best experience possible.

First, we would like to know how you view yourself. Please rate your level of agreement or disagreement with how well the following statements describe you:

| "I..." | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Trust others. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Believe that others have good intentions. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Trust what people say. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Distrust people. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Use others for my own ends. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Cheat to get ahead. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Take advantage of others | <input type="radio"/> |
| Obstruct others' plans. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Am concerned about others. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Love to help others. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Am indifferent to the feelings of others. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Take no time for others. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Love a good fight. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Yell at people. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Insult people. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Get back at others. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Believe that I am better than others. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Think highly of myself. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Have a high opinion of myself. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Boast about my virtues. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Sympathize with the homeless. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Feel sympathy for those who are worse off than myself. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Am not interested in other people's problems. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Try not to think about the needy. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Often feel blue. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Rarely get irritated. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Am often down in the dumps. | <input type="radio"/> |

| "I..." | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Feel comfortable with myself. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Have frequent mood swings. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Feel comfortable around people. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Make friends easily. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Keep in the background. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Am skilled in handling social situations. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Don't like to draw attention to myself. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Am always prepared. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Pay attention to details. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Find it difficult to get down to work. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Make plans and stick to them. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Do just enough work to get by. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Have a vivid imagination. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Carry the conversation to a higher level. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Avoid philosophical discussions. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Am not interested in abstract ideas. | <input type="radio"/> |
| Enjoy hearing new ideas. | <input type="radio"/> |

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Kevan Warren Lamm grew up in northern Colorado on a small Simmental cattle ranch. He participated in 4-H including projects in equine, market beef, breeding beef, and veterinary science. Following high school he attended Colorado State University (CSU) for his undergraduate degree in mechanical engineering. While at CSU he was very involved in the Greek system as well as numerous student organizations. In particular he was president of his fraternity, Alpha Gamma Rho, as well as president of the Block and Bridle club. He was also a member of the Society of Automotive Engineers and was inducted into the Order of the Engineer.

Following graduation Kevan went to work for Accenture, a management consulting company with over 200,000 global professionals. He began working as a business analyst helping a large telecom provider in the western United States roll out a customer relationship management tool set to their global workforce. During this period he had the opportunity to observe the importance of effective training for adults in the corporate environment. Although the tool was world class the value was realized when individuals were enabled to use the tool effectively through proper training. Enthusiasm for training and development led him to move from his consulting role to an outsourcing position where he could focus on developing training for companies as part of a world class development center.

As an Instruction Design Analyst Kevan was responsible for developing training materials for companies in a variety of mediums. He had the opportunity to work in Instructor Led Training (ILT), Virtual Instructor Led Training (vILT), as well as Web Based Training (WBT). He developed technical training for a telecommunications equipment manufacturer, soft skills training for a leading mortgage banking institution,

sales training for a larger consumer finance organization, as well as leadership training for a large pharmaceutical manufacturer.

After developing training material for several years Kevan was promoted to be an Instructional Design Lead where he oversaw the training development efforts of up to 10 analysts. This role gave him the opportunity to observe the importance of management and leadership techniques in effectively motivating a team. During this time Kevan also had the opportunity to travel to Bangalore, India where he helped to establish and operationalize an outsourcing development center. This included sharing best practices, coaching on grammatical issues, accent neutralization, and coaching senior staff. Travelling to India and spending an extended period of time gave him an appreciation for cultural context and the universality of certain leadership approaches.

Kevan was then promoted into the role of operations lead for the network of development centers. His responsibilities included managing the staffing of four centers (Denver, Chicago, Bangalore, and Brisbane) with over 300 global content development professionals. Additionally he was responsible for managing the utilization of the global workforce and ensuring organizational productivity targets were met. This included the implementation of a global time tracking system and the generation of weekly status reports that were subsequently shared with senior management. This role gave Kevan the chance to observe the importance of rigor in data collection and analysis.

Based on his success with the development organization Kevan was promoted to the operational lead for the delivery organization within the Accenture Learning Services suite of offerings. This role included the implementation of a time tracking system and the training of over 600 global content delivery experts. Additionally Kevan and his team

were responsible for managing a network of 1000 contract delivery professionals that provided ILT services in over 70 countries with annual revenue of \$5 million. During this time Kevan developed three patentable data analysis architectures and received the Accenture Inventor award for 2008, 2009, and 2010. After successfully designing, implementing, and operationalizing a delivery services operational approach Kevan was promoted to a contract manager.

As a contract manager Kevan was responsible for negotiating master service agreements (MSA) and statements of work (SOW) with strategic vendors. Specifically he was in charge of establishing MSAs with all of the primary Learning Management System (LMS) providers. These strategic contracts resulted in increased margin for the Accenture organization as well as volume benefits for vendors. Preferential pricing negotiated during the MSA process resulted in over \$10 million worth of additional revenue benefit to Accenture. Although it was with great reluctance Kevan decided to leave Accenture to become a full time student at the University of Florida in the fall of 2012.

While at the University of Florida Kevan has had the opportunity to take classes on leadership development, evaluation, motivation, and statistics. It has been exciting to have the opportunity to leverage his professional experience in an academic setting. He continues to have a strong passion for the importance of training, and leadership development in particular. He is also passionate about the need to rigorously evaluate results and to use those results as an opportunity to improve. His dream is to continue next complete his Ph.D. in leadership development and then move into a faculty role

where he can help share his enthusiasm for leadership development with the next generation of professionals.