2020

Youth Leadership Development Program Evaluation

Loreley Lyn Smith
Walden University

Walden University

College of Management and Technology

This is to certify that the doctoral study by

Loreley Lyn Smith

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Peter Anthony, Committee Chairperson, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Dr. Brandon Simmons, Committee Member, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Dr. Irene Williams, University Reviewer, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2020

Abstract

Youth Leadership Development Program Evaluation

by

Loreley Lyn Smith

MBA, Malone University, 2014

BS, Malone University, 2012

Doctoral Portfolio Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

October 2020

Abstract

In competitive youth sports organizations, few organizational leaders focus on leadership development to prepare youth for life situations. Sports organizational leaders are concerned about youth leadership development, as development allows youth to build skills necessary to understand their strengths and weaknesses and recognize ways to overcome fears. Grounded in social learning theory, the purpose of this summative program evaluation was to determine the extent to which a competitive youth sports leadership development program aligned with the organization's primary objective to provide skilled athletic training while providing lessons to prepare youth for adulthood. The participants comprised 40 key stakeholders, including participants of the leadership program in northeastern Ohio, who participated in, managed, or were affected by the program. Data were collected from semistructured interviews, surveys, archival data, and focus groups. The results indicated there were positive correlations linking eligible athletes to the number of athletes who participated in the leadership program for the years 2017 ($r = .84$, $p = .05$), 2018 ($r = .90$, $p = .05$), and 2019 ($r = .98$, $p = .05$). The qualitative data were examined using thematic analysis and the Van Kaam technique. The resulting themes were structure, academics, sense of self, community involvement, and physical health and safety. A key recommendation is for program leaders to evaluate programs to monitor success with meeting program outcomes continuously. The implications for positive social change include the potential for program leaders to provide a safe environment where youth learn leadership skills and use the skills independently to establish support networks to participate in community life.

Youth Leadership Development Program Evaluation

by

Loreley Lyn Smith

MBA, Malone University, 2014

BS, Malone University, 2012

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

October 2020

Dedication

This program evaluation represents much more than a bunch of hours determining the effectiveness of a program. I dedicate this final product to my family, friends, and most of all, my children. The hours spent away from them missing birthday parties, vacations, adventures, and simple memories cannot be replaced but I hope this is also a valuable display of the importance of education and personal growth.

Thank you, Steven, Kayden, and Temprence for always believing in me and understanding how important it was for me to tackle this goal. You three are my rock and constant in this ever-changing world. I love you and believe in all of you, please never stop believing in yourselves. If you have a dream, go for it, the possibilities are endless.

Acknowledgments

I want to thank Dr. Peter Anthony for constantly being my motivator, guide, editor, and realist during this program evaluation process. I want to also thank my husband for providing the love, support, and financial means to move forward with the personal goal of the highest education. Finally, I would like to thank the organization, responsible for housing the program, for allowing me to investigate their program and make this program evaluation possible.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Section 1: Background and Context

Participation in competitive youth sports helps enforce teamwork and can prepare a person for events in their life (Kniffin, Wansink, & Shimizu, 2014). Adults who have participated in competitive sports as youth exhibit more leadership, prosocial, and volunteer behavior than non-athletes (Kniffin et al., 2014). Researchers have also found that people better learn leadership skills and leadership opportunities through hands on learning and observation (Datta, 2015; Kniffin et al., 2014). It was important to understand if the participation in youth sports and leadership development programs positively impact the ability for youth to handle life situations as they enter adulthood.

Historical Background

Youth leadership development programs positively impact the growth of young people with and without disabilities (Agbede & Bariki, 2017; Suarez, 2015). Youth leadership and development programs strive to provide support, services, and opportunities that help youth achieve goals in five main adolescent developmental areas: working, learning, thriving, connecting, and leading (Agbede & Bariki, 2017; McEwan & Beauchamp, 2014). These programs allow youth to build skills necessary to understand their own strengths and weaknesses and recognize ways to overcome fears (Wehmeyerm, Agran, & Hughes, 1998; Weinberg, Freysinger, & Mellano, 2016). Studies indicate that the participation in youth leadership development programs and activities help prepare youth for adulthood and increase youth outcomes, attitudes, self-esteem, problem solving, and interpersonal skills (Ferber, Pittman, & Marshall, 2002). But it may be difficult to

determine where and when to implement youth leadership development programs in a community.

Potential environments where youth leadership development programs could be beneficial are youth sport organizations. Several researchers have conducted empirical investigations on youth leadership development in youth sport organizations (Kolb, 2015; Lerner, 2005; Roth & Gunn, 2016; Youniss, 2011). For example, Youniss (2011) identified the need of four important factors: (a) reaching youth at a developmentally appropriate time in their lifecycle, (b) structure provided through organized action, (c) social, and cognitive resources available for support, and (d) participation toward a meaningful and just cause in a positive youth leadership development program. Kirlin (2002) also found strong evidence that participation in sports organizations and leadership programs during adolescence led to better school performance and higher levels of engagement in adulthood. However, organization owners do not know the extent to which youth leadership development programs align with their organization objectives to promote strong, successful, and responsible members of society (Rosch, Collier, & Thompson, 2015). A program evaluation could determine the outcomes of the program as they relate to an organization's objectives.

Organizational Context

This program evaluation targeted a for-profit organization that provides specialized competitive gymnastics and cheerleading training to youth. World Elite (WE) Kids in northeastern Ohio offers the WE Lead, a youth leadership development training program, to all registered competitive athletes (Ganim, 2018; Lyden, 2017). The WE

Lead vision is to provide a world class safe and family oriented all-inclusive leadership training program dedicated to competitive youth athletes (Lyden, 2017). The mission of WE Lead is to provide an opportunity for youth to develop positive leadership mentoring skills, fulfill educational goals, develop conflict resolution techniques, and grow as a leader in the community through the maximization of athletic skills (Aw & Ayoko, 2017; Lyden, 2017). The WE Lead program is a leadership training series and is the framework for a strong culture of growing and elevating kids (Ganim, 2018). Specific program goals are to (a) provide a positive and safe environment for youth, (b) build confidence and self-worth, (c) promote the importance of education, (d) teach responsibility and accountability, and (e) build physically fit athletes (Lyden, 2017). Though the goals are specific to the WE Lead program, they are in accordance with governing regulations and guidelines for WE to maintain accreditations.

Additionally, organizational certifications and guidelines impact the operations of the youth leadership development program. WE is a certified organization with the U.S. All Star Federation (USASF) and the National Gymnastics Foundation (The USASF, 2018; “U.S.A. Gymnastics,” 2018); these are governing organizations that regulate and guide the organization and program. USASF and National Gymnastics Foundation guide age and performance guidelines and restrictions for the gym as well as the United States (The USASF, 2018; “U.S.A. Gymnastics,” 2018). The accreditations are highly recognized and make the organization a vital part of the local and state communities.

Key stakeholders include organization employees, athletes and their families, and members of the community. There are 40 employees on staff at the 10-year old company.

Participants in the evaluation included program participants, parents of participants, program management, and organizational leadership. Program participants included any level of athlete who participated in the program for at least 6 months and were over the age of 18. Organizational leadership included coaches, owners, and board members.

Problem Statement

The inability to handle life situations is a growing concern for youth (Sutter & Paulson, 2016). Therefore, positive leadership development is critical for youth (Case, 2017). Youth sports organizations were once a way for youth to gain life lessons and experience through fun (Romsa, Romsa, Lim, & Wurdings, 2017). Highly organized competitive sports organizations have since replaced many local youth sports organizations (Romsa et al., 2017). Despite the popularity in competitive youth sports organizations, few organizations focus on leadership development that prepares youth to handle life situations after adolescence (Romsa et al., 2017). But an approach that has generated success and enthusiasm in some competitive youth sports organizations is the implementation of youth leadership development programs as a way to create a pathway for success and adulthood (Moore, Lippman, & Brown, 2004).

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this summative program evaluation was to determine the extent to which a competitive youth sports organization's youth leadership development program aligned with the organization's primary objective to provide perfected skilled athletic training while providing lessons to prepare youth for adulthood. The competitive sports organization WE implemented a not-for-profit program, WE Lead, located in

northeastern Ohio, to teach youth the fundamentals and advanced athletic skills with guidance, encouragement, and counsel (Ganim, 2018). With the assistance and belief from coaches, youth face their fears and conquer goals. Participants for this study included program participants, parents of participants, prior program participants, program sponsor, and organizational leadership. The implications for positive social change include the potential to mature youth skills to identify community resources and use them to independently establish support networks to participate in community life.

Target Audience

Youth leadership development impacts many people in society. The results from this program evaluation can inform stakeholders which practices in place in the program were working and which were not. The stakeholders included (a) those included in the program operations (e.g., coaching staff, owners, parents, funding agency, etc.); (b) those served or affected by the program (e.g., youth participants, community, etc.); and (c) decision makers (e.g., owners, funding agency, partners). I developed a program evaluation through surveys, semistructured interviews, and focus groups with the key stakeholders and participants of the WE Lead program, which included (a) owner operators of WE Kids, (b) WE Lead program director, (c) members of the coaching staff, (d) prior athletes, and (e) parents of participating athletes, and (f) teachers and other external key recipients from the community.

Research Questions

Quantitative

1. What is the increase in program enrollment since the implementation of the WE Lead program at WE?
2. Are the athlete program participant grades significantly different before and after WE Lead program implementation?
3. What is the increase in the college applicant acceptance rates for athlete program participants before and after WE Lead program implementation?
4. Is athlete attendance at regularly scheduled practices significantly different after WE Lead program implementation?

Qualitative

1. How has the athlete applied the skills offered through lessons in the WE Lead program to other areas of his/her life?
2. What is the local community's perspective of the WE Lead program?
3. How has youth involvement in the community changed since the implementation of the WE Lead program?
4. What is the coaching staff's perception on how the program changed athlete performance after WE Lead program implementation?
5. How has the quality of junior coaching prospects changed since the implementation of the WE Lead program?
6. How has the behavior of athlete participants changed since the implementation of the WE Lead program?

Significance

The purpose of this program evaluation was to determine the extent to which the competitive youth sports organization's youth leadership development program aligned with the organization's primary objective to provide perfected skilled athletic training alongside lessons to prepare youth for adulthood. The program evaluation findings provide a way to document and publish values and benefits of the program to the organization and program stakeholders. Results may indicate the need to further improve the potential to mature youth skills to identify and use community resources not only to live independently but also to establish support networks in the community. Quantitative and qualitative data analysis techiques were used in the program evaluation respectively.

Theoretical Framework or Program Theory

Social learning theory was the theoretical framework for this program evaluation. Bandura (1969) defined social learning theory as an approach to explain how individuals learn in various social contexts. Bandura intended to explain how children observe and imitate the behavior of others (Bower & Hilgard, 1981), which is an indication of their anticipated adult behavior. Bandura identified four major principles essential to social learning theory: (a) differential reinforcement, (b) vicarious learning, (c) self-efficacy/cognitive processes, and (d) reciprocal determination. Differential reinforcement explains the variability in a person's behavior in different settings or around different people. Vicarious learning supports the idea that a person may acquire new behaviors through observation of a role model. Bandura (1977) defined cognitive processes as the method in which individuals use environmental inputs through self-reflection; individuals

can monitor their own ideas, make predictions, and determine their behavior using judgements of self-efficacy. Bandura also believed people behave certain ways because of their environment, which defines the fourth principle, reciprocal determination. As analyzed by Bandura (1969, 1977), children learn by observation; they are influenced by both social and environmental settings. Role models who display positive behavior positively influenced learned behavior of children, which carry forward to adulthood (Aoyagi, Cohen, Poczwardowski, Metzler, & Statler, 2017).

Representative Literature Review

Positive development of youth improves the community by increasing the likelihood of positive outcomes for youth across societies (Scales, Roehlkepartain, & Shramko, 2016). Youth leadership development and learning are personal transformation processes (Mohamad, Hassan, & Yahya, 2017), as social learning theorists believe society and the environment shape the behavior of the learner (Cooper & Hawkins, 2016; Jones, Edwards, Bocarro, Bunds, & Smith, 2017; Komives & Wagner, 2017). During puberty, adolescent minds begin to connect lessons, behaviors, influences, and development (Duckworth & Yeager, 2015; Hoff, Briley, Wee, & Rounds, 2018). Youth leadership development is a priority for those who want to enhance leadership development opportunities for athletes (Arnold & Silliman, 2017; Patton, Parker, & Tannehill, 2015; Turnnidge & Côté, 2018). Youth leadership development programs explain leadership and encourage youth to develop responsibility, self-efficacy, and positive mindset (Kelder, Hoelscher, & Perry, 2015; Thomas, Cote, & Deakin, 2005).

Youth leadership development programs help prepare youth for higher attainment after high school.

For the literature search strategy, I used sources from public libraries and Walden University's online library, along with databases including EBSCOhost, Direct, Lexus Nexus, Research Gate, Wiley Online Library, and ProQuest. The following search terms were keywords in my search: *youth development, YLP, youth leadership, sports, youth sports, competitive sports, community sports organizations, public sport organizations, private sports, SLT, social learning theory, leadership development, youth development programs, reinforcement, motivation, World Elite, competitive cheerleading, youth sports in United States, competitive sports, elite sports, US college acceptance and sports, positive coaching, sports and grades, social development and sports, sport participation,* and *youth sport experience.* The literature review consisted of 242 references that included peer-reviewed journal articles, journal articles, books, governmental websites, government documents, corporate documents, program documents, and relevant additional websites. The use of multiple sources ensures scholarship, rigor, and depth. Of the 242 unique sources referenced in the exhaustive literature review, 80% are current, peer-reviewed articles published between the years of 2016-2020.

In the following sections I provide an overview and evolution of the conceptual framework behind the research. I close the literature discussion with an extensive review of the literature surrounding the nature of competitive sports and youth leadership development programs in competitive sports organizations, followed by the implementation of the WE Lead program at WE.

Theoretical Framework or Program Theory

As people get older, they adapt to their surroundings and learn. Youth development programs have the premise that all young people possess the potential for change, and personal and social assets are learned (McDonough, Ullrich-French, & McDavid, 2018). Several researchers have attempted to explain how people think and what factors determine behavior through learning theories (Lamm, Sapp, & Lamm, 2018). But Bandura (1977) found uncertainty in the initial behaviorism theory findings. Bandura used prior research findings and theories presented by previous researchers (Kohler, 1927, 1957; Rotter, 1954; Caldwell & Jones, 1954; Tolman, 1948) and formed the concept known as the social learning theory.

Kohler's insight learning theory. Learning occurs in a variety of ways. Sometimes people learn as the result of direct observation and other times as the result of experience through personal interactions with the environment (Kohler, 1959; Sanders, Van Oss, & McGeary, 2016). Kohler called this observation a type of cognitive theory of learning, insight learning (Bautista, Roth, & Thom, 2011). Insight learning is the abrupt realization of a problem's solution (Goldin, Patel, & Perry, 2014; Terlecki & McMahon, 2018). Many researchers have attempted to measure cognitive qualities for the purposes of educational policy and practice (Duckworth & Yeager, 2015). For instance, Kohler (1927) conducted a study on apes for evidence of insight learning due to their similar intelligence and behavior to humans. Through multiple experiments, Kohler noted that the apes determined alternate routes to overcome a blocked direct path toward an object,

solving the problem and finding the potential to move into a more favorable position (Bautista et al., 2011; Lisman, Buzsaki, Eichenbaum, Rangananth, & Redish, 2017).

Kohler's (1927, 1957) theory of insight learning became an early argument for the involvement of cognition in learning. Youth learn chance, behavior, and norms through motivation and engagement experiences (Whitley, Farrell, Maisonet, & Hoffer, 2017). Youth development programs focus on cognition in learning, which can help build problem solving and prepare youth for future growth (Ganim, 2017). Mentor-led development lessons encourage and guide youth to plan and make their own decisions (Van Oss & McGeary, 2016). Research indicates that these experiences aid in a youth's ability to become a successful contribution in society (Whitley et al., 2017). But decisions may differ between youth in different environments.

Tolman's latent learning theory. Not all people learn the same. Tolman (1948) evaluated behavior and reinforcement in relation to learning to develop the theory of latent learning (Caldwell & Jones, 1954). Latent learning may not be immediately visible to a person until motivation and circumstance appear (Thorpe, 1956). Tolman suggested that individuals do more than merely respond to stimuli; they act on beliefs, attitudes, changing conditions, and they strive toward goals. Further, researchers have maintained that behavior is cognitive (Gill & Prowse, 2016; Tolman, 1948), and not all people learn at the same speed or in the same way as one another. Some people may need guidance to learn. For instance, Tolman introduced the cognitive map, which is a mental image of any external environmental feature. The mental image is a representation of a physical space someone can use as a map to move from one location to another through signals from the

environment built from their mental image (Tolman, 1948). When using the cognitive map model, short cuts and alternate routes are more common (Thorpe, 1956). Images and repetition may help determine alternate routes.

In addition, the way people learn varies. For example, Tolman (1948) built a maze to investigate the concept of latent learning in hungry rats. The objective for the rats was to find their way through the maze to a food box (Caldwell & Jones, 1954; Cochran, Maskaly, Jones, & Sellers, 2017). One group of rats had food available in the food box at the end of the maze from the 1st day of the study (Caldwell & Jones, 1954). A second group of rats never found food at the end of the maze for the entire study (Caldwell & Jones, 1954; Tolman, 1948). The third group, however, had no food at the end of the maze for the first 10 days, but on the 11th day, the researcher introduced food in the box (12th to the 22nd day inclusive; Caldwell & Jones, 1954; Thorpe, 1956;). The results indicated that rats learned with reinforcement and held internal cognitive maps of mazes they ran to reach the end of the maze (Akers, 2017). The third group, however, learned through delayed reinforcement, able to maneuver through the maze at a faster pace than the first group, the immediate reinforcement group (Chamizo & Mackintosh, 2007). Therefore, there is a positive distinction between learning and performance (Caldwell & Jones, 1954). A person's exposure can influence learning and behavior.

Rotter's expectancy value theory. Rotter (1954) noted that personality represents a person and their interaction with the environment. Personality influences responses to conditioning, showing that cognitive factors affect learning (Rotter, 1942, 1954, 1975). Rotter (1942, 1975) suggested that personality and behavior could change;

if there was change in a person's interactions or environment, then the behavior changed. Rotter also indicated that people seek to maximize their reinforcement driven by goals, rather than just avoiding punishment (Caldwell & Jones, 1954; Mearns, 2009; Williams. 2010).

Rotter's (1960) expectancy value model contains four components: behavior potential, expectancy, reinforcement value, and psychological situation. The components of the model are illustrated in the equation behavioral potential = *f*(expectancy & reinforcement value (Rotter, 1942). In other words, when the model components are present, a person can calculate the expectancy of a behavior. The likelihood that a behavior would happen is behavior potential. The concept involves the comparison of many other potential behaviors (Caldwell & Jones, 1954). For each possible behavior, there is a behavior potential an individual would exhibit (Williams, 2010). Expectancy is the subjective probability that a behavior would lead to a particular outcome (Rotter, 1975). A high expectancy indicates that an individual is confident that the behavior would result in a specific outcome (Deitrich, Viljaranta, Moeller, & Kracke, 2017; Williams, 2010). Expectancy may be generalized or specific (Williams, 2010), and there are three types of expectancy: simple, behavior-reinforced outcome, and reinforcement sequences (Deitrich et al., 2017). Individuals build expectations from past situations and experience (Rotter, 1960). The more often a past behavior led to reinforcement, the stronger an expectancy; however, there may be no relationship between the assessments of likelihood because of over or under estimation (Guo, Marsh, Parker, Morin, & Dicke, 2017; Mearns, 2009). Finally, the reinforcement value of a goal is associated to the

desirability of an outcome for a behavior (Rotter, 1960). As with expectancy, reinforcement value is subjective and dependent on an individual's life experiences (Williams, 2010). For example, punishment from a parent is traditionally a negative reinforcement most children avoid, but if the child lacks positive attention, then the child may seek out parental punishment due to the higher reinforcement value than neglect (Alm, Olsen, & Honkanen, 2015; Castro et al., 2015; Mearns, 2009). However, youth may be difficult to evaluate because they may not have many past experiences.

Rotter's (1954) expectancy value theory explains the expectation of human behavior in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental influences motivated by a set of psychological needs. Between the ages of 7 and 11, youth develop the cognitive ability to classify, order, handle numbers, and operations (Glatthorn et al., 2018). Repeated combinations of experiences and visualizations allow the brain to store, network, and recall as needed (Holland, 2016). Rotter defined six categories of psychological needs used as motivation:

1. recognition-status, the need to be good or better than other individuals,
2. protection- dependency, the need to have another individual present to prevent frustration or punishment,
3. dominance, the need to direct or control the actions of other individuals,
4. independence, the need to rely on oneself,
5. love and affection, the need for acceptance by other individuals, and
6. physical comfort, a learned need for physical satisfaction. (Howard, Gagne, Morin, & Forest, 2018).

Bandura's social learning theory. Bandura (1977) proposed a cognitive approach to social learning. Bandura introduced the application of role modeling and imitation of behavior to a theory of learning, suggesting that individuals learn from one another through the role modeling process. Bandura termed this theory as learning or the social learning theory.

The social learning theory serves as a theoretical foundation for behavior modeling (Bandura, 1986). Bandura (1977) approached the explanation of human behavior in terms of a continuous mutual interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental factors. Cognitive factors, also considered personal factors, include knowledge, expectations, and attitudes. Behavioral factors include skills, practice, and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Fleeson, Furr, Jayawickreme, Meindl, & Helzer, 2014). Finally, environmental factors include social norms, access in the community, and influence on others (Bandura, 1977; Huda, Mat Teh, Nor Muhamad, & Mohd Nasir, 2018). Everything a person encounters may help shape their learning.

Bandura (1977) further stated that learning would be impossible if people learned behavior only from their own actions. People learn most of their behavior from observational modeling (Bandura, 1977). When individuals learn by observation, they avoid unnecessary errors, and individuals can think about their actions before they perform them (Bandura, 1997; Montano & Kasprzyk, 2015). In Bandura'se social learning model, behavior assists individual learning through exposure to guides, also known as informative learning. Bandura also considered some of Tolman's (1948) results on latent learning relevant to his theory of social learning, meaning that a person can

learn a behavior through observation but may wait until a later time to display that behavior.

Additionally, the way one person completes a task may be different from how another person completes the same task. Bandura (1986) proposed that an individual's thought process effects his or her behavior, dependent on exposure to social experiences and observations. An individual can change due to the skills needed to be effective in efforts needed to attain goals, validating elements from Rotter's (1954) expectancy value theory (Bandura, 1977). Bandura (1997) further explained a person's ability to set and achieve goals is dependent on direct experiences and observations related to the environment. As a person achieves goals, their confidence and willingness to set additional goals increases (Brumbaugh & Cater, 2016). Bandura defined this concept of confidence as self-efficacy (Fransen, Mertens, Feltz, & Boen, 2017; Voskuil & Robbins, 2015), which is influenced by four sources of information (Bandura, 1997). The most important influence comes from goal attainments; successes increase self-efficacy and failures decrease it (Deane, Harre, Moore, & Courtney, 2017). Self-efficacy also increases when individuals master specialized tasks (Bandura, 1997). Further, social self-efficacy reflects an individual's capability to communicate with others, build relationships, manage interpersonal conflict, and assert personal viewpoints (Bandura, 1977). Individuals who have a higher sense of social self-efficacy feel more comfortable to collaborate in social relationships (Dubois et al., 2011; McDonough, Ullrich-French, & McDavid, 2018). Positive self-efficacy has been associated with scholastic achievement and greater academic aspirations (Morton & Montgomery, 2013; Soderhjelm, Bjorklund,

Sandahl, & Bolander-Laskov, 2018). Athletic based youth development programs that target social and emotional learning have also had positive effects on self-efficacy (DuBois et al., 2011; Taylor, Oberle, Durlak, & Weissberg, 2017).

A second influence on self-efficacy is vicarious learning experiences (Bandura, 1977). Vicarious learning is when a person learns through an indirect method such as through a map, symbol, observation, and even word of mouth (Manz & Sims, 1981). Bandura (1977) that suggested observers learn faster than the actual performers of the task because the learners focus on the performance of required responses. Exposure to role models work because people see similar people successfully perform a difficult task, which raises their own efficacy expectations (Manz & Sims, 1981). Bandura (1986) also explained that prior experiences guide an individual's actions rather than reliance on outcomes to guide their actions, which was referred to as "imitative behavior" (Bandura, 1977; Kolb, 2014). The observation of the role model could either prevent or promote behavior brought depending on the consequences of a model's behavior: if the role model received reinforcement, then the observer usually continued the behavior; if the model's behavior received punishment, then the individual was most likely to stall the behavior (Bandura, 1969, 1971; Sandi & Haller, 2015). Role models have helped positively direct youth, but elements in the environment still reroute youth. Young people can be vulnerable, especially when self-efficacy is low.

Verbal persuasion is the third influence on an individual's self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Stanjkovic, Bandura, Locke, Lee, & Sergent, 2018). Convincing people that they have the ability to perform a task can encourage them to try harder, which may lead to

successful performance (Bandura, 1986; Manz & Sims, 1981). When youth have failed to complete a verbal persuasion task due to unrealistic expectations, self-efficacy was negatively impacted (Lamarche, Gionfriddo, Cline, Gammage, & Adkin, 2014). Thus, verbal persuasion influences psychological and behavioral outcomes (Bandura, 1977). Youth programs often introduce mature and successful adults from the community to serve as mentors for young people in order to expand their experiences beyond family and school (Fritsch, Rasmussen, & Chazdon, 2018). Role models and guidance from mentors provide useful self-efficacy sources for young people and facilitate successful performance (Lamarche et al., 2014). Role models can help rebuild and maintain positive self-efficacy in youth.

Finally, leaders taught youth strategies to cope with emotion, which lead to an increase self-efficacy (Greenberg, Domitrovich, Weissberg, & Durlak, 2017). Bandura's (1977) theory stated the environment altered the behavior of an individual, and in return, the behavior of the individual was also responsible for a change in the environment. Moods, emotions, physical reaction, and stress level influenced how an individual felt about their personal abilities (Shek, Yu, Wu, & Merrick, 2017). When an individual was nervous, self-efficacy was weak because of doubt in ability (Bandura, 1986). If someone was confident and felt no anxiety or nervousness at all, they experienced a great sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Shek et al., 2017). Bandura (1977) noted the importance of gaining the ability to manage emotions. When an individual's anxiety was controlled, there was a positive impact on self-efficacy (Lamarche, 2014). If the individual approached a task more calmly, then the likelihood of succession to positive self-efficacy

increased (Shek et al., 2017). Lessons taught in youth leadership development programs help youth manage emotions and allow them to focus on their sport skills (Greenburg et al., 2017). When youth have positive outcomes in sports, they have a positive self-efficacy (Blanton, Sturges, & Gould, 2014). Continued growth and success built positive self-efficacy

Learning was dependent and factors in a person's environment may affect learning and development. Youth leadership development and learning are personal transformation processes (Korotov, 2016). Social learning theory theorists (Bandura, 1977; Rotter, 1954) proposed environment and society shaped the growth and behavior of an individual. During childhood, youth minds begin to connect lessons, behaviors, influences, and development (Gomez, Carter, Forbes & Gray, 2018; Lamarche, 2014). Osmane and Brennan (2018) collected data from four Pennsylvania public high schools regarding youth leadership development. Social support was the most important predictor of leadership skills followed by civic engagement and social interaction variables (Hope & Jagers, 2014; Osmane & Brennan, 2018; Osmane, 2016). When youth participated in leadership programs leadership skills, development of youth responsibility, self-efficacy, and leadership skills were gained (Champine, 2017; Seemiller, 2018). Youth leadership programs provided the positive mindset for youth that prepared them for higher attainment after high school (Gomez et al., 2018; Korotov, 2016; United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2013). The implementation of youth leadership development programs for young people helped prepare them for success in their adult life.

Problem

Competitive sports are popular in the United States. More than 60 million youth participate in youth sport organizations throughout the United States (Brue & Brue, 2018; Fishman et al., 2017). Youth experience many positive developmental outcomes through sport involvement (Holt et al., 2017; Lunde & Gattario, 2017). Researchers (Larson, 2000; Perkins & Noam, 2007; Weiss, Stuntz, Bhalla, Bolter, & Price, 2013) indicated while sport participation was an avenue for physical activity and well-being; it was an effective method to teach leadership skills to youth. Participation in sports can help children develop positive character traits and life values in society (Ramirez, 2006; Shamblen, Ringwalt, Clark, & Hanley, 2014). Many community youth sport organizations are structured to include leadership development programs as part of their program, because the community often sponsors them (Paulson, 2016; Winton, 2018). The inclusion of youth leadership programs promoted character and benefit both individuals and society (Lerner, Johnson, & Buckingham, 2015; Lerner, Lerner, Bowers, & Geldhof, 2015). Community youth sports include the character building and leadership training provided in leadership development programs; however, they may lack the desired competitive sport training desired by many.

Popular competitive sports may have replaced community sports in the realm of youth sports. In the 1900's local organizations often sponsored community and school youth sports (Wehrli, 2010; Trottier & Robitaille, 2014). Since the 1950's community and sports-based youth sports transformed into more adult organized competitive sport organizations (Paulson, 2016; Whitely, Forneris, & Barker, 2015). There was an increase

in season length, practice times, travel requirements, competitions, and enhanced physic, over direct leadership development lessons, in some competitive sports organizations (Seemiller, 2018; Sutter & Paulson, 2016). Few programs teach life and sport skills in a systematic manner and a majority of adults whom facilitate youth sport programs have no formal training in youth leadership development (Ewing et al., 2002; Ferris et al., 2016; Price & Elmer, 2015; Walker & Larson, 2006; Wormington, Anderson, Tomlinson, & Brown, 2013). As a result, researchers reported young adults experience lower self-esteem, competence, and increased inability to handle life situations after adolescence (Best, Manktelow, & Taylor, 2014; Clark, Caire, Wade, & Cairney, 2015; Sutter & Paulson, 2016). Organizations may now focus less on positive youth leadership development and instead focus only on competitive sport training during team time.

Competitive sports organizations. Leaders may develop in team sports. Researchers identified sports as a favorable environment that promoted leadership development (Slade, Philip, & Morris, 2018; Hector, Raabe, & Wrisberg, 2018). Sport was the most popular extracurricular activity for youth across North America (Bean, & Forneris, 2016; Jones, Edwards, Bocarro, Bunds, & Smith, 2017). Competitive youth sports organizations provide high performance athletic training to young athletes (Bell & Suggs, 1998; Camire & Trundel, 2013). The organizations serve to improve and stabilize the performance potential of athletes in specific sports and competitive situations (Vella, Oades, & Crowe, 2013; Zagata, 2015). Providing youth leadership development programs while already providing skilled performance training may prepare youth for both competitive and life situations at once.

It was important to provide youth a positive path for overall growth and success. Sixty-six percent of children in the United States receive an average of a "C" grade in school, only 50% of the children participate in competitive sports (Tremblay et al., 2014). Evidence from research indicated grades for youth athletes increased 5% per decade (Comeaux, Snyder, Speer, & Taustine, 2014; Tremblay et al., 2014). Comeaux, Snyder, Speer, and Taustine (2014) surveyed the academic success and leadership competence of recent college graduates (Oparinde, Agbede, & Bariki, 2017; Ekstrand, Lundqvist, Lagerback, Vouillamoz, Papadimitiou, & Karlsson, 2018). Results from the research yielded positive relationship between male and female student athletes and multicultural experiences during college with leadership skills exhibited after college (Comeaux et al., 2014; Mallinson-Howard, Knight, Hill, & Hall, 2018; Center for Higher Education Enterprise, 2015). Busch et al. (2014) found a positive relationship between extracurricular participation and subsequent academic achievement. Sport was important in the lives of athletes to help implement positive team culture and family support (Fairhurst, Bloom, & Harvey, 2017; Pekel, Roehlekepartain, Syvertsen, & Scales, 2015; Willard-Grace et al., 2017). Ensign and Woods (2014) noted the ability to work in a diversified environment was an essential attribute in the workforce therefore competitive sports teams prepared students to work in various cultural settings. Researchers (Comeaux et al., 2014; Ensign & Woods, 2014; Gorry, 2016; Leman, et al., 2017; Tremblay, 2014) found areas that student athletes focus on equally on a daily basis are academic commitment, athletic commitment, personal development commitment, and career development commitment. Researchers established that both the mid-term and

final grades of competitive student athletes are significantly higher than non-athletes (Jayanthi, Balakrishnan, Ching, Latiff, & Nasirudeen, 2014; Tremblay, 2014). Student athletes in many studies miss class less often than non-student athletes (Ensign & Woods, 2014). Munoz-Bullon, Sanchez-Bueno, and Vos-Sas's (2017) proved competitive youth sports participation help lead to personal attainment of performance goals, which colleges seek in applicants. Many researchers (Munoz-Bullon et al., 2017; Rosch & Collins, 2017; Tremblay, 2014) found through comparative studies that competitive sports improve academic performance and increase academic achievement. Continued support and encouragement from others can help youth attain goals and succeed.

Competitive sports help build leaders. Youth are encouraged to participate in competitive youth sports to, not only succeed academically, but build character, promote teamwork, build fundamental values, and establish determination and commitment (Kokolakakis, Lera-Lopez, & Panagouleas, 2015; Murphy, 2008; Zitomer & Goodwin, 2014). Heckman and Mosso (2014) explained early life conditions are important to shape multiple life skills and the evidence on critical and sensitive investment periods for the development of different skills (Pierce, Kendellen, Camire, & Gould, 2016). Sixty percent of children between the age of five and 14 participated in competitive youth sports outside of school (Thorpe, 2016; Zagata, 2015). Teams used rituals to encourage players to place loyalty to the team over individual goals and self-interest (Kooistra & Kooistra, 2018). Competitive sports organizations delivered lessons and activities geared toward meeting the needs of competitive athletes (Varmus, Kubina, Koman, & Ferenc, 2018). Leadership lessons in competitive sports may be developed, but may lack overall

life lessons.

Sports teams need good leaders. In recent studies, coaches of competitive teams described the life skills they teach, motivations, and the strategies used to teach leadership life skills during practice (Trottier & Robitaille, 2014). Young athletes participated in structured activities designed to develop physical skills and the strategy designed for specific sports (Extejt & Smith, 2009; Camire & Trudel, 2013). Kaagan (1998) explained that effectively designed leadership development activities consisted of the successful learning of challenges ordered in a specific sequence (Fairhurst, Bloom, & Harvey, 2017; Vaiginienė, Alonderienė, Pilkienė, Ramonienė, Savanevičienė, & Stankevičiūtė, 2018). In a competitive organization atmosphere team coaches determined specific activities and ordered them in a manner to develop athletic, not leadership, skills (Extejt & Smith, 2009; Turnidge, Cote, & Hancock, 2014). The type of competitive sport organization influenced the focus of training activities presented.

World Elite. Training activities may differ within one organization. WE is dedicated to the growth of children through activity (Ganim, 2018). WE has two locations in northeastern Ohio. WE offers toddler education-based activities, after-school care, gymnastics, and specializes in cheerleading (Lyden, 2017). WE is widely known and recognized for their competitive cheerleading training (Ganim, 2018). The skills provided in competitive gymnastics are different than those delivered in competitive cheerleading.

Over 200 youth (age three through 19) enroll in competitive cheerleading at WE. Competitive cheerleading is a competitive contact sport comprised of many pyramids,

gymnastics, and trapeze-based stunts (Mueller, Phelps, Bowers, Agans, Urban, & Lerner, 2009). Highly skilled and certified coaches lead the athletes in the WE facilities for up to 40 hours weekly over the course of 10 -12 months (Ganim, 2018). The athletes learn and perform organized two minutes and thirty second routines to spectators (Adelman &Taylor, 2006; Grindstaff & West, 2006). Coaches spend a significant amount of time with youth to develop skills and lessons.

Governing bodies require organizations deliver certain lessons. The USASF governs competitive cheerleading at WE (Cerna, 2014; Ganim, 2018; The USASF, 2018). The governing body aims to establish fair and consistent rules to create competition standards (Leppler, 2014). The USASF establishes requirements and credential training for coaches, certifies legality officials, sanctions events, and maintains safety guidelines (The USASF, 2018). The main goal of the governing body is to provide the safest possible environment for All Star cheer and dance athletes to train and compete (The USASF, 2018). All Star event producers, affiliate companies, cheer gyms, dance studios, program owners, coaches, and athletes comprise the membership of the USASF (Leppler, 2014). USASF is a not-for-profit corporation governed by bylaws, officers, a Board of Directors, and 11 standing committees (The USASF, 2018). The mission is to support and enrich the lives of All Star athletes and members, provide consistent rules, drive competitive excellence, and promote a positive image for the sport (The USASF, 2018). The USASF hosts The Cheerleading and Dance World Championship annually in Orlando, Florida (Leppler, 2014). More than 500 international teams participate at the

national championship (The USASF, 2018). Even though governing bodies may require certain lessons, organizations can deliver lessons in methods that establish differentiation.

Reputation is developed by how an organization may set them self apart from the competition. WE is an organization, whose purpose is to elevate kids to give them an edge and purpose in life (Ganim, 2018). Teams trained by the organization have ranked in the top 10% in the world and in the top 50% in the United States at the world championship (Ganim, 2018). Organized athletic teams offer different experiences that constitute as learning researchers state that sport contributes to specific learning skills and values necessary to succeed in education, workforce, and in life (Ewing, Gano-Overyway, Branta, & Seefeldt, 2002). While athletic training is the primary goal of the organization, WE recognized the athletes and community would benefit from structured leadership development through athletic training (Ganim, 2018). Practices and team gatherings provided opportunity for coaches to implement and enforce a youth leadership development program to the athletes at WE (Ganim, 2018; Lyden, 2017). The combination of specialized athletic skill and leadership development set WE apart from the competition and prepared their athletes for a positive future.

Youth leadership development programs. Positive leadership development lessons and environments help prepare youth for the future. Activities and experiences in youth leadership development programs focus on the development of psychological skills and enhance self-confidence, self-efficacy, self-worth, ethical, emotional, physical, and cognitive growth in youth (Kahn, Hewes, & Ali, 2009; Wilson & Sibthorp, 2018). Youth development programs aim to guide youth toward healthy positive outcomes by

increasing exposure to developmental opportunities and support systems (Chung & McBride, 2015; Kelder et al., 2015; Larson, 2000). In a study, conducted by Manning et al. (2018), successful support systems began through peer mentoring among campers and staff (Sendak, Schilstra, Tye, Brotkin, & Maslow, 2018). Youth development programs in sports organizations complement athletic training and coaches, professionals, and even peer athletes implement the programs (Bhencke, 2006). Positive surroundings prepare youth for success.

There are multiple inputs for positive development in youth. According to Vandell, Larson, Mahoney, & Watts (2015) five C's contributed to positive youth development in leadership programs: purpose, resilience, school engagement, academic skills and achievements, and self-regulation (Iwasaki, 2015). High quality youth leadership development programs provided the ability to maximize young people's potential to thrive by embracing and enhancing their individual strengths (Masten, 2014; Urban, Lewin-Bizan, & Lerner, 2009). In a report delivered by Lippman, Ryberg, Carney, and Moore (2015) they explained leadership skills were important for human capital development and workforce success. Many after school groups implemented youth development programs that promote the development of prosocial behaviors, like Boy Scouts of America (BSA) (Champine & Johnson, 2017; Vandell et al., 2015).

Youth development leads to leadership development in youth. Boy Scouts of America enhanced the socialization and life skills of youth through positive leadership development (Hamilton, 2014; Lerner et al., 2013). The youth leadership training opportunities through BSA provide youth members hands-on experiential learning

through actual leadership roles (Sammons, Davies, Day, & Gu, 2014; Wang et al., 2017). Champine and Johnson (2017) met with participants, parents of participants, and leaders of the BSA and conducted a mixed methods investigation of youth leadership development. Results from the research indicated parents felt the interaction with positive role models in the program was important in the successful development of their children (Hamilton, 2014). On the other hand, both the participants and leaders believed youth adventure experiences and interactions with peers were the primary indictor of positive youth development (Ramey et al., 2015). In a longitudinal, mixed-method study of Boy Scouts of America, researchers evaluated 46 program leaders in order to better understand their perceptions of how they influence youth (Seider, Jayawickreme, & Lerner, 2017). The researchers found leaders believed they promoted positive youth outcomes, including character and self-confidence, through caring youth-leader relationships and facilitating opportunities for youth to participate in and lead skill-building activities and apply skills to all areas of adulthood (Hamilton, 2014; Lerner et al., 2013; Seider et al., 2017; Whittington & Garst, 2018). Experiences people have as youth may carry forward through adulthood.

People can learn lessons from prior experiences. Prior BSA participants reported they are resilient in the face of challenges as adults because of the preparations provided through BSA lessons and experiences (Ferris, Hershberg, Su, Wang, & Lerner, 2016). The programs ran by the BSA are analyzed annually through a scorecard. The BSA governing board reviewed the results to determine areas of the program where changes and improvements are necessary (Ramey-Kranor et al., 2015). Continuous enhancement

of the program ensures scouters would receive the maximum benefit available through BSA (Chyung, Wisniewski, Inderbitzen, & Campbell, 2013). Youth leadership development programs delivered lessons differently depending on the interests of youth.

Youth in a rural environment may respond to a different approach than those in a city environment. Researchers found youth who participated in 4-H programs did better in school, developed leadership skills, and volunteered in the community more than youth who were not enrolled in extracurricular organizations (Lamn & Harder, 2009; Youniss, 2011; National 4-H Council, 2016). The National 4-H organization's mission is to empower youth to reach their full potential as they grow into adulthood (National 4-H Council, 2016; Harris, Stripling, Stephens, & Loveday, 2016). Nicholson & Klem (2016), conducted a qualitative study of participants in 4-H and their life skills. The hypothesis, 4-H improves youth stress management, resilience, learning, self-esteem, and empathy was partially supported (Ellsworth et al., 2017; Lee & Horsley, 2017; Nicholson & Klem, 2016). Stress management, learning, and self-esteem scores were higher than youth who had not participated in a 4-H program activity (Ellsworth et al., 2017; National 4-H Council, 2016). The researcher concluded that leadership development skills were important to equip youth with social, thinking, and emotional skills needed to become more effective, balanced, and empathetic adults (Ellsworth et al., 2017; Junge, Manglallan, & Raskauskas, 2003; Shamblen, Ringwalt, Clark, & Hanley, 2014). Youth in the same program related to lessons differently than their peers depending on their perception.

Summer camp can be a method to receive leadership skills. Many youth attend summer camp every year (Bird & Subramaniam, 2018; Kelly, 2018). Summer camp can be a transformative experience that has a lasting impact (Bird & Subramaniam, 2018; Sorenson, 2018). Kelly (2018) performed a qualitative study that explored the perceptions of youth involved in a leadership summer camp program. Through interviews the researcher analyzed data from interviews which showed successful leadership programs have four key concepts (a) social relationships; (b) identity and self-image; (c) agency and engagement; and (d) spirituality, ethicality, and morality (Kelly, 2018; Tubin, 2017). Youth who were involved in youth leadership development programs were receptive to activities that support community, openness, empowerment, and character (Ozier, 2018; Weiss, 2016). Adolescence is a period of reflection, personal growth, and maturation.

Athletics can be a way to deliver leadership skills for youth of all ages. Researchers at the Institute for the Study of Youth Sports proclaimed competent and caring coaches should lead and foster the well-being of youth athletes (Gould, 2017). Michigan High School Athletic Association partnered with their Captain's Leadership Training Program in an effort to emphasize the importance and training of leadership development through sport (Gould & Voelker, 2010; Sanders, 2014). The program included a series of leadership training clinics offered to 100-200 high school athletes (Gould, Carson, & Blanton, 2013). Lectures provided program lessons on topics of team building, motivation, and effective communication (Rosch & Villanueva, 2016). Evaluation of the program occurred through informal surveys given at the end of training

sessions (Blanton, Sturges, & Gould, 2014). The program evaluations reported athletes found the workshops helpful and enjoyable and that the instructional staff was knowledgeable of the topics they introduced (Gould & Voelker, 2010). The program proved to promote relationship building with peers, opponents, and school leaders (Gould & Voelker, 2010; Blanton, Sturges, & Gould, 2014). Presenters, however, indicated they did not connect with the athletes indicating a model where young people felt empowered was more effective than a more adult-dominated training model of leadership (Snell, Chan, Ma, & Chan, 2015). Program leaders no longer provide athletes with information through lecture only after program evaluation results (Blanton, Sturges, & Gould, 2014). Expert sport authority figures delivered the material to encourage problem resolution and for athletes to ask questions for help along the way (Gould & Voelker, 2010; Kempster, 2006). Information, through small and large group discussions and activities, provided interaction and collaboration among peer athletes (Walker & Larson, 2006; Blanton, Sturges, & Gould, 2014). The process developed meaningful and varying roles during the program (Hedstrom & Gould, 2004). The delivery of leadership and sport specific lessons at once, youth may receive a more complete leadership development experience.

Youth learn lessons when they participate in youth sports. There was popular belief that youth participation in sports helps to build future leaders, but research indicated merely participating in sports does not build effective leaders (Santos, Camire, MacDonald, Campos, Conceicao, & Silva, 2016). However, research has shown it was possible to effectively deliver positive youth development lessons in a sports setting (Fraser-Thomas & Deakin, 2005; Lara-Bercial et al., 2016; Lloyd et al., 2015). Features

found in sports help create climates that can foster the development of youth leadership (Camire, 2015). Researchers indicate an athlete's age and competition level influence the probability a coach has on the leadership development of the athlete (Camire et al., 2014). Organizations can incorporate youth leadership development lessons within the specialized skill training to better prepare youth for the future.

World Elite Lead Program. Determining how to implement youth leadership development programs was difficult. Organization leaders at WE attended leadership training seminars hosted by USASF in an effort to prepare staff for an upcoming merge between organizations (Lyden, 2017; The USASF, 2018). WE and the USASF shared similar goals which focused on the growth in the number of participants who benefit from positive life experiences of all-star cheerleading (Ganim, 2018; The USASF, 2017). The training series, Integrity Motivates People and Cultures to Transform (IMPACT) hosted by USASF, provided seminars to professionals in the All Star cheerleading community on how to make a life-long impact on the lives of their athletes (de Bruin & Oudejans, 2018; The USASF, 2018; Visek, Mannix, Chandran, Cleary, McDonnell, & DiPietro, 2018). The goal of the series was to provide instruction to cheerleading organization staff on how to activate young cheer and dance athletes to become strong peer role models who put team first (Mallinson-Howard, Knight, Hill, & Hall, 2018; The USASF, 2018). The lessons focused on how to train athletes to fully commit to their All Star program and learn to make the choices that lead to accomplishment (Ganim, 2018; Klapper, 2017; The USASF, 2018). Training seminars and organizational change helped provide foundation for the program development.

Many athletes enroll in competitive organizations. Over 5,000 competitive athletes have progressed through WE organization (previously known as Cheerworld and American Elite), many of which furthered their athletic career in college (Ganim, 2018; Lyden, 2017). While many athletes continued their education and attended college, over 30% of athletes chose not to move forward with their education or abandoned college after the first year (Levine, Etchinson, & Oppenheimer, 2014; Whitley, McGarry, Martinek, Mercier, & Quinlan, 2017; NACE, 2015). WE wanted to change the statistics and better prepare their organization, coaches, and athletes for the future (Ganim, 2018; Newman, Kim, Antonio, Alvarez, & Tucker, 2018). WE wanted to provide a more complete future sport and life preparation for their athletes.

Many athletes at WE began as young children. Childhood was a significant period in people's lives because of how it may affect later life stages (Rees & Main, 2015). WE ownership evaluated current and past athletes and believed the organization could better prepare their athletes for life after high school by incorporating a leadership development program (Ganim, 2018). USASF's BOLT training series became framework for WE's vision and culture to grow and elevate athletes at WE through a WE Lead program (Lyden, 2017; The USASF, 2018). While kids in the WE Lead program continue to gain physical fitness and athletic training, they also learn valuable life skills.

Youth leadership development program curriculum depends on the goal of the actual program. The WE Lead program curriculum included researched strategic topics that define and enhanced life skills along with the athletic skills they were learning (Lyden, 2017). Goals for both coaches/leaders and athletes were set and tracked

throughout the annual curriculum (Ganim, 2018; Lyden, 2017; The USASF, 2018). Through experimental learning, athletes learned numerous techniques which help them to become the best versions of themselves (Ganim, 2018). Athletes absorb the lessons better if delivered by someone they trust and who was familiar.

Athletes build trust with coaches in sport organizations. Coaches who participated in the program at WE delivered the WE Lead curriculum within the first 10-30 minutes of practice and are organized short coachable topics (Lyden, 2017). The topics and timeframe of the lessons were determined and adjusted depending on the age and size of the team (Ganim, 2018). The lesson intention was to have long-term learning and growth potential (The USASF, 2018). Both specialized and leadership goals could benefit from the goals set.

The age of the athlete affected the perception and ability to learn lessons. The teams that have older athletes received lessons on the importance on community service and philanthropy; WE leaders believed it was important for athletes and their families to give back to others in the community (Ganim, 2018). The program promoted the athletes to volunteer in the community (Lyden, 2017). The volunteer opportunities for athletes allowed athletes to experience the community and working with the community (Gardner, Vella, & Magee, 2017; Kinash et al., 2015). The opportunities fostered the future employability of athletes (Eime, Harvey, Sawyer, Craike, Symons, & Payne, 2016; Gardener, Magee, & Vella, 2017). Coaches in the program had the ability to add depth to the information to promote discussion on certain leadership development topics covered in the curriculum that benefited a particular team (Ganim, 2018; Lyden, 2017; The

USASF, 2018). While specific topics varied, the teams interacted and engaged with one another which built communication, teamwork, decision making, and leadership skills during lessons throughout the curriculum (Ganim, 2018; Peterson, 2002). Athlete participants responded to lessons differently.

The environment affects the successful retention of the lessons. The WE Lead program curriculum was set in a multi-dimension learning environment (Lyden, 2017; Petosa & Smith, 2014). The program success was dependent on knowledgeable trainers/coaches excited about each topic (Chinkov & Holt, 2016; Ganim, 2018). Mentoring relationships between athletes was important in successful leadership training programs (Hoffman, 2014). The WE Lead program lessons were built on prior research and focused on the benefits of peer mentor relationships (Loughead, Munroe-Chandler, Hoffmann, & Duguay, 2014; Lyden, 2017). By definition, a role model is a person where others imitate behavior, especially younger people (Loughead & Duguay, 2014; Sparkes & Smith, 2014). The athletes were open to new experiences in a comfortable environment which helped them share and discuss their opinions (The USASF, 2018). Hoffman and Loughead's research (2017) suggested that youth athletes that sport related mentors acted as role models by exhibiting desirable values, attitudes, and behaviors. The athletes felt their mentors set a good example by 'walking the walk' (Atkins, Johnson, Force, & Petrie, 2015; Hoffman & Loughead, 2017). The mentors increase the athlete's confidence in their athletic ability (Hoffman & Loughead, 2017; Hoffman, 2014). Mentors in the WE Lead Program are current athletes who received additional guidance through weekly training sessions from certified program educators to help with

successful mentorship (Ganim, 2018). The mentors help continued the lessons using a 'lead by example' tactic (Lyden, 2017). In an effort to keep parents informed, weekly newsletters explained topics discussed at practices and encouraged discussion at home as reinforcement of lesson goals (Balish, McLaren, Rainham, & Blanchard, 2014; Ganim, 2018; Lyden, 2017). Communication helped reiterate the lessons for athletes and informed other stakeholders of progress.

As children encountered obstacles in life they were able to apply the lessons learned in the WE Lead program as a solution. Life skills are like muscles, athletes need to use them or athletes lose the skill (Ganim, 2018). WE planned to enhance life skills of athletes from the moment each athlete stepped on to the practice floor through the WE Lead program (Ganim, 2018; Meyers & Hitt, 2017). The focus on leadership development of athletes along with the involvement in community service enhanced not only the present lives of each athlete but also their future prospects (Ganim, 2018; Lyden, 2017; The USASF, 2018; Lovat, & Clement, 2016). Until this evaluation of the WE Lead program, it was unknown if the youth leadership development program was successful in achievement of the initial goal.

Transition

Leadership development of youth is important in preparation for adulthood. Youth leadership development programs positively impact the growth of young people (Agbede & Bariki, 2017). Several researchers (Kirlin, 2002; Kolb, 2015; Lerner, 2005; Roth & Gunn, 2016; Youniss, 2011) found strong evidence that participation in sports organizations and leadership programs during adolescence led to better school

performance and higher levels of engagement in adulthood. This program evaluation targeted WE's WE Lead leadership development program. The specific program goals were to (a) provide a positive and safe environment for youth, (b) build confidence and self-worth, (c) promote the importance of education, (d) teach responsibility and accountability, and (e) build physically fit athletes (Lyden, 2017). The inability for youth to handle life situations was a growing concern of society (Buschlen, Change, & Kniess, 2018; Sutter & Paulson, 2016). Therefore, positive leadership development is important in the success of youth.

Youth sport participation is popular. Millions of children participate in organized youth sports programs in the United States and provide foundational lessons for young adult success (Nagaoka, Farrington, Ehrlich, & Heath, 2015; Zaff, Moore, Papillo, & Williams, 2003). The purpose of this summative program evaluation was to determine the extent to which the competitive youth sports organization’s youth leadership development program aligned with the organization’s primary objective to provide perfected skilled athletic training while providing lessons to prepare youth for adulthood. The results from this program evaluation informed stakeholders which elements the program offers were successful and which were not. The need for positive youth leadership development in competitive sports organizations was determined as the significance for this program evaluation. Based on prior literature, youth leadership and development programs positively affect youth through adulthood (Theokas, Danish, Hodge, Keke, & Forneris, 2008). The logic model was used as guidance for analysis and

opportunity to enhance portions of the program that were not satisfying the program's goal to prepare participants to better handle life situations.

Several researchers attempted to explain how people think and what factors determine behavior through learning theories. Social learning theory constituted as the theoretical framework for this program evaluation. Bandura (1969) defined social learning theory as an approach to explain how individuals learn in various social contexts. Youth leadership development and learning are personal transformation processes (Mohamad, Hassan, & Yahya, 2017). Social learning theory theorists believed society and environment shape the behavior of the learner, as well as, what and where learning occurs (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999; Jones, Edwards, Bocarro, Bunds, & Smith, 2017). Youth leadership programs provide a positive mindset for youth that prepare them for higher attainment after high school (Gomez et al., 2018; Korotov, 2016; United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2013). More than 60 million youth participated in youth sport organizations throughout the United States (Fishman et al., 2017). In the 1900's local organizations often sponsored community and school youth sports (Trottier & Robitaille, 2014; Wehrli, 2010). Sport is a favorable environment in which to promote leadership development, as it is the most popular extracurricular activity for youth across North America (Bean, & Forneris, 2016; Jones, Edwards, Bocarro, Bunds, & Smith, 2017). Evidence from research indicated there was a steady increase in the grades of youth athletes (Comeaux, Snyder, Speer, & Taustine, 2014; Tremblay et al., 2014). Youth are encouraged to participate in competitive youth sports to, not only succeed academically, they also build character, promote teamwork, build

fundamental values, and establish determination and commitment (Kokolakakis, Lera-Lopez, & Panagouleas, 2015; Murphy, 2008; Zitomer & Goodwin, 2014). WE is dedicated to the growth of children through activity and recognize a benefit from structured leadership development through athletic training (Ganim, 2018). Activities and experiences in youth leadership development programs focus on the development of psychological skills and enhance self-confidence, self-efficacy, self-worth, ethical, emotional, physical, and cognitive growth in youth (Kahn, Hewes, & Ali, 2009; Morris, 2016; Wilson & Sibthorp, 2018). Social development is a key element in cognitive and emotional growth of adolescents though adulthood (González & Frumkin, 2016; Whitley et al., 2017). Over 5,000 competitive athletes have progressed through WE, many of which furthered their athletic career in college (Ganim, 2018; Lyden, 2017). WE continues to provide their athletes with holistic future both in athletics and in life.

Organization leaders believed the implementation of a youth leadership development program would help prepare their athletes for the future. Staff at WE wanted to prepare their athletes for life after high school by the implementation of the WE Lead leadership development program (Ganim, 2018). The WE Lead program curriculum included researched topics that defined and enhanced life skills along with the athletic skills they learned during specialized athletic training (Lyden, 2017). The program focuses on the leadership development of athletes to enhance their lives and the community through the promotion of character, teamwork, fundamental values, determination, and commitment (Ganim, 2018; Lyden, 2017; The **USASF**, 2018). Section 2 explains the selected design, methodology, and processes involved in the

evaluation of the program. I explained the methods used to ensure the evaluation was ethical, reliable, and confidential. Finally, Section 3 indicates the results of the program evaluation.

Section 2: Project Design and Process

The goal of this doctoral study was to provide qualitative and quantitative evidence through a summative evaluation of expected outcomes against actual outcomes related to the WE Lead youth leadership development program. Prior studies have shown that participation in leadership development programs and activities as adolescents helped prepare youth for adulthood (Ferber, Pittman, & Marshall, 2002). Section 2 includes information regarding program evaluation rationale, objectives, data collection and analysis techniques, assumptions, trustworthiness, sampling procedures, assumptions, limitations, and ethical measures in the program evaluation.

Method and Design

Method

The purpose of this summative program evaluation was to determine the extent to which a competitive youth sports organization's youth leadership development program aligned with the organization's primary objective to provide perfected skilled athletic training while providing lessons to prepare youth for adulthood. The competitive sports organization WE implemented a not-for-profit program, WE Lead, in northeastern Ohio. Through the program, youth participate in focused lessons on fundamentals along with advanced athletic lessons delivered with guidance, encouragement, and counsel (Ganim, 2018). With the assistance and belief from coaches, youth face their fears and conquer goals. Participants in this study included program participants, prior program participants, program sponsor, and organizational leadership. The implications for positive social change are the potential to mature youth skills to identify community resources and use

them, not only to live independently but also to establish support networks to participate in community life.

I used the following research questions to guide the program evaluation investigate to what extent the WE Lead youth leadership development program increased team cohesiveness, performance, community leadership involvement, college acceptance rates, athlete attendance, goal attainment, improved grades, and accountability to better prepare youth with life skills to benefit them into adulthood.

Quantitative research questions.

1. What is the increase in program enrollment since the implementation of the WE Lead program at WE?
2. Are the athlete program participant grades significantly different before and after WE Lead program implementation?
3. What is the increase in the college applicant acceptance rates for athlete program participants before and after WE Lead program implementation?
4. Is athlete attendance at regularly scheduled practices significantly different after WE Lead program implementation?

Qualitative research questions.

1. How has the athlete applied the skills offered through lessons in the WE Lead program to other areas of his/her life?
2. What is the local community's perspective of the WE Lead program?
3. How has youth involvement in the community changed since the implementation of the WE Lead program?

4. What is the coaching staff's perception on how the program changed athlete performance after WE Lead program implementation?
5. How has the quality of junior coaching prospects changed since the implementation of the WE Lead program?
6. How has the behavior of athlete participants changed since the implementation of the WE Lead program?

Design

WE implemented the WE Lead youth leadership development program in 2017 to provide youth with lessons for adulthood. I collected both quantitative and qualitative data to determine the extent to which the WE Lead program aligned with the primary objective to provide perfected skilled athletic training while providing lessons to prepare youth for adulthood. Prior to the evaluation, there was a limited amount of information available to determine the effectiveness of the WE Lead program against the anticipated outcomes since implementation in 2017.

Formative evaluations foster development and monitor the progress of programs (Shavelson, 2018). During formative evaluations, evaluators identify and implement change as part of the evaluation process (Shavelson, 2018). In contrast, a summative evaluation is one that provides a comprehensive review and holistic analysis of the program to identify strengths and weaknesses (Spaulding, 2014). Summative evaluations incorporate triangulation of qualitative and quantitative data analyses along with recommendations (Shavelson, 2018). Thus, a summative approach was the best method to evaluate the WE Lead program. I collected qualitative and quantitative data through

surveys, archival data, focus groups, and interviews to determine the extent to which the WE Lead program outcomes aligned with the primary objective to provide perfected skilled athletic training while providing lessons to prepare youth for adulthood.

A logic model provided a comprehensive overview of the program implementation and the expected components. Appendix A illustrates the basic logic model for the WE Lead program and the associated components. The components of the logic model displayed the connection between the strategies and activities along with the desired outcomes. Inputs for the WE Lead program were resources required to accomplish desired outcomes. Resources identified for the WE Lead program included coach time, organizational support staff time, mentor availability, funding, publications, and athletic training. Activities are what the program did with the resources. These included structure, design, content, development, learning experiences, certification training, support, and assessments of the program. The outcomes, listed in the logic model, were the expected results from both the specific inputs and activities. Short-term outcomes were immediate expected outcomes; within weeks these outcomes were expected. An increase in structure awareness and safety in the environment were identified as short-term outcomes expected from the WE Lead program related to activities related to structure and atmosphere. Another short-term outcome expected was growth in commitment to the program by the organizational staff after staff training. To better identify the effectiveness of the program, longer term outcomes were categorized into intermediate (months) and long-term (year or longer) outcomes. The progression from short-term to intermediate outcomes was the result of continuous implementation of

additional strategies and activities, recognizing potential interaction from external influences.

Since the program was implemented in 2017, the organization did not yet have the benefit of a program evaluation. It is best practice to evaluate programs regularly to determine qualities of the program and adjust elements appropriately (Shek et al., 2017). Stakeholders dedicated time, money, and resources to the program in 2017, but did not know the effectiveness. Key stakeholders included owner operators of WE Kids, We Lead program director, members of the coaching staff, prior athletes, and parents of participating athletes, youth participants, teachers, and recipients from the community. The results of this program evaluation impacted and informed all key stakeholders of the organization's program and should be re-examined annually.

Qualitative research requires inductive logic, intentionality, interpretation, empathy, and intuition grounded in the phenomena of a context-specific research study (Lamn, et al., 2018). Bandura (1997), explained a person's ability to set and achieve goals and was dependent on direct experiences or observations in their environment; environment and society shape the growth and behavior of an individual. The theoretical framework for the WE Lead program was social learning, focused on development of youth responsibility, self-efficacy, and leadership skills. The subjective aspect of qualitative research was essential in the collection of the true participant experiences regarding the WE Lead program. I collected qualitative data through focus groups and semistructured interviews. While qualitative data collected for the research was important to identify participant experiences and themes, it was important to collect, identify, and

measure relationships or differences of variables using quantitative data. I collected quantitative data through surveys and archival data for statistical analysis.

A key assumption, upon which this study was based, was the willingness of resource participation in interviews and focus groups. I completed eight interviews; three parents of program athlete participants, two adult athlete program participants, and three coach/staff program affiliates. I hosted three separate focus group sessions for the purpose of the program evaluation; one for adult program athlete participants, one for parents of program participants, and one for the coaching staff. A second assumption was the lessons had not significantly changed since program implementation. The WE Lead program lessons were implemented and logged at both of their locations; it was assumed the material delivered at both locations was not significantly different.

To evaluate this program efficiently I needed to collect archival data, if the quality of the data was poor or limited it could bias the results of the overall analysis toward the program evaluation. I collected archival raw data from organization archives under the supervision of an owner/operator regarding college acceptance, athlete attendance, athlete program participation, disciplinary plans/actions, and athlete grade performance records obtained during the years 2016 through 2019. The research samples included both current and past program athlete participants as well as prior athletes who did not participate in the program. A potential limitation was researcher bias because I am the parent of an athlete participant in the program. I am not involved in any decision making or lesson planning, structuring of the program, or relationships with any of the selected participants. I collected data and entered the information into a data collection tool to

standardized and normalized formats, thereby reducing the limitation of bias. Another potential limitation of the evaluation was the qualitative data trustworthiness including credibility, dependability, transferability, and the overall trustworthiness of the data was reduced by the use of descriptive statistics. The final identified limitation involved the introduction of any new regulation could influence the credibility of the program evaluation.

To provide a realistic evaluation of the data collected, I implemented a number of validation strategies to increase the rigor and accuracy of the evaluation. I examined the qualitative data provided through interviews and focus groups using thematic analysis and the Van Kaam technique, this included the transparency of contradictory information that did not lie in agreement with themes. Data remained equal in this approach. The qualitative data and feedback from the sampled participants provided a greater insight to the leadership development and influence perception of the program. The data was grouped and coded into relevant experiences which determined the research themes. By clearly identifying the scope and objective of this program evaluation, I evaluated the data using categories and themes of concern directly related to the WE Lead program; structure, academics, sense of self, community involvement, and physical health.

I used descriptive statistics such as, mean, standard deviation, frequency, percentage, and repeated measures *t*-test as a measurement tool and validation strategy for quantitative data (Rosch & Collins, 2017). I computed correlation of the data, repeated measures *t*-test, standard deviation, and mean of archived data, and data retrieved via survey to compare program enrollment pre- and post-program

implementation (Jayanti et al., 2014). Survey data alone served as a source for grade information pre- and post-program implementation in order to compute mean, standard deviation, as well as correlation and a repeated measures *t*-test (Tremblay, 2014).

I dispensed 50 surveys to athletes who were member graduates of Word Elite between the years 2016 and 2019. I expected a minimum response rate of 20% for evaluation purposes. I collected archival data from WE archives regarding college acceptance, athlete attendance, athlete program participation, and athlete grade performance cards. The research sample included current and prior athlete program participants as well as prior athletes who did not participate in the program. Because survey results and archival data are anonymously recorded, it was not possible to distinguish between current participants, prior participants, or prior non-participant respondents (Rosch & Collins, 2017).

For the qualitative portion of the evaluation, I conducted interviews with current and past program participants, current and past program coaches, members of the community, and parents of current and past program participants. Additionally, I used focus groups to gather feedback regarding program lessons, skills, and performance changes from the coaching staff, participant parents, and graduating participants. The samples used were consistent with sample selections in similar examinations of youth development program evaluations (Jayanti et al., 2014; Kooistra & Kooistra, 2018; Munoz-Bullon et al., 2017; Rosch & Collins, 2017; Tremblay, 2014). The Walden University IRB # is 10-08-19-0512348 for this study.

Ethics

Protection of participant rights was important in any research evaluation. In the quantitative portion of the study, I used archival raw data from internal database reports during the years 2016 through 2019. I entered the raw data captured from surveys into a secure data collection tool and analysis tool. All participant information was anonymous, no identifying information was traceable to the participants.

For the qualitative portion of the study I gained approval from Walden University and WE Kids prior to interacting with current athlete, parent, and coach participants. I provided each participant an interview package that stated my purpose, IRB approval, interview questions, and request consent forms. The package contained a description of the informed consent procedures and processes including the expected length of time to allocate, the number of times interaction was expected, sample interview and question format, any risks or benefits associated with participating in the study, the voluntary nature of the study, any associated payments, the overall privacy of the study, and finally my student contact information to address specific concerns. Also included in the package was a cover letter to explain the voluntary nature of the interviews, anonymity of the responses, and steps to remove and obfuscate identification markers to protect the participants. Finally, I included a confidentiality statement in the package to disclose the intention to secure evaluation data and protect confidentiality for a minimum of 5 years.

Transition and Summary

This summative program evaluation included both quantitative and qualitative data collected from surveys, archival data, focus groups, and interviews. A logic model

provided a comprehensive overview of the program and the components. The components illustrated the connection between the strategies and activities of the program and the desired outcomes. An evaluation of this program impacted and informed all key stakeholders which program practiced work and which should be re-evaluated.

The WE Lead program, grounded in social learning, has a focus on development of youth responsibility, self-efficacy, and leadership skills. Qualitative research was essential in collecting true participant experiences. However, due to the subjectivity of the qualitative data I identified limitations for this evaluation. I collected quantitative data through surveys and archival data for descriptive statistical analysis to identify and measure relationships or differences of variables.

WE did not yet have the benefit of a program evaluation. It is best practice to evaluate programs regularly to determine qualities of the program and to determine if the program should change, expand, or be canceled (Shek et al., 2017). Evaluation and triangulation of anonymous protected participant qualitative and quantitative data guided all recommendations for WE's Lead program.

Section 3: The Deliverable

Executive Summary

The purpose of this program evaluation was to determine the extent to which a competitive youth sports organization's youth leadership development program aligned with the organization's primary objective to provide perfected skilled athletic training while providing lessons to prepare youth for adulthood. Goals of the program were to (a) provide a positive and safe environment for youth, (b) build confidence and self-worth, (c) promote the importance of education, (d) teach responsibility and accountability, and (e) build physically fit athletes (Lyden, 2017). I collected quantitative data to measure variables and relationships or differences between athlete program participation and the expected program goals/outputs. To identify and measure correlation variables I used IBM SPSS to perform descriptive statistics and repeated measures *t* tests as a measurement tool and validation strategy on collected quantitative data. The quantitative portion of the evaluation evaluated athlete program participation, athlete attendance, grade performance, and college acceptance. The results for the quantitative portion of this study showed certain areas meeting program objectives where there may be improvements to other areas. Because summative evaluations include both quantitative and qualitative collection and analysis methods, I also collected and analyzed program information from volunteers who shared their perceptions and experiences regarding lessons, skills, and performance through semistructured interviews and focus groups. The qualitative analysis yielded multiple themes: structure, academics, sense of self, community involvement, and physical health and safety. An extensive analysis indicated

that the program has been successful since implementation in 2017. However, stakeholders should evaluate the program on a regular basis to ensure continued benefit to society.

Purpose of the Program

WE believed that they could better prepare their current athletes for life after high school and in 2017 they began offering a youth leadership development program to their athletes (Ganim, 2018). The purpose and vision for the organization is to grow and elevate athletes (Lyden, 2017). The organization wanted to provide a more complete future sport and life preparation for their athletes.

Through experimental learning, coaches implement leadership lessons as part of their scheduled practices (Ganim, 2018). Lessons are delivered within the first 10-30 minutes of practice and comprised of organized short topics (Lyden, 2017). The coaches adjust topics and timeframe of the lessons depending on the age and size of the team (Ganim, 2018). The lesson intention is to have long-term learning and growth potential (The USASF, 2018).

The environment affects the successful retention of the lessons. The WE Lead program curriculum is set in a multidimensional learning environment (Lyden, 2017; Petosa & Smith, 2014). The program success is also dependent on knowledgeable trainers/coaches excited about each topic (Chinkov & Holt, 2016; Ganim, 2018). Athlete relationships with mentors were important in the program. Mentors in youth sports act as role models by exhibiting desirable values, attitudes, and behaviors (Hoffman & Loughead, 2017). Positive social change is displayed in the maturation of youth skills to

identify community resources and use them to independently establish support networks and participate in the community.

Goals and Objectives

The program vision is to provide a world class safe and family oriented all-inclusive leadership training program dedicated to competitive youth athletes (Lyden, 2017). The mission of the program is to provide an opportunity for youth to develop positive leadership mentoring skills, fulfill educational goals, develop conflict resolution techniques, and grow as a leader in the community through the maximization of athletic skills (Aw & Ayoko, 2017; Lyden, 2017). Specific program goals were to (a) provide a positive and safe environment for youth, (b) build confidence and self-worth, (c) promote the importance of education, (d) teach responsibility and accountability, and (e) build physically fit athletes (Lyden, 2017). The program stakeholders were eager to learn if the program goals were met since program implementation.

The program had been operating since 2017 with no formal evaluation. The organization leadership wanted to gather information to determine the effectiveness of the program and collect ideas on changes they could implement to make the program more effective. This program evaluation was done to evaluate the effectiveness of the program and how the program outcomes aligned with the primary objective to provide perfected skilled athletic training while providing lessons to prepare youth for adulthood. The program evaluation and research provided the organization feedback and a baseline along with potential recommendations for improvement.

Overview of Findings

The goal of this program evaluation was to determine the effectiveness of the program operation actual outcomes compared to the desired outcomes. It was necessary to gather and organize program data in a secure location. Data were standardized into a common format for comparison and correlation purposes within this location. IBM SPSS was used to record and measure the quantitative data sets using descriptive statistics. Interview and focus group qualitative data were collected and recorded with no identifying factors in a computer software, RQDA. Thematic analysis through the Van Kaam technique was conducted to identify themes on collected qualitative data.

A quantitative approach was chosen to evaluate survey and archival data that included athlete attendance, college acceptance, and program participation information gathered between the years 2016 and 2019. Survey data alone served as the source for grade information pre- and post- program implementation to compute mean and standard deviation (Tremblay, 2014). The research sample included prior and current adult athlete program participants. Because the survey results and archival data were collected and confidentially recorded, it was not possible to distinguish between current participants or prior participants.

For the qualitative portion of the evaluation I conducted interviews and focus groups. I conducted individual interviews with athlete program participants (these were athletes over the age of 18), program coaches, members of the community, and parents of program athletes. I conducted three separate focus group sessions (one for coaching staff, one for athlete participants, and one for participant parents) to gather feedback regarding

program lessons, skills, and performance. The samples I used are consistent with sample selections in similar examinations of youth development program evaluations (Jayanti et al., 2014; Kooistra & Kooistra, 2018; Munoz-Bullon et al., 2017; Rosch & Collins, 2017; Tremblay, 2014). Themes that emerged from review of the qualitative data included structure, academics, sense of self, community involvement, and physical health.

Presentation of the Findings (Quantitative)

In this section I review and display the data collected and present the quantitative findings of this program evaluation. I show the descriptive statistics performed on the standardized archival and survey data entered with no traceable markers into a statistical tool, SPSS. I cleaned and entered all data in a standard format in order to draw a clear and accurate evaluation on data variables and group relationships. The results from the analysis helped determine the leadership program effectiveness and ability to meet their desired outcomes. The quantitative analysis was conducted to answer the following questions:

1. What is the increase in program enrollment since the implementation of the WE Lead program at WE?
2. Are the athlete program participant grades significantly different before and after WE Lead program implementation?
3. What is the increase in the college applicant acceptance rates for athlete program participants before and after WE Lead program implementation?
4. Is athlete attendance at regularly scheduled practices significantly different after WE Lead program implementation?

Athlete program participation. Athlete data are displayed in Table 1. Athlete eligibility and athlete program enrollment was captured as recorded monthly for each year, 2016 through 2019. The data included athletes eligible to participate in the leadership program during 2016 (n = 3,180), 2017 (n = 3,720), 2018 (n = 4,044), 2019 (n = 4,980), and athletes who did participate in the leadership program in 2016 (n = 0), 2017 (n = 3,168), 2018 (n = 3,720), and 2019 (n = 4,884).

Table 1

Eligble Atheletes and Program Participants

	2016		2017		2018		2019	
	Eligble athletes	Program participants	Eligble athletes	Program participants	Eligble athletes	Program participants	Eligble athletes	Program participants
Jan.	221	0	251	100	265	234	300	300
Feb.	321	0	276	187	312	289	370	332
Mar.	215	0	312	254	324	290	378	378
April	211	0	321	278	325	318	392	389
May	221	0	345	300	334	320	401	390
June	245	0	324	300	347	321	429	411
July	254	0	354	301	356	345	438	427
Aug.	321	0	312	300	357	321	449	439
Sept.	315	0	312	315	342	290	456	452
Oct.	298	0	334	302	376	331	451	450
Nov.	312	0	321	301	364	349	467	467
Dec.	246	0	258	230	342	312	449	449

Data recorded and captured from the organization on the eligible athletes and the athletes who participated in the program was computed. Table 2 represents means and standard deviations calculated that represented athletes eligible to participate in the program and athletes who participated in the program athlete data annually for years 2016, 2017, 2018, and 2019.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of Eligble Athletes and Program Participant Athletes

	N	*M*	*SD*
2016			
Eligble athletes	3,180	265	43.05
Program participant athletes	0	0	0.00
2017			
Eligble athletes	3,720	310	30.99
Program participant athletes	3,168	264	61.20
2018			
Eligble participants	4,044	337	27.83
Program participant athletes	3,720	310	29.74
2019			
Eligble participants	4,980	415	46.60
Program participant athletes	4,884	407	49.33

Table 3 represents athlete data over the 4-year period for two groups: athletes eligible to participate in the leadership program and athletes who participate in the leadership program. The mean athlete participation measures are reported by group and year beginning the year prior to program implementation. The patterns showed that the difference among the means of eligible athletes from 2016 through 2019 was higher than the overall mean for the athletes who participated in the program. The results of the mean and standard deviation suggest that there is a relationship between eligible athletes and the number of athletes who participate in the youth leadership program.

Table 3

Overall Means and Standard Deviations of Eligble Athletes and Program Participant Athletes

Measure	Eligble athletes	Athletes participated in program
M	331.75	245.25
SD	54.15	150.71
Variance	2,971.69	2,713.68
Standard error	27.26	75.36

To further assess the relationship strength, a Pearson correlation analysis was conducted between eligible athletes and athletes who participated in the program post program implementation, 2017 through 2019. Cohen's standard was used to evaluate the strength of the relationship, where coefficients between .10 and .29 represent a small effect size, coefficients between .30 and .49 represent a moderate effect size, and coefficients above .50 indicate a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). A Pearson correlation requires that the relationship between each pair of variables is linear (Conover & Iman, 1981). This assumption is violated if there is curvature among the points on the scatterplot between any pair of variables. Figure 1 illustrates a scatterplot that represents the correlation of the relationship between the number of eligible athletes and the number of program participants across the years post program implementation. A trend line was added to assist with correlation interpretation.

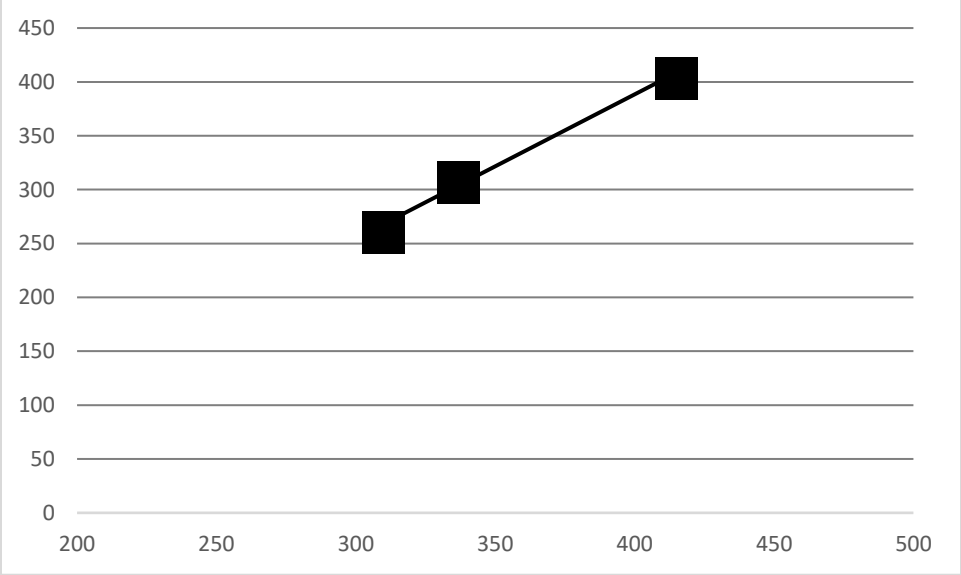

Figure 1. Scatter plot recorded post program implementation athletes and program participants.

A significant positive correlation was observed between eligible athletes and the number of program participants (*rp* = 1.00, *p* = .05, 95% CI [-1.00, NaN]). The correlation coefficient between eligible athletes and program participants was 1.00, indicating a large effect size. Evaluation was conducted for each year post program implementation to further confirm correlation, 2017 *(r* = .84), 2018 (*r*= .90), and 2019 *(r* = .98). This correlation indicates that as the number of eligible athletes increases, the number of program participants tends to increase. Table 4 displays the results of the correlation between eligible athletes and program participants combined post implementation for the years 2017, 2018, and 2019.

Table 4

Pearson Correlation Test Results Between Eligble Athletes and Program Participants 2017-2019

Correlation Results				
Combination	*rp*	CI	*p*	*n*
Eligible Athletes- Program Participants	0.998	[-1.00, NaN]	0.045	3

In comparison, research on an after school positive youth development programs seem to yield similar results. A 4-H PALS program evaluation indicated thaat as programs promote character development and other goals outlined in the program plan the program participation improved (Riciputi, Boyer, McDonough, & Snyder, 2019). Reporters have also indicated that the best marketing campaign is through as youth participants, as they learn lessons and share with friends and family program participation grew (CBS19 News, 2020). Additionally, researchers have documented that demographics significantly impacted the population of youth, thereby influencing the

number of youth program participants (Riciputi et al., 2019). The results found in this and similar evaluations indicate that there is a relationship between population and program participation/enrollment.

Athlete attendance. Table 5 represents sample data collected related to athlete attendance. A random sample (n = 20) was completed for each year, 2017 through 2019. Athlete attendance data was randomly sampled for each year, 2016, 2017, 2018, and 2019. From the sample captured athlete absences, in days, of athletes. Of the sampled population it was not documented the number of athletes that were in the program and which athletes were not, therefore participation rate for the sample remains unknown.

Table 5

Days Absent Captured from a Sample Population

Subject	2016 Absences	2017 Absences	2018 Absences	2019 Absences
A	3	2	2	0
B	5	2	0	0
C	1	1	0	0
D	0	0	0	0
E	0	0	0	0
F	8	0	0	0
G	5	0	3	1
H	3	4	5	1
I	7	2	1	0
J	10	10	10	0
K	3	11	0	0
L	4	4	0	0
M	7	2	0	2
N	10	1	4	5
O	5	4	0	1
P	3	2	5	0
Q	6	10	0	0
R	9	0	0	0
S	5	0	0	2
T	7	0	0	0

The assumption of normality was assessed by plotting the quantiles of the model residuals against the quantiles of a Chi-square distribution, also called a Q-Q scatterplot. For the assumption of normality to be met, the quantiles of the residuals must not strongly deviate from the theoretical quantiles. Strong deviations could indicate that the parameter estimates are unreliable. Figure 2 represents the assumption of normality met using the Q-Q scatterplot of model residuals.

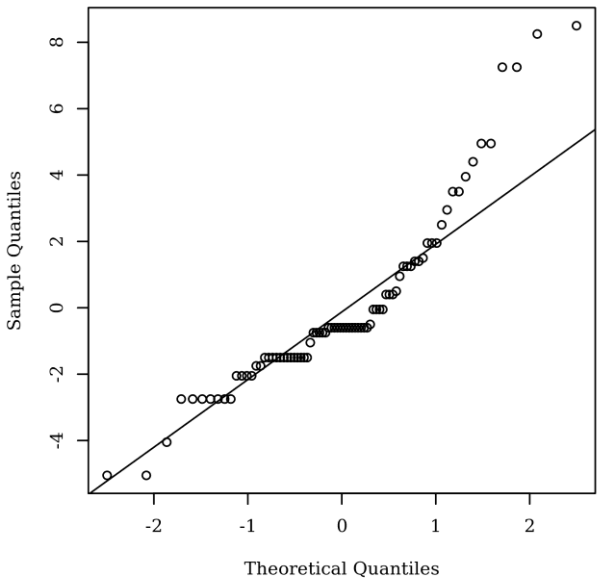

Figure 2. Scatterplot for normality of athlete attendance.

Mauchly's test was used to assess the assumption of sphericity for the sample size captured. The results showed that the variances of difference scores between repeated measurements were similar, $p = .273$. Results indicate the sphericity assumption was met.

An ANOVA test was conducted to determine the differences between the program implementation and athlete attendance behavior annually. Table 6 displays

information used to determine significance difference between groups as determined by one-way ANOVA $F(3,76) = 9.853$, $p = .001$. The p value < .05 suggests a significant difference. A Tukey-Kramer HSD test was conducted for the years 2016, 2017, 2018, and 2019 ($k = 4$) and the error term ($df = 76$), for significance level ($p = .01$ and $p = .05$) in the studentized range distribution. The critical values for Q for the p values were 4.55 and 3.71 respectively. Table 6 displays results from the post hoc test which identify which years are significantly different.

Table 6

Annual Athlete Absences

Athlete Absences of a Sample Population by Year

Year	*n*	Total Absences (in days)	*M*	*SD*
2016	20	101	5.05	3.00
2017	20	55	2.75	3.55
2018	20	30	1.50	2.67
2019	20	12	0.60	1.23

The results of the data analysis on the sampled data show there is a significant difference in athlete attendance since the leadership program implementation in 2016. Table 7 further validated since program implementation years (2017, 2018, and 2019) athlete attendance is significantly different than pre-program implementation (2016). It appears the youth leadership program has improved attendance behavior of athletes, satisfying an anticipated goal of the program.

Table 7

Tukey HSD Results for Significance

pair	Q	*p*	inference
2016 vs 2017	3.74	0.05	<0.05
2016 vs 2018	5.77	0.00	<0.01
2016 vs 2019	7.24	0.00	<0.01
2017 vs 2018	2.03	0.48	insignificant
2017 vs 2019	3.50	0.07	insignificant
2018 vs 2019	1.46	0.71	insignificant

The evaluation of the leadership program determined there has been a positive effect on athlete attendance. This finding confirms a study on an afterschool leadership program, where attendance was improved because the participants enjoyed being part of the program (Galeotti, 2015). In an additional study, researchers found attendance of programs where the participants were of the same age and gender had favorable attendance behavior (Winsler et al., 2002). The results of this evaluation and similar studies identified youth leadership programs can improve attendance.

Grade performance. Figure 3 illustrates a box plot of the athlete grade performance data annually for the years 2016, 2017, 2018, and 2019. Grade information was collected from survey responses, as a percentage on a grade scale of 0-100. Nineteen surveys were collected that included grade information. One of the responses was a letter grade report, therefore it was removed from the data as I could not accurately assign a number reference for analysis purposes.

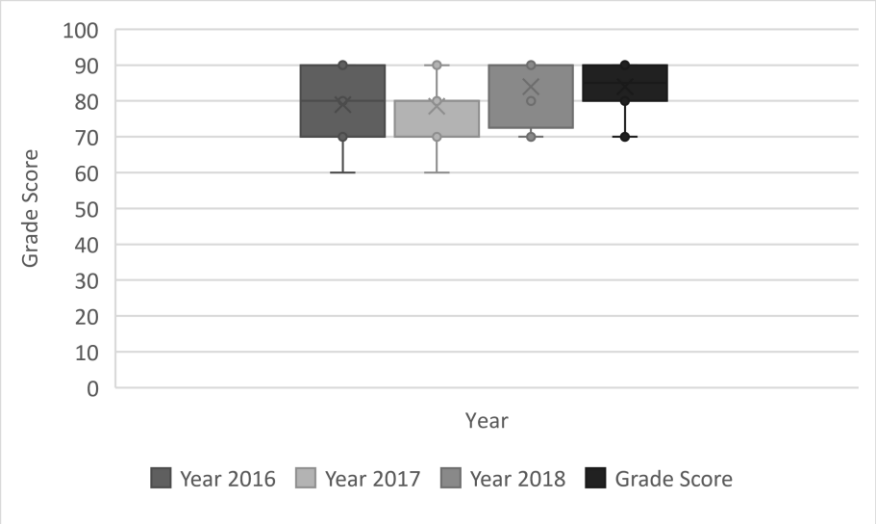

Figure 3. Athlete annual grade performance.

Table 8 displays, descriptive statistics performed on the collected athlete grade data. The program was not implemented until 2017, therefore the grade information for athletes in 2016 was used as a baseline. Skewness of recorded athlete grades in 2016 (-0.23), 2017 (-0.33), 2018 (-0.87), and 2019 (-0.66) were not greater than 2 in absolute value, so the grade scores are considered symmetrical about its mean. Kurtosis for 2016 (-0.94), 2017 (-0.29), 2018 (-1.09), and 2019 (-0.63) were not greater than or equal to 3, therefore the variable's distribution is not markedly different than a normal distribution in its tendency to produce outliers.

Table 8

Mean Grade Responses from Survey Data

Average Grade Scores				
Year	*n*	*M*	*SD*	Variance
2016	18	78.89	9.63	92.81
2017	18	78.89	8.32	69.28
2018	18	83.89	9.16	83.99
2019	18	83.89	6.98	48.69

A one-way ANOVA test was conducted to determine the differences between the program implementation and athlete grade performance. As displayed in Table 9, the *p* value (.0515) corresponding to the *F* statistic of the one-way ANOVA is higher than .05. The value is higher and therefore suggests the treatments are not significantly difference for that level of significance.

Table 9

One-Way ANOVA Results

	One-way ANOVA of Independent Treatments				
source	Sum of Squares	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
treatment	450	3	150.00	2.04	0.12
error	5,011.11	68	73.69		
total	5,461.11	71			

Based on the information from the analysis of grade scores, I cannot confirm or deny that grade performance has been impacted by the program implementation. A limitation to the evaluation was identified during the analysis of grade information. The grade information was collected only from survey results, thereby relying only on those who responded rather than archival data. With the information collected, it does not appear the leadership program has influenced grade performance of the athletes.

In other studies youth programs do appear to influence grades. In a study by Vandell, Reisner, & Pierce (2007) they evaluated multiple afterschool programs and reported regular participation in high-quality afterschool programs led to significant gains in test scores. Improved grades was an outcome reported in a program evaluation

conducted on a program among college students, 60-65% of participants had and maintained a G.P.A. of 3.0 or higher (Gilmer, 2007). It is clear that programs can positively influence grades of participants, however in this evaluation the analysis indicates there was not a significant improvement in grades.

College acceptance. In an attempt to determine if college acceptance was influenced by the implementation of the youth leadership development program, archival data was collected from organization records. There was limited information available regarding college acceptance. Table 10 displays data captured surrounding the annual count of high school senior athletes and plans for further education. The available information annually was the number of high school senior athletes and the number of high school senior athletes who designated a college in their plans after high school.

Table 10

College Acceptance of Athletes

	2016	2017	2018	2019
Athlete high school seniors	4	6	3	5
Athlete with plans to attend college	3	4	2	5
M	3.5	5	2.5	5
SD	0.71	1.41	0.71	0

A Chi-Square test was conducted to examine the relationship between college acceptance and the leadership program implementation. The relationship between these variables was not significant, X2 (130, $n = 2$) = 0.25, $p = < .05$. Figure 4, displays the athletes who indicated college acceptance and the athletes who were high school senior

for the respective year. Through the results of the test it appears there is no association between the program implementation and college acceptance.

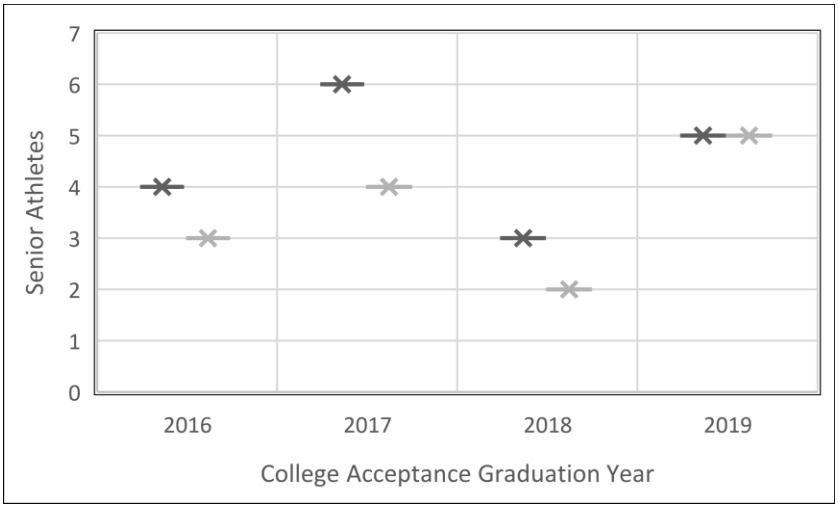

Figure 4. College acceptance rates of athletes.

The youth leadership program hypothesized the leadership program would significantly affect college acceptance rates of their high school seniors. A review from an extensive program evaluation identified the specific program enhanced participants to succeed in college (Gilmer, 2007). In a similar study of a program results showed that the program did not influence college acceptance negatively or positively (Graddick, 2018). The results of the evaluation of this leadership program did not increase college acceptance rates.

Presentation of the Findings (Qualitative)

The overarching research question of this program evaluation was to determine the extent to which the youth leadership development program was meeting the program objectives. I collected and analyzed information about the program from volunteers who shared their perceptions and experiences regarding lessons, skills, and performance

through semistructured interviews and focus groups. It was important to identify experiences and themes, in order to identify why the program was or was not meeting the program objective to provide perfected skilled athletic training while providing lessons to prepare youth for adulthood.

I used a computer software, RQDA, to record and store raw interview and focus group data. Several patterns and similarities were identified through the participant responses. Thematic analysis was performed using the Van Kaam technique to categorize and identify themes for the collected data. Multiple themes emerged from information gathered during the eight interviews and three focus group sessions including: structure, academics, sense of self, community involvement, and physical health and safety.

Structure. Program leaders recognized the athletes and community would benefit from properly preparing coaches and leadership for program development through athletic training. All participants were in agreement and felt a great deal of time and effort went into the preparation and instructional guidance of the program leadership staff. Participant 1 (P1) stated that “the coaching lessons were detailed and valuable”. Participant 2 (P2) indicated “the lesson schedule and structure was strategically organized by the program and method to which the lessons were delivered were left to the coach and trainer to identify”. The statements from these two interviewed participants indicate lessons were strategically prepared and planned to effectively meet the program objective of preparing coaching and leadership staff on development content.

Participants displayed conflicting experiences in athlete program lesson delivery efficiency. Participant 3 (P3) explained, “it was easy to relay the lesson information

through lessons and personal experiences to older athletes; however, sometimes the delivery of some messages stirred up conversations and distracted some of the athletes for the remainder of the practice". Moreover, Participant 4 (P4) stated, I was responsible for delivering messages to younger athletes and it was difficult at times to figure out how to deliver certain lessons in leadership so I would rely on pictures to try and get my point across". Participant 5 (P5) added, "this took a great deal of time out of the scheduled practice times and we sometimes skipped lessons to focus on regular practice instead". Several previous studies found delivery methods as a barrier in youth development programs within youth sports (Holt, 2016). The experiences shared by the participants indicate the lesson delivery may have been less effective than the program expected.

While athletes and the coaching staff were provided with lesson content, some parents felt they were not provided with much information on the program content delivered. Participant 6 (P6) stated, "I knew the program was implemented, but did not know the content from week to week". Participant 7 (P7) shared, "sometimes during the lessons, there were things discussed about elements I did not want my child exposed to at their age". These experiences were consistent with prior research results that found if sports administration and parents were not aligned it hindered lessons learned by youth (Coakley, 2016). P6 stated "I appreciate the lesson content and enjoy when my athlete discusses the lessons with me". From the discussions, it appears that there may be a gap in communication to the parents regarding the program lessons and could form a stronger parent-coach relationship.

Academics. Improvement of grade performance, test performance, homework completion, and attitude towards education, future education plans, and school involvement were highlighted as expected goals of the program; these achievements were identified as a theme, academic success. Participant 9 (P9), clarified in a focus group session "as a coach I use program lessons to gain an insight to my athletes and track achievements, growth opportunities and actions, and education plans". P6 noted "initially the athletes were driven and they could see athletes set goals and accomplished them regularly; however, recently many athletes 'went through the motions' and did not have the drive or ambition to learn new skills or lessons". Participant 10 (P10) said "as a coach of older athletes, I noticed more athletes either attended college or planned to attend college in the last year". It is evident based on the shared experiences improved awareness of achievement was recognized after the implementation of the program.

Parent interviews yielded the most favorable results regarding academic achievement experiences. P6 stated "I saw a change in behavior towards academics with both of my children". P7 said "her teacher said her grades and quality of work has been so much better in the last year". P5, admitted "I have held the program as an incentive for completing their homework. They enjoy participating in the program activities and I told them they only attend if their homework was completed". It is unknown if the improved athlete academic performance was a direct result of the program implementation or if it was because the program was used as a disciplinary mechanism used by parents, regardless parent experiences were positive regarding academic success of their children since program implementation.

Coaches and owners alike believed academic growth was expected and considered for every athlete at all levels. P10, said “I felt through the informational lessons the athletes built competencies that initiated growth and development through various methods”. P9, said “we designed and implemented a homework area was for athletes to complete homework while in between program activities or lessons”. P5 said “some coaches of the older athletes record grade point averages and believe overall there was an increased awareness of importance of grades, but with the younger kids we just record general grades”. P9 continued to share “I do not like when athletes participate in school affiliated sports or activities because often the times interact with practice schedules”. While academic success of athletes appear to increase due to efforts of coaches, the program, and athletes; it appears to be more directly related to achievement overall not necessarily academics.

Athletes responded similar to the coaching staff regarding school related events and activities. Participant 11 (P11) indicated “I was forced to choose between a school activity and the program”. Participant 12 (P12) indicated “I improved my grades out of fear others would see bad grades and think less of me, which caused a lot of anxiety”. P11 said “I stay up late to complete homework because weekly practice schedules sometimes interfere with homework time”. Participant 13 (P13) said” I think education is important and it is important to continue education after high school”. The results indicated the program does enforce the importance of education and the athletes are receptive of the importance. It is evident athletes displayed academic and athletic commitment, grade performance, development, and future planning. The results confirm

a study conducted by Busch et al. (2014) where the results indicate a strong relationship between academic success and extracurricular program activity. The results of this program evaluation, however, may be skewed due to the background of various perceptions and experiences related to the overall academic success.

Sense of self. Qualitative information gathered through interviews and focus group sessions was used to identify if the program introduced changes in behavior or actions of athletes, parents, or coaches/owners. Development is the growth in an individual, influences, feelings, beliefs, and responses to certain situations (Agbede & Bariki, 2017). P1 said "there are multiple growth opportunities and changes in athlete behavior after the implementation of the program". P4 said "I felt that many coaches provided guidance and changed negative attitudes into positive mindsets". This information confirms results from a prior study on a youth leadership program, when leaders taught youth strategies to cope with emotion it led to an increase in self-efficacy (Lamarche et al., 2014). P11, said "when learning a new skill or lesson I was uncomfortable and had anxiety, but sometimes when I applied the lessons it actually helped control anxiety". Prior leadership program research reported the programs allow youth to build skills necessary to understand their own strengths and weaknesses, and recognize ways to overcome fears (Wehmeyerm et al., 1998; Weinberg et al., 2016). P6, reported "I watched many athletes improve their sense of ability and competence or ability to cope with certain challenges or social situations". This information is consistent with the findings presented by Bandura (1977), where people behave in certain ways because of their environment and are influenced by social situations. These experiences

provide further validation that personal judgements, perceptions, and ideas are influenced by environments and situations where people have the ability to acquire new behaviors which carry forward in life.

Community involvement. The program aimed to integrate community service and involvement initiatives into the lessons to promote the importance of leadership development within the community (Ganim, 2018). When asked about community expectations and the involvement of athletes within the community and the perception of the program in the community it was unanimous that the one community benefited more than the another community overall from community involvement. P2 said "there seem to be more volunteer and promotion opportunities for community involvement around one location". The responses to the program within the community have been positive. P12 said "I feel much of the community perception is built on an enhanced marketing campaign conducted in the community along with the volunteer opportunities". P5 said "special events are mostly held at the one specific site which could play a role in the lack of community involvement from another site". Clarification came from Participant 13 (P13), these events are often directed towards members of the community who are not yet affiliated with the organization or program, so they often serve as a recruitment mechanism". P10 said whenever I wear my gym gear (shirts with the gym name on it) people in community approach me and praise the organization/program". P11 said "some experiences included opportunities because I had participated in the program or were affiliated with the program". This information validated Kohlhagen and Culp's (2000) findings that members of youth leadership programs are often provided with more

exposure to future developmental and leadership growth opportunities. These experiences lead to the assumption that the program has improved community awareness of the program, and athlete involvement.

Physical health and safety. Physical health and safety was a common theme identified when asked about the program influence. Researchers (Larson, 2000; Perkins & Noam, 2007; Weiss et al., 2013) indicated while sport participation was an avenue for physical activity and well-being; it was an effective method to teach leadership skills to youth. Physical health and safety was the top theme identified from the data collected. P1 indicated "I was excited to participate in the program because I felt safe and did not have to worry about anything". Participant 14 (P14) said "the conversations and lessons surrounding drug and alcohol usage were uncomfortable, but informative". P6 said "as role models, coaches deliver the uncomfortable lessons providing their own life experiences as lessons learned". These results support findings of Bandura (1977), who identified people learned better when exposed to guides in his informative learning to social learning. When the lessons were delivered, they were paired with experiences that built a relationship and sense of empathy with the participants in both comfortable and uncomfortable situations.

As previous research noted, coaches and physical educators played an important role in athletes and students' leadership skills growth (Santos, Gould, & Strachan, 2019). P1 said" the program staff acknowledged their responsibility in the provision of a safe environment to development of physical and technical sport skills. These lessons on leadership development were coupled with safe, age appropriate physical training". P13

said “the staff may take the area of physical health and safety to the extreme, in not allowing participation if an athlete has a small injury”. P11 added, “coaches sometimes do not allow an athlete to participate in certain practices as opposed to dominance over a person”. I noted caution surrounding controlling or dominance behavior of coaches as it could result as extreme negative reinforcement values as outlined by Rotter (1954). However, the parent interview sessions strongly suggested the program has helped some of their athletes become fit and learned healthy habits. P7 said “physical health and safety was one of the most important areas I reviewed to determine where to enroll my athlete, I believe the program implemented appropriate instruction measures”. The experiences shared indicate there is an identified level of importance in physical health and safety displayed in the program, though as with the various roles there are also varying degrees of expectations.

Recommendations for Action

The purpose of this summative program evaluation was to determine the extent to which a competitive youth sports organization’s youth leadership development program aligned with the organization’s primary objective to provide perfected skilled athletic training while providing lessons to prepare youth for adulthood. The results of this study showed that it is meeting program objectives. The results indicate there is a positive relationship between population and program participation/enrollment and there appears to be an increase since the implementation of the program. An improvement in attendance was captured at program implementation and has steadily improved year over year, which appears to be related to the implementation of the program. While attendance

seemed to improve gradually every year, monitoring attendance by factors such as, team, group, season, and age could identify how to evaluate and improve attendance further. With the information collected it does not appear the leadership program has influenced grade performance of the athletes, however the results could have varied if additional elements were taken into consideration such as, education learning plans, disabilities, and age/grade level. The program yielded a 100% graduation rate in 2019. While it was understood only a sample of the data meeting certain criterion was collected, it would be beneficial for program leaders to document the same individual/individuals through the program to better determine the graduation rate related to the program.

The program appeared to have a working structure that is overall successful. There are elements of the structure that program stakeholders may want to revisit and further define the delivery of lessons, especially in the areas where coaches identified lessons were dismissed for practice instead. An additional enhancement to the program would be to improve the communication to parents regarding the program initiatives or lessons on a regular basis. Academic success seemed to improve after the implementation of the program, but there are elements that could be refactored. It appeared athletes excelled in this area, on the other hand many elements unraveled while conducting the evaluation that should be addressed. It is unlikely that a program would tell a parent how to manage their child, but it may be possible to offer a session for parents to urge parents not to use the program as a disciplinary mechanism. It appeared athletes overall were driven and ambitious in goals which they were able to complete. It was evident that the program enhanced the athlete's sense of self. Coaches and athletes appeared to have a

good relationship and were mostly able to have discussions. Parents believed athlete behaviors improved since program implementation. It is recommended that these lessons continue and possibly even enhance by scheduling standing quarterly meetings between coach and athlete to talk about whatever the athlete wants to talk about, this should allow the athlete to discuss personal items privately. The program has strong presence in community involvement. The program presence could improve by becoming more involved in one community. A potential start would be to implement the same methods as were done for the other community. Finally, physical health and safety in the program was positive. Athletes felt safe and fit and parents were comfortable leaving their children during lessons. I raise caution to watch for controlling or dominant behavior, the owners may want to randomly retrieve feedback or illicit communication from athletes.

The youth leadership was successful since implementation in 2017. There are a few adjustments and enhancements that could provide additional value to the program. It is important to continuously evaluate programs to monitor success or failure. It is recommended to enhance the program based on the evaluation findings. I recommend that this program initiate an evaluation annually.

Implications for Social Change

This evaluation of the youth leadership development program contributed to positive social change by providing a safe environment where youth learn leadership skills. The effectiveness was measured by identifying if the program was able to effectively mature youth skills to identify community resources and how to use them independently, and also establish support networks to participate in community life.

Minimal research existed on youth leadership development programs within a competitive sport environment.

This program evaluation has unique contributions to positive social change by providing a baseline for future improvement. Stakeholders can use the information provided in this evaluation as an all-encompassing performance measure of the program since implementation. The information found in this program evaluation will assist the stakeholders in making adjustments to the data they capture for future evaluations. Because the data was presented with no identifiers, honest and open information was provided, this allowed for content without bias.

Skills and Competencies

For 2 years, I researched the youth leadership development program implementation. I performed an exhaustive literature review that explored documentation on the topic of youth leadership development programs and competitive sports programs. This summation of literature I identified can be found in the Literature Review section of this evaluation. Prior literature research completed during my undergraduate and master's degree courses along with my recent doctoral coursework prepared me for the research involved in this evaluation.

My current position served as preparation to complete the analysis and recommendation of the program. I currently work in an environment where I assess business processes and functions. I then provide recommendations for improvement or deprecation. While the industry I work in is information technology, the objective remains the same, to evaluate and provide recommendation.

References

Agbede, G. T. & Bariki, M. E. (2017). Student/Youth leadership development in contemporary societies: A review attempt. *Journal of Social Sciences, 53,* 13-19. doi:10.1080/09718923.2017.1368219

Akers, R. (2017). *Social learning and social structure: A general theory of crime and deviance*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Alm, S., Olsen, S. O., & Honkanen, P. (2015). The role of family communication and parents' feeding practices in children's food preferences. *Appetite, 89*, 112-121. doi:10.1016/j.appet.2015.02.002

Aoyagi, M. W., Cohen, A. B., Poczwardowski, A., Metzler, J. N., & Statler, T. (2017). Models of performance excellence: Four approaches to sport psychology consulting. *Journal of Sport Psychology in Action, 9,* 94-110. doi:10.1080/21520704.2017.1355861

Arnold, M. E., & Silliman, B. (2017). From theory to practice: A critical review of positive youth development program frameworks. *Journal of Youth Development, 12(*2), 1-20. doi:10.5195/jyd.2017.17

Atkins, M. R., Johnson, D. M., Force, E. C., & Petrie, T. A. (2015). Peers, parents, and coaches, oh my! The relation of the motivational climate to boys' intention to continue in sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 16*, 170-180. doi:10.1016/j.psychsport.2014.10.008

Aw, V. K. J., & Ayoko, O. B. (2017). The impact of followers' conflict behaviors on teams' transformational leadership, team member exchange and engagement. *International Journal of Conflict Management, 28*, 509-532.

doi:10.1108/IJCMA-04-2016-0020

Balish, S. M., McLaren, C., Rainham, D. & Blanchard C. (2014). Correlates of youth sport attrition: A review and future directions. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 15*, 429-439. doi:10.1016/j.psychsport.2014.04.003

Bandura, A. (1969). *Principles of behavior modification.* New York, NY: Holt, Reinhart & Winston.

Bandura, A. (1973). *Aggression: A social learning analysis*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 1,* 287-308. doi:10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, NY: W.H. Freeman.

Bautista, A., Roth, W. M., & Thom, J. S. (2011). Knowing, insight, learning, and integrity of kinetic movement. *Interchange, 42*, 363-388. doi:10.1007/s10780-012-9168-5

Bean, C., & Forneris, T. (2016). Examining the importance of intentionally structuring the youth sport context to facilitate positive youth development, *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 28*, 410-425. doi:10.1080/10413200.2016.1164764

Bell, C. C., & Suggs, H. (1998). Using sports to strengthen resiliency in children: Training heart. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Clinics of North America, 7*,

859-865. doi:10.1016/S1056-4993(18)30216-5

Behncke, L. (2006). Mental skills training for sports: A brief review. *Athletic Insight: The Online Journal of Sport Psychology, 66*, 627-638. Retrieved from www.athleticinsight.com

Best, P., Manktelow, R., & Taylor, B. (2014). Online communication, social media and adolescent wellbeing: A systematic narrative review. *Children and Youth Services Review, 41,* 27-36. doi:10.1016/j.childyouth.2014.03.001

Bird, M., & Subramaniam, A. (2018). Teen staff perceptions of their development in camp: Insights for theory and practice. *Journal of Youth Development, 13*(1-2), 62-82. Retrieved from http://jyd.pitt.edu

Blanton, J. E., Sturges, A. J., & Gould, D. (2014). Lessons learned from a leadership development club for high school athletes. *Journal of Sport Psychology in Action, 5*, 1-13. doi:10.1080/21520704.2013.848827

Bower, G. H., & Hilgard, E. R. (1981). *Theories of learning* (5th ed). Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J

Brue, K. L., & Brue, S. A. (2018). Leadership role identity construction in women's leadership development programs. *Journal of Leadership Education, 17*(1), 7-21. doi:10.12806/V17/I1/C2

Brumbaugh, L., & Cater, M. (2016). The perceived importance of youth educator's confidence in delivering leadership development programming. *Journal of Leadership Education, 15,* 1-14. doi:10.12806/V15/I1/R1

Bruner, M. W., Boardley, I. D., & Côté, J. (2014). Social identity and prosocial and

antisocial behavior in youth sport. *Psychology of Sport & Exercise, 15*, 56-64. doi:10.1016/j.psychsport.2013.09.003

Buschlen, E., Change, T., & Kniess, D. R. (2018). My brother's keeper: Transcendent leadership lessons learned from an inner-city program for fatherless, adolescent boys. *Journal of Leadership Education, 17*(3), 1-25. doi:10.12806/V17/I3/R1

Caldwell, W. E., & Jones, H. B. (1954). Some positive results on a modified Tolman and Honzik insight maze. *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology, 47*, 416-418. doi:10.1037/h0058325

Camiré, M. (2015). Reconciling competition and positive youth development in sport. *STAPS*, *109*, 25-39. doi:10.3917/sta.109.0025

Camiré, M., Trudel, P., & Forneris, T. (2012). Coaching and transferring life skills: Philosophies and strategies used by model high school coaches. *The Sport Psychologist, 26,* 243-260. doi:10.1123/tsp.26.2.243

Camiré, M., & Trudel, P. (2013). Using high school football to promote life skills and student engagement: Perspectives from Canadian coaches and students. *World Journal of Education, 3*(3), 40-51. doi:10.5430/wje.v3n3p40

Camiré, M., Trudel, P., & Forneris, T. (2014). Examining how model youth sport coaches learn to facilitate positive youth development. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 19*, 1-17. doi:10.1080/17408989.2012.726975

Case, A. D. (2017). A critical-positive youth development model for intervening with minority youth at risk for delinquency. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 87*, 510-519. doi:10.1037/ort0000273

Castro, M., Expósito-Casas, E., López-Martín, E., Lizasoain, L., Navarro-Asencio, E., & Gaviria, J. L. (2015). Parental involvement on student academic achievement: A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review, 14*, 33-46. doi:10.1016/j.edurev.2015.01.002

Catalano, R. F., Berglund, M L., Ryan, J. A., Lonczak, H. S., & Hawkins, J. D. (2004). Positive youth development in the United States: Research findings on evaluations of positive youth development programs. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 591*, 98-124. doi:10.1177/0002716203260102

Center for Higher Education Enterprise (2015). What works for Black male collegians. Columbus, OH: Ohio State University.

Cerna L. (2014). Trust: what it is and why it matters for governance and education. *Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 108*, 5-66. doi:10.1787/5jxswcg0t6wl-en

Chamizo, V. D., & Mackintosh, N. J. (2007). Latent learning and latent inhibition in maze discriminations. *The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology Section B, 41*, 21-31. doi:10.1080/14640748908401181

Champine, R. B., & Johnson, S. K. (2017). Towards the promotion of positive development among boys in challenging contexts: A mixed-methods study of engagement in the scout reach initiative. *Journal of Youth Development, 12*(4), 16-37. doi:10.5195/jyd.2017.521

Chinkov, A., & Holt, N. (2016). Implicit transfer of life skills through participation in

Brazilian jiu-jitsu. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 28*, 139-153. doi:10.1080/104 13200.2015.1086447

Chung, S., & McBride, A. M. (2015). Social and emotional learning in middle school curricula: A service learning model based on positive youth development. *Children and Youth Services Review, 53*, 192-200. doi:10.1016/j.childyouth.2015.04.008

Chyung, S. Y., Wisniewski, A., Inderbitzen, B., & Campbell, D. (2013). An improvement- and accountability-oriented program evaluation: An evaluation of the adventure scouts program. *Performance Improvement Quarterly, 26*, 87-115. doi:10.1002/piq.21155

Clark, H. J, Camiré, M., Wade, T. J., & Cairney, J. (2015). Sport participation and its association with social and psychological factors known to predict substance use and abuse among youth: A scoping review of the literature. *International Review Sport Exercise Psychology, 8*, 224-250. doi:10.1080/1750984X.2015.1068829

Coakley, J. (2016). Positive youth development through sport: Myths, beliefs, and realities. In N.L. Holt (Ed.), *Positive Youth Development Through Sport* (2nd ed., pp. 21-33). London, England: Routledge.

Cochran, J. K., Maskaly, J., Jones, S., & Sellers, C. S. (2017). Using structural equations to model Akers' social learning theory with data on intimate partner violence. *Crime & Delinquency, 63*(1), 39-60. doi:10.1177/0011128715597694

Comeaux, E., Snyder, E., Speer, L. & Taustine, M. (2014). The role of engagement activities on college outcomes: A retrospective study of division I male and

female student-athletes. *College Student Affairs Journal, 32*, 205-217. Retrieved from www.csaj.scholasticahq.com

Cooper, J. N. & Hawkins, B. (2016). An anti-deficit perspective on black male student athletes'educational experiences at a historically black college/university. *Race Ethnicity and Education, 19*(5), 950-979. doi:10.1080/13613324.2014.946491

Crane, J. & Temple, V. (2015). A systematic review of dropout from organized sport among children and youth. *European Physical Education Review, 21,* 114-131. doi:10.1177/1356336X14555294

Datta, B. (2015). Assessing the effectiveness of authentic leadership. International *Journal of Leadership Studies, 9*(1), 62-75. Retrieved from www.regent.edu/acad/global/publications/ijls/new/home.htm

Day, C., Gu, Q., & Sammons, P. (2016). The impact of leadership on student outcomes: How successful school leaders use transformational and instructional strategies to make a difference. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 52,* 221-258. doi:10.1177/0013161X15616863

Deane, K. L., Harre, N., Moore, J. & Courtney, M. G. R. (2017). The impact of the project k youth development program on self-efficacy: A randomized controlled trail. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 46,* 516-537. doi:10.1007/s10964-016-0463-9

de Bruin, A. P., & Oudejans, R. R. (2018). Athletes' Body Talk: The Role of Contextual Body Image in Eating Disorders as seen Through the Eyes of Elite Women *Athletes. Journal of Clinical Sport Psychology*, *10*, 1-36. doi:10.1123/jcsp.2018-

0047

Deitrich, J., Viljaranta, J., Moeller, J., & Kracke, B. (2017). Situational expectancies and task values; associations with students' effort. *Learning and Instruction, 47*, 53-64. doi:10.1016/j.learninstruc.2016.10.009

Dinh, J. E., Lord, R. G., Gardner, W. L., Meuser, J. D., Liden, R. C., & Hu, J. (2014). Leadership theory and research in the new millennium: Current theoretical trends and changing perspectives. *The Leadership Quarterly, 25*(1), 36-62. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.005

Doh, J. P. (2003). Can leadership be taught? Perspectives from management educators. *Academy of Management Learning and Education, 2,* 54-67. doi:10.5465/AMLE.2003.9324025

DuBois, D. L., Portillo, N., Rhodes, J. E., Silverthorn, N., & Valentine, J. C. (2011). How effective are mentoring programs for youth? A systematic assessment of the evidence. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest, 12*, 57-91. doi:10.1177/1529100611414806.

Duckworth, A. L., & Yeager, D. S. (2015). Measurement matters. Assessing personal qualities other than cognitive ability for educational purposes. *Educational Researcher, 44*(4), 237-251. doi:10.3102/ 0013189X15584327.

Eime, R. M., Harvey, J. T., Sawyer, N. A., Craike, M. J., Symons, C. M., & Payne, W. R. (2016). Changes in sport and physical activity participation for adolescent females: a longitudinal study. *BMC Public Health, 16*, 533-539. doi:10.1186/s12889-016-3203-x

Ekstrand, J., Lundqvist, D., Lagerbäck, L., Vouillamoz, M., Papadimitiou, N., & Karlsson, J. (2018). Is there a correlation between coaches' leadership styles and injuries in elite football teams? A study of 36 elite teams in 17 countries. *British Journal of Sports Medicine, 52*(8), 527. doi:10.1136/bjsports-2017-098001

Ellsworth, L. M., Keen, H. A., Mills, P. E., Newman, J., Martin, F., Coffey, T., & Newberry, R. C. (2017). Role of 4-H dog programs in life skills development. *Anthrozooz, 30*, 91-108. doi:10.1080/08927936.2017.1270596

Ensign, J. & Woods, A. (2014). Strategies for increasing academic achievement in higher education. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance, 85*(6), 17-22. doi:10.1080/07303084.2014.926844

Ewing, M. E., Gano-Overway, L. A., Branta, C. F., & Seefeldt, V. D. (2002). *The role of sports in youth development.* In M. Gatz, M. A. Messner, & S. J. Ball-Rokeach (Eds.), Paradoxes of youth and sport (pp. 31-47). Albany, NY, US: State University of New York Press.

Extejt, M. M., & Smith, J. E. (2009). Leadership development through sports team participation. *Journal of Leadership Education, 8*, 224-237. Retrieved from www.journalofleadershiped.org

Fairhurst, K. E., Bloom, G. A., & Harvey, W. J. (2017). The learning and mentoring experiences of Paralympic coaches. *Disability and Health Journal, 10*, 240-246. doi:10.1016/j.dhjo.2016.10.007

Ferber, T., Pittman, K., & Marshall, T. (2002, June). State Youth Policy: Helping All Youth to Grow Up Fully Prepared and Fully Engaged. In Forum for Youth

Investment. *Forum for Youth Investment*. The Cady-Lee House, 7064 Eastern Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20012-2031.

Ferris, K. A., Hershberg, R. M., Su, S., Wang, J., & Lerner, R. M. (2016). Character development among youth of color from low-SES backgrounds: An examination of Boy Scouts of America's Scout Reach program. *Journal of Youth Development, 10*(3), 14-30. Retrieved from: http://jyd.pitt.edu

Fishman, M., Taranto, E., Perlman, M., Quinlin, K., Benjamin, H. J. & Ross, L. F. (2017). Attitudes and counseling practices of pediatricians regarding youth sports participation and concussion risks. *The Journal of Pediatrics, 184,* 26-31. doi:10.1016/j.jpeds.2017.01.048

Fleeson, W., Furr, R. M., Jayawickreme, E., Meindl, P., & Helzer, E. G. (2014). Character: The prospects for a personality-based perspective on morality. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 8*(4), 178-191. doi:10.1111/spc3.12094

Forneris, T., Bean, C. & Halsall, T. (2016). An ecological perspective on high performance sport and positive youth development. In Positive youth development through sport, 77-88. doi:10.4324%2F9781315709499-14

Fransen, K., Mertens, N., Feltz, D., & Boen, F. (2017). "Yes, we can!" review on team confidence in sports. *Current Opinion in Psychology, 16*, 98-103. doi:10.1016%2fj.copsyc.2017

Fraser-Thomas, C. J. & Deakin, J. (2005). Youth sport programs: An avenue to foster positive youth development. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 10*, 19-40. doi:10.1080/1740898042000334890

Fritsch, A., Rasmussen, C. M., & Chazdon, S. A. (2018). Old concept, new generation: Millennials and community leadership programs. *Journal of Leadership Education, 17*, 93-109. doi:10.12806/V17/I4/R6

Galeotti, S. (2015). Empowering pre-adolescent girls: Girls on the run experimental learning program exploratory story. *Journal of Experimental Education, 38*(4), 407-423. doi:10.1177/1053825915603578

Ganim, A. J. (2018). The World Elite way (2018). White paper for World Elite All Stars. Brecksville, OH.

Gardener, L., Magee, C. A., & Vella, S. A. (2017). Enjoyment and behavioral intention predict youth sport participation and dropout. *Journal of Physical Activity and Health, 14*(11), 861-865. doi:10.1123/jpah.2016-0572

Gardner, L. A., Vella, S. A., & Magee, C. A. (2017). Continued Participation in Youth Sports: The Role of Achievement Motivation, *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 29*, 17-31. doi:10.1080/10413200.2016.1173744

Gill, D., & Prowse, V. (2016). Cognitive ability, character skills, and learning to play equilibrium: A level-k analysis. *Journal of Political Economy, 124*(6), 1619-1676. doi:10.2139/ssrn.2448144

Gilmer, T. (2007). An understanding of the improved grades, retention, and graduation rates of STEM majors at the Academic Investment in Math and Science Programs of Bowling Green State University. *Journal of STEM Education, 8*(1). Retrieved from www.learntechlib.org/p/174282/

Glatthorn, A. A., Boschee, F., Whitehead, B. M., & Boschee, B. F. (2018). *Curriculum*

leadership: Strategies for development and implementation. SAGE publications.

Goldin, N., Patel, P., & Perry, K. (2014). *The global youth wellbeing index*. Washington DC: Center for Strategic & International Studies, and International Youth Foundation

Gomez, J. A., Carter, A. S., Forbes, D. &Gray. S. A. (2018). Parental insightfulness and parenting behavior: a two-dimensional analysis of parent contributions to child cognitive outcomes. *Attachment & Human Development, 20*, 255-271. doi:10.1080/14616734.2018.1446734

González, K., & Frumkin, R. (2016). *Handbook of Research on Effective Communication in Culturally Diverse Classrooms* (pp. 1-477). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9953-3

Gould, D. (2017). Lessons learned about outreach and engagement at the Michigan State University institute for the study of youth sports. Kinesiology Review, 6, 303-310. doi:10.1123/kr.2017-0026

Gould, D., Carson, S., & Blanton, J. (2013). Coaching life skills. *Routledge Handbook of Sports Coaching*, 259-270. Retrieved from: www.coach.ca

Gould, D. & Petlichkoff, L. (1988). Participation motivation and attrition in young athletes. In F.L. Smoll, R.A. Magill, & M.J. Ash (Eds.), *Children in Sport* (3rd ed.) (161-178). Champaign IL: Human Kinetics.

Gould, D. & Voelker. D. K. (2010) Youth sport leadership development: Leveraging the sports captaincy experience, *Journal of Sport Psychology in Action, 1,* 1-14. doi:10.1080/21520704.2010.497695

Graddick, J. (2018). *Program Evaluation of an Induction Program in a Rural U.S. Middle School* (Doctoral Study Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies. 5194). Retrieved from https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations/5194

Greenberg, M. T., Domitrovich, C. E., Weissberg, R. P., & Durlak, J. A. (2017). Social and emotional learning as a public health approach to education. *The Future of Children,* 13-32. Retrieved from www.futureofchildren.org

Guo, J., Marsh, H. W., Parker, P. D., Morin, A. J., & Dicke, T. (2017). Extending expectancy-value theory predictions of achievement and aspirations in science: Dimensional comparison processes and expectancy-by-value interactions. *Learning and Instruction, 49*, 81-91. doi:10.1016/j.learninstruc.2016.12.007

Hamilton, Stephen. (2014). On the 4-H Study of positive youth development. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 43*, 1008-1011. doi:10.1007/s10964-014-0121-z.

Harris, J. M., Stripling, C. T., Stephens, C. A., & Loveday, H. D. (2016). Life skill development of youth participants of the Tennessee 4-H beef skillathon. *Journal of Youth Development, 11*(1), 88-97. Retrieved from: http://jyd.pitt.edu

Hartmann, G. W. (1931). The concept and criteria of insight. *Psychological Review*, *38*(3), 242-253. doi:10.1037/h0075595

Heckman, J. J., & Mosso, S. (2014). The economics of human development and social mobility. *Annual Review of Economics,* 6, 689-733. doi:10.1146/annurev-economics-080213-040753.

Hector, M. A., Raabe, J., & Wrisberg, C. A. (2018) Phenomenological consulting: A

viable alternative for sport psychology practitioners. *Journal of Sport Psychology in Action, 9*, 111-120, doi:10.1080/21520704.2017.1355862

Hedstrom, R., & Gould, D. (2004). Research in youth sports: *Critical issues status*. Michigan: Michigan State University, 1-42. Retrieved from http://sportspecializationscott.synthasite.com

Hoff, K. A., Briley, D. A., Wee, C. J., & Rounds, J. (2018). Normative changes in interests from adolescence to adulthood: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Psychological Bulletin, 144*(4), 426. doi:10.1037/bul0000140

Hoffmann, M. D. (2018). *Toward a deeper understanding of peer athlete mentoring in sport: A comprehensive investigation.* Retrieved from scholar.uwindsor.ca (AAT10218859)

Hoffmann, M.D., & Loughead, T.M. (2016). Investigating athlete mentoring functions and their association with leadership behaviours and protégé satisfaction. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 14,* 85-102. doi:10.1080/1612197X.2014.99934

Hoffman, M. D. & Loughead, T. M. (2017). Examining the experiences of peer mentored athletes completing in elite sport. *The Sport Psychologist, 31*, 134-146. doi:10.1123/tsp.2016-0052

Holland, B.A. (2016). Factors and strategies that influence faculty involvement in public service. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 20*, 63-72. doi;10.1108/IJOES-05-2017-0079

Holt, N. (2016). *Positive youth development through sport (*2nd ed.). London, UK:

Routledge.

Holt, N. L., Neely, K. C., Slater, L. G., Camiré, M., Côté, J., Fraser-Thomas, J., ... & Tamminen, K. A. (2017). A grounded theory of positive youth development through sport based on results from a qualitative meta-study. International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 10(1), 149. doi:10.1080/1750984X.2016.1180704

Hope, E. C., & Jagers, R. J. (2014). The role of sociopolitical attitudes and civic education in the civic engagement of black youth. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 24*(3), 460-470. doi:10.1111/jora.12117

Howard, J. L., Gagné, M., Morin, A. J., & Forest, J. (2018). Using bifactor exploratory structural equation modeling to test for a continuum structure of motivation. *Journal of Management, 44*, 2638-2664. doi:10.1177/0149206316645653

Huda, M., Mat Teh, K. S., Nor Muhamad, N. H., & Mohd Nasir, B. (2018). Transmitting leadership based civic responsibility: insights from service learning. *International Journal of Ethics and Systems, 34*, 20-31. doi:10.1108/IJOES-05-2017-0079

Iwasaki, Y. (2015). The role of youth engagement in positive youth development and social justice youth development for high-risk, marginalized youth. *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth, 12*(3), 267-278. doi:10.1080/02673843.2015.1067893

Jones, G., Edwards, M. B., Bocarro, J. N., Bunds, K. S., & Smith, J. W. (2017). An integrative review of sport-based development literature. *Sport in Society, 20,*

161-179. doi:10.080/17430437.2015.1124569

Jones, G. J., Edwards, M., Bocarro, J., Bunds, K. S., & Smith, J. W. (2017). Collaborative advantages: The role of inter-organizational partnerships for youth sport nonprofit organizations. *Journal of Sport Management, 31*, 148-160. doi:10.1123/jsm.2016-0118

Junaidi, J., Irviani, R., Muslihudin, M., Hidayat, S., Maseleno, A., Gumanti, M., & Fauzi, A. N. (2018). Application program learning based on android for students experiences. *International Journal of Engineering & Technology, 7*, 194-198. Retrieved from www.sciencepubco.com/index.php/ijet

Junge, S. K., Manglallan, S., & Raskauskas, J. (2003). Building life skills through afterschool participation in experimental and cooperative learning. *Child Study Journal, 33*, 165-174. Retrieved from catalyst.library.jhu.edu

Kahn, L., Hewes, S., & Ali, R. (2009). Taking the lead: Youth leadership in theory and practice. The Young Foundation. Retrieved September 19, 2018, from www.youngfoundation.org

Kang, Y., Van Boekel, M., Nickodem, K., Palma, J. R., Vue, K., Jang, Y., ... & Bulut, O. (2017). Interaction among gender, race/ethnicity, and school sports participation in youth development. Retrieved from conservancy.umn.edu

Keating, K., Rosch, D., & Burgoon, L. (2014). Developmental readiness for leadership: The differential effects of leadership courses on creating “ready, willing, and able” leaders. *Journal of Leadership Education, 13*(3), 1-16. doi:1012806/V13/I3/R1.

Kelder, S. H., Hoelscher, D., & Perry, C. L. (2015). *How individuals, environments, and health behaviors interact. Health behavior: Theory, research, and practice* (5th ed). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kempster, S. (2006). Leadership learning through lived experience: A process of apprenticeship? *Journal of Management and Organization, 12*, 4-22. doi:10.1017/S1833367200004132

Kirlin, M. (2002). Civic skill building: The missing component in service programs? *Political Science & Politics 35*, 571-575. doi:10.1017/S1049096502000872

Klapper, M. R. (2017). You shouldn't tell boys they can't dance: Boys and ballet in America. *The Journal of the History of Childhood and Youth, 10*, 248-267. doi:10.1353/hcy.2017.0027

Kleon, S. & Rinehart, S. (1998). Leadership skill development of teen leaders. *Journal of Extension, 36*(3), 1-5. Retrieved from www.joe.org

Kniffin, K. M., Wansink, B., &Shimizu, M. (2014). Sports at work: Anticipated and persistent correlates of participation in high school athletics. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 22*, 217-230. doi:10.1177/1548051814538099

Köhler, Wolfgang. (1957). The Mentality of Apes. doi:10.1037/11304-054

Köhler, W. (1959). Gestalt psychology today. *American Psychologist, 14*, 727-734. doi:10.1037/h0042492

Kokolakakis, T., Lera-López, F., & Panagouleas, T. (2015). Analysis of the determinants of sports participation in Spain and England. *Applied Economics, 44*, 2758-2798.

doi:10.1080/00036846.2011.566204

Kolb, D.A. (2014), *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development*, Upper Saddle River, New Jersey. FT press.

Kolb, D. (2015). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development.* 2nd Ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Ltd.

Komives, S. R., & Wagner, W. (Eds.). (2017). *Leadership for a better world: Understanding the Social Change Model of Leadership Development*. (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Kooistra, P. & Kooistra, R. (2018). The ins and outs of US youth soccer: Learning about loyalty and success, *Soccer & Society, 19*, 944-965. doi:10.1080/14660970.2016.1267620

Korotov, K. (2016). *Coaching for leadership development.* In T. BachkirovaG. Spence & D. Drake The Handbook of coaching (pp. 139-158). 55. City Road, London: Sage Publications Ltd. doi:10.4135/9781473983861.n8

Lamarche, L., Gionfriddo, L. E., Cline, L. E., Gammage, K. L., & Adkin, A. L. (2014). What would you do? The effect of verbal persuasion on task choice. *Gait & Posture, 39*, 583-587. doi:10.1016/j.gaitpost.2013.09.013

Lamm, K. W., Sapp, L. R., & Lamm, A. J. (2018). A longitudinal evaluation of change leadership within a leadership development program. *Journal of Leadership Education, 17*, 121-134. doi:10.12806/V17/I3/R7

Lamn, A. & Harder, A. (2009). 4-H going beyond life skill development. *Journal of Extension, 47*(4) 1-4. Retreived from https://www.joe.org/journal-archive.php

Lara-Bercial, S., Abraham, A., Colmaire, P., Dieffenbach, K., Mokgate, O., Rynne, S . . . Nordmann, L. (2016). The international sport coaching bachelor degree standards of the international council for coaching excellence. *International Sport Coaching Journal, 3*, 344-348. doi:10.1123/ iscj.2016-0085

Larson, R. W. (2000). Toward a psychology of positive youth development. *American Psychologist, 55*, 170-183. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.170

Larson, R., Walker, K., & Pearce, N. (2005). A comparison of youth-driven and adult-driven youth programs: balancing inputs from youth and adults. *Journal of community psychology, 33*, 57-74. doi:10.1002/jcop.20035

Lee, A. R. & Horsley, J. S. (2017). The role of social media on positive youth development: An analysis of 4-H Facebook page and 4-H'ers' positive development. *Children and Youth Services Review, 77,* 127-138. doi:10.1016/j.childyouth.2017.04.014

Leman, P. J., Smith, E. P., Petersen, A. C., SRCD Ethnic–Racial Issues and International Committees, Seaton, E., Cabrera, N., ... & Leman, P. (2017). Introduction to the special section of Child Development on positive youth development in diverse and global contexts. *Child development, 88*, 1039-1044. doi:10.1111/cdev.12860

Leppler, J. (2014). No Cheerleading Allowed: The Impact of Biedeger v. Quinnipiac University and the Future Title IX in College Athletics. doi:10.2139/ssrn.2385376

Lerner, R.M. (2005). Promoting positive youth development: Theoretical and empirical bases. White paper prepared for Workshop on the Science of Adolescent Health and Development. National Research Council and Institute of Medicine.

Washington, DC. National Academy of Sciences.

Lerner, R. M., Johnson, S. K., & Buckingham, M. H. (2015). Relational developmental systems-based theories and the study of children and families: Lerner and Spanier (1978) revisited. *Journal of Family Theory & Review, 7*, 83-104. doi:10.1111/jftr.12067

Lerner, R. M., Lerner, J. V., P. Bowers, E., & John Geldhof, G. (2015). Positive Youth Development and Relational-Developmental-Systems. *Handbook of Child Psychology and Developmental Science*, 1-45. doi:10.1002/9781118963418

Levine, J., Etchison, S., & Oppenheimer, D. M. (2014). Pluralistic ignorance among student-athlete populations: A factor in academic underperformance. *Higher Education, 68*, 525-540. doi:10.1007%2Fs10734-014-9726-0

Lisman, J., Buzsáki, G., Eichenbaum, H., Nadel, L., Rangananth, C., & Redish, A. D. (2017). Viewpoints: how the hippocampus contributes to memory, navigation and cognition. *Nature Neuroscience, 20*, 1434-1447. doi:10.1038/s41593-017-0034-8

Lloyd, R. S., Oliver, J. L., Faigenbaum, A. D., Howard, R., Croix, M. B. D. S., Williams, C. A., ... & Hatfield, D. L. (2015). Long-term athletic development-part 1: a pathway for all youth. *The Journal of Strength & Conditioning Research, 29*, 1439-1450. doi:10.1519/JSC.0000000000000756

Loughead, T. M., Munroe-Chandler, K. J., Hoffmann, M. D., & Duguay, A. M. (2014). Athlete leadership in sport. In M.R. Beauchamp & M.A. Eys (Eds.), *Group dynamics in exercise and sport psychology* (110–127). New York: Routledge.

Lovat, T. & Clement, N. (2016). Service learning as holistic values pedagogy. *Journal of*

Experiential Education, 39, 115-129. doi:10.1177/1053825916628548

Lunde, C., & Gattario, K. H. (2017). Performance or appearance? Young female sport participants' body negotiations. *Body Image, 21*, 81-89. doi:10.1016/j.bodyim.2017.03.001

Lyden, J. (2017). WE lead (2017). White paper prepared for World Elite All Stars. Brecksville, OH.

Mallinson-Howard, S. H., Knight, C. J., Hill, A. P., & Hall, H. K. (2018). The 2× 2 model of perfectionism and youth sport participation: A mixed-methods approach. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 36*, 162-173. doi:10.1016/j.psychsport.2018.02.011

Manz, C. C. & Sims, H. P. (1981). Vicarious learning: The influence of modeling on organizational behavior. *Academy of Management Review, 6*, 105-113. doi:10.5465/AMR.1981.4288021

Martin, K. (2018). Summer camp youth leadership development: An investigation of adolescents' perceptions of best practices. *Journal of Youth Development, 13*, 161-182. doi:10.5195/jyd.2018.536

McDonough, M. H., Ullrich-French, S., & McDavid, M. L. (2018). Helping kids connect: Participant and staff perspectives on facilitating social relationships in a physical activity-based positive youth development program for youth from low-income families. *Sport, Exercise, and Performance Psychology, 7*, 13-29. doi:10.1037/spy0000109

McEwan, D. & Beauchamp, M. R. (2014). Teamwork in sport: A theoretical and

integrative review. *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 7*(1*)*, 229-250. doi:10.1080/1750984X.2014.932423

Mearns, J. (2009). *Social learning theory.* In H. Reis & S. Sprecher (Eds.), Encyclopedia of human relationships (vol. 3) (pp. 1537-1540). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. doi:10.4135/9781412958479.n506

Merriam, S. B., & Caffarella, R. S. (1999). *Learning in adulthood: A comprehensive guide.* San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.

Meyers, C. V. & Hitt, D. H. (2017). Planning for school turnaround in the United States: an analysis of the quality of principal-developed quick wins. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 29*, 362-382. doi:10.1080/09243453.2018.1428202

Mohamad, S. J. A. S., Hassan, R., & Yahya, M. Z. M. (2017). The role of transformational leadership as moderating factor between BASO model strategic planning training intervention and rural mosque organizational effectiveness. *Review of Integrative Business and Economics Research, 1*, 299-309. Retrieved from: http://buscompress.com

Montano, D. E., & Kasprzyk, D. (2015). Theory of reasoned action, theory of planned behavior, and the integrated behavioral model. *Health behavior: Theory, Research and Practice, 5,* 95-124. doi:1008ae95fa33c851df

Moore, K. A., Lippman, L., & Brown, B. (2004). Indicators of child well-bring: The promise for positive youth development. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 591,* 125-145. doi:10.1177/00022716203260103

Morris, L. V. (2016). Experiential learning for all. *Innovative Higher Education, 41*, 103-

104. doi:10.1007/s10755-016-9361-z

Morton, M. H., & Montgomery, P. (2013). Youth empowerment programs for improving adolescents' self-efficacy and self-esteem. A systematic review. *Research on Social Work Practice, 23,* 22-33. doi:10.1177/1049731512459967

Mueller, M. K., Phelps, E., Bowers, E. P., Agans, J. P., Urban, J. B., & Lerner, R. M. (2011). Youth development program participation and intentional self-regulation skills: Contextual and individual bases of pathways to positive youth development. *Journal of Adolescence, 34*, 1115-1125. doi:10.1016/j.adolescence.2011.07.010

Munoz-Bullon, F., Sanchez-Bueno, M. J., & Vos-Sas, A. (2017). The influence of sports participation on academic performance among students in higher education. *Sports Management Review, 20*, 365-378. doi:10.1016/j.smr.2016.10.006

National Association of Colleges and Employers. (2015). Job outlook 2013. Bethlehem, PA: National Association of Colleges and Employers

National 4-H Council. (2016). 2015 youth impact report. Retrieved from 4-H: http://3t61of1t6u3x3af7ir2y91ib. wpengine.netdna-cdn.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/National-4-H-Council-Annual-Report-2015.pdf.

Neely, K. C., Hugh, T. L. F., Dunn, J. G. H., & Holt, N. L. (2017). Athletes and parents coping with deselection in competitive youth sport: A communal coping perspective. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 30*, 1-9. doi:10.1016/j.psychsport.2017.01.004

Newman, T. J., Kim, M., Antonio, M., Alvarez, G., & Tucker, A. R. (2018). Facilitative

coaching: A guide for youth sport leaders. *Leisure, 42*, 129-148. doi:10.1080/14927713.2017.1415165

Nicholson, D. J., & Klem, M. D. (2016). The value of being a camp counselor: A study of the experiences and personal growth of the Missouri 4-H camp counselors. Camping Magazine. Retrieved from org/files/3214/8553/5933/

Olsen, L., Powell, G.M., Garst, B.A., & Bixler, R.D. (2018). Camp and college parallels: Crucibles for transition-linked turning-points. *Journal of Youth Development, 13*(1-2), 126-143. doi:10.5195/jyd.2018.558

Oparinde, K. M., Agbede, G. T., & Bariki, M. E. M. (2017). Student/ youth leadership development I contemporary societies: A review attempt. *Journal of Social Sciences, 53*, 13-19. doi:10.1080/09718923.2017.1368219

Osmane, S. (2016). Predictors of leadership skills of Pennsylvanian youth. *Community Development, 49*, 341-357. doi:10.1080/15575330.2018.1462219

Osmane, S., & Brennan, M. (2018). Predictors of leadership skills of Pennsylvanian youth. *Community Development, 49*, 341-357. doi:10.1080/15575330.2018.1462219

Ozier, L. W. (2018). Learning landscapes: The educational spectrum from camps to classrooms. *Journal of Youth Development, 13*(1-2), 4-13. doi:10.5195/jyd.2018.612

Patton, K., Parker, M., & Tannehill, D. (2015). Helping teachers help themselves: Professional development that makes a difference. *NASSP Bulletin, 99*(1), 26-42. doi:10.1177/0192636515576040

Perkins, D. F. & Noam, G. G. (2007). Characteristics of sports-based youth development programs. *New Directions for Youth Development, 2007,* 75-85. doi:10.1002/yd.224

Peterson, K. (2002). The professional development of principals: Innovations and opportunities. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 38*, 213-232. doi:10.1177/0013161X02382006

Petosa, R. L., & Smith, L. H. (2014). Peer mentoring for health behaviour change: A systematic review. *American Journal of Health Education*, *45*, 351-357. doi:10.1080/1932503 7.2014.945670

Pierce, S., Kendellen, K., Camire, M., & Gould, D. (2016). Strategies for coaching for life skills transfer. *Journal of Sport Psychology in Action, 9*, 11-20. doi:10.1080/21520704.2016.1263982

Price, T. T., & Elmer, B. J. (2015). Teen leadership and development fact sheets: Working effectively with teen volunteers, 4H-501P, 1-3. doi:10.1.1.729.7225

Ramey, H. L., Rose-Krasnor, L., Busseri, M. A., Gadbois, S., Bowker, A., & Findlay, L. (2015). Measuring psychological engagement in youth activity. *Journal of Adolescence, 45*, 237-249. doi:10.1016/j.adolescence.2015.09.006

Rees, G. and Main, G. (2015). *Children's views on their lives and wellbeing in 15 countries: An initial report on the children's world's survey*, 2013-14, Children's Worlds Project (ICSWeb), York, Retrieved from www.isciweb.org

Riciputi, S., Boyer, P., McDonough, M. & Snyder, F. (2019). Formative evaluation of a piolet afterschool physical activity-based positive youth development program.

Health Promotion Practice, 20(2), 269-281. doi:10.1177/1524839918759956

Romsa, B., Romsa, K., Lim, J., & Wurdinger, S. (2017). Undergraduate sport management students' perceptions of leadership skills through service learning. *Journal of Leadership Education, 16*(2). doi:10.12806/V16/I2/R8

Rosch, D. M., Collier, D., & Thompson, S. E. (2015). An exploration of students' motivation to lead: An analysis by race, gender, and student leadership behaviors. *Journal of College Student Development, 56*, 286–291. doi:10.1353/csd.2015.0031

Rosch, D.M. & Collins, J.D. (2017). The significance of student organizations to leadership development. *New Directions for Student Leadership, 2017,* 9-19. doi:10.1002/yd.20246

Rosch, D. M., & Villanueva, J. C. (2016). Motivation to develop as a leader. New Directions for Student Leadership, 149, 49-59. doi:10.1002/yd.20161

Roth, J. L. & Gunn, J. B. (2016). Evaluating youth development programs: Progress and promise. *Applied Developmental Science, 20,* 188-202. doi:10.1080/10888691.2015.1113879

Rottensteiner, C., Laakso, L., Pihlaja, T., & Konttinen, N. (2013). Personal reasons for withdrawal from team sports and the influence of significant others among young athletes. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching, 8*, 19-31. doi:10.1260/17479541.8.1.19

Rotter, J. B. (1942). Level of aspiration as a method of studying personality: Development and evaluation of a controlled method. *Journal of Experimental*

Psychology, 31, 410-422. doi:10.1037/h0054342

Rotter, J. B. (1954). *Social learning and clinical psychology*. New York, NY: Prentice-Hall. doi:10.1037/10788-000

Rotter, J. B. (1960). Some implications of a social learning theory for the prediction of goal directed behavior from testing procedures. *Psychological Review, 67*, 301-316. doi:10.1037/h0039601

Rotter, J. B., & Rafferty, J. E. (1950). *The Rotter Incomplete Sentences Blank manual: College form.* New York: Psychological Corp. doi:10.1037/h0062560

Rubin, R.O., Hagler, M., Burton, S.A., & Rhodes, J.E. Striking a balance: An exploration of staff-camper relationship formation. *Journal of Youth Development, 13*(1-2), 44-61. doi:10.5195/jyd.2018.537

Rutti, R. M., LaBonte, J., Helms, M. M., Hervani, A. A., & Sarkarat, S. (2016). The service learning projects: Stakeholder benefits and potential class topics. *Education & Training, 58*, 422-438. doi:10.1108/ET-06-2015-0050

Sammons, P., Davies, S., Day, C., Gu, Q. (2014). Using mixed methods to investigate school improvement and the role of leadership. *Journal of Educational Administration, 52*, 565-589. doi:10.1108/JEA-10-2013-0121.

Sandi, C., & Haller, J. (2015). Stress and the social brain: Behavioral effects and neurobiological mechanisms. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience, 16*, 290-304. doi:10.1038/nrn3918

Sanders, M. (2014). Leadership, partnerships, and organizational development: exploring components of effectiveness in three full-service community schools. *School*

Effectiveness and School Improvement, 27, 157-177. doi:10.1080/09243453.2015.1030432

Sanders, M. J., Van Oss, T., & McGeary, S. (2016). Analyzing reflections in service learning to promote personal growth and community self-efficacy. *Journal of Experiential Education, 39*, 73-88. doi:10.1177/1053825915608872

Santos, F., Gould, D., Strachan, L. (2019). Research on positive youth development-focused coach education programs: Future pathways and applications. *International Sport Coaching Journal, 6*, 132-138. doi:10.1123.iscj.2018-0013

Santos, F., Camiré, M., MacDonald, D. J., Campos, H., Conceição, M., & Silva, P. (2017). Youth sport coaches' perspective on positive youth development and its worth in mainstream coach education courses. *International Sport Coaching Journal, 4*, 38-46. doi:10.1123/iscj.2016-0092

Scales, P. C., Roehlkepartain, E. C., & Shramko, M. (2016). Aligning youth development theory, measurement, and practice across cultures and contexts: Lessons from use of the developmental assets profile. *Child Indicators Research, 10,* 1145-1178. doi:10.1007/s12187-016-9395-x

Scott, C. P. R., Hairong, J., Wildman, J. L., & Griffith, R. (2016). The impact of implicit collective leadership theories on the emergence and effectiveness of leadership networks in teams. *Human Resource Management Review, 28*(4), 464-481. doi:10.1016/j.hrmr.2017.03.005

Seider, S., Jayawickreme, E., & Lerner, R. (2017). Theoretical and empirical bases of character development in adolescence: A view of the issues. Journal of Youth &

Adolescence, 46, 1149-1152. doi:10.1007/s10964-017-0650-3

Seemiller, C. (2018). A competency-based model for youth leadership development. *Journal of Leadership Education, 17*, 56-72. doi:10.12806/V17/I1/R1

Shamblen S. R., Ringwalt C. L., Clark H. K., & Hanley S. M. (2014). Alcohol use growth trajectories in young adolescence: Pathways and predictors. *Journal of Child & Adolescent Substance Abuse, 23*, 9-18. doi:10.1080/1067828X.2012.747906

Shavelson, R. J. (2018). Methodological perspectives: Standardized (summative) or contextualized (formative) evaluation? *Education Policy Analysis Archives, 26*(48). Retrieved from https://ezp.waldenulibrary.org

Shek, D. T. L., Yu, L., Wu, F. K. Y., & Merrick, J. (2017). Evaluation of positive youth development and leadership programs in Hong Kong. *International Adolescent Medical Health, 29*, 1-3. doi:10.1515/ijamh-2017-3001

Slade, S. C., Philip, K., & Morris, M. E. (2018). Frameworks for embedding a research culture in allied health practice: a rapid review. *Health Research Policy and Systems, 16*, 29. doi:10.1186/s12961-018-0304-2

Snell, R.S., Chan, M.L., Ma, C.K. & Chan, C. M. (2015). A road map for empowering undergraduates to practice service leadership through service-learning in teams. *Journal of Management Education. 39*, 372-399. doi:10.1177/1052562914545631

Soderhjelm, T., Bjorklund, C., Sandahl, C., & Bolander-Laskov, K. (2018). Academic leadership: management of groups or leadership of teams? A multiple-case study on designing and implementing a team-based development programme for academic leadership. *Studies in Higher Education, 43*, 201-216.

doi:10.1080/03075079.2016.1160277

Sorenson, J. (2018). The fundamental characteristics and unique outcomes of Christian summer camp experiences. *Journal of Youth Development, 13*, 183-200. doi:10.5195/jyd.2018.556

Sparkes, A. C., & Smith, B. (2014). *Qualitative research methods in sport, exercise and health: From process to product.* New York, NY: Routledge/ Taylor & Francis Group

Spaulding, D. T. (2014). Research methods for the social sciences: Program evaluation in practice: Core concepts and examples for discussion and analysis (2). *Somerset, US: Jossey-Bass.* Retrieved from http://site.ebrary.com/lib/alltitles/docDetail.action?docID=10839225

Stajkovic, A. D., Bandura, A., Locke, E. A., Lee, D., & Sergent, K. (2018). Test of three conceptual models of influence of the big five personality traits and self-efficacy on academic performance: A meta-analytic path-analysis. *Personality and Individual Differences, 120*, 238-245. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2017.08.014

Suarez, C. E. (2015). Never created with nosotros in mind: Combating colorblind leadership education with cultural competency and intersectionality of identities. In Lozano. A. (Ed.) *Latina/o College Student Leadership: Emerging Theory, Promising Practices.* Lanham, MD: Lexington Books.

Sutter, N., & Paulson, S. (2016). Predicting college students' intention to graduate: A test of the theory of planned behavior. *College Student Journal, 50*, 409-421. Retrieved from http://projectinnovation.biz/csj_2006.html

Taylor, R. D., Oberle, E., Durlak, J. A., & Weissberg, R. P. (2017). Promoting positive youth development through school-based social and emotional learning interventions: A meta-analysis of follow-up effects. *Child development, 88*, 1156-1171. doi:10.1111/cdev.12864

Temple, V. A., & Crane, J. R. (2016). A systematic review of drop-out from organized soccer among children and adolescents. *Soccer & Society, 17*, 856-881. doi:10.1080/14660970.2015.1100901

Terlecki, M. S. & McMahon, A. (2018). A call for metacognitive intervention: Improvements due to curricular programming in leadership. *Journal of Leadership Education, 17*, 130-145. doi:10.12806/V17/I4/R8

Theokas, C., Danish, S., Hodge, K., Heke, I., & Forneris, T. (2008). *Enhancing life skills through sport for children and youth*. In N. L. Holt (Ed.), Positive Youth Development Through Sport (pp. 71-81). New York, NY: Routledge

The United States All Star Federation. (2018). By laws of the U. S. All Star Federation, Inc., Retrieved June 20, 2018, from www.usasf.net

Thomas, J. L. F., Cote, J., & Deakin, J. (2005). Youth sport programs: An avenue to foster positive youth development. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 10*, 19-40. doi:10.1080/1740898042000334890

Thorpe, W. H. (1956). *Learning and instinct in animals.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Thorpe, H. (2016). Action sports for youth development: Critical insights for the SDP community. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics,* 8, 91-116.

doi:10.1080/19406940.2014.925952

Tolman, E.C. (1948). Cognitive maps in rats and men. *Psychological Review. 55*, 189-208. doi:10.1037/h0061626.

Tremblay, M. S., Gray, C. E., Akinroye, K., Harrington, D. M., Jatzmarzyk, P. T., Lambert, E. V.…Tomkinson, G. (2014). Physical activity of children: A global matrix of grades comparing 15 countries. *Human Kinetics Journals, 11*(s1), s113-s125. doi:10.1123/jpah.2014-0177

Trottier, C. & Robitaille, S. (2014). Fostering life skills development in high school and community sport: A comparative analysis of a coach's role. *The Sport Psychologist, 28*, 10-21. doi:10.1123/tsp.2012-0094

Tubin, D. (2017). Leadership identity construction practices. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 45*, 790-805. doi:10.1177/1741143216682503

Turnnidge, J., Côté, J., & Hancock, D. J. (2014). Positive youth development from sport to life: Explicit or implicit transfer? *Quest, 66*, 203-217. doi:10.1080/00336297.2013.867275

Turnnidge, J., & Côté, J. (2018). Applying transformational leadership theory to coaching research in youth sport: A systematic literature review. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 16*, 327-342. doi:10.1080/1612197X.2016.1189948

U.S.A. Gymnastics by laws. (2018, May 22). Retrieved June 20, 2018, from www.usagym.org

Urban, J. B., Lewin-Bizan, S., & Lerner, R. M. (2009). The role of neighborhood

ecological assets and activity involvement in youth developmental outcomes: Differential impacts of asset rich and asset poor neighborhoods. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 30*, 601-614. doi:10.1016/j.appdev.2009.07.003

United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization. (2013). What Do We Mean By Youth? Retrieved from http://www.unesco.org/new/en/social-and-human-sciences/themes/youth/youth-definition.

Vaiginienė, E., Alonderienė, R., Pilkienė, M., Ramonienė, L., Savanevičienė, A., & Stankevičiūtė, Ž. (2018). *Management and Leadership Development Needs: The Case of Lithuania.* In Business and Society. Springer International Publishing. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-78855-5_7

Vandell, D., Reisner, E., & Pierce, K. (2007). *Outcomes linked to high-quality afterschool programs: Longitudinal finding from the study of promising afterschool programs.* (University of California, Irvine, the University of Wisconsin-Madison and Policy Studies Associates, Inc.) Retrieved from https: http://www.policystudies.com

Vella S. A., Oades L. G., Crowe T. P. (2013). The relationship between coach leadership, the coach-athletes relationship, team success, and the positive developmental experiences of adolescent soccer players. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 18,* 549-561. doi:10.1080/17408989.2012.726976

Visek, A. J., Mannix, H., Chandran, A., Cleary, S. D., McDonnell, K., & DiPietro, L. (2018). Perceived importance of the fun integration theory's factors and

determinants: A comparison among players, parents, and coaches. International *Journal of Sports Science & Coaching, September*, 1-13. doi:10.1177/1747954118798057

Walker, K., & Larson, R. (2006). Adult-driven youth programs: An oxymoron? *The Prevention Researcher, 13*, 17-20. Retreived from TPRonline.org

Wang, J., Champine, R. B., Ferris, K. A., Hershberg, R. M., Warren, D. J., Burkhard, B. M., . . . Lerner, R. M. (2017). Is the scoutreach initiative of boy scouts of America linked to character development among socioeconomically, racially, and ethnically diverse youth? Initial explorations. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 46*, 2230-2240. doi:10.1007/s10964-017-0710-8

Wehmeyer, M. L., Agran, M., & Hughes, C. (1998). *Teaching self-determination to students with disabilities: Basic skills for successful transition*. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co.

Weinberg, R., Freysinger, V., & Mellano, K. (2016). How can coaches build mental toughness? Views from sport psychologists. *Journal of Sport Psychology in Action, 9*, 1-10. doi:10.1080/21520704.2016.1263981

Weinberger, D. R., Elvevåg, B., Giedd, J., & National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy (U.S.). (2005). *The adolescent brain: A work in progress*. Washington, DC: National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy.

Weiss M. R., Stuntz C. P., Bhalla J. A., Bolter N. D., & Price M. S. (2013). More than a game: Impact of the first tee life skills program on positive youth development: Project introduction and year 1 findings. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise*

and Health, 5, 214-244. doi:10.1080/2159676X.2012.712997.

Weiss, M. R. (2016). *Old wine in a new bottle: Historical reflections on sport as a context for youth development. In Positive youth development through sport.* Routledge. doi:10.4324%2F9781315709499-2

Whitley, M. A., & Walsh, D. (2014). A framework for the design and implementation of service-learning courses. Journal of Physical Education, *Recreation & Dance, 85*(4), 34-39. doi:10.1080/07303084.2014.884835

Whitely, M. A., Forneris, T., & Barker, B. (2015). The reality of sustaining community-based sport and physical activity programs to enhance the development of undeserved youth: Challenges and potential strategies. *Quest, 76,* 409-423. doi:10.1080/00336297.2015.1084340

Whitley, M. A., Farrell, K., Maisonet, C., & Hoffer, A. (2017). Reflections on service-learning: Student experiences in a sport-based youth development course. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance, 88*(7), 23-29. doi:10.1080/07303084.2017.1340202

Whitley, M. A., McGarry, J., Martinek, T., Mercier, K., & Quinlan, M. (2017). Educating future leaders of the sport-based youth development field. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance, 88*(8), 15-20. doi:10.1080/07303084.2017.1356766

Whittington, A. & Garst, B. (2018). The role of camp in shaping college readiness and building a pathway to the future for camp alumni. *Journal of Youth Development, 13*, 105-125. doi:10.5195/jyd.2018.519

Willard-Grace, R., Dube, K., Hessler, D., O'Brien, B., Earnest, G., Gupta, R., Shunk, R., & Grumbach, K. (2015). Panel management, team culture, and worklife experience. *Families, Systems, & Health, 33*, 231-241. doi:10.1037/fsh0000113

Williams, D. M. (2010). Outcome expectancy and self-efficacy: Theoretical implications of an unresolved contradiction. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 14*, 417-425. doi:10.1177/1088868310368802

Winsler, A., Caverly, S., Willson-Quayle, A., Carlton, M., Howell, C., & Long, G. (2002). The social and behavioral ecology of mixed-age and same-age preschool classrooms: A natural experiment. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology. 23*(3), 305-330. doi:10.1016/S0193-3973(02)00111-9

Winton, S. L. (2018). Developing leadership for increasing complexity: A review of online graduate leadership programs. *Journal of Leadership Education, 17*, 162-176. doi:10.12806/V17/I1/A4

Wormington S. V., Anderson K. G., Tomlinson K. L., & Brown S. A. (2013). Alcohol and other drug use in middle school: The interplay of gender, peer victimization, and supportive social relationships. *The Journal of Early Adolescence, 33,* 610-634. doi:10.1177/0272431612453650

Youniss, J. (2009). Why we need to learn more about youth civic engagement. *Social Forces, 88*, 971-976. doi:10.1353/sof.0.0253

Youniss, J. (2011). Civic education: What schools can do to encourage civic identity and action. *Applied Developmental Science, 15*, 98-103. doi:10.1080/10888691.2011.560814

Zaff, J. F., Moore, K. A., Papillo, A. R., & Williams, S. (2003). Implications of extracurricular activity participation during adolescence on positive outcomes. *Journal of Adolescent research, 18*, 599-630. doi:10.1177/0743558403254779

Zitomer, M. R., & Goodwin, D. (2014). Gauging the quality of qualitative research in adapted physical activity. *Adapted Physical Activity Quarterly, 31,* 193-218. doi:10.1123/apaq.2013-0084

Appendix A: Youth Development Logic Model

Need:
Local youth sports with built in leadership development programs were being replaced by competitive sports organizations with no leadership development programs in place. As a result, there was a rise in the inability to handle life situations after adolescence. In 2017, World Elite created the WE Lead program to help prepare youth with lessons that prepare youth post high school graduation.

INPUTS	STRATEGIES/ ACTIVITIES	OUTCOMES – IMPACT Short-Term	Intermediate	Long-Tern
Coach time Organizational support staff time Funding Mentors Publications Athletic training	1. Provide a safe structured athletic and leadership learning atmosphere. 2. Certification training in leadership development through workshops for all staff. This training provides teaching strategies to promote life skill lessons to the athletes.	Youth become aware of structure. Youth feel safe. Increase transparency of organization and program's vision Coaching staff understands the reason and importance of youth leadership development and become committed to promoting lessons. Increases: -Athlete engagement -Accountability -Athletic performance	Increase: -Team cohesiveness -Team performance -Program enrollment -Athlete grades Increase: -Athlete attendance -Athlete goal attainment Decreases: -Disciplinary probation Increase the amount and quality of junior coaching prospects Positive change in local community's perspective of the organization	Youth involvement increase in community leadership opportunities. Increase the college applicant acceptance rate Youth apply the skills learned to other areas of their life. Increase in strength of the community environment through youth involvement

Appendix B: Interview Protocol and Questions

The purpose of this program evaluation is to determine the extent to which a competitive youth sports organization's youth leadership development program aligns with the organization's primary objective to provide perfected skilled athletic training while providing lessons to prepare youth for adulthood. The target population will consist of key stakeholders and participants of the WE Lead program, that include: (a) those included in the program operations (e.g. coaching staff, owners, parents, funding agency, etc.); (b) those served or affected by the program (e.g. youth participants, community, etc.); and (c) decision makers (e.g. owners, funding agency, partners). The implications for positive social change include the potential to mature youth skills to identify community resources and use them, not only to live independently, but also to establish support networks to participate in community life.

Interviewee: _____ Location: _____

Date: _____ Time: _____

Notes:

1. Greet the interviewee and introduce yourself.
2. Provide an overview of the study and indicate the usefulness of the outcome.
3. Obtain a signed consent form. Offer to answer any questions that interviewee may have.
4. Remind interviewee about their volunteer efforts to participate in the study.
5. Remind interviewee about recording the interview and start the recording.

6. Start the interview by recording interviewee‘s pre-assigned coded name, date, time and location.

7. Begin asking interview questions and allow the participant enough time to answer them.

8. Listen carefully to the interviewee. Ask probing and follow-up questions, if needed.

9. At the end of the interview, thank interviewee for their participation and time.

10. Provide participant my contact information if they have any questions.

Interview Questions

1. What is the increase in program enrollment since the implementation of the WE Lead program at World Elite?

2. Are the athlete program participant grades significantly different before and after WE Lead program implementation?

3. What is the increase in the college applicant acceptance rates for athlete program participants before and after WE Lead program implementation?

4. Is athlete attendance at regularly scheduled practices significantly different after WE Lead program implementation?

5. How has the athlete applied the skills offered through lessons in the WE Lead program to other areas of his/her life?

6. What is the local community’s perspective of the WE Lead program?

7. How has youth involvement in the community changed since the implementation of the WE Lead program?

8. What is the coaching staff's perception on how the program changed athlete performance after WE Lead program implementation?

9. How has the quality of junior coaching prospects changed since the implementation of the WE Lead program?

10. How has the behavior of athlete participants changed since the implementation of the WE Lead program?