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Individualized Consideration: Poverty Countermeasure

Lawrence Wilson
Walden University

Walden University

College of Management and Technology

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Lawrence Wilson

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
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Review Committee
Dr. Salvatore Sinatra, Committee Chairperson, Management Faculty
Dr. David Banner, Committee Member, Management Faculty
Dr. Jeffrey Prinster, University Reviewer, Management Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
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Abstract

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MS, Kansas State University, 2008

BS, Northwest Missouri State University, 1990

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Management: Leadership and Organizational Change

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Abstract

Despite more than $1 trillion spent annually on poverty remediation, impoverishment in the United States persists unabated. With a U.S. poverty rate greater than 10% for more than 4 decades, economics are neither poverty's cause nor cure. As such, non-economic poverty remedies require exploration and expansion. Linking greater leadership and poverty theories, this non-experimental, cross sectional, quantitative, survey-based research effort correlated individualized consideration's (IC) practice with collegiate athlete graduation rates in order to identify and isolate possible leadership based social poverty remediation measures. Leveraging a two-stage random sample, this research effort correlated student athlete Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (form 5X) responses with educational attainment. An ANOVA of 210 participants (r_s = .77) indicated a strong correlation between IC practice and athlete matriculation rates. Strong correlational relationships indicate transformative leadership may serve to advance educational attainment and power poverty remediation. Results further suggest developmental leader actions (r_s = .68) were significantly more integral to follower progression than supportive leadership behaviors (r_s = .37). Research effort findings offer comprehensive individual, communal, institutional, and societal modification opportunity while promising advancement for society's most disadvantaged members. Finally and most importantly, this research supports positive social change through human forward progression, improving life-conditions for society's most disadvantaged members.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to the United States Army officers and non-commissioned officers. Through their transformational leadership efforts, millions of impoverished Americans have overcome repressive social poverty mental models. Not only is our nation indebted to these brave warriors for their personal national security sacrifices, their leadership vis-à-vis the followers entrusted to their care has immeasurably improved our nationhood. As a collective people, we stand in awe of their contribution to and investment in the best, most fair, most honorable, most equitable, and "good" nation in mankind's history.

Acknowledgments

I would like to offer two notes of thanks. First, I would like to gratefully and deeply thank Dr. Sal Sinatra for his untiring support over the past 6 years. Without Dr. Sinatra's personal investment and transformational encouragement, guidance, and mentorship, completing the Walden University PhD program would not have occurred. His superior leadership, personal goodness, and tireless work effort have been a personal shining example. His efforts will never be forgotten.

Dr. David Banner deserves a heartfelt extension of gratitude. His selfless sacrifice to join my committee at the eleventh hour in a time of dire need was of critical importance. His servant leadership marks Dr. Banner as a superior instructor and man.

Finally, I would like to thank my family. My four ladies are my existence. They are all that I am.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

For more than 40 years, the United States Census Bureau has reported a US poverty rate over 10% (Rector & Sheffield, 2011; U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). The term *impoverished* normally evokes images of substantial material deficiency, inadequate basic necessities, and economic tribulation. American economic poverty realities, however, are far different. Increasingly, theorists hypothesize involuntary economic poverty in the United States no longer exists. Welfare, aid to dependent children, school meal programs, rent assistance, tax-payer provided housing, food stamps, paid utility programs, and free-of-charge health care have served to ensure America's impoverished a middle class existence (Castel, 2002; Friedman, 1996; Lewandoski, 2006; Silver & Miller, 2003).

The US Agricultural Department (2009) attested, through childhood obesity statistics, that children below the misnamed poverty level have a higher calorific intake and eat 100% more meat than children living above the poverty threshold. Currently, America has the most obese poor people in mankind's history (Bhattacharya & Sood, 2011; Cristner, 2003; United Health Foundation, 2009). The unemployed regularly experience significant weight gain, making them even less employable (Herbig, Dragano & Angerer, 2013; Rosenwald, 2014a/2014b; Siebold, 2009).

The average impoverished American household owns at least one car, multiple cell phones, a computer with Internet access, has air conditioning and central heating, owns at least two televisions with cable/dish TV, possesses a washer and dryer, and has a fully equipped kitchen. The average American "poor" family owns at least one gaming

system (Nord, Coleman-Jensen, Andrews, & Carlson, 2010; Rector & Sheffield, 2011; US Dept of Agriculture, 2009).

Despite more than $1 trillion spent annually on poverty countermeasures, those impoverished in the United States continues to be on the rise. Noting these expenditures, half of Americans believe that government poverty programs actually foster increased poverty levels (Rasmussen, 2008). The increase in impoverished Americans has grown to include more than 17% of Americans subsisting in scarcity. These numbers, and the economic resource gulf dedicated to solving poverty ills, demonstrate economics are neither poverty's cause nor cure (Holzera, Schanzenbach, Duncan, & Ludwig, 2008; Rasmussen, 2008).

Noneconomic explanations for American poverty root causes must be explored. This inquiry considered poverty a social condition with social poverty serving to keep the impoverished mired in their current economic state. Because poverty is seen as a social condition, it is therefore not altogether involuntary. Given the research paucity on poverty as a social interaction outcome, a significant gap exists in social poverty study, with very few authors exploring the phenomenon (Bhalla, 2002; Lehning, Vu, & Pintak, 2007; Lewandowski, 2006).

This chapter includes poverty's problematic background, research problem statement, research questions, study purpose and theoretical underpinnings, inquiry nature, and investigative significance. Follow-on chapters will include a comprehensive literature review, investigative construct, research findings, and concluding implications.

Background

In an April, 2011 Rasmussen survey of 1,000 adults, most Americans questioned government antipoverty programs' effectiveness and believed these government-run programs exacerbate problems they are intended to lessen. Seventy-one percent of respondents held centralized antipoverty programs to be ineffectual in fighting American impoverishment.

Central to the poverty discussion are the generationally impoverished, those who have adopted and accepted a penurious lifestyle similar to posterity. Comprising as much as one-sixth of the American population, the generationally impoverished are those capable of escaping poverty's grip, but willingly choose an impecunious existence. Neither seniors nor physically or mentally incapacitated, this group is largely comprised of unwed welfare mothers and single nonworking men (US Census, 2010).

The historical debate surrounding American poverty origins and remedies has done little to stem its rising tide. Mead (1996) concluded poverty's historical debate has given rise to two camps: progressive resigned acceptance and conservative authoritarianism. Both sides agree current poverty approaches facilitate undesirable non-work and illegitimacy. Historically, welfare work exchange, drug testing as a financial assistance prerequisite, and addiction treatment requirements have all been used as poverty reduction mechanisms (Massey & Denton, 1993; Murray, 1984; Sawhill, 1988).

Dissatisfaction with historical poverty reduction platforms masks harsh alternatives facing poverty remediation efforts. The goal of this narrowly focused inquiry was to ascertain if a correlation exists between TL's individualized consideration

component and college graduation rates. This research effort's thesis suggests poverty can be positively redressed through TL's individualized consideration (IC). If increased educational attainment serves to foment upward societal movement, then providing IC to increase bachelors' degree realization will serve to counter generational social poverty impact.

Identifying an IC-to-graduation rate correlation will open new investigative avenues into TL potential as a social poverty mitigating force. The research hypothesis is directional in nature and asserts that IC will exist in transformative scholastic sports cultures with high graduation rates, while being noticeably absent in those with low matriculation rates. IC is a TL metacompetency whereby leaders provide supportive and developmental behaviors toward followers thereby powering follower progression. IC identification as a potential social poverty counterforce may yield new insights into solving poverty's generational stranglehold on significant portions of the American population. Figure 1 depicts this analysis' theoretical linkages.

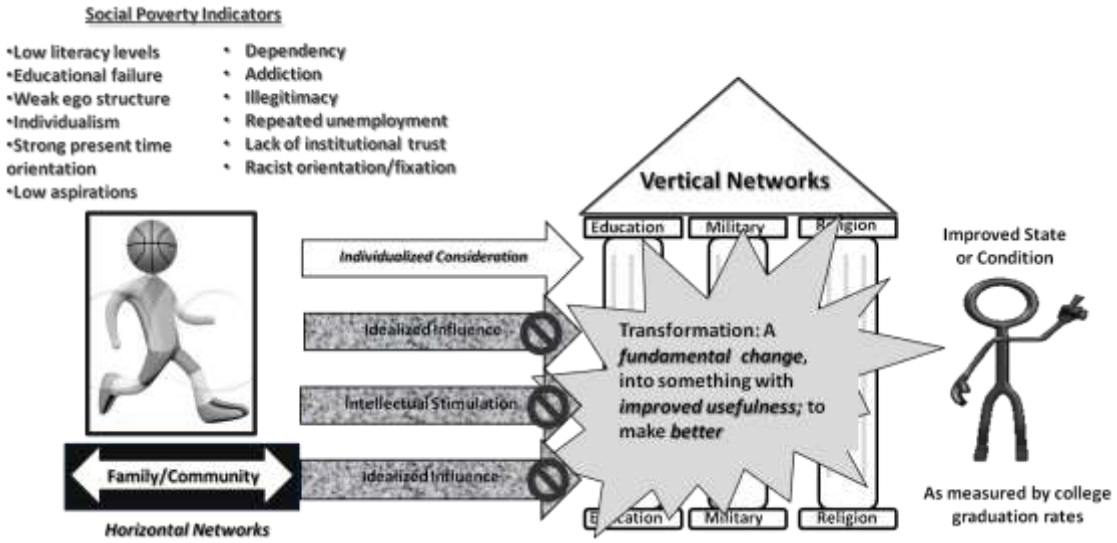

Figure 1. Theoretical Linkages

Problem Statement

Despite more than 120 U.S. taxpayer funded poverty remediation programs which consume more than $1 Trillion annually, an April, 2011 Rasmussen survey found that seventy-one percent of respondents held centralized antipoverty programs to be ineffectual in fighting American impoverishment (Rasmussen, 2011; US Census, 2010). With more than 10% of the American population living in poverty for over 4 decades, revolutionary antipoverty approaches must be attempted to rectify perpetual negative poverty trends (Rector & Sheffield, 2010). Generally, this study's focus was to ascertain transformational leadership's ability to remediate impoverished existences. Specifically, this study inspected parallel relationships between transformational leadership's IC meta-competency and specific scholastic graduation rates among socially impoverished athletes. Figure 2 depicts the study logic.

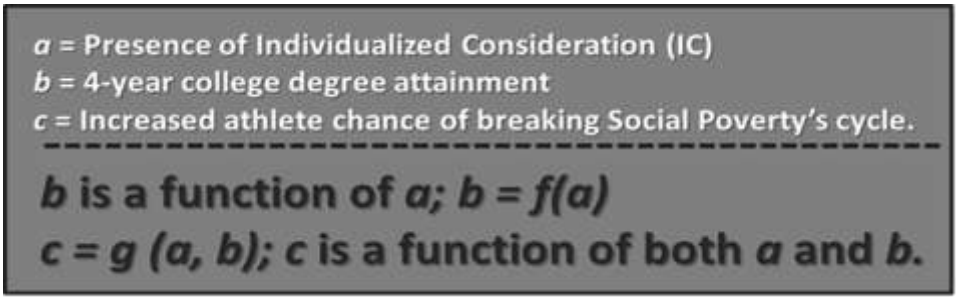

Figure 2. Underlying Study Logic.

Purpose of the Study

This survey based, non-experimental, cross sectional, quantitative, research effort tested for a parallel relationship between individualized consideration's (IC) practice and collegiate athlete graduation rates in order to identify and isolate possible social poverty remediation measures. Research focused on responses from 210 scholastic student athletes from four Kansas and Missouri universities hypothesizing athletic programs steeped in IC would have substantially higher graduation rates than comparable programs failing to provide IC (Johnson, 2005, p. 168; Kelley, 2010). Research findings possess landmark comprehensive and formative social poverty remediation promise at individual, communal, institutional, and societal levels (Lewadowski, 2006; McCall, 1998; Senge, 2006; Thakur, 2006; Whitlock, 2008).

Hypothesis and Research Questions

Two hypotheses, three descriptive research questions, and one inferential research question were developed to test the independent and dependent variables:

H_1: Statistically significant differences exist in collegiate athlete graduation rates in relation to individualized consideration presence or absence in a given athletic program culture.

H_0: No statistically significant differences exist in collegiate athlete graduation rates in relation to individualized consideration presence or absence in a given athletic program culture.

Descriptive Question 1 (DQ1): To what extent are scholastic athletic programs providing individualized consideration (IC) to its student-athletes? (This question tests for independent variable presence).

Descriptive Question 2 (DQ2): What are student-athlete graduation rates in these particular universities? (This question tests the dependent variable).

Descriptive Question 3 (DQ3): What supportive and/or developmental leadership behaviors positively impact socially impoverished followers? (This question attempts to isolate and identify effective transformative leader follower development behaviors).

Inferential Question (IQ1): To what extent does individualized consideration (IC) relate to student-athlete graduation rates? (This question tests correlated strength between independent and dependent variables).

Theoretical Underpinnings

This analysis served to conjoin two primary theoretical fields of study: poverty theory and TL theory. Linking the two theories intended to potentially alleviate the first condition by leveraging the second. Figure 3 depicts the theoretical linkages.

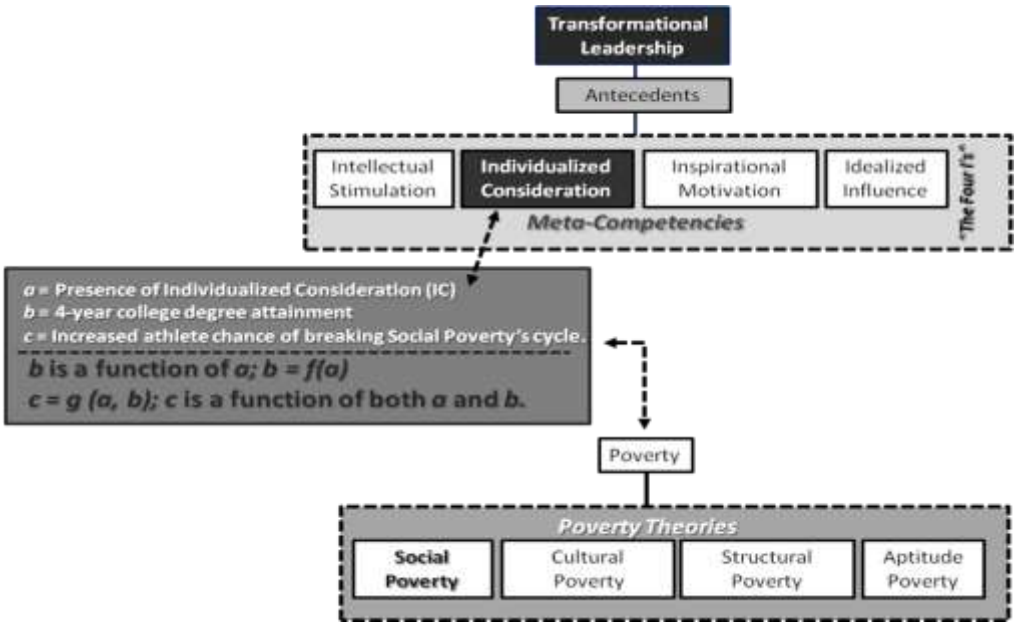

Figure 3. Transformational Leadership-Poverty Link.

Poverty Theory

To date, underlying U.S. poverty theory premises have rested on inequity based economic shortcomings. Since 1980, the majority of researchers have sought to prove individual impoverishment originates with financial and political structure inadequacies, thereby perpetuating economic failure (Lehning et al., 2007; Rank, 2005; Rector & Sheffield, 2011). Cultural, structural, and aptitudinal inequities have traditionally been seen as economic failure malefactors (Gradin, 2011). Poverty theorists have eschewed central issues surrounding the poverty debate: Disposition, temperament, and base assumptions held by those in poverty (Meade, 1996; Sawhill, 1998; Werther, 2003). Confusion and inconclusiveness over poverty origins are widespread. Scholastic social science text book studies indicate poverty is rarely analyzed in depth (Carr & Sloan, 2003; Lehning et al., 2007).

Cultural poverty. In the United States, cultural poverty perspectives are founded on ideas certain collective philosophies play a formative role in economic inadequacy. Under this school of thought, economic stagnation is a direct outgrowth of underlying sect virtue orientation (Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004). Normally tied to disproportionate domination and subjugation notions combined with cultural identity protection, cultural poverty theory is deeply anchored to perceptions concluding liberal westernized democratic values are contrary to many subcultures' economic advancement (Grondona, 2000; Harrison, 2000; Lindsay, 2000). According to Lewis (1998) and Wilson (2011) who studied ghetto residents, impoverished subgroups possess their own subculture which necessarily excludes beliefs, norms, and values required for upward economic advancement.

Structural poverty. American structural poverty perspectives focus on capitalism as the culprit. Rank, Yoon, and Herschel (2003) suggested American impoverishment is the prearranged national economic system result. Structural poverty theory attributes poverty to capitalism's profit motive. Capitalism's individualized drive for monetary attainment ensures a vast preponderance of minimum-wage, subsistence level occupations. This structural inequity unavoidably ensures only the minimum number of people will enjoy prosperity. Structural poverty theorists advocate redistributive measures to address unequal economic system impoverishment (Castel, 2002; Caute, 1973; Friedman, 1996; Silver & Miller, 2003).

Aptitudinal poverty. The aptitude approach hypothesizes the impoverished lack essential ambitions and desires due to reduced societal expectations. Termed by President

George W. Bush as "the bigotry of low expectations" (Wattier, 2000, para 1), aptitude-based poverty theories espouse the underlying belief that because one is currently impoverished, continued impoverishment is one's destined future existence. In short, the impoverished do not know any better and are incapable of lifting themselves. Under aptitude approaches, because yearnings are socially formed, poverty stricken peoples are destined for collaborative hopelessness which dissuades upward movement and mobility (Barretti, 2004; Bogo, Michalski, Raphael & Roberts, 1995; Limb & Organista, 2003).

Aptitudinal poverty redress focuses on rectifying status incongruencies between social groups. By remedying social statuses, an increased desire level is hypothesized to occur. If the impoverished receive a higher living standard, then poor aspiration level disparities will be closed, thereby remedying upper mobility aptitude scarcity (Appadurai, 2004; Wattier, 2000).

Social Poverty Theory

Contrary to the other three poverty theories, social poverty takes both an attribute and network centric approach. At its core, socially-based impoverishment in the United States can be traced to negative personal attributes imbued and reinforced by restrictive horizontal networks (Akerlof & Kranton, 2010; Schell & Gallo, 2012). Social impoverishment can potentially be overcome by leveraging availed social capital present in one's vertical network. Higher education serves as a vertical network to the socially impoverished. Little research on these formal and informal shared acquaintances has been done in regards to poverty occurrence or nonexistence (Hammond, Keeney & Raiffa, 2001; Johnson, 2005; Meade, 1996; Van Bavel, 2001).

Social capital. For inquiry purposes, social capital is delineated as "resources embedded in relationships among actors" (Hauberer, 2011, p. 257). Social capital provides the holder with increased opportunity; a lack of social capital ineludibly dictates an opportunity deficiency. First introduced by Hanifan (1920), social capital has grown to encompass all social resources which support individual forward advancement. Bordieu (1986) depicted social capital as "the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition" (pp. 248-249). In other words, social capital is group membership which provides a potentially uplifting economic benefit (Berke, 2003).

Social capital is an enduring personal competitive advantage source derived from interpersonal relationships. Social capital refers to social trust networks and communal links which serve to facilitate individual action in a given milieu or culture. Social capital is worth accrued from relationships amongst people. Found in value-producing relations linking a milieu, social capital possesses intrinsic practical usefulness. These connections can serve both a bridging (vertical facilitation) and a bonding (horizontally restraining) function. Leader-follower relationships contain such social capital (Greenberg & Barron, 2008; Serageldin & Dasgupta, 2000).

Individually leveraged by followers, social capital aids in vocational attainment, poverty remuneration, and employment. Social capital and social poverty are inextricably linked. Social capital absence is the antecedent for social poverty persistent presence. Conversely, antecedent presence serves to eliminate the resulting condition. Social

poverty is a little studied, recent, social capital off-shoot theory. Social poverty theory holds social capital shortfalls directly results in social impoverishment. Figure 4 depicts the relationship between social capital and social poverty (Bateman & Snell, 2011; Hastie & Dawes, 2010; Moxley & Pulley, 2003; Putnam, 2000; Senge, 2006).

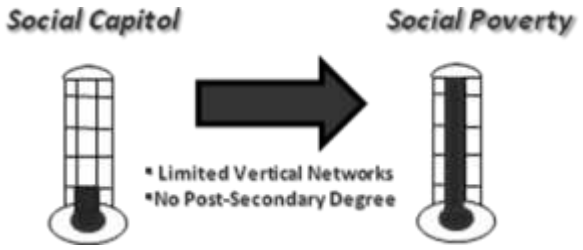

Figure 4. Social Capital and Social Poverty Link.

Calienda and Wang (2013), Lewadowski (2006), Mead (2005b), Neysmith (2004), Thakur (2006), and Whitlock (2008) have each identified specific social poverty symptoms. These authors identified educational failure, individualism, strong present time orientation, low aspirations, dependency, addiction, illegitimacy, chronic unemployment, institutional trust inadequacies, and racist orientation/fixation as social poverty indicators. These behavioral indicators are socially transmitted characteristics, predispositions, or assumptive belief sets which drive impoverished maladaptive societal behaviors.

Social networks. Two communal networks types are central to the debate surrounding American social impoverishment. Lewandowski (2006) concluded horizontal social networks are based on intra-communal confidence, intimacy, and familiarity within a readily definable culture. Horizontal networks such as family, friends,

lifestyle attractors, and ethnic group affiliations serve to restrict social capital and inhibit forward progress (Quilliana, 2012).

Conversely, vertical social networks are those connections which exist between socioeconomic or cultural groups which serve to promote forward progression. Higher education, religious communities, and military service are expansive vertical network exemplars which provide opportunity. A lack of religious, educational, or military based connections serves to restrict and limit opportunity (Hauberer, 2011, p. 36). Figure 5 depicts social poverty indicators and social capital moderating networks in relation to overarching poverty theory.

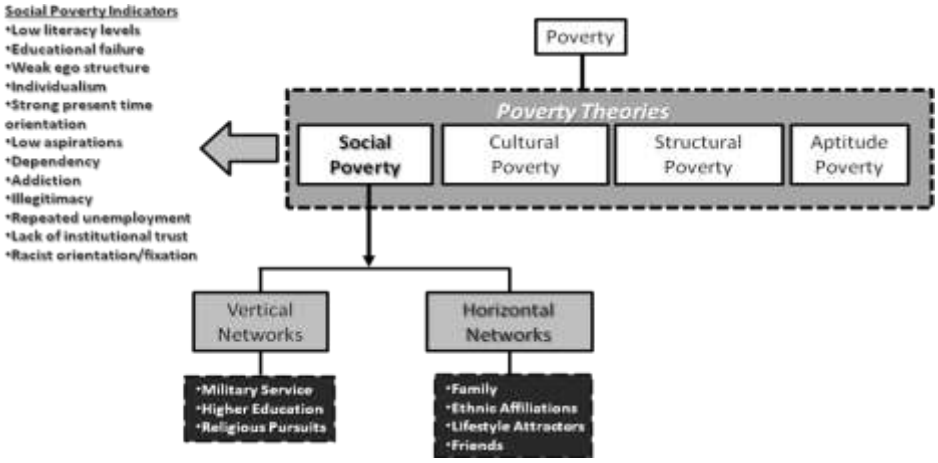

Figure 5. Social Capital Moderating Networks.

Horizontal networks: A restricting force. Ethnicity and prevalent culture comprise one's horizontal network. For this analysis, culture is defined as "a specific civilization, society, or group and its distinguishing characteristics" (Brown, 2011, p. 10). As such, the socially impoverished hold culturally imbued inclinations to remain mired in horizontal network stasis. The common adage, "We continue to do what we know how to do" (Offerman, 2008, p. 92) is applicable to socially transmitted poverty inducing behaviors. At their core, restrictive horizontal networks seek to maintain cultural status quo. In this case, they seek to keep the impoverished mired in poverty (Clawson, 2006; Hastie & Dawes, 2010).

American social poverty is grounded in existing value incongruencies between prevailing social expectations and horizontal network. Restrictive horizontal network character explains how some cultures can be endowed with significant horizontal network capital (existing, for example, in supportive or racially uniform neighborhoods), and yet be quite content to live in impoverished conditions eschewing vertical progress.

Figure 6 depicts value incongruencies between America's socially impoverished and prevailing social norms. Figure 6 also highlights visible incongruence existence indicators (Covey, 2008; Farr, 2004; Wilson, Moore, & Shackelford, 2003).

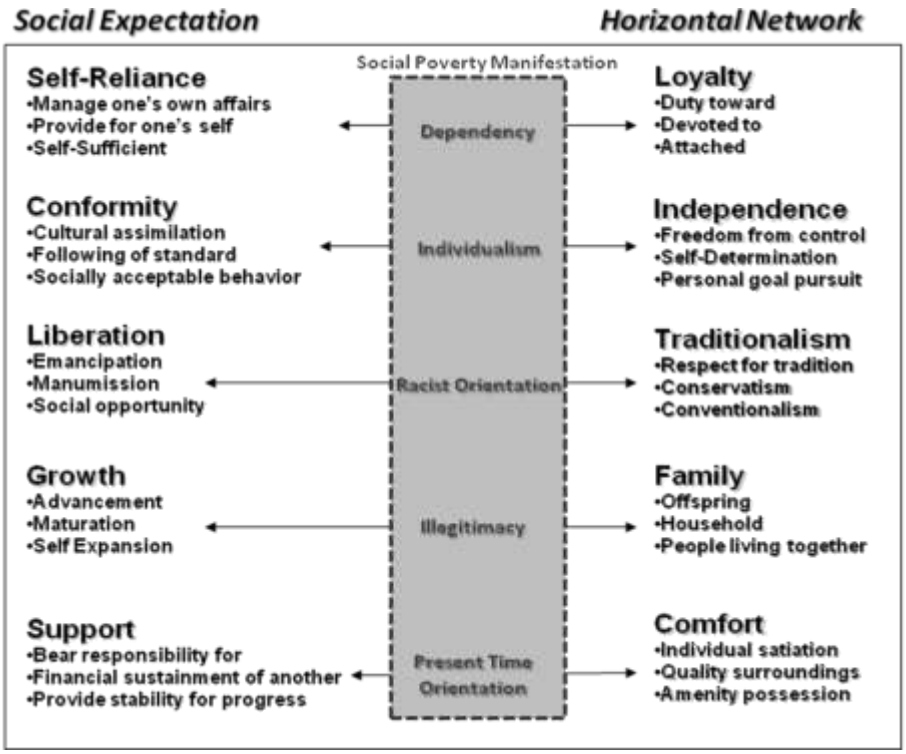

Figure 6. Social Poverty's Value Conflict.

Remedies for those mired in socially impoverished conditions can be accessed through vertical social networks such as religious pursuits, the military, and higher education. Vertical networks provide followers a social poverty cycle breaking means. As a result, college degree attainment for the socially impoverished is of critical importance (Lewadowski, 2006; Thakur, 2006; Whitlock, 2008).

Vertical networks: Education does pay. In the United States, higher education catalytic impact on upward advancement is unsurpassed. Monetary and nonmonetary benefits associated with educational attainment are far reaching. College educational expense return on investment is perhaps the best investment an individual will make in his or her lifetime. For example, median bachelors' degree recipient income for permanent workers in 2008 was $55,700. This is $20,000 more than the average high school graduate's annual income. Figure 7 depicts educational attainment income rates (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010a; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010b; Offerman, 2008, p. 191; U.S. Census Bureau, 2009).

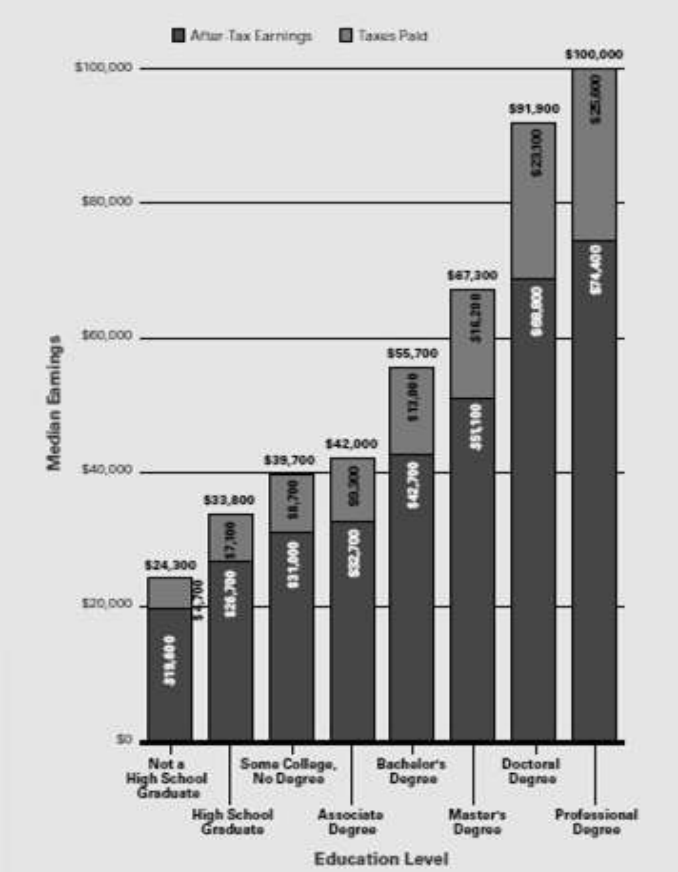

Figure 7. Income Based on Educational Attainment.

Realized college degree attainment not only benefits individuals, but also larger society. In addition to pervasive efficiency boosts, a college graduate's increased income level generates increased tax revenues at all levels. For example, typical university graduates pay 80% more in annual duties than secondary school graduates (Davis, 2009). Public support program spending such as joblessness assistance, the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program, and Medicare is much higher for high school graduates than for those with postsecondary educations. Average lifetime savings in taxpayer public assistance expenditures vary from $32,600 for European American females to $108,700 for African-American males. Given these numbers, logic suggests students who are

reluctant to attend college are those who could most benefit from educational attainment (Baum, Ma & Payea, 2010, p. 8; Carroll & Erkut, 2009).

Monetary rewards, however, are not the only societal benefit stemming from scholastic degree achievement. On any scale, and by a wide margin, those with less education tend to be takers or consumers of societal stores. Conversely, those who have graduated college are more often communal resource bank providers. Volunteer activity participation percentages, charitable contributions, and unpaid hours donated are elevated among the increasingly educated (Baum et al., 2010; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010a; DeWalque, 2004).

Given a bachelor's degree life-long attainment importance, it's not surprising to learn the NCAA mandates all participating schools report student-body matriculation rates (Crouse, 2010). Any higher education institution providing financial aid to athletes is required to submit student-athlete progress information (Bowen & Levin, 2005; NCAA, 2011a).

Collegiate Student Athletes

Collegiate athletes offer a purpose-built study population for investigating social poverty in America. Many collegiate athletes come from socially impoverished beginnings and a significant number of collegiate athletes are leaving school without a college degree. For example, a major university in southern California boasts only a 22% graduation rate among its Division 1 football and basketball players (NCAA, 2011a).

In the United States, it is not uncommon for academically failed athletes return to the impoverished environment from which they came, serving to further fuel repressive

social poverty cycles. Indicative of transformative leadership absence, below average athlete graduation rates indicate leader inability to lift followers from penurious mental routines. Low graduation rates among scholarship athletes exemplify significant taxpayer resource waste, which could be readily applied elsewhere with more impact.

Three school types which participate at Division I (D1) or Division II (D2) levels were the focus of this investigation. D1 and D2 schools are four-year institutions which offer scholastic financial assistance in exchange for athletic service. Conspicuous incongruities exist among declared instructional responsibilities and actual D1 and D2 athletic program functioning (Meggyes, 2000; NCAA, 2012).

An overt exchange agreement is central to the scholastic athletic grant system; collegiate athletic participants receive a paid-for scholastic experience in exchange for athletic service. In the present system, a student athlete's most pressing concern is whether or not he or she will receive a genuine economically viable university education as athletic service repayment. In most cases they will not. In 2008, incoming National Football League (NFL) players academic success rate was just 6% (13 of 211) (Eckard, 2010; NCAA, 2006; Gray, 2005; Hutchison, 2008).

Researchers studying more than 100 collegiate football and basketball programs revealed some startling trends. Eckard (2010) indicated the NCAA manipulates graduation success statistics through an invalid comparison using part-time students which skew rates by as much as 20 percentage points for football players and 33% for basketball players. In real-number terms, football players are twice as unlikely to graduate as normal full-time college students. For collegiate basketball players, average

full-time college students are five times more likely to graduate than the average athlete (Dodge & Robertson, 2004; Dohrman 2007; Englehorn, 2001).

Collegiate athletes also have role to play in their own development. Most collegiate athletes are transformationally resistant. Often considered successful by their horizontal networks, athletes are regularly viewed as popular achievers by themselves and family members. From player perspective, little change impetus exists (Govindarajan & Trimble, 2007; London, 1993).

Professional athletes personify bachelor's degree attainment criticality. Research indicates professional athletes suffer disproportionally from financial poor decision making despite being offered educational and money making opportunities unavailable to most. Seventy-eight percent (78%) of former professional football players approach destitution within 2 years of leaving the NFL. An estimated six in 10 former professional basketball players are indigent within a half-decade of retirement. Scholastic authorities have suggested scholastic sports participants are ill-equipped for any vocation other than professional athletics (Petrina, 1990; Torre; 2009, pp. 95-99; VanderMey, 2009).

Transformational Leadership Theory

For more than a quarter century, Downton's (1973) transformational leadership has gained acceptance as an exalted leadership form. Building on Downton's writings, Burns (1978) recognized two basic leadership styles: transformational and transactional. Individualized consideration is present under transformational leadership's (TL) umbrella. This study sought to identify individualized consideration (IC) as a possible social poverty countermeasure by testing for its presence or absence among collegiate

athletes. Armed with a transcendent purpose, TL is targeted at elevating follower personal and professional states (Burns, 1978; Goleman, 2004; Northouse, 2010, p. 173; Pink, 2009; Robinson-Hickman, 2010).

For this analysis, only TL's IC component was explored. All four components may have impact on collegiate athlete matriculation capacity. However, given IC's scope and influence reach, it offered the most promise when establishing a linkage between TL and decision borne impoverishment (Hetland & Sandal, 2003). IC is characterized by a supportive and developmental leadership environment where leaders overtly challenge subordinates to achieve (Ohlott, 2003). Demanding subordinates progress toward an improved future state, IC calls for a tailored follower attainment approach (Bass & Avolio, 1990; House, Spangler & Woycke, 1991; Northouse, 2010).

Compared to other leadership forms which have existed for centuries, inquiries into TL are a relatively recent phenomenon (Hollander & Julian, 1969). Burns (1978) attempted to link leader actions with follower needs to arrive at an improved future state. Burns articulated four guidance actions leaders undertake to actualize followers to their fullest capacities. Known colloquially as *The Four Is*, these actions are: Idealized influence (II), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individualized consideration (IC) (Avilio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass & Avilio, 1994; Burns, 2003). Figure 8 depicts theoretical TL structure.

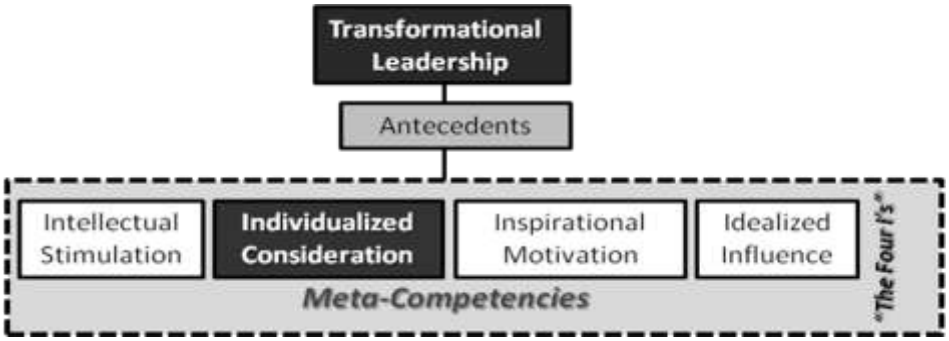

Figure 8. Transformational Leadership's four Is.

Individualized Consideration (IC) Antecedents

IC occurrence requires seven preconditions exist. Ability to provide followers with IC requires shared vision presence, intellectual competency on both parties' part, a facilitative culture, a leader with emotional intelligence, a facilitative communications environment, trust amongst parties, and moral courage (Gardner, 1983/2003; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Hackman, & Johnson, 2009). If any one of these six precursors is absent, leader ability to provide followers with IC becomes a specious proposition. Figure 9 depicts IC antecedents.

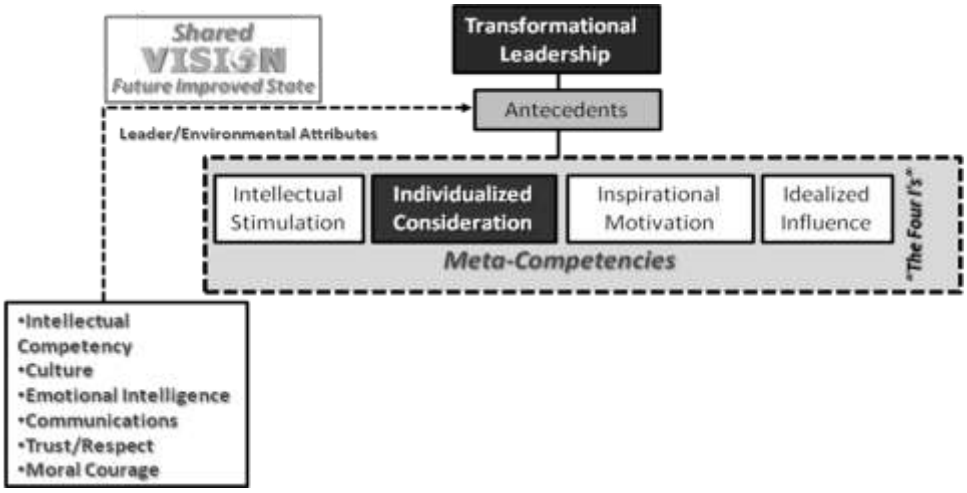

Figure 9. Individualized Consideration (IC) Antecedents.

First amongst equals as an IC antecedent is shared vision. Future improved state shared vision is a critical IC precondition. Under IC, leaders and followers hold a strong, desirable, constructive, and convincing follower future state vision (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, pp. 88-90; Senge, 2006). Strong balancing forces resident in horizontal networks serve to ensure follower stasis, and can be overwhelming. These entrenched stabilizing forces counter any systematic or individual change, ensuring equilibrium. A shared vision presence between leaders and the led fosters risk taking and innovation while simultaneously serving to weaken reinforcing horizontal network stasis (Ditkoff, 2008; Frtiz, 1989; Meadows, 2008; Senge, 2006).

A leader must also possess intellectual competency to effectively tailor subordinate development. Researchers have demonstrated cognitive capacity (general intelligence or *g*) is directly connected to effective management practice (Foti & Hauenstein, 2007; Thompson, Grahek, Phillips & Fay, 2008).

Additionally, a transforming culture must be present. IC practicing leaders should establish a climate which encourages follower risk-taking, growth, and initiative seeking development (Parker, 2000; Sarros, Gray, & Densten, 2002). Additionally, the US Army (2007) Handbook for Unit Leader Development asserts leaders must role model desired transforming behaviors.

Furthermore, transformational leaders must possess emotional intelligence (often referred to as EI or EQ). Modassir and Singh (2008) suggested transformative leader talents must include high EI levels. Similarly, Bradberry and Greaves (2003) determined "that emotional intelligence skill is more important to job performance than any other leadership skill" (p. 43). Palmer, Walls, Burgess, and Stough (2001) purported EQ has fast become popular as an effective leader identification means. Their conclusions suggest EQ, which is assessed as internal and external emotion monitoring capacity, is a foundational TL competency.

Moreover, a facilitative communications environment between leaders and subordinates must exist. Leader communications skills serve to overcome barriers which exist between leaders and followers. Skillfully delivered personalized criticism enhances both relationships and targeted performance (Briggs, 2007; MacCoby; 2000; Paris, 2004). Motivating, coaching, and influencing rely on this trust-based communications pattern (Chou, Wang, Wang, Huang & Cheng, 2008; D'abate, Eddy & Tannenbaum, 2003; Greenberg & Baron, 2008; Li-Fang, An-Chih, Ting-Yu, Min-Ping & Bor-Shiuan, 2008).

Finally, moral courage is required when providing individualized consideration. One cannot be simultaneously security seeking and transformational (Rooke & Torbet,

2005). TL is inherently potential seeking, placing it clearly at odds with traditional transactional risk adverse approaches. Resultantly, risk accepting mettle is a necessary transformational leader prerequisite trait (Clawson, 2006; Gates, 2008; Lin & Shih, 2008; Treadwell & Beal, 2007).

Individualized Consideration (IC) Components

One of four TL meta-competencies, IC encompasses leader developmental orientation towards followers. IC includes actions leaders take to help followers succeed (Bass, 1985). Rafferty and Griffin (2006) suggested that IC is a metacompetency comprised of two subcomponents: developmental leadership and supportive leadership. Each subcompetency is a leadership process distinct in its actions and contribution toward facilitating follower advancement. Figure 10 depicts IC subcompetency relationships.

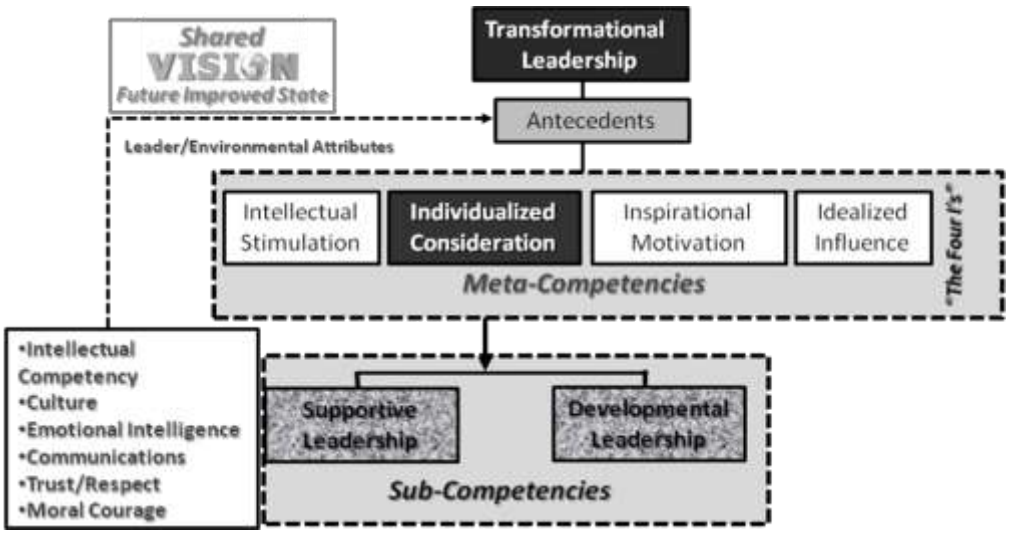

Figure 10. Individualized Consideration (IC) Subcompetencies.

IC Subcompetencies. Both supportive and developmental leadership actions are evidence of IC. Supportive leader actions include lending encouragement, offering advisement, behavior modeling, and expectation elevation (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006; Sarros et al., 2002; US Army, 2008a; Yukl, 1999). Developmental leadership employs five sub-competencies to influence follower positive direction. Through developmental mentorship, sponsorship, coaching, obstacle removal, and required development, transformational leaders mobilize follower forward progression (Cialdini, 2001; Harari, 2004, p. 21). Figure 11 depicts individualized considerations' four supportive and five developmental leadership subcompetencies.

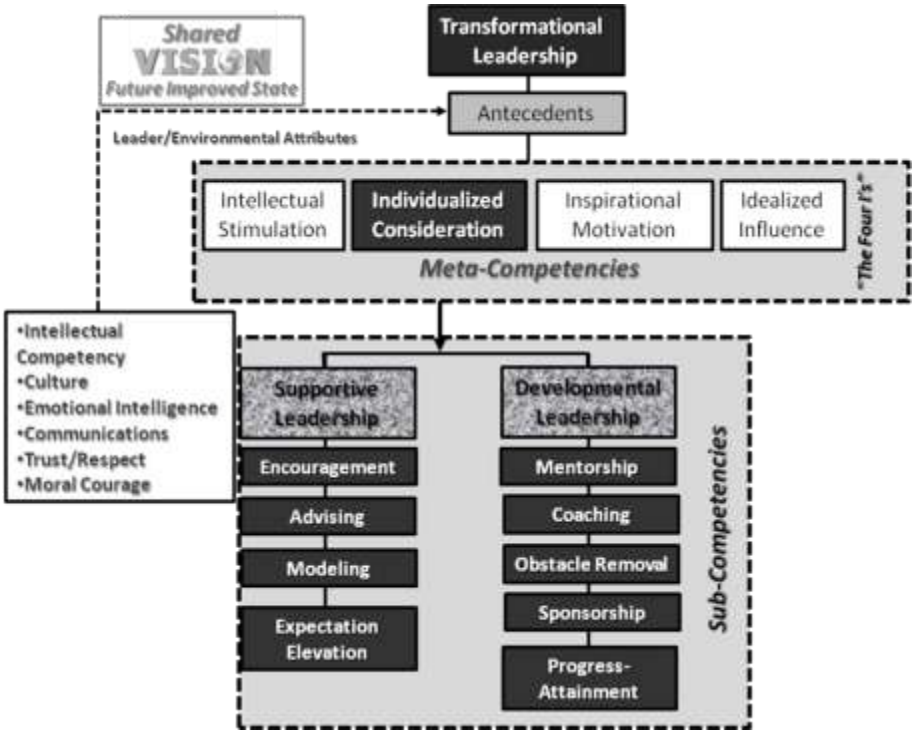

Figure 11. Developmental Leadership Sub-Competencies.

Supportive and development leadership actions are indicative of IC presence. As such, rising IC levels should be progressively present in medium and high graduation rate athletic programs. This quantitative study is grounded in both social poverty and TL theory with intentions of discovering potential existing correlational relationships.

Nature of the Study

For research purposes, an implicit relationship was assumed to exist between social poverty in the United States and the lack of a 4-year college degree. Ample evidence exists to suggest a relationship does exist. Four-year college degree presence serves to lift mired people from low economic conditions while degree absence serves to restrict upward financial mobility. Similarly, ample anecdotal evidence exists to support suppositions IC serves to increase follower advancement. Therefore, if a collegiate

athletic program has a culture which includes imbued IC, higher graduation rates should be a resulting metric.

The independent variable IC is defined by Rafferty and Griffin (2006) as specialized attention, communications, and feedback from a leader which facilitates and encourages follower achievement and growth. The dependent variable, social poverty, is defined as a lack of wealth caused by social capital absence (Lewandowski, 2006).

For this research, self-administered leadership surveys (MLQ-5X) were employed. A causal comparative approach was employed to ascertain if a correlation existed between IC and subsequent school graduation rate. Determining a correlational relationship supports conclusions relating to IC effectiveness in reducing social poverty.

Assumptions

American poverty approaches rarely question individual accountability or capability when it comes to life goal pursuit. Theorists routinely neglect the reality that people regularly and willingly engage in poor autonomous decision making, resulting in impecunious lives. Personal decision making responsibility assumes individual competence where a vast majority is presumed able to advance their own egotism. For this study, individual material advancement desire was assumed to be a natural human phenomenon (Mead, 2005a).

Suppositions that IC may lift social impoverishment assume Pole's (2003) interchangeability principle. This perspective assumes American collegiate athletes are fundamentally comparable regardless of originating cultural and all possess analogous personal determination capacities (p. 132).

Klann (2003) conjectured leader behaviors serve to bind follower actions, expressions, and approaches. If graduation from college is deemed desirable by scholastic sports leaders, then graduation rates should reflect leader emphasis on attaining this goal. Similarly, poor graduation rates directly reflect genuine university leadership attitudes toward educational attainment and failure (p. 6).

Limitations

Significant resource limitations impacted this study. Financial constraints limited survey data attainment to three university types. Research surveys were administered to one High Graduation Rate Institution (HGRI = above 80% of all enrolled athletes), two Medium Graduation Rate Institutions (MGRI = 51-79% of all enrolled athletes), and one Low Graduation Rate Institution (LGRI= 50% or less of all enrolled athletes). Given this study's unique and prototypical nature, proof of principle proved attainable with four institutions.

This survey did not test for social poverty density among collegiate athletes. A foundational supposition understood social poverty to exist among collegiate athletes at rates which outpace societal norms. Due to intrusive and controversial personal US Census Bureau questions, only preliminary superficial demographic data were collected. Current MLQ Form 5X versions include 36 items reduced into nine scales with four items measuring each scale. In the face of repeated MLQ Form 5X criticism, validation work by Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam (2003) offered powerful substantiation, sustaining MLQ 5X validity and reliability. Although other organized studies have openly criticized MLQ modeling techniques, MLQ 5X TL metacompetency

presence identification capacities have yet to be disproved (Antonakis et al., 2003; Fiori, & Antonakis, 2011).

IC presence or absence was determined by four questions asked of administrators, coaches, and athletes. The four questions asked to determine IC presence focused on (a) coaching and mentoring, (b) treating followers as individuals vice group members, (c) addressing tailored needs, abilities and aspirations, and (d) developing follower strengths. Resultantly, these four questions offer only preliminary proof of supportive and developmental leadership's presence. Given their respective leadership charge, athletic program administrators and coaches should provide IC to athletes. Scholastic athletes themselves should receive tailored influence, if IC is indeed practiced.

Conclusions based on race, gender, and other demographic factors were not included in this bounded research effort. Sensitive demographic data such as behavioral role model impacts, family structure, and economic affluence are all hypothesized to impact impoverishment. Each has been repeatedly studied in depth and offer valid poverty casual arguments. Conversely, this investigation sought to isolate transformative IC as a poverty remediation measure.

Scope

Research analyses efforts occurred on two levels. Firstly, individual perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors were examined to ascertain IC presence. By questioning collegiate athletes about tailored support shown by universities, conclusions regarding IC prevalence and density were reached. Secondly, group level analysis examined

connections between a specific category of people (socially impoverished persons) and that category's graduation rate.

Operational Definitions

Transformation: At its core, to transform something means to change its fundamental state into an improved existing form. Encarta World Dictionary (2012) defined transformation as comprehensive modification, normally into something with an enhanced appearance or utility. Transformation is fundamental underlying change which improves usefulness or makes better. In this case, socially impoverished people require transformation. For this analysis, collegiate student athletes represented the socially impoverished with varying educational attainment levels.

Student Athletes: Student athletes are collegiate learners who accept educational assistance in exchange for collegiate athletics participation (Eckard, 2010, p. 45). Student athlete educational attainment is expressed as a percentage. Specifically, initial fully enrolled freshmen matriculation percentage graduating within 6 years. NCAA Graduation Rate Reports used in this analysis contain freshmen percentages enrolled in 2005 and graduated in 2011.

Poverty: Whereas social impoverishment in the United States is defined as social capital absence, economic poverty is defined as a state of being poor. The English word *poverty* originates from the Latin word *pauper* which means to be without means (Fox et al., 2014). Contemporary poverty definitions focus on extents to which individuals lack resources. For this analysis's purposes, one is considered impoverished if household income levels fall below US Census poverty levels (Hobson, 2010; Payne, 2005). Table 1

depicts current 2011 U.S. Census Bureau economic poverty thresholds (US Census, 2011).

Table 1

2011 U.S. Poverty Levels

Size of Family Unit	Threshold (in USD/$)
1 Person (unrelated individual)	11, 702
2 People	14, 667
3 People	17, 992
4 People	23, 018
5 People	27, 274
6 People	30, 841
7 People	35, 082
8 People	39, 131
9 People	46, 647

Significance of the Study

Identifying transformative IC as a social poverty mitigating force could serve to fundamentally change generational impoverishment countermeasures. According to the CATO Institute (2102), more than 15 trillion USD have been spent on countering American impoverishment. However, poverty rates persist virtually unchanged since 1964. Providing IC-based developmental and supportive leadership may remedy poverty's scourge (Zeigler, 2004).

There are significant stakeholders which stand to reap research benefits. Poverty rate reductions will slow ever-increasing public poverty program funding spirals.

Furthermore, taxpayers will realize more value for monies contributed to higher educational expenses. With scholastic athletes receiving on average more than $90,000 worth of befits each year; 10 million degreeless former collegiate athletes exemplify a significant taxpayer provided educational resource waste (Huma, 2012; Huma & Staurowsky, 2012; Paterno, 2011).

Professional outcome application and implemented practice should result in IC components being inculcated in collegiate athletic programs, thereby positively impacting educational achievement rates. Billions of dollars will be potentially saved, increased human capacity will be actualized, and latent keys for combating repressive poverty cycles will be unlocked. Study beneficiaries will understand IC employment as a social poverty opposition force.

This analysis filled a void in existing literature by connecting TL and poverty theory. One is envisioned as the other's potential remedy. To date, no existing theoretical corresponding parallel had been attempted. Given its significance to leadership and potential American poverty diminution, this study was justified. Relevant statistics existed to ground this study, and scholarly facts pointed to social poverty problematic urgency and significance. Although poverty study has been ongoing for more than a half-century, social poverty investigation is relatively new, with less than a half-decade of scholarly examination. This research effort was original because it linked TL theory with social poverty occurrence. This research effort lent itself to scientific study and possesses imbued landmark social change potential.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Defining and countering United States' social poverty has been largely overlooked in poverty remediation schemes. Efforts to define and measure social poverty in America are further complicated by incomplete definitions and measurement methods. Social poverty is caused by complex social and decision-making actions which trigger repetitive low-quality choices resulting in social capital shortages. Poverty causality determinations are usually made retrospectively. Social poverty causes are regularly attributed post hoc with little ascription toward impoverished contribution to their own economic state.

This topical literature review served to connect overarching poverty and leadership theoretical constructs by synthesizing poverty ethics, greater poverty theory, social poverty theory, social capital theory, greater leadership theory, TL, and IC. This synthesis sought to form a comprehensive theoretical backdrop in order to correlate individually considerate leadership effectiveness to socially impoverished scholastic athlete graduation rates.

This research is exploratory in nature and connects two far-reaching theories. Overarching inquiry purpose was to ascertain specific leadership behaviors as potential poverty countermeasures. Measuring extents to which TL's individualized consideration is provided to impoverished scholastic athletes was expected to reveal correlations between leadership and poverty reduction. This exhaustive and comprehensive topical review synthesized more than 150 written and electronic works. Analytics included more

than 5 years' worth of literature search effort. Seminal works spanning more than two millennia were used to include landmark books, scholarly writings, and current peer-reviewed literature. Key terms employed were *poverty theory*, *social poverty*, *transformational leadership*, *social capital*, *individualized consideration*, *mentorship*, *coaching*, *collegiate athlete*, *graduation rates*, *supportive leadership*, and *developmental leadership.* Databases employed include Thoreau, Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, EBSCO Books, ebrary, FDsys, Military & Government Collection, ProQuest Central, PsychARTICLES, PsychBOOKS, PsychEXTRA, and SAGEPremier.

Four research questions undergird this research:

- To what extent are scholastic athletic programs providing individualized consideration (IC) to its student-athletes?
- What are student-athlete graduation rates in these particular universities?
- What supportive and/or developmental leadership behaviors positively impact socially impoverished followers?
- To what extent does individualized consideration (IC) relate to student-athlete graduation rates?

This chapter serves to provide historical and contextual information to investigate these foundational research questions. Closely inspecting poverty ethics, foundational poverty theories, and base leadership assumptions facilitates particular research theory contribution. Broader poverty societal impact was understood by inspecting poverty and leadership theory in detail. Social poverty is a greater poverty theory derivative. Therefore, inspecting overarching poverty theory is initially required.

Poverty Theory

In order to examine poverty fully, two fundamental issues must be addressed. First is poverty's definition. American poverty is a comparative income level deprivation conceptualization as opposed to abject want. In the U.S., poverty is not simply limited to basic necessities, but has expanded over decades to include life quality aspects. This expanded poverty definition has been adopted in most first-world nations. United Nations' International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (2008) Articles I-IV defined poverty in adequate food and shelter, health care, education, and social security terms. U.S. Office of Management and Budget directives require U.S. Census Bureau income threshold application to determine destitution. These income thresholds fluctuate according to familial unit membership and make-up. If familial gross earnings fall beneath threshold levels, then the family, and every family member, is deemed "impoverished". If a family or individual is declared to be below poverty levels, then either is eligible for a portion of more than $1 trillion annually spent by the U.S. government on combating poverty (Orshansky, 1988).

A second question is whether or not one has a right not to be impoverished. A "right" is a basic normative tenet about permissible behavior or resource allocation originating from societal value configuration, collective statutes, or ethical principles (Wenar, 2011). With American poverty, rights in question center on a nonimpoverished existence provided by others as evidenced by adequate living standards. Mattox (2102) purported others must guarantee and provide for an acknowledged right's exercising. Therefore, if the right not to be impoverished does indeed exist, this right requires others

to remediate poverty through charity, alms, compassion, or economic redress on the impoverished's behalf (Chanute, 1973; Fromm, 2004).

Poverty's Ethical Debate

Theories perform numerous functions. Theories not only provide reference frames, but legitimize authorities which stem from said theory (Fielder, 1995). Similarly, poverty conceptualization determines metatheories to explain it. Nested in major western ethical philosophies, three poverty metatheories exist. Smaller or sub-niche causality theories comprise each metatheory. Poverty theories are not only based on morality questions, but are intertwined with root cause inferences about circumstances which enable impoverishment. Personal honor, inequality, individual choice, and societal moral obligation questions pervade underlying poverty philosophical belief sets (Roemer, 1996; Singer, 2000; Stark, 2009).

Poverty metatheories are inherently political. Laws governing poverty treatment are not philosopher vocations, but legislator craft. Due to three overarching poverty metatheories, no single normative law set addresses poverty. Rather, there are multiple law sets based on divergent philosophies. Laws regarding poverty are philosophically diverse. Deontological, teleological, and utility ethics play a fundamental role in poverty metatheory. Three major ethical systems put forth specific moral poverty remedies. These three approaches envision poverty remediation as (a) an obligation, (b) a desirable quality, and (c) societal utility (Meade, 1996/2005a ; Stark, 2009). Figure 12 depicts three underlying ethical systems which serve to guide poverty discourse.

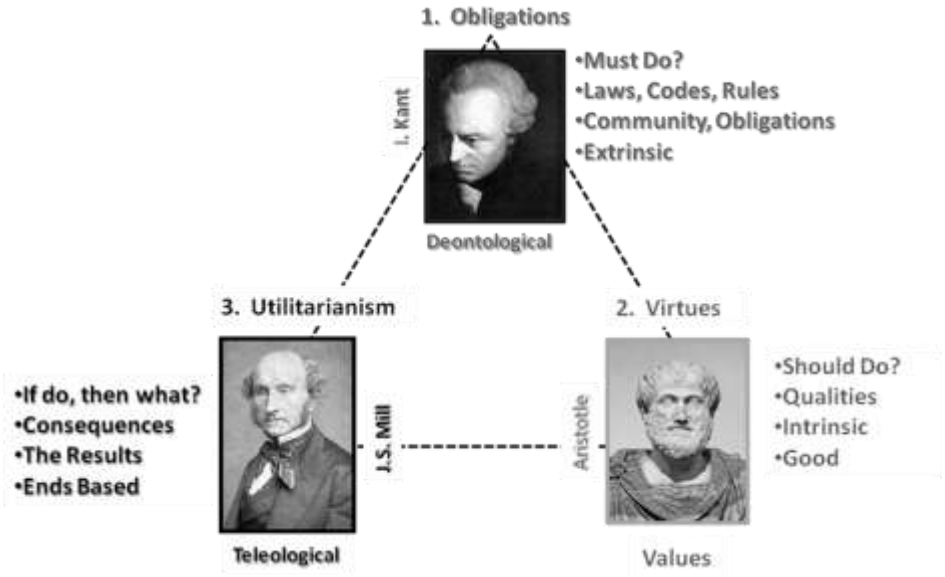

Figure 12. Underlying Poverty Remediation Ethical Systems.

Deontological Underpinnings

Poverty remediation as an obligation originates from deontological ethics. Originating from the Greek term *deon* which denotes responsibility or obligation, deontological ethics addresses requirements. Articulated by 18th century German philosopher Kant (1724-1804), responsibility ethics assumes a moral duty towards the poor. The overarching idea is no one should suffer from want or deprivation when others hold prevention means. Deontological ethics accepts community obligations to care for its own. Kant's Categorical Imperative requires all act "according to that maxim" (Kant, 1993, p. 30) that one's activities "should become universal law" (Kant, 1993, p. 30).

Kant (1993) contended all are obliged to poor assistance. If everyone decided not to help, Kant hypothesized, there would be no almsgiving. If compassion duties were abrogated, each person could freely deny aid even though the impoverished require assistance. Kant summed up the deontological approach thusly, "Whatever the cause of

another's poverty, we have a moral duty to alleviate it, and we hope others will do the same for us" (Stark, 2009, p. 396).

Obligation poverty remediation is a double-edged sword. If rules-based approaches are accepted, those unwilling to work to improve their condition are denied antipoverty assistance. If one is cogently unwilling to work toward collective benefit, then he or she is barred from its stores. Kant's (1993) societal obligations do not excuse personal responsibility or abdicate individual autonomous accountability.

Some qualifiers exist in regards to one's impoverished deontological ethical duties. Almsgiving benefits not only the poor, but the giver as well. By living up to one's responsibilities toward to the poor, patrons become more virtuous. Although unpalatable to many, doing the right thing need not be agreeable (Engelhorn, 2001). Kant (1971) reinforced this point stating, "The majesty of duty has nothing to do with the enjoyment of life" (p. 131).

Upright poor principle conditions drive morally obligated poverty assistance. As such, distinctions between luckless poor and dishonorably undeserving must be made. Drawing morality distinctions drives obligation levels incurred. Those with means are called upon to empathize with and assist industrious, selfless, unlucky poor. However, indolent, selfish, ignoble, deliberately uneducated poor are left to their own low-quality decision-making consequences (Roemer, 1996; Singer, 2000; Stark, 2009). Deontological ethics hold society is not obligated to sustain dissolute or ignominious behavior.

Kant (1994) put forth the state has no role in compelling or coercing assistance from the solvent. Kant's deontological views have resulted in unintended laws, codes,

and rules which spell out individual or community poverty remediation obligations through taxation and wealth-shifting measures. Kant suggested failure to assist others while possessing resources to do so is immoral. While individuals may be persuaded to assume moral obligations towards the poor, the state should not compel such morality.

Unlike consequentialist and virtue poverty orientations, rules-based approaches refrain from codifying individual benefactor behaviors. Until the mid 1990s, few rules to guide honorable behavior were placed on poverty assistance recipients. Recipient behavioral rules, such as submitting to drug tests and workfare, have been met with hostility by those receiving public assistance (Peck, 1998; Rector, 2012). Meade (1996) suggested 90% of those receiving government antipoverty assistance were work capable.

Cultural Poverty

Cultural poverty perspectives rest on notions certain collective philosophies play a formative role in economic inadequacy. Underlying tacit sect rules and orientations ingrain obligations which serve to restrict advancement. Cultural poverty theorists normally point toward social beliefs which drive duty-based behaviors in regards to certain ethnicity developmental approaches (Wilson, 1987). Normally tied to a societal or religious loyalty notions combined with identity protection, cultural poverty theory is deeply anchored to narratives which suggest western democratic values inhibit some subcultures' best interest (Grondona, 2000; Harrison, 2000; Lindsay, 2000).

Under rules induced impoverishment, western ideals are resisted due to value incongruencies amongst assumptive world views. Cultural resistance serves to undercut specific subgroup progress, thereby promoting impoverishment (Grondona, 2000;

Harrison, 2000; Lindsay, 2000). Lewis (1998), who studied global ghetto residents, suggested impoverished groups possess their own subculture whose rules and obligations exclude beliefs, norms, and values required for upward economic advancement (p. 7).

Teleological Underpinnings

Poverty as a societal utility matter traces its roots to 19th century English philosopher Mill (1806-1873). Derived from the Greek word *teleos*, meaning end, Mill (2002, 2004), applied utilitarian ethics to suggest morality is ultimately determined by an action's effects or consequences, rather than by act nature itself. Best known by the "greatest happiness" (p. 6) maxim, utilitarianism weighs largest gross benefit. Teleological ethics calls for an outcomes evaluation, ascertaining who is negatively and positively impacted while considering impact concentration. Utility ethics are a civic regulation staple. A majority of laws are devised while minding possible happiness outcomes.

Due to poverty pain causing capacities, impoverishment must be countered to increase happiness levels (Mill, 2002). Not only is individual happiness a concern, but so too is society's. Poverty strikes at society's balance, affecting collective contentment. Aggregate happiness is state controlled; therefore it must be fixed by the state. Poverty negatively impacts societal equilibrium. Resultantly, government must act to alleviate poverty. Only government, argued Mill (2002, 2004), can effectively combat poverty because it is empowered to collect taxes and establish institutions to assure a decent living standard (Meyer & Sullivan, 2009; Tanner, 2010).

This poverty conception attributes poverty to systemic injustice. If unjust societal structures create unhappiness, then society members are obligated to compensate the disaffected. As such, poverty becomes a rights question. United States' founding father Thomas Paine (1984) explained this position using a land-holding perspective. Land holders were afforded advantageous positions because an "unfair" U.S. legal system favored property ownership. This beneficial land possession position simultaneously served to disadvantage others, engendering the poor with an endowed right not to be impoverished. By affirming unjust system grievances, exploited poor (and politicians supposedly working on their behalf) are empowered to seek exploiter redress (Paine, 1984; Stark, 2009).

Utilitarianism, however, fails to account for monetary efficiency. Bureaucratic organizations, by their very nature, are inefficient and serve to consume intended poverty remediation resources. Currently, American government manages 122 separate antipoverty plans with an articulated combating poverty purpose (US OMB, 2007). Poverty reduction monies must negotiate more than five governmental echelons and at least a dozen federal departments prior to reaching the impoverished. According to a 2007 United States Management and Budget Office audit, poverty administration bureaucratic morass serves to consume at least two-thirds of the resources earmarked for poverty relief (Karelis, 2007).

Structural Poverty

Structural poverty perspectives focus on capitalism as the culprit. Rank, Yoon, and Herschl (2003) argued U.S. Poverty is a prearranged society structural result.

Structural poverty theory espouses a position which attributes poverty to capitalism profit motive. Capitalist drive for individualized monetary wealth results in less high-paying, full-time jobs with benefits. Capitalistic personalized monetary desires guarantee minimum-wage, subsistence level occupation preponderance. Structural inequity unavoidably ensures only a few will enjoy prosperity (Lichter, Parisi & Taquino, 2012).

Finding a foothold in "Occupy" and "99%" movements which have sprouted up globally, structural poverty adherents hold capitalism is rife with inherent morphological inequities. Structural disparities are hypothesized to be primary contributors to labor market inabilities to produce enough high-quality jobs to effectively combat poverty. As such, structural poverty adherents often call for wealth confiscation and redistribution measures to address inequalities (Castel, 2002; Friedman, 1996; Silver & Miller, 2003).

Virtue Ethics Underpinnings

Normative ethic's final approach to combating poverty sees antipoverty actions as a desirable intrinsic personal conduct quality. Focused on requisite behavior to be considered decent or upright, virtue ethics emphasize moral character. Virtue ethics traces its foundational roots to ancient 4th Century B.C. Greek philosophers, Plato and Aristotle. Both men contributed to virtue ethics formation, which would serve as the preeminent ethical foundation until Enlightenment. As Plato and Aristotle saw it, virtue ethics focused not on what one should do, but rather what kind of person one ought to be. Good character, and its pursuit, is central to virtuous behavioral theory (Adams, 2006/2010; Maritain, 2005).

Putting love for others first, values ethics frequently draws on the Golden Rule. The Golden Rule is philosophically based on reversibility principles. Reversibility is tested by placing one's self as action recipient and imagining how it would feel to be recipient rather than perpetrator. Habitually linked to Christian religious thought, Jesus of Nazareth said, "All things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them" (Matt. 7:12). This Golden Rule is so common it serves as foci for virtually every landmark religious teaching. Although many logicians (to include Kant) have argued Golden Rule status as a practicable precept, for many people it is their only known ethical barometer. As such, the inherently self-focused Golden Rule with its reversibility principle deserves commendation as a historically validated tried-and-true behavioral guide (Adams, 2006/2010; Brady, 2005; McDowell, 1979).

In addition to Golden Rule guidelines, Golden Mean concepts are central to virtue ethics. Aristotle argued virtuous conduct as the appropriate middle between two immoderations: one a surplus, the other a scarcity. Aquinas (2010) buttressed the mean's underlying harmonizing premise, claiming "the mean of virtue depends on conformity with virtue's rule or measure, insofar as one may exceed or fall short of that rule" (Article 4).

Universally upright conduct lies between two extremes with respect to a particular action or emotion. Justice is one such virtue and is central to poverty discourse. When it comes to poverty, virtue ethicists point to charitable or benevolent poverty assistance as good moral underpinning evidence. Furthermore, justice is seen as mean between excess compassion and superfluous strictness. For both Plato and Aristotle, Golden Mean justice

is grounded in fairness. Justice, when viewed as fairness, means people get exactly what they deserve - no more, no less. If they receive more, society is being excessively generous thereby promoting immoral behavior. If they get less, society creates unjust deficiency. As one might conclude, it is exceedingly difficult to ascertain exactly what each impoverished person justly deserves (Barry, 1989; Burger, 2008; Schmidtz, 2006).

Justice is central to research effort attempts to counter social poverty in America. Countering societal deficiency is an inherently virtuous undertaking. By requiring scholastic athletic programs to provide athletes individualized consideration, increased graduation rates should result. Increased student athlete graduation rates ought to decrease targeted population poverty density. Understanding relationships between poverty and individualized consideration would necessarily impact greater society, thereby increasing societal justice. Figure 13 depicts justice's Golden Mean.

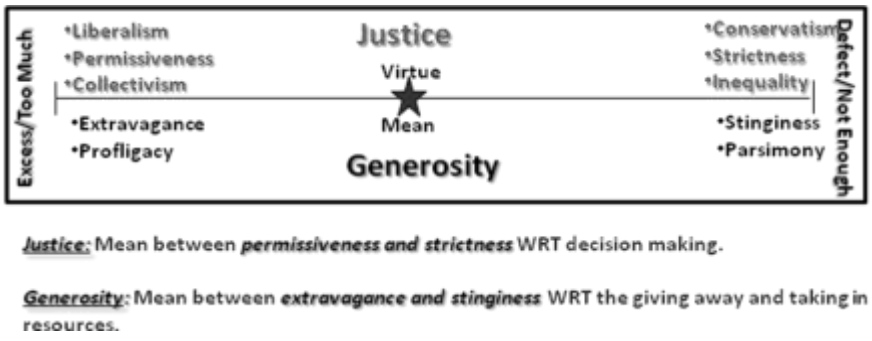

Figure 13. Justice's Golden Mean.

If justice employs the Golden Mean to assure balanced fairness, then under virtue ethics, to be impoverished means to suffer social injustice. Rawls (1999) regarded justice as "the first virtue of social institutions" (p. 42). For one to have more, he or she must have unjustly exploited those who have less. Those who have more have engaged in

unjust extravagance while those without means are societal parsimony victims. As such, those distributing community resources among members are unjust when employing capricious distribution methods. Poverty justice discussions focus on property ownership and wealth distribution. In fairness' name, exploiters can be forced into compulsory resource redistribution to those who have less. If the Golden Rule is employed, poverty gives rise to a moral obligation for those with means to treat others as they would want to be treated should the circumstances be reversed. As a result, those of means must be compelled to honorable conduct (Barry, 1989; Burger, 2008; Schmidtz, 2006).

Fairness among all assumes equivalence among all. In turn, assumed equivalence leads to conclusions that uncorrected out-group grievances exist. Attempting to redress out-group grievances, virtue ethics concludes the impoverished have a justified claim against state-dominated in-crowds. By adopting a just-unjust paradigm, one assumes an aggrieved perspective. Impoverished individuals and groups are set-up as impinged upon rights-bearers rather than unlucky unfortunates or indolent malingerers. Conversely, those who are not poor are characterized as exploiting villainies. Resultantly, these villains should be taxed for collective benefit. The unfairly deprived are simply asking for what is rightfully theirs (Jones & Presler-Marshall, 2012).

Aptitudinal Poverty

Aptitude-based poverty approaches hypothesize the impoverished lack essential mental models due to reduced societal expectations. Termed by President George W. Bush as low expectations bigotry, aptitude based poverty theories espouse underlying beliefs that current economic destitution presages continued predetermined future

indigence. In short, the impoverished do not know any better and are incapable of lifting themselves (Wattier, 2000).

Often manifested in a formulaic pity toward the impoverished, aptitudinal approaches assume impoverished beginnings have stricken abilities to escape poverty's generational grip. Due to inequity, one can only suffer (not overcome) inevitable economic shortcomings. Under aptitude approaches, poverty-stricken are destined for collaborative hopelessness which dissuades upward movement and mobility (Barretti, 2004; Bogo et al., 1995; Limb & Organista, 2003).

By rectifying incongruencies between social groups, increased desire level is hypothesized to occur. Determination to seek advancement (or absence thereof), is conjectured to transpire through a habituation process. By giving the impoverished a higher living standard, disparities between aspiration levels will be closed, thereby remedying impoverished upper mobility aptitude scarcity (Appadurai 2004; Wattier, 2000). Figure 14 depicts resolution as a virtue.

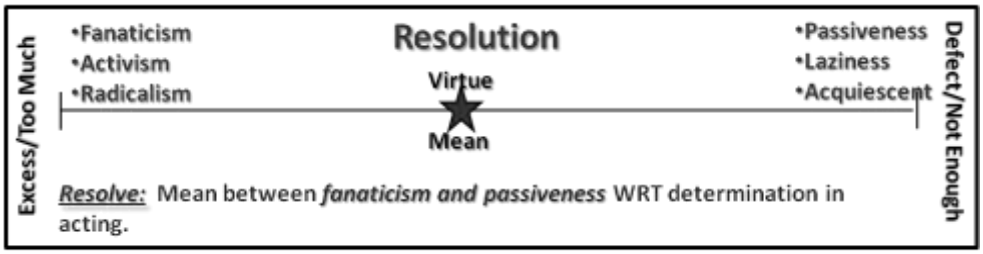

Figure 14. Virtue of Resolve.

There are strong indications American poverty is a social vice economic phenomenon. Lewandowski (2006) hypothesized poverty as a social capital deficiency (p. 2). Under social capital theory, personal social assets reside in collectively connected

horizontal or vertical networks which serve to enable or inhibit individual progress within a given society.

Social Poverty Theory

Like most other multifaceted social constructs, American social poverty includes aspects from all three major ethical systems. However, social poverty is primarily rooted in deontological and teleological ethics. Although personal virtue shortcomings contribute to social impoverishment, social poverty is imbued and reinforced by restrictive horizontal networks (deontological) and social structures (teleological).

In the United States, social poverty results from social capital dearth. Central to American social impoverishment discussions is social capital presence or absence caused by individual communal associations (Shivarajan & Srinivasan, 2013). Social capital paucity results from poor decision making stemming from maladaptive mental models imbued by restrictive horizontal social connections. In the U.S., social impoverishment can potentially be overcome by leveraging availed social capital present in vertical networks. Precious little research on these formal and informal shared acquaintances has been done in regards to poverty occurrence or nonexistence (Bebbington, Mitlin, Mogaladi, Scurrah & Bielich, 2010; Cecchini, 2014).

In order to adequately research social poverty, understanding social capital is critical. Combating social poverty requires social capital leveraging. Intrinsic value found in and among social relations, especially as individualized consideration is shown scholastic athletes, hypothetically leads to social capital accrual. By recognizing and

correlating individualized consideration with social capital presence, measures to stem social poverty can be arrived at.

Social Capital

Despite a topic which is almost a century old, most literature surrounding social capital is relatively recent. Social capital composition is those things which provide holders with increased opportunity (Hauberer, 2011). First introduced by Hanifan (1920), social capital concepts have grown to encompass all social resources potentially leveraged to support individual forward advancement. Bordieu (1986) depicted social capital as "the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition" (pp. 248-249). In other words, social capital is group membership which provides potentially uplifting economic benefit.

Social capital is enduring personal competitive advantage derived from positive interpersonal relationships. Social capital encompasses communal trust networks and connections which facilitate individual action in specific milieus or cultures. Social capital is resident in relations between and among human beings. Social capital is recognized as valued associations linking persons which hold practical usefulness. These connections may serve both bridging (vertical facilitation) and bonding (horizontally restraining) functions (Putnam, 1993; Serageldin & Dasgupta, 2000).

Social capital and social poverty are inextricably linked. Social poverty is a recent, little studied, social capital theory off-shoot. Social poverty theory holds social capital shortfalls directly result in social impoverishment (Putnam, 2000). Bateman and

Snell (2011) put forth social capital absence as a social poverty antecedent. Conversely, antecedent presence serves to eliminate the resulting condition.

A number of authors support suppositions group membership restricts upward mobility, results in low social capital holdings, and contributes to social poverty. Hastie and Dawes (2010) concluded cultural based social connections serve to hinder economic advancement, resulting in economic opportunity shortcomings. Moxley and Pulley (2003) indicate socially impoverished persons make choices to engage in culturally transferred behavioral habits which beget low quality outcomes. The socially viable learn and grow from mistakes associated with poor decisions; the socially impoverished are demoralized and defeated by poor decision making, often blaming outside forces for personal failures.

Lewadowski (2006), Mead (2005b), Thakur (2006), and Whitlock (2008) have identified specific social poverty symptoms which restrict social capital accumulation. Educational failure, individualism, strong present time orientation, low aspirations, dependency, addiction, illegitimacy, chronic unemployment, institutional distrust, and racist orientation/fixation are distinctive social poverty indicators. Behavioral indicators reflect culturally transmitted assumptive belief sets which drive impoverished maladaptive societal behaviors. Resultantly, in order to address foundational poverty issues, one has no choice but to grapple with individual identity issues (Sack, 2011).

When it comes to debating social poverty, two communal network types are central to discussions. Lewandowski (2006) suggests horizontal social networks are restrictive social trust connections which serve to impose rules on group members,

thereby limiting social capital accrual. Horizontal social networks, such as family, friends, lifestyle attractors, and ethnic group affiliations serve to restrict social capital and inhibit forward progress.

Conversely, vertical social networks are those connections which exist between socioeconomic or cultural groups which serve to promote social capital growth. Higher education, religious communities, and military service are expansive vertical network exemplars which serve to provide opportunity. Religious, educational, or military based connections serve to counter opportunity restricting cultures (Hauberer, 2011, p. 36).

The most renowned social capital description is Putnam's (1993) perspective that social capital stems from specific communal relations which positively affect individual upward mobility. These relations include shared civic linkages and mentally constructed values, attitude, beliefs, and expectations (VABEs). Most assumptive world views are subconscious. Resultantly, most behaviors affecting decision making remain unacknowledged (Beyster, 2007; Brandt, 2008; Senge, 2006; Werther, 2003).

In order to overcome anchoring caused by established mental models, mind shifts are required. Senge (2006) termed these fundamental mind shifts *"metanoia"* (p. 13), a Greek word which literally means transcendence. Those undergoing *metanoia* achieve a fundamental perspective change. This necessary mind shift is often preempted by socially impoverished horizontal networks. Horizontal network restrictions serve to limit social capitol thereby perpetuating poverty.

Horizontal Networks

Originating culture primarily comprises one's horizontal network (Brown & Trevino, 2003). As such, America's socially impoverished hold natural inclinations to remain mired in horizontal network stasis, limiting social capital accretion. Due to cultural norm conformity desires, the socially impoverished remain anchored at equilibrium, thereby limiting cross-cultural connections. Social alienation risks involved are often judged too high. As a result, people tend to eschew developmental experiences which can be crucial to advancement (McCall, 1998, p. 76).

Indicative of Meadow's (2008) Limits to Growth balancing feedback loop, horizontal networks serve to counter improvement attempts. True forward advancement requires follower independence. Exploiting untapped follower potential requires established mental framework breakdown. As one attempts to break generational poverty bindings, even slight horizontal network hearkening can derail upward mobility (Armitage, Brooks & Schultz, 2005; Brown, 2011; Clawson, 2006; Hastie & Dawes, 2010; Offerman, 2008).

A horizontal network can be said to contain four core characteristics found in varying degrees. The four horizontal network characteristics are (1) individual autonomy degree, (2) need sensitivity levels toward network members, (3) physical and emotional support levels, and (4) risk-seeking behavior extent. Restrictive horizontal networks seek to limit individual autonomy, possess high need sensitivity, demand physical presence and emotional adherence, and discourage risk-taking behaviors. Any such social capital growth under these circumstances is inherently limited. Restrictive horizontal networks

seek to maintain culture status quo. In this case, horizontal network rules keep impoverished mired in poverty (Brown, 2011; Covey, 2008). This research effort will seek to determine leadership effectiveness in countering these restrictive horizontal network characteristics.

In the United States, value incongruencies between prevailing social expectations and horizontal networks are suppositious social poverty contributors. Tacit cultural behavioral rules exist to prevent value incongruence narrowing. Restraining horizontal network temperament helps to explain how certain American social groups hold significant horizontal communal wealth (residing, for example, in cohesive or culturally analogous neighborhoods), and yet be fairly content to live in impoverished conditions eschewing upward economic progress. Specific culture deontological norms impact individual member decision making behaviors. American social poverty (reinforced by a rigid horizontal network) serves as a pooled normative (or soft) constraint on social capital accrual (Brown, 2011; Farr, 2004; Lewandowski, 2006; Senge, 2006).

Remedies for those mired in socially impoverished conditions can be accessed through vertical social networks such as religious pursuits, military service, and increased education. Vertical networks provide poverty cycle breaking means by increasing cross-cultural social capital growth (Lewadowski, 2006; Thakur, 2006; Whitlock, 2008).

Vertical Networks

Acting to counter restrictive horizontal networks, vertical networks stimulate capital growth in order to power upward advancement. Higher education's vertical network role is unsurpassed. Monetary and nonmonetary benefits associated with

educational attainment are far reaching. College educational expenses return on investment is perhaps the best investment an individual will make in his or her lifetime. In 2008, bachelor's degree recipients' median earnings while employed full-time were $55,700. This is $21,900 more than high school graduates' median earnings (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010b).

From a teleological standpoint, advantages realized from college degree attainment not only yields individual benefit, but also improves societal happiness. In addition to pervasive efficiency boosts, college graduates' increased income levels generate increased tax revenues. For example, typical university graduates annually pay 80% more in duties than typical secondary school achievers. Public support program spending such as joblessness assistance, Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program, and Medicare is much higher for high school graduates than for those with post-secondary educations. Average taxpayer lifetime savings on public assistance services range from $32,600 for European American females to $108,700 for African American males. Students who are reluctant to attend college due to ethnic characteristics, negative scholastic circumstances, and cultural subgroup norms are those who could most benefit from educational attainment (Baum et al., 2010; Carroll & Erkut, 2009).

Monetary rewards, however, are not the sole societal benefit stemming from scholastic degree achievement. On any scale, and by a wide margin, those with less education tend to be societal resource consumers, whereas those who have graduated college are more often communal store providers. Volunteerism real numbers and

charitable giving are appreciably higher among individuals with postsecondary education (Baum et al., 2010; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010b ; DeWalque, 2004).

Given a bachelor's degree life-long import, the NCAA mandates affiliated schools annually report student graduation rates. Any higher education institution providing financial aid to athletes is required to submit student-athlete academic progress information (Bowen & Levin, 2005; NCAA, 2011a).

Understanding socially constructed vertical and horizontal networks is central to countering America's social poverty affliction. Scholastic athletic programs are vertical educational networks which potentially serve to overcome restraining culturally-based horizontal networks. By requiring vertical network scholastic athletic programs to provide individualized consideration to athletes, increased graduation rates should result. Increased student athlete graduation rates ought to decrease retraining horizontal network impacts. Understanding network relationships, poverty, and individualized consideration comingling could potentially reduce social poverty in the United States. Although networks, impoverishment, and leadership understanding are central to this inquiry, individual choice also plays a significant role in breaking poverty's grip.

Decision Making Contribution

Any social poverty discussion must consider volitional human choice. Meade (1996) suggested poverty discourses must center on individual accountability questions, not on rights questions which permeate conventional premises. People become who they are (for better or worse) through small, incremental decisions. Freely made volitional selections serve to reduce or grow future options (Johnson, 2005, p. 108). Literature

allows direct connection drawing between network fomented low-quality decision making and social impoverishment. Figure 15 maps this logic.

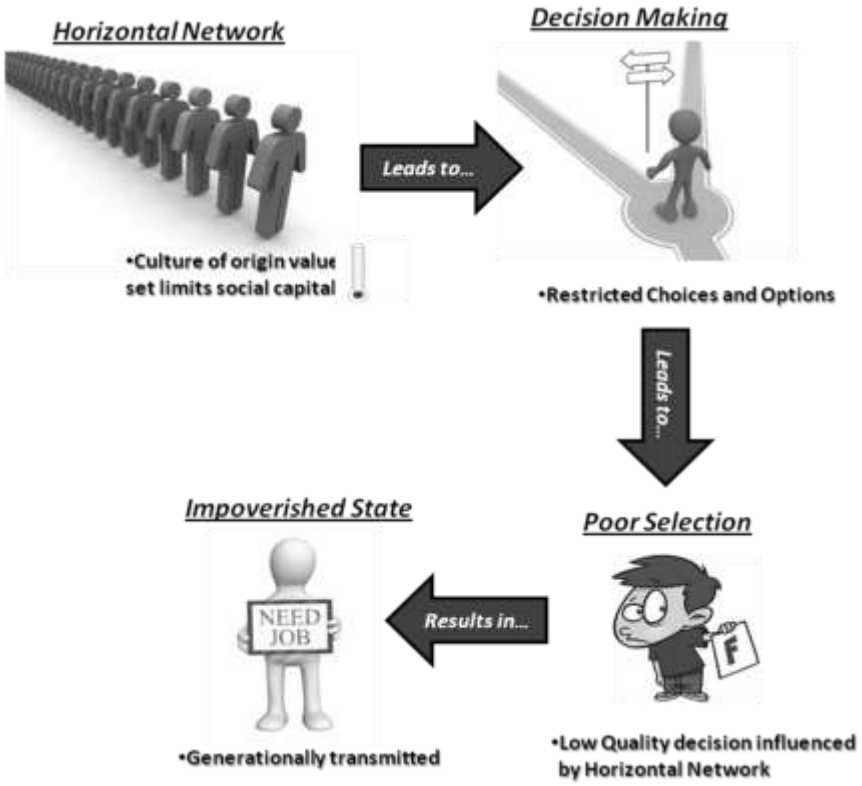

Figure 15. Social Poverty Logic.

Given social poverty causes are completely and utterly voluntary, social poverty can be referred to as poor choice making poverty. Researchers indicate low-quality decisions normally beget poor follow-on decisions (Hammond et al., 2001; Van Bavel, 2001). Similarly, high-quality decisions normally have positive 2nd and 3rd order future effects. Decision making free will and bias impacts are debatable. However, social poverty is indisputably connected with prior low-quality economic decision making stemming from social capital deficiencies attributed to one's horizontal network.

Choosing well is a cultured skill, which can be enhanced with leadership-imbued practice, experience, and habituation (Hastie & Dawes, 2010).

Decision making goals are to achieve future desirable outcomes which increase chooser happiness. However, happiness and related well-being feelings are not solitary outcome evaluation considerations. Often, decisions are based on universalities and emotions (Kahneman, Wakker & Sarin, 2007). Zajonc (1980) summed up the irrational emotional selection phenomenon thusly: "The heart has its reasons which the reason knows nothing of" (p. 152).

Social impoverishment spawned by low-quality decision making has proven to be starkly generational in nature. Socially impoverished cultures have their elders to blame. Low-quality decisions are passed from one generation to the next by horizontal networks, thereby perpetuating poverty's cycle (Lehning et al., 2007).

Social poverty is generationally transmitted among Americans. Important questions exist in regards to forefathers attempts to escape impoverished existences. Generational social impoverishment runs counter to anthropologist Trivers's (1980) parental investment concept. Parental investment presumes parents accept some material detriment to afford their offspring an improved future. Defined as a sacrificial activity which decreases parental wellness while increasing offspring survival chances, parental investment is naturally imbued in previous generations (pp. 139-140). Consequently, offspring who received greater parental investment were most likely to thrive. In the U.S., natural parental sacrifice inclinations have been muted in socially impoverished

situations by individualism, preset time orientations, and strong horizontal network presence (Bowen & Levin, 2005).

Tied to parental investment and generational low-quality decision making is present time orientation. A landmark social poverty indicator, present time orientation is a phenomenon driven by past-negative and present-fatalist belief sets. Parents with strong present time orientations consciously or subconsciously choose to materially invest in themselves vice their off-spring's future. Fatalist or uncaring attitudes toward futures, combined with adverse or negative past experiences, serve as present time orientation justifications. Generationally transmitted memes, mental models, or cognitive schemas serve to reinforce present time orientation (Diaz-Morales, Ferrari, & Cohen, 1990; Ferrari & Diaz-Morales, 2007; Pychyl, 2000; Pychyl, Lee, Thibodeau & Blunt, 2008; Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999/2008).

Individual poor decision-making can lead to social impoverishment. Low-quality decision makers are culpable in their own decision-making outcomes. For example, one collegiate athlete may decide not to complete his or her degree program, and return home despite being provided advancement opportunity. Another may decide to actively pursue a degree, thereby accessing their vertical network, building social capital, and escaping poverty's hold. Ultimately, major theorists agree free will and sufficient upward opportunity exists. Therefore, individual decision-making significantly contributes to impoverished states (Brown, 2011; Senge, 2006).

Poverty in the United States

American antipoverty activists normally put forth two incompatible narratives: U.S. poverty is widespread and being poor in America consists of persistent material deficiency. According to Heritage Foundation poverty studies, these two fused notions regarding national poverty living conditions are inaccurate misrepresentations (Rector, 2007; Rector, 2012; Rector & Sheffield, 2011).

Contrary to popular characterizations, typical underprivileged families possessed a fully functional home which was not filled to capacity. Representative impoverished U.S. citizens possessed more living room than typical Europeans. By personal family account, it was not famished. Average foodstuff intakes by underprivileged children is well above societal averages and starkly similar to intakes by wealthy offspring. The chief nutritional difficulty facing the impoverished is elevated caloric intake (Finkelstein et al., 2012). Like most Americans, the impoverished are strikingly overweight (Herbig, Dragano, & Angerer, 2013; Rector & Sheffield, 2011).

If being impoverished includes nutritional deficiency, an unsatisfactory dwelling, and insufficient dress, only a small portion of America's reported 30 million impoverished could be described as poor (US Census Bureau, 2010). U.S. Census reports not only inflate poverty numbers, but also exaggerate poor density while reporting stagnant life circumstances. Reality stands in stark contrast to Census Bureau depictions. In all actuality, American poor have seen momentous life quality improvements over the past half century. Recent Census Bureau reports suggest one in seven Americans lived in

poverty in 2009 (14.3%). This number parallels statistics from five decades ago (DeNavas-Walt, Proctor, & Smith, 2010).

When it comes to poor life quality, almost half (43%) are homeowners. As Rector and Sheffield (2011) pointed out, "The average home owned by persons classified as poor by the Census Bureau is a three-bedroom house with one-and-a-half baths, a garage, and a porch or patio" (p. 10). To the vast majority of Americans, families with this lifestyle do not quality as impoverished. Rector (2007), using a nationally representative sample, found that eight of 10 Americans agreed possessing sufficient housing, ample food, adequate health coverage, transportation, dish/cable TV, climate control, and a full kitchen do not qualify one as poor.

Despite middle class life-style amenities afforded poor Americans, low cognitive development and increased criminal activity participation continue unabated (Holzera et al., 2008; Ludwig & Sawhill, 2007). Bjerk (2004) estimated children raised in the lowest economic quintile are a full third more likely to suffer educational failure and engage in criminal activity than second quintile children. Ludwig (2006) indicated lowest economic quintile crime involvement alone is estimated to cost more than $700 billion per year.

Given stark poverty realities, combating poverty requires a comprehensive approach. To date, 40 years of poverty remediation policies and programs have done little to alter the reality that 1/7 of American's live in want (Rector, 2011; Rector and Sheffield, 2012). Transformative leadership providing individualized consideration to the socially impoverished offers a poverty conquering alternative (Scott, Bailey, & Kienzl, 2006; Senge, 2006; Yukl, 2006). Individualized consideration can serve to break low-

quality decision making cycles and counter restrictive, social capital limiting horizontal networks. By linking transformative leadership presence with collegiate athlete graduation rates, matriculation improving processes and procedures can be installed. IC offers enhanced social poverty reducing promise and promotes generationally-based transformative cycles.

Leadership Theory

Leadership theories can essentially be lumped into nine theoretical clusters. For more than four decades, leadership authors have attempted to sort leadership into reductionist bins by assessing charismatic influence and emotional maturity levels (Fiol, Harris & House, 1999; Northouse, 2005; Stogdill, 1975). These nine academically speculative constellations, as depicted by Figure 16 with a follow-on discussion, are

1. Laissez-faire Leadership (Absentee or nonleadership).
2. Character Based Leadership Theories (Great Man & Trait Theories).
3. Power Based Leadership Theories (Power and Persuasion Theories).
4. Conduct Theories (Leader Actions).
5. Condition Based Theories (Leader Actions Context).
6. Contingency (Path-Goal & Normative Theories).
7. Quid pro Quo Theories (Transactional, Leader-Member Exchange, and Social Exchange Theories).
8. TL (Change and Self-Fulfillment Theories).
9. Servant Leadership.

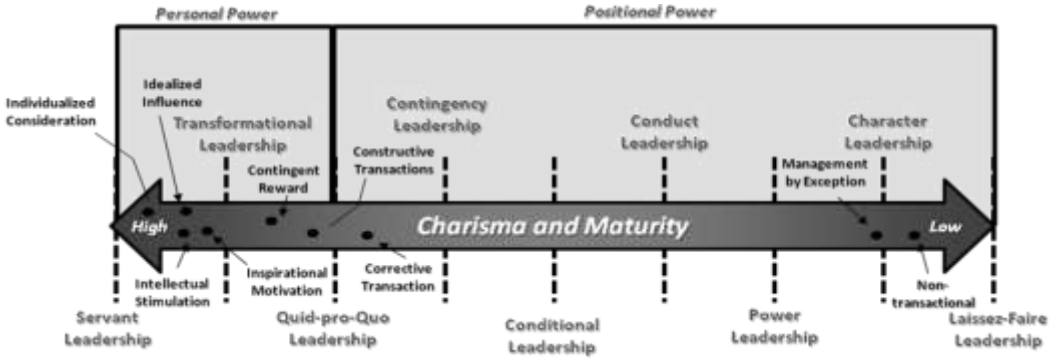

Figure 16. Leadership Theory Charisma Continuum.

Any discussion concerning leadership must begin with leadership's definition. Researchers have disputed leadership characterizations for more than a half-century. Stogdill (1974) claimed "There are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (p. 259). Burns (1978) echoed this sentiment, pointing out more than 150 leadership definitions existed as of 30 years ago. Kent (2005) referred to the leadership definition proliferation as a veritable "tower of Babel" (p. 1010). Leadership definition variation and proliferation have contributed to confusion and slowed leadership study. However, among contemporary leadership definitions, Northouse's (2010) leadership characterization as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3), is among the field's most cited.

Hogan and Kaiser (2005) hypothesized leadership revolves around cohesive team construction and maintenance. Influencing individuals to sacrifice self for collective goal achievement is seen as authentic leadership essence. Leadership also contains an altruistic component. Thompson et al. (2008) defined their *Worthy Leadership* concept as a leader

responsibility to "guide, direct, or influence people in a way that has great merit, character, and value" (p. 5). Synthesized, a comprehensive leadership definition is stated thusly: leadership is a process of influencing people in a commendable manner while accomplishing tasks, progressing followers, and improving the organization.

Unlike leadership definitions which have evolved over the past half-century, little has changed in regards to leader roles. Leaders are charged with driving improvement, change, and forward movement. Northouse (2010/2013) indicated leaders execute three basic functions: establishing organizational direction, aligning people and tasks, and motivating and inspiring followers. At their root, leaders lead people and manage tasks. Leaders establish organizational culture. In their headship roles, leaders not only establish rules which govern institution operation, they imbue it with a value set. Leaders serve to write rules, whereas managers are charged with enforcing them (Day & Antonakis, 2012; Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, & Cardy, 2008; Plachy, 2009; Shein, 2004; Straker, 2009).

Laissez-Faire Leadership

French for *letting things happen*, laissez-faire leadership is often referred to as hollow leadership. Found at the charismatic continuum's low end, laissez-faire leaders usually abstain from guidance or intrusion and normally seek to preserve individual freedom of action. First identified by Lewin (1939) as one of three overarching leadership styles, laissez-faire leaders do not regularly employ authority, provide minimal guidance, eschew control, and embrace ideas followers will excel if left alone. Generally considered the weakest leadership form, laissez-faire management is grounded in non-interference and transfers decision-making authority to subordinates (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2003;

Lewin, 1939; Northouse, 2010; Yukl, 2006). Often deemed nontransactional, laissez-faire leadership researchers have shown a strong correlation with negative leadership benchmarks and offers little promise in overcoming social poverty (Howell & Costley, 2006; Pithers, 1985).

Characteristics Leadership

Characteristic or personality based leadership squarely focuses on personal leader attributes. Characteristic viewpoints suggest particular persons possess unique intrinsic characteristics or traits. Inherent leader behaviors set them apart from nonleaders (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). Often termed "great man" theories, personality-based leadership emphasizes innate traits, characteristics, or competencies to be emulated. Since McClelland's (1973) landmark work 40 years ago, characteristic leadership has served to classify effective leader traits into four broad categories: interpersonal abilities, intrapersonal skills, controlling aptitudes, and influence capabilities (Hogan & Kaiser, 2006; Hogan & Warrenfeltz, 2003).

Personality leadership debates have attempted to distinguish between leader traits (singular skills) and competencies (a skill or attribute amalgamation). This approach assumes the two are distinct from one another. In reality, individual leadership skills serve as collective leader competency antecedents (Bolden & Gosling, 2006; Naquin & Holton, 2006; Yukl, 2006). Figure 17 depicts the relationship between leadership traits and competencies.

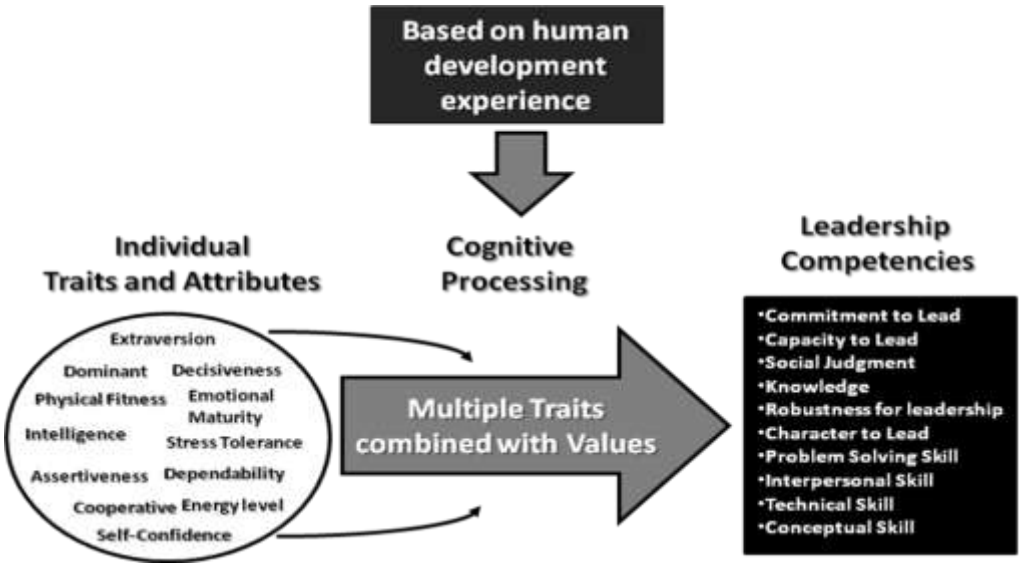

Figure 17. Leadership Traits to Competencies.

Certain traits, personality attributes, or competencies contribute to successful leadership. As effective leadership variables personality traits and characteristic competencies served to underpin initial leadership research (Avolio & Bass, 1999/2004; House, 1996).

Power Based Leadership

When discussed, power is routinely described in a negative or abusive light. As Johnson (2005) pointed out, "power is America's last dirty word" (p. 8). Power holdings drive relationships between leaders and subordinates. Power and influence are inextricably linked. Power is an influence antecedent.

If power is an influence antecedent, then influence is an unseen force derived from power which when exerted, causes action. Power provides underlying influence capacity. Power is leadership aptitude, capability, or capacity to cause outcomes one

desires (Finkelstein, 1992; Finkelstein, Hambrick, & Cannella, 2008). Where power is a tool used by leaders, influence achieves desired ends. Leadership employs power to influence followers into achieving desired ends (Johnson, 2005; Northouse, 2010; Salancik, & Pfeffer, 1977).

Over the past half century, power-based leadership analyses have arrived at significant conclusions about power as a desirable means. Power-based leadership theory dialogue focuses on leader actions (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Focusing on coercive power impact, current discourses routinely portray power as inherently evil. According to prevailing societal narratives, leveraging power to achieve ends is immoral. Theoreticians normally identify five power forms: (a) liking-based power, (b) competency-based power, (c) position-based power, (d) incentive-based power and (e) coercive power. In facing intransience or apathy, leaders employ a power form to overcome resistance (Burke, 2008; Northouse, 2010; Sales, 2006).

Conduct Based Leadership

Grounded in how leaders act, conduct-based leadership focuses on leadership styles. Two general behavior types are conjectured to comprise leader behavioral patterns, task deeds, and relationship actions. Hypothesizing how leaders practice guidance while combining behavior types is conduct-based leadership theory's essence (Bass, 2008; Boyatzis, 1982; Northouse, 2010).

Based on Stogsdill's (1948/1974) landmark work, both Ohio State University and University of Michigan embarked on a study series to investigate associations involving leader mission focus and his or her interpersonal orientation. Concluding conduct-based

leadership foci are independent of one another, Blake and Mouton (1985) spent 3 decades employing and evolving their conduct leadership Managerial Grid. Widely employed in civic and private segments, the grid suggested leaders scoring high in both task and relationship domains were superior (Blake & McCanse, 1991; Northouse, 2010).

Prior to conduct-based leadership theories, leadership discussions were almost exclusively focused on personality-based leadership. These discussions concluded that no one personality archetype best typified successful leaders. Similarly, conduct-based theory concluded no universal effective leadership behavior set exists (Bass, 1980; Yukl, 2006). Similar to other noncharismatic leader styles, no attempts have been made to link conduct-based leadership to more charismatic influence forms.

Condition Based Leadership

Condition-based leadership purports leadership in practice is conditionally dependent and suggests leadership behaviors result from context (Hersey, 1985; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). In general, for a leader to practice situational leadership, an environmental assessment, task analysis, and follower talent inventory must be conducted. These three elements change over time. As such, condition-based leadership hypothesizes one leadership style, a singular personality, or fixed behaviors are inadequate for effective headship (Van Seters & Fields, 1990).

Under condition-based leadership, subordinates possess divergent capacities and evolve based on context. Leaders are responsible for achieving follower-environment harmony to arrive at desired results. A useful and concrete leadership approach, condition-based leadership has enjoyed wide application. Useful in many cultures,

condition-based leadership has contributed to a growing focus on leader-follower exchange processes. Based on supportive and directive elements, conduct-based leadership shares similarities with TL's individualized consideration component (House, 1996).

Contingency Based Leadership

Contingency-based leadership attempts to pair leaders with correct situations while combining both condition- and conduct-based leadership facets. Under contingency-based leadership, effectual leadership combines leader and setting. Contingency-based leadership premises hypothesize leader performance depends on many factors, such as leader actions, timing, and follower readiness. Contingency-based theories are descriptive in nature and hold no preferred leadership method (Morgan, 2006; Yukl, 2006).

Situations deemed most favorable possess positive leader-subordinate interaction. Institutions are openly affected by their environments. Leaders must closely monitor and adjust for institution external surroundings. Leadership must be primarily concerned with achieving proper arrangement. Achieving proper arrangement is dependent on follower and environmental considerations. Contingency theory may elucidate why leaders are fruitless in specific positions or particular domains. Contingency-based leadership theory can also be employed to ascertain leader type future effectiveness (Bass, 1980; Burns & Stalker, 1961; Fiedler, 1995). Research work by contingency-based theorists significantly contributed to quid pro quo and TL theory development.

Quid pro quo Based Leadership

Quid pro quo leadership theories are often referred to as social exchange or transactional theories. Conceptually, leader-led exchanges benefit both parties to some degree. Social exchange leadership marks the transition point from leadership behaviors to processes (Bass, 2008; Zigon, 1998).

Social exchange leadership is widely considered a status quo preserving process. Resultantly, most leaders tend to employ transactional leadership. Focusing on short terms goals, quid pro quo leadership processes are normally impersonal and rely on reward or coercive power as influence means. Transactional leaders employ incentives and disincentives to influence followers. As such, transactional leaders leverage external influencers as motive power to achieve conformity (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). Considered short term due to its impacts on followers, social exchange leadership eventually loses impact as followers develop hostility or ambivalence towards compulsion influence methods (Cranium, 2012; Shivers-Blackwell, 2006). As a result, those leveraging coercive power to achieve ends possess far less long-term impact.

Transactional leaders tend to be straightforward and act practically (Vandenberghe, Stordeur & D'hoore, 2002). In order to motivate effectively, quid pro quo leaders appeal to lower level needs (Burns, 1978; Burns, 2003; Chatman & Kennedy, 2008; Hinkin & Schriesheim; 2008; Maslow; 1998). Figure 18 depicts social exchange leadership needs appeal. As the figure indicates, transactional leadership petitions base desires.

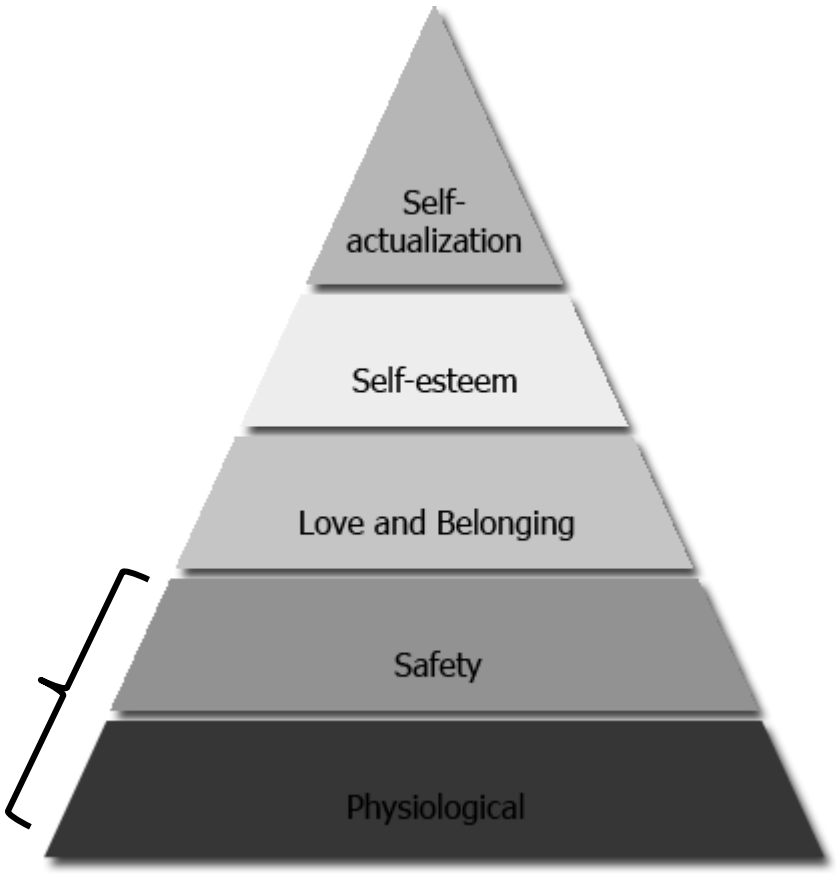

Figure 18. Quid Pro Quo Leadership and Maslow's Hierarchy.

Quid pro quo, social exchange, and transactional leadership processes have been subjected to countless research efforts. Normally investigated as contrasting processes to TL, researchers have concluded effective transactional leaders must understand follower desires and motivations. Resultantly, social scientists have concluded quid pro quo leadership is a necessary component in virtually every organization (Morgan, 2006; Northouse, 2010; Van Eeden, Cilliers & Van Deventer, 2008; Yukl, 2006).

Charismatic Leadership

Between exchange and change leadership practices, the threshold into charismatic leadership is crossed. Crossover occurs due to expertise-based influence vice favor

interchange. House (1976) purported charismatic bosses act in distinctive ways which have a motivational effect on subordinates to produce enthusiastic action. Using behaviors and characteristics such as dominance, self-confidence, positive role-modeling, and competence, House identified trust and leader identification as principle outcomes.

Charismatic leadership definitions define leadership from one of two perspectives: leader and led (House, 1996; House et al., 1991). Leader perspectives articulate personal headship characteristics whose presence influences followers. Conversely, follower perspectives define charismatic leadership from subordinate effects. Both leader and follower perspectives are appropriate and contribute to understanding charismatic leaders (people) and leadership (a process). A synthesized charismatic leadership definition can be defined as an influencing capacity a leader possesses based on exceptional qualities which engage follower self-concepts thereby increasing follower effort in goal accomplishment (Eriksen, 2007; Fiol et al., 1999; Kendall, Murray & Linden, 1998).

Charismatic headship is a profound influence process which foments follower motivation and change. Charisma is a central leadership construct. Charisma presence or absence often determines leader influence in legitimate and shadow systems. As figure 19 depicts, charismatic leadership includes transformational and servant leadership elements (Northouse, 2010; Shaw, 1997; Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko, 2004; Yukl, 2006). Contemporary leadership researchers identified transformational and servant leaders as charismatic leader typologies (McKinney, 2000; Pollard, 2010; Spears, 2005).

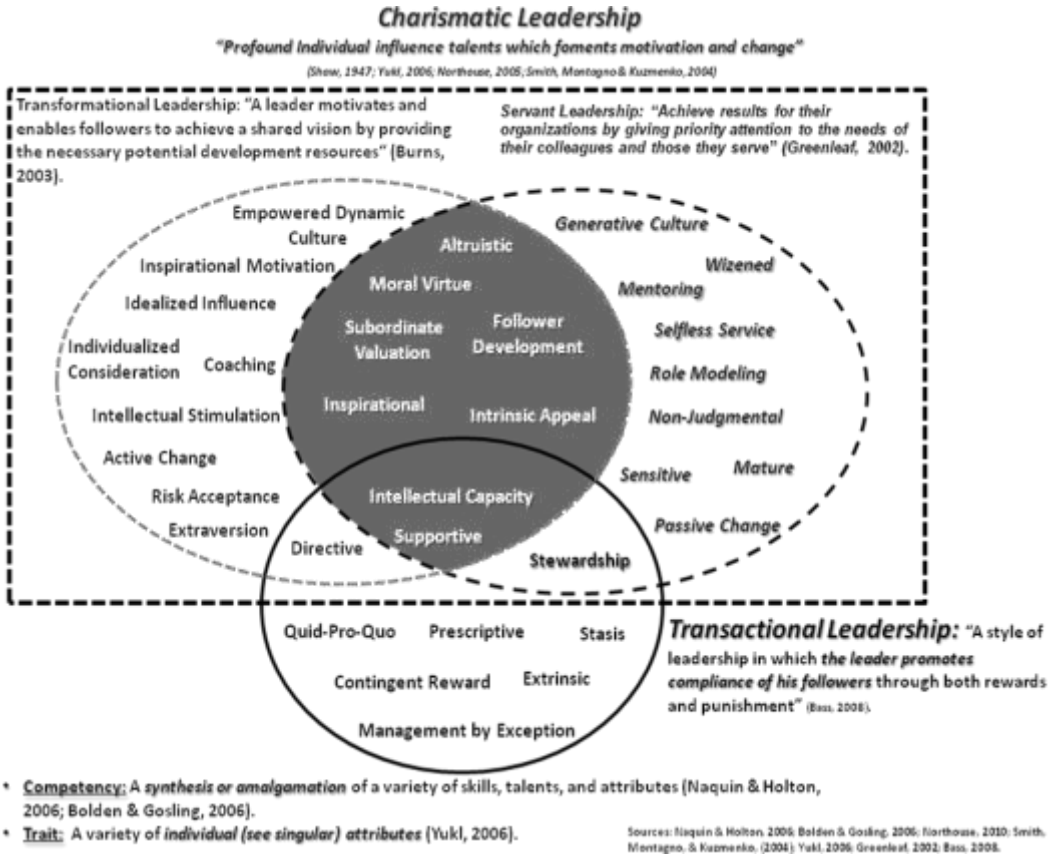

Figure 19. Charismatic Leadership.

Transformational Leadership

One of two charismatic leadership forms, TL is concerned with individual and organizational actualization (Dvir, Dov, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). According to Downton (1973), TL has gained acceptance as an exalted leadership form. Burns (1978) explained transforming leadership recognizes and sets about extracting followers' full potential. Concerned with collective good, TL is designed to heighten individual eudemonia desire (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Brown, 2011; Conger, 2005; McMahon, 2004; Mezirow, 1991). Armed with transcendent purpose, TL targets follower personal and professional state elevation (Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2010; Pink, 2009; Robinson-Hickman, 2010).

TL inspires follower elevation by raising subordinate expectations and motivating them to address higher order needs. Burns articulated four guidance actions leaders undertake to actualize full follower capacities. Known colloquially as the *The Four Is*, these actions are individualized consideration (IC), intellectual stimulation (IS), inspirational motivation (IM), and idealized influence (II) (Avilio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass & Avilio, 1994; Burns, 2003). Figure 20 depicts theoretical transformational leadership structure.

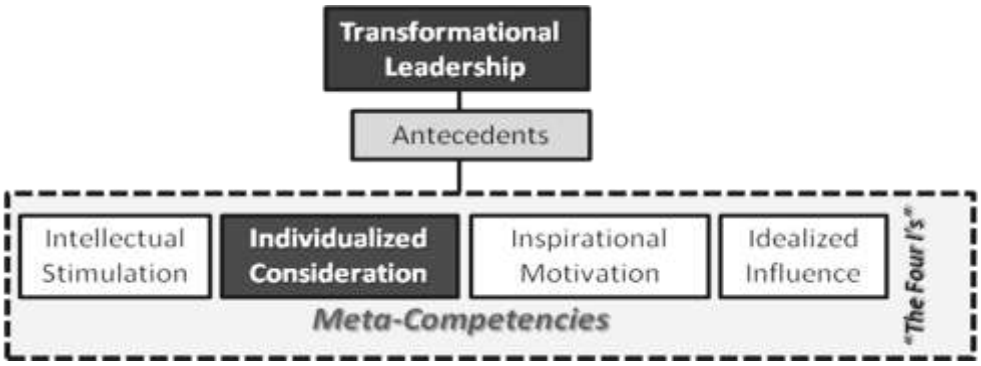

Figure 20. Transformational Leadership's Four I's.

A detailed transformational leadership analysis clearly reveals the *Four Is* to be metacompetencies. Subcompetencies comprise each metacompetency. A competency is not a stand-alone attribute or trait. Conversely, competencies are skill, talent, or attribute syntheses or amalgamations (Bolden & Gosling, 2006; Naquin & Holton, 2006).

Individualized Consideration

Bass and Riggio (2006) suggested leaders should address subordinate self-concepts to gain true change commitment. Through IC, TL motivates subordinates to do more than originally anticipated. Providing individualized consideration requires selflessness on the leader's part. Genuine transformational leaders surrender selfish

wellbeing for useful or ethical ends. If utilitarian, leader efforts serve to benefit larger collectives or individual members. If moral, transformational leaders invoke "the right thing to do" as his or her reason d'être. Individualized consideration is the TL element which usually separates authentic from inauthentic leaders. Acting to lift another from a socially impoverished existence is a universal ethical and moral imperative (Peters, 2008; Toor & Ofori, 2009; Torres, 2003).

Providing individualized consideration requires leader risk acceptance. Andrews (2007) proposed follower progress is not made without calculated risk taking. Bennis and Thomas (2002) echoed this position; putting forth leaders understand follower improvement can be personally risky. As such, many shy away from it. In fact, some leaders habitually hide behind consequence based fallacies to rationalize follower development avoidance. Often, once risks associated with providing IC are identified, follower advancement halts (Kelley, Bacon, Kelley, Baruch & Kelley, 2004; Tapara, 2011).

Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater, and Spangler (2004) posited that through IC, a leader addresses competence, impacts all group elements, and promotes sustained follower progression. Moses (2010) concluded IC is leader coaching, facilitating, teaching and mentoring, and encouraging two-way communications. Finally, TL requires effective listening and task allocation as follower development means (Morrison, 2008). These delegated responsibilities are scrutinized to assess subordinate guidance, support, and effectiveness growth. Leaders expressly attend to specific follower requirements and

problems (Azman, Ismail, & Samsudin, 2008; McGuire & Kennerly, 2006; Moses, 2010).

Servant Leadership

A charismatic kin to TL, servant leadership was likewise an early-1970's development. Given servant and transformative leadership motivational nature, it's not uncommon to see both theories closely connected (Conger, 2008; Yukl, 2006). Deeply embedded in ethical altruism, servant leadership holds leaders are sacrificial in nature and place follower care and welfare before themselves (Greenleaf, 2002; McKinney, 2000). Widely acknowledged as leadership's most mature form, servant leadership combines leader and servant roles, with servant roles achieving primacy (Robinson Hickman, 2010). Given this research effort's targeted population and leader maturity requirements for effective practice, servant leadership is not this inquiry's focus.

Follower Development

The discourse surrounding follower development addresses a fundamental question of who is responsible for follower development. Theorists are split on this issue. Some have suggested follower development as a leader task. Others have put forth follower development as an individual task. A more modern approach suggests follower development is joint effort between leaders and followers.

Leader Responsibility

Both Garcia (2008) and Schwartzman (2008) agree leadership is a persuasion process where a person persuades a follower to fulfill leader purposes. This definition implies leader knowledge of follower best interest. Field (2002) hypothesized leaders are

system focal points, around which institutions organize and derive impetus. Followers often lack necessary unsupervised expansion resources. Therefore, leaders are accountable for follower development.

Some authors have hypothesized only a small percentage of formal training programs actually promote follower learning (McCall, 1998; Tannenbaum, 2007; Zaleznik, 1992). Resultantly, research has placed increased importance on individually tailored developmental interactions such as coaching, tutoring, and peer mentoring (D'abate et al., 2003; Emerson & Loehr, 2008; French & Tiberi, n.d.). Chatman and Kennedy (2008) suggested leader abilites to adapt flexible developmental responses is a critical talent when it comes to energizing follower progress (p. 2). Similarly, Briggs (2007) indicated providing custom-made personalized feedback is a crucial follower improvement feature. Feedback must be individually tailored to achieve desired enhancement effects (p. 13).

Burke (1973) indicated follower encouragement is a foundational leader task. Encouragement is a primary progression catalyst which facilitates follower advancement through individual development stages. Significant leader effort is expended encouraging followers to achieve scholastic, private, and vocational pursuits (Buell; 2004; White, 2005). Figure 21 depicts individual progression through Burke's developmental stages.

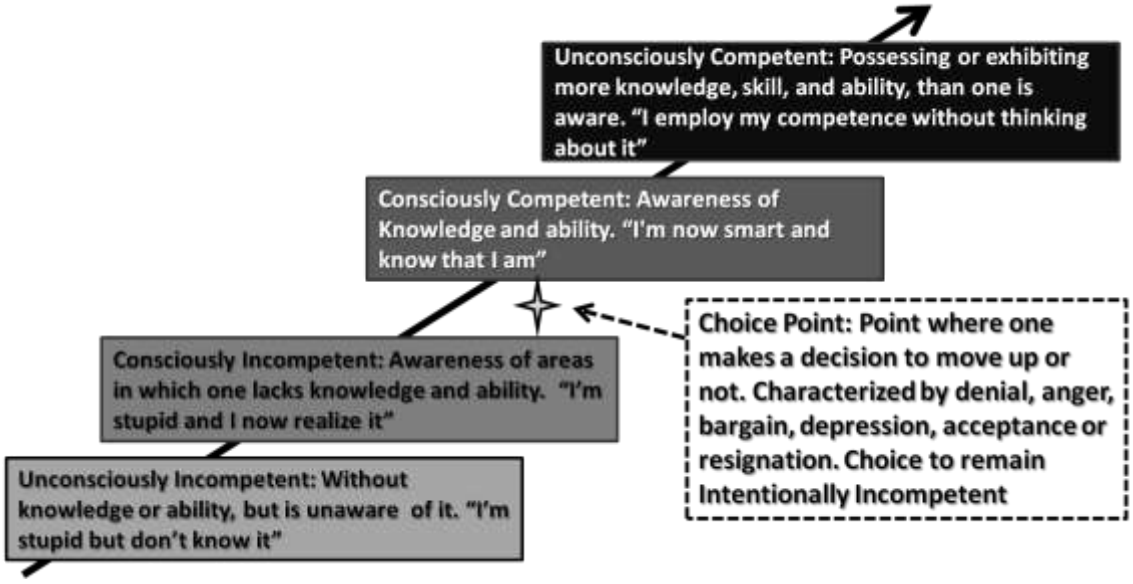

Figure 21. Burke's Progression Stages.

Bennis and Thomas (2002) argued leaders are required to assist followers in finding negative outcome-related meaning. Without leader assistance, followers will reap less (if anything) from trying circumstances. When it comes to conquering adversity, Bennis and Thomas submitted four required leader skills which help followers emerge from crucibles in improved states. These four required skills are (1) capacity to achieve common understanding with others, (2) authoritative and convincing voice, (3) integrity, to include value connection, and (4) ability to transcend adversity and emerge enhanced. Without these four critical meaning-making skills present, little individual advancement is achieved.

Paramount leader tasks are to train, coach, and mentor subordinates. Usually conducted in personalized settings, leaders are called on to engage in specific career and personal growth activities. Identified professional development actions include

developmental instruction, shielding support, responsibility growth, and increasing subordinate recognition. Leader psychosocial support toward followers includes scaffolding behaviors, character replication, directive guidance, and recognition activities (Bennetts, 2002; Gammon, 2002; Kram, 1985; Young & Perrewe, 2000).

TL's individualized consideration is closely tied to follower evolution as a leader responsibility notion. Modassir and Singh (2008) put forth transformational leaders shape and support follower advancement. Through IC, leaders treat followers as distinct individuals.

Follower Responsibility

A second school of thought places subordinate developmental burdens squarely on follower shoulders. Follower-centric developmental approaches assume followers possess necessary advancement seeking means. US Army (2008a) Self-Development Handbook (SDH) directs followers to seek information about their own personal shortcomings and strengths. Similarly, Kent (2005) put forth development is not restricted to leaders. Followers are duty-bound to expand themselves into leaders. Subordinate led approaches assumed follower roles include an advancement requirement. Burk (2003) echoed sentiments followers are obligated to improve themselves, less employer-employee service terms be nullified.

Similarly, Drucker (1999) attributed follower self-development responsibilities to contextual factors. Citing global economy growth and increased environmental complexity, Drucker pragmatically shifted subordinate development responsibility from leaders to followers. Due to wide follower variation, leaders are incapable of tailoring

development programs to fit all follower needs. Unlike leader centric developmental approaches which see follower development as a human capital investment, follower-focused programs require subordinates to acknowledge individual progression responsibilities as an employment condition. Followers are expected to take necessary steps to remain relevantly viable (Ghoshal & Bartlett, 1997).

Shared Responsibility

Shared follower developmental approaches assume subordinate growth to be joint. Envisioned as a paired relationship, subordinate advancement responsibility belongs to both parties. Leaders are responsible for improving their followers, while followers are charged with seeking self-improvement (McCoby, 2000; US Army, 2008c).

Over the past half-century, the US Army (2006, 2007, 2008a, 2008b) has written extensively on follower development. US Army perspectives are that leaders will always be charged with subordinate development. However, this charge does not assuage follower growth and progression obligations. Leader-led developmental dyads charge leaders with conducting follower needs assessments, tailoring work and education, scaffolding desired performance, and providing feedback.

Followers are likewise responsible for their own improvement. Subordinates are required to progress, seek promotions, and accept increased responsibility. Subordinate openness to coaching and mentoring is crucial to follower development. Coaching and mentoring are developmental relationships which focus on follower improvement (Maxwell, 2008). Contemporary follower development literature preeminently establishes leader-led shared development as the preferred method (Kent, Crotts & Aziz,

2001). Many questions as to actual leader impact on follower development remain. Although divergent follower development philosophies exist, leaders are never truly absolved from providing tailored consideration to subordinates.

Leadership (and by extension, followership) is a critical transformative process. More specifically, charismatic transformative or servant leadership serves to power subordinate advancement. Gomez-Mejia et al. (2008) suggested leader transformative drive powers forward progress, in both individuals and organizations. This dissertation research identified and correlated leader-supplied transformative IC with follower development as measured through educational attainment. This correlational research illuminated potential leader obligations toward followers, thereby serving to potentially remediate impoverished student athlete graduation rates.

Student Athletes

American collegiate athletes offer a bounded social poverty investigation study population. In the United States, many collegiate athletes have socially impoverished origins (NCAA, 2005; Whitlock, 2008). Furthermore, numerous collegiate athletes end educational pursuits without an undergraduate degree (NCAA, 2011b). Perhaps no other population offers such a bounded, leader-led, individualized consideration-follower progression study sample.

Established in the early 20th century, the NCAA was formed as a rejoinder to increasing collegiate sports professionalism. As when founded, current NCAA missions are to supervise and regulate scholastic athletics to ensure athletes remain amateurs nested in collegiate student bodies. In the United States, collegiate athletics are envisaged

as non-professional didactic learning opportunities which assist and augment overall student athlete instruction (Meggyes, 2000; NCAA, 2011a/2011b).

NCAA affiliated institutions are categorized into three division (I, II, III) based on student body population. Furthermore, D1 is sub-partitioned into three distinct divisions (D1A, D1AA, D1AAA) based chiefly on institution income creation capacity, arena attendance size, and student population. More than 300 NCAA member schools participate in D1 basketball and more than 100 participate in D1 football. Of these, there are approximately 75 or so which control collegiate athletics' landscape. This analysis focused on three schools which participate at D1 or D2 levels in both sports. Like other D1 and D2 institutions, participating sample schools proffer conspicuous incongruities between espoused educational missions and actual athletic program functioning (Meggyes, 2000).

Despite hyperactive and overtly aggressive NCAA information campaigns to proselytize improved graduation rates among collegiate athletes, academic advancement among this population remains tenuous. Fundamental to scholastic athletic grant arrangements is an overt exchange agreement. Collegiate athletic participants receive a paid-for scholastic experience in exchange for athletic service. Significant current-system questions suggest student athletes don't receive genuine financially translatable degrees as recompense for collegiate sport participation. In most cases, athletes will be left wanting for a financially viable degree. For example, only 13 of 211 (6%) incoming NFL rookie players in 2008 had graduated (Gray, 2005; Hutchison, 2008).

In 2006, NCAA President Brand proffered poor student-athlete classroom performance as a simplistic fallacious stereotype. Citing in-house NCAA statistics, Brand explained NCAA athletes are actually completing degree programs at a rate higher than most students. Brand went so far as to assert improved graduation rates as a landmark NCAA success story (NCAA, 2006). However, closer inspection reveals Brand's media campaign to be primarily NCAA self-serving spin. Given NCAA athlete matriculation records over the past 20 years, the NCAA can significantly improve its processes for countering social poverty among scholastic athletes (Huma, 2012; NCAA, 2011a; Paterno, 2011).

When it comes to social poverty study, collegiate athletes offered a purposive study population. A majority of D1 collegiate basketball and football players come from socially impoverished beginnings. A vast majority leave school without a college degree. Cumulatively, less than one-third (32%) of D1 football and basketball players receive degrees within 6 years. Significant majorities never graduate at all (NCAA, 2011a/2011b).

It is not just student athletes who are failing. Athletic programs are also flawed. More than 80 D1 football and more than 100 D1 basketball programs failed to meet student academic progress requirements. 30% of collegiate football programs fall below NCAA minimum academic progress requirements. Likewise, a quarter of basketball programs fail to meet required student athlete academic milestones (Hamilton, 2005).

Eckard (2010) studied more than 100 U.S. collegiate football and basketball programs and revealed NCAA graduation success statistic manipulation through invalid

comparisons matching athlete and general student body graduation rates. However, student body statistics include sizeable part-time student densities. Part-time university students require longer graduation lead times. Resultantly, part-timer matriculation is worse for set time periods employed by NCAA calculations.

Invalid NCAA statistic manipulation significantly alters elevated NCAA graduation rate claims, as representative scholastic athletes must be fully enrolled. Collegiate athletes must take full course loads. Resultantly, athletes should be compared to other like students. Part-time student inclusion skews NCAA graduation rate data upwardly, making them appear more complimentary. NCAA graduation rates are distorted by part-time bias as much as 20 percentage points for football players and 33% for basketball players. In real numbers, football players are twice as unlikely to graduate as ordinary full-time college students. For collegiate basketball players, regular full time college students are five times more likely to graduate than typical D1 basketball players (Gray, 2005; National Collegiate Athletic Association, 2005; Van Sickle, 2011; Weiberg, 2011).

Dohrman (2007) suggested collegiate athlete educational failure exists at all levels. Poor student athlete graduation rates are not reserved for large D1 schools, but are endemic at all levels. Montana State University which won three Big Sky Conference football titles in seven years (2000-2006), provides a typical exemplar. Montana State's 6-year graduation rate in 2006 was a one-in-five for football and one-in-three for basketball. VanderMey (2009) attributed high failure rates to four factors: (a) the tangible's lure, (b) misplaced trust, (c) family ties, and (d) increased lifestyle

expectations. These factors closely dovetail present time orientation and restrictive horizontal network characteristics found in socially impoverished cultures.

Dodge and Robertson (2004) argued the entire collegiate sport system is rife with examples where moral principle observance is forlornly lacking. Scholastic athletic leaders fill essential communally endorsed positions. These influential positions possess specific privileges and requirements to advance and develop followers (the athletes themselves). Athletic leaders have an overt and expected role to play in athlete moral reasoning skill development by advocating suitable actions and reproving those reckoned intolerable.

Imbued in this follower development sentiment are suggestions collegiate student-athletes are owed more than the minimum requirements offered by transactional athletic scholarship terms (free tuition, room and board, etc.). Researchers argue athletic program leaders own ethical responsibilities associated with developing young people into productive future citizens with expanded attitudes necessary for further life success. Athletic leadership developmental responsibilities, however, do not reside solely on collegiate athletic coach shoulders. Scholastic sports participants themselves are responsible in some measure (Englehorn, 2001; Van Bavel, 2001; Whitlock, 2008).

Athletic leader degree attainment liability is personified by professional athletes. American professional athletes suffer disproportionally from poor financial decision making despite being offered educational and money making opportunities unavailable to most. For example, 78% of former professional football players are destitute within two years of NFL departure. Five years after retirement, an estimated 60% of former

professional basketball players are indigent. Educational attainment potentially solves the old adage that professional athletes are only two paychecks from homelessness (Palanak, 2012). Indisputably, most scholastic sport participants are inadequately equipped for post-collegiate life. Scholastic authorities have hedged most scholastic athletes are unprepared for anything but a professional sports career less than 1% will ever attain (Petrina, 1990; Torre; 2009; VanderMey, 2009).

Closer inspection revealed educational quality measured by future degree potential worth. High quality degrees with real-world application, such as Business and Engineering, hold more latent earning power than nonacademic, entertainment, or cultural study based expertise. Examining degrees earned by NFL players confirms athlete graduate majorities are mostly found among inferior earning capacity degree categories (Hutchinson, 2008; Meggyes, 2000).

Whitlock (2008) and Van Sickle (2011) attributed American collegiate athlete educational failure to culturally imbued belief sets. Strong present time orientation, illegitimacy prevalence, widespread addiction, race-based individualism, low aspirations, and enduring unemployment despite being able bodied reflect social poverty value sets. Socially impoverished value sets serve to restrict social capital produced upward mobility. Both authors agree shifting cultural norms are required to nurture social capital growth.

Social capital and social poverty are inextricably connected in America. Social capital absence serves as precursor for social poverty persistent. Conversely, social capital presence serves to reduce social poverty. Social poverty theory holds social

capital shortcomings directly result in social impoverishment (Bateman & Snell, 2011; Putnam, 2000).

Conclusion

Although a significant leadership and poverty literature body exists, direct links between social poverty and individualized consideration remain circumstantial and unverified. Nor have current gaps in successful poverty remedies been filled. Monetary resource commitments dedicated to solving American poverty ills argue economics are neither poverty's basis nor cure (Holzera et al., 2008; Rasmussen, 2008). As such, different poverty malady remedies must be tried. As of yet untried poverty root cause explanations (other than economics) must be inspected. This analysis' hypothesizes American poverty as a communal condition which serves to keep the poor mired in economic destitution.

To date, few socially impoverished populations provided with vertical network access and opportunities have been studied. No research efforts have offered transformative individualized consideration as a potential social poverty remedy. Connecting leader provided individualized consideration with collegiate athlete educational attainment rates will serve to illuminate potential social poverty remedies. By altering college athlete attrition patterns this study proffers life-long poverty alleviation for America's generationally poor.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

Poverty in the United States and TL has been researched in depth as specific and bounded constructs. However, to date, theoretical connection has not been attempted and not considered directly relevant to one another. Historically, U.S. poverty researchers have focused primarily on societal inequalities and government action or inaction. Similarly, leadership researchers have attended to charisma, leader activities, and headship characteristics. While a rich literature body exists on TL, TL components have not been specifically posited as potential poverty countermeasures. Even fewer research efforts have focused specifically on transformative IC (Koppelman & Rebstock, 2007; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004/2006). IC is a TL metacompetency whereby leaders make supportive and developmental behaviors available to followers thereby powering follower progression.

Adopting a potentially novel antipoverty approach, this study's foundational purpose was to investigate leader provided individualized consideration as a potential poverty remediation measure. This research effort tested for TL presence or absence in selected scholastic sports cultures. As Bass (1988) pointed out, exceptional leadership cultures contain transformational components on multiple levels, which serve to positively impact followers. This chapter contains material regarding research strategy and method, background and sample, collection apparatus and resources, data gathering, statistics assemblage and analysis, and participant confidentiality actions.

Research Design and Approach

A quantitative, nonexperimental, cross sectional design was employed to gauge potential parallel relationships between IC and social poverty. IC presence was hypothesized to positively affect collegiate athlete graduation rates, thereby reducing social poverty in America. An important validated design consideration assumption was college degree possession reduces poverty susceptibility. Automated, on-line, self-administered survey questionnaires were employed. Monetary and time constrained resources, coupled with potential rapid data availability and analysis, served to drive research execution (Fink, 2002).

This study's IV, individualized consideration, was measurable using proven instruments. Aviolo and Bass's (2004) MLQ 5X was used to measure independent variable presence. The DV, scholastic athlete graduation rates, is a member school annual reporting requirement readily available in the public domain. As such, DV data were easily obtainable. The dependent collegiate athlete graduation rate variable is ordinal.

In this case, IV inspection was considered continuous and was measured using parametric tests. Although true Likert scale surveys often employ ordered categories with unequal intervals between scale values, MLQ structure called for fixed intervals between possible responses allowing for continuous measurement. Lubke and Muthen (2004) found it conceivable to achieve accurate parametric values with MLQ 5X Likert scale-type data. In order to ensure accurate data analysis, nonparametric equivalent tests were executed in order to buttress outcome consistency. Also, strong results were required as a findings precondition. A more stringent alpha level (a =.01) was required in order to

reject the null hypothesis (H_o). Figure 22 depicts underlying research methodology and logic.

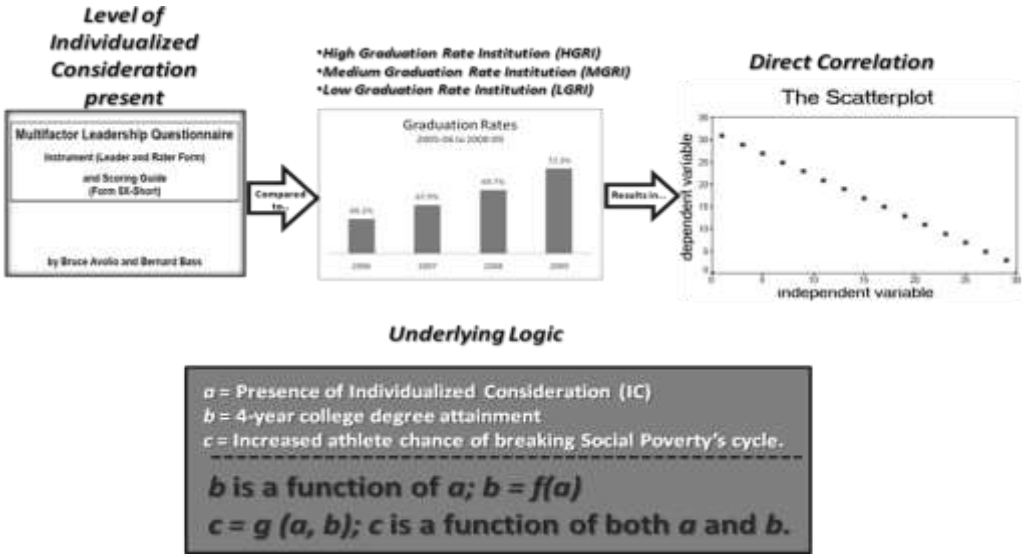

Figure 22. Research Effort Methodology and Logic.

Given IV manipulation possibilities, this experimental research effort offered potential correlational relationships between variables. The quantitative, non-experimental methodological survey design was appropriate because surveys are a recognized data collection means for obtaining exemplar information from a population under study. Survey data collection to determine possible corresponding relationships is a primary quantitative data collection method (Creswell, 2007, pp. 145-146).

Experimental designs have history's strength on their side. Trochim and Donnelly (2008) referred to experimental design as the "gold standard" (p. 186) against which all other design methods are judged. This characterization is due to inherent experimental design internal validity. Experiments are precise research design types and are readily accepted by most disciplines as statistically provable (Sayer, 2005, pp. 195-6). Not only

do experiments leverage random assignment to achieve probalistic equivalence, but given tight controls, experiments offer significant result validation and replication advantages (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008, p. 189).

True Experiments possess some negative effects. For example, given their tightly controlled nature, experimental designs are often criticized for failing to adequately replicate real-world conditions. Requirements to exert positive control over validity threats can lead to cumbersome designs which are unnatural and constrained. As such, experiments can suffer from external validity problems and often results cannot be generalized to broader populations, limiting usefulness to practitioners (Gorad, 2004, pp. 146-48, 161-63).

For this research effort, historically validated 5-point Likert scale questionnaires were administered to collegiate student-athletes and athlete administrators. The MLQ form 5X collects Likert scale-type data and was the appropriate scaling measure because it permits question answers along a continuous scale (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008, p. 133). Athletic program leadership responded to the MLQ leader form 5X. Athletes used the MLQ rater version (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Population and Sample

NCAA institutional members are partitioned into three categories (D1, D2 and D3) based on school size. Potential research effort population and sample included collegiate athletic programs in both D1 and D2. More than 300 NCAA member schools participate in D1 basketball and more than 100 participate in D1 football. As of 1 July 2013, 238 schools participated in D2 athletics. D1 and D2 schools are 4-year institutions

which offer financial assistance in exchange for educational attainment. These institutions possess noteworthy incongruencies between espoused educational missions and actual athletic program functioning. D3, NAIA, and junior colleges schools do not offer exchange based athletic scholarships and were therefore deemed outside the perspective population and sample (Meggyes, 2000; NCAA, 2012). Figure 23 depicts the NCAA school divisions and those selected for this research effort.

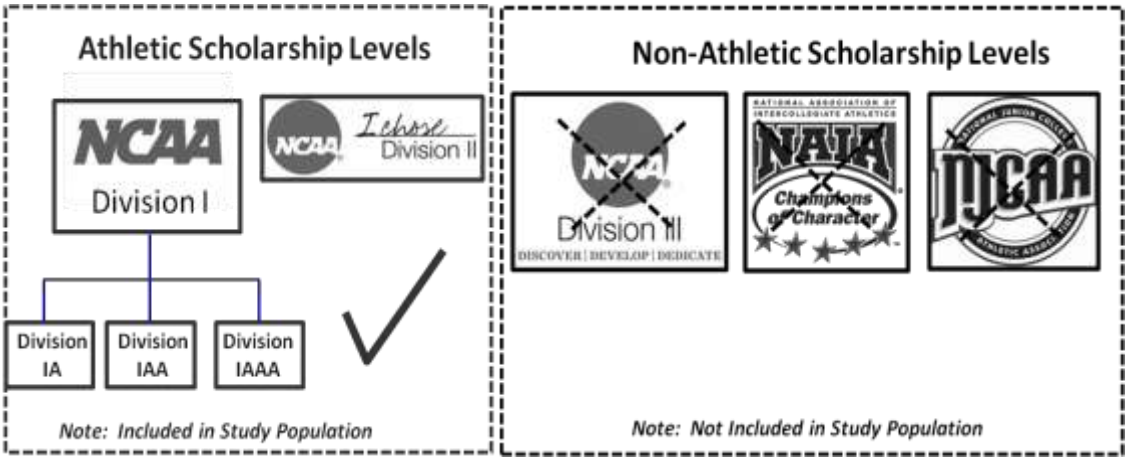

Figure 23. Population Schools.

A convenience based two-stage sample was drawn. First, schools within 100 miles were grouped into three types: LGRI, MGRI, and HGRI. Using historical graduation data provided the NCAA, questionnaires were administered to one High Graduation Rate Institution (HGRI = above 80% of all enrolled athletes), two Medium Graduation Rate Institutions (MGRI = 51-79% of all enrolled athletes), and one Low Graduation Rate Institution (LGRI= 50% or less of all enrolled athletes). According to the NCAA (2011), average graduation success rates (GSR) for D1 schools was 64%.

Average academic success rates for D2 schools (ASR) were 73% (NCAA, 2012). Both ASR and GSR are similarly measured and employ identical measurement criteria.

There were approximately 65 D1 and D2 colleges and universities within a 100 mile radius. Three were required to produce a sufficient sample size. Each cluster unit was numbered in a serial fashion from #100 to #165 using a Z-shaped pattern to ensure randomness. Using Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2008), and dropping the five number set's last two numbers, three schools with the numbers 164, 166, and 161 served as Stage 1 random school sample (p. 170). School approval was achieved through each representative institution IRB. Participating school approval letters were included as part of this inquiry's IRB application and are attached in Appendix F.

The second random sampling stages intended to select athletes and athletic administrators as survey participants. An athlete and athletic leaders listing was collected from three chosen schools' athletic administration offices. Sample participants were numbered from 1-n. Initial analysis indicated there were approximately 150 potential sample participants from each school selected. As a result, sample participants were assigned a three-digit number code. Using Column 2 in Appendix D of Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2008), the first 50 participants with a number code starting in "1" or "0" that fall between 0 and 150 (Example: 123, 010, 045, etc.) were selected as sample members. Each participant had an equal 2.5% sample selection chance.

A minimum of 30 questionnaires per school were required to validate potential individualized consideration presence. Given financial limitations and at least one school type in the indigenous area, local D1 and D2 institutions were leveraged. Not only were

student athletes asked to rate athletic leadership to ascertain individualized consideration presence, supervisors rated peers as leaders (ratees). Aviolo and Bass (2004) recommended wide MLQ distribution within a specific culture in order to fully ensure rater nonattribution. This recommendation was followed to ensure internal validity. Figure 24 depicts the two stage sampling procedure.

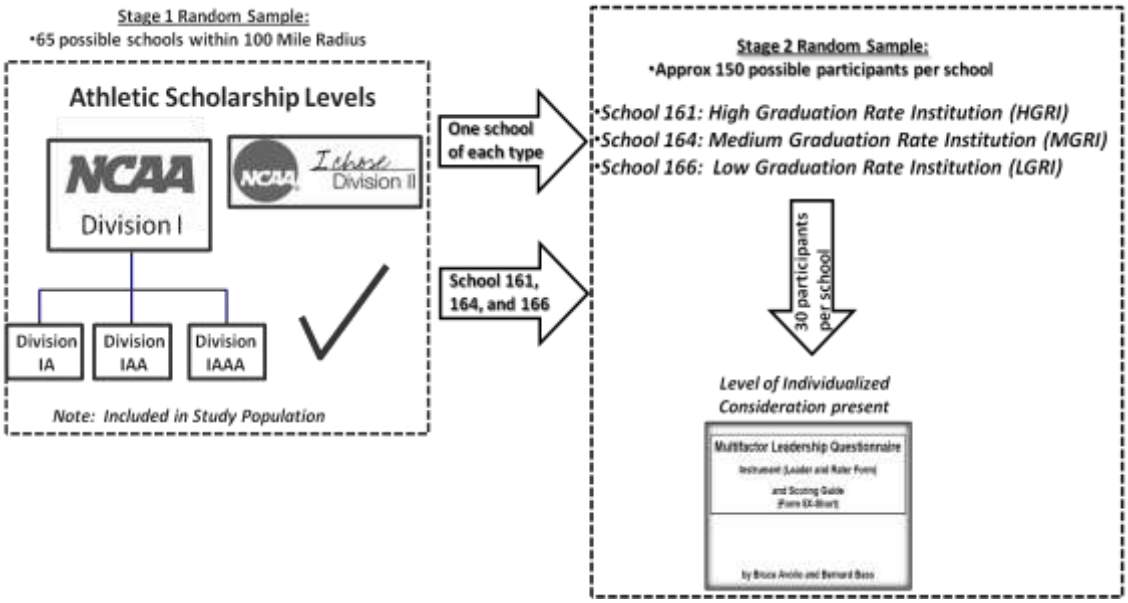

Figure 24. Two-Stage Sampling Procedure.

Instrumentation

Originally created and validated in 1985, Bass' initial MLQ form 5R tested for six leadership factors. All six factors were intellectual stimulation (IS) and IC subcomponents. For over quarter-century, literally hundreds of studies have linked 63 MLQ versions to leader effectiveness (Antonakis et al., 2003; Dum dum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002). Used extensively in field and laboratory research, MLQ tests major

leadership aspect presence or absence ranging from impotent uncharismatic laissez faire through compelling servant charismatic leadership. The MLQ not only gauges leadership evasion sensitivities which denote leader obligation avoidance, but also detects assessed leadership perceptions which increase follower performance (Bass, 1998).

The MLQ has been employed in more than 30 nations and leveraged in virtually all societal segments, from international billion-dollar corporations to local nonprofits. The MLQ is history's most-widely used leadership evaluation tool. MLQ outcomes have been remarkably stable, with outcomes remaining constant for direct subordinates as well as like stratum peers (Seltzer, Numerof, & Bass, 1989).

The MLQ 5X evolved from initial MLQ 5R survey criticisms. Most substantive MLQ 5R complaints focused on excessive correlational skews among transformational components. Similarly, objections regarding synthesized social interactions and unique charismatic leadership actions also provided form 5R change impetus. Successive MLQ 5R factor analyses identified baseline items demonstrating consistent categorical validities. Resultant MLQ 5X instruments have been multi-source amalgamations employed in more than 500 different studies. MLQ popularity alone serves as testament to its inherent quality and utility (Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008).

Robust construct validity and reliability are significant employment advantages offered by MLQ Form 5X. Employed 5X forms used in this study offer high construct validity based on multiple reanalyses using a nine sample set cross-validation strategy. Multiple reanalyses produced reliabilities ranging from .74 to .94, which significantly surpassed standard internal consistency measures. Similarly, two distinct 3,860

respondent studies, conducted four years apart (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 2000), reported reliabilities which were largely consistent when MLQ leadership factors were measured across 14 independent samples (N = 2,154) from international firms and agencies.

Sample participants implementing MLQ assess how recurrently, or in what amount, 32 specific leader behaviors were perceived. Among these 32 behaviors is TL's individualized consideration. MLQ for 5X scores can serve an evaluative research functions as well as facilitate institutional procedural change. MLQ responses examine both individual and organizational leadership profiles. MLQ results can be leveraged to evaluate organizational leadership cultures when related to explicit cumulative leadership effectiveness benchmarks. Resultantly, MLQ 5X can be used with individuals or collectively to form pertinent group-wide judgments (Avolio & Bass, 1995).

Research findings conclude chronological age does not correlate to MLQ-measured leader effectiveness. Likewise, no indications exist to suggest skewed ratings based on race or ethnicity. However, female leaders tend to have elevated TL scores when matched against male colleagues (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen, 2003).

MLQ recognition as the preeminent leadership inventory instrument is universal. Muenjohn and Armstrong's (2008) confirmatory factor analysis of 138 multi-source data cases reinforced MLQ structural validity. Muenjohn and Armstrong's nine-item factor examination proved to be statistically significant, demonstrating the MLQ "appropriately and adequately" (p. 3) encapsulates full leadership aspect ranges.

Data Collection and Methodology

The IV, IC, was collected using MLQ form 5X. Subsequent MLQ 5X scoring determined individualized consideration presence level. MLQ 5X five point scale system scoring expected to reveal divergent transformative leadership scores embedded in their respective cultures. Essentially, four MLQ 5X Leader/Rater questions (numbers 14, 15, 19, and 29) were used to ascertain selected university athletic program IC levels. Research hypothesis anticipated higher MLQ average question scores would result in observable corresponding graduation rate increases. MLQ was not administered in full, and only data impacting individualized consideration was analyzed. DV data were collected using 2012 NCAA Graduation Success Rates (GSR) data base for D1 schools or Academic Success Rates (ASR) data base for D2 schools.

Data collected from MLQ 5X administration and NCAA scholastic success rate statistics answered descriptive and inferential research questions and tested corresponding hypotheses:

H_1: Statistically significant differences exist in collegiate athlete graduation rates in relation to individualized consideration occurrence in given scholastic athletic program cultures.

H_o: No statistically significant differences exist in collegiate athlete graduation rates in relation to individualized consideration occurrence in given scholastic athletic program cultures.

Descriptive Question 1 (DQ1): To what extent are scholastic athletic programs providing individualized consideration (IC) to its student-athletes? (This question tests for independent variable presence.)

Descriptive Question 2 (DQ2): What are student-athlete graduation rates in these particular universities? (This question tests the dependent variable.)

Descriptive Question 3 (DQ3): What supportive and/or developmental leadership behaviors positively impact socially impoverished followers? (This question attempts to isolate and indentify effective transformative leader follower development behaviors.)

Inferential Question (IQ1): To what extent does individualized consideration (IC) relate to student-athlete graduation rates? (This question tests correlated strength between independent and dependent variables.)

Detailed research and reflective journals were kept to capture relevant anecdotal data. Thorough contextual and environmental information were collected. Unsolicited participant feedback, topic-related questions, and pertinent behavioral observations were recorded and analyzed for insights and trends.

Data Analysis

Statistical test appropriateness for this research effort was contingent on independent and dependent variable nature. For this analysis' purpose, IV data were continuous. Nominative DV nature (HGRI, MGRI, LGRI) made it ordinal. An ANOVA was conducted to ascertain relationships between one IV and one DV. Research inquiry goals included correlated forecasting. A Spearman's Rho (r_s) correlational analysis was conducted to validate extrapolations against acquired data so as to fit a predictive model

to an observed phenomenon. Future DV performance was extrapolated from given statistical information.

Inquiry statistical test assumptions were as follows: First, testing assumed variables to be regularly dispersed. Each variable was assumed to be generally distributed regardless of the other variable. Furthermore, both variables were assumed to be normally distributed at all levels. The second assumption was population random sample units were discreet from other variable unit scores. Finally, this research assumed study participant deviations based on cultural differentiations would be significantly reduced by using regionally similar universities with consistent demographics (Green & Salkind, 2008, p. 258).

Data were analyzed using SPSS version 21.0. Both descriptive and parametric statistics were computed and are depicted in Chapter 4. Screening and data cleansing was mechanically completed following data collection and entry. No outliers or data corruption, were found. Five surveys were returned incomplete and were omitted from the final data set.

A correlation makes no deductive supposition as to one variable's impact on the other and is not concerned with variable causality; instead correlations provide approximate calculations as to variable relationship degree. Correlation essentially tests whether variables are interdependently connected. Given a change in one variable should be associated with a change in the second, a correlation analysis was conducted to test association statistical significance. Linear association strength between two variables is quantified by correlation coefficient (Yan, 2009).

Independent variable presence and IV-DV statistical relationship were examined in order to calculate Spearman's Rho (r_s). IV-DV relationships were further analyzed for monotonic variance. This research effort intended to determine if university graduation rates increased as elevated individualized consideration levels were found present in athletic programs cultures.

After computing Spearman's Rho (r_s) and determining linear dependence does indeed exist, a simple two variable regression analysis was conducted to determine variable strength relationship. Chapter 4 includes regression statistics. Using regression equations, dependent variable presence may be surmised from the independent variable. A strong positive covariant relationship exists between variables as evidenced by a .77 significance level. IV coefficient size indicates independent variable strength on the dependent variable. In this case, $r_s(210) = .77$ strongly suggest a large dependent variable effect. Table 10 provides coefficients (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). Figure 25 illustrates Spearman's Rho *(r_s)* continuum.

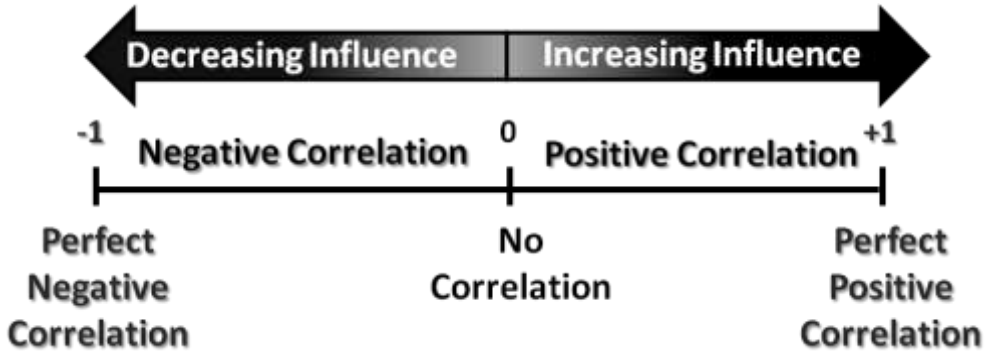

Figure 25. Spearman's Rho (r_s) Continuum.

Researchers indicated potential linkages between individualized consideration presence and collegiate athlete graduation rates. For example, HGRI institutions such as Notre Dame, Duke, and Stanford have long been assumed to provide athletes tailored leadership to ensure degree attainment. However, to date, individualized consideration has not been significantly associated with athlete graduation rates in any meaningful form (Green & Salkind, 2008).

Reliability and Validity

All three validity types (content, empirical, and construct) applied to this research effort). Trochim and Donnelly (2008) identified content validity as how well an instrument inculcates research effort theoretical base. Given rich MLQ 5X form history, repeated validation efforts, and strong theoretical connections, this research effort possesses high content validity. MLQ 5X questionnaires inculcate full conceptual attribute ranges inherent to greater leadership theory. Strong face validity is also evident in the MLQ 5X (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008).

Singleton and Straits (2005) defined empirical validity as a measuring instrument which produces relationships parallel to existing connections between variables measured in the external world (pp. 99-102). In this research effort, interval level statistical data analysis supported study drawn conclusions. As such, empirical validity is assessed as high. In this case, MLQ 5X surveys revealed divergent individualized consideration levels between HGRI, MGRI, and LGRI institutions. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2008) pointed out relationships between measuring instruments and measured outcomes should be consistent (pp. 149-50).

Construct validity refers to logical research effort connections to theoretical constructs upon which operationalization is based. In short, research study construct validity is based on how closely the concrete research plan mirrored the ideal. As Sayer (2005), suggested, MLQ 5X is this research effort's operationalization (p. 25). With more than 25 years of validated results, MLQ 5X reflects foundational theories directly impacting this research.

Based on theoretical survey approach, ambiguous temporal precedence threats have been controlled. Although this correlational research effort does not attempt to determine causality, design does permit variable parallel occurrence determination. As such, significant interrelationships consequence certainty has been achieved (Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002).

Predictive validity was achieved by surveying schools at graduation rate continuum extremes. MLQ 5X surveys were administered to all three school types, leveraging tested polar extremes to establish individualized consideration baseline presence (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008, p. 60). Given this operationalization type has not been attempted to date, achieving convergent or discriminate validity was not possible. Other instruments which specifically deal with individualized consideration were not included in this research effort.

Internal validity threats were controlled to ensure proper inferences were reached. Previously validated questionnaire use, random sampling procedures, mechanical data analysis, and anonymous questionnaire administration significantly aided internal validity (Daniel, 2011). Levine and Parkinson (1994) indicated confounding threats exist in

correlational research designs. This research effort was no exception. DV modifications may be attributable to numerous moderating variables. Other contributory inferences may be logically derived. However, tightly focused surveys served to capture individualized consideration impact. This exploratory effort is not intended to dismiss or marginalize other potential inquiry avenues. Additive, interactive, selection, history, maturation, attrition, and testing threats were assessed and countered.

Positive validity threat control requirements routinely lead to cumbersome, unnatural, and constrained research designs. These designs suffer from external validity problems which cannot be generalized to broader populations, limiting practical usefulness (Gorad, 2004). Straightforward and uncomplicated research effort design supported correlational data collection while allowing for broad generalization to wider populations.

A significant MLQ 5X strength is direct connections to leadership's theoretical base. Given previous research shortcomings connecting leadership and poverty theories, this research effort was wide-ranging and exploratory. Any researcher bias was eliminated by strictly adhering to MLQ 5X results and employing proximal similarity modeling techniques to ensure precise population transferability (Aviolo & Bass, 2004).

In terms of external validity, generalizability from small sample groups to a wider population was ensured through random sampling techniques, statistical data analysis, and trend scrutiny. Study outcome transferability was enhanced by execution in four different places with four distinct sample sets across significantly divergent timeframes (Green & Glasgow, 2006). Given distinctly unique contextual poverty and collegiate

athletic sports circumstances, external generalizability was limited to greater United States and Canadian university settings. External validity was ensured through restrictive extrapolation procedures.

Under correlational studies, transferability is limited when outcomes may be due to causes other than the independent variable. This generalizability threat is acknowledged and this research effort was strictly intended to ascertain independent variable potential to positively impact the DV. This research was not intended to arrive at exclusivity, but to open further potential research explorative avenues (Piovani, 2008).

Campbell's (2004) proximal similarity modeling techniques were employed to enhance transferability. Contextual similarity gradients were examined. Five prevailing proximity factors were used when generalizing results: school athletic program functioning, student athlete demographics, school size, language, and school location. Proximal similarity modeling resulted in transferability to populations possessing similar cultural norms. Research effort findings were generalized to like milieus possessing relative similarities. Generalizing and transferability are never accomplished with certitude. However, proximity similarity modeling trends and generalities were used to forecast behaviors among comparable groups.

Where internal and external validity are determined by instrument ability to actually accomplish intended measurements and transferability, reliability is found in trustworthiness. In this case, trustworthiness was resident in consistent measurement from one observation to the next (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). MLQ 5X internal consistency has been repeatedly tested, analyzed, and corroborated. MLQ 5X Cronbach *a*

scores routinely range between .74-.94, indicating sturdy overall scale reliability (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 2000; Givens, 2011; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008).

Confidentiality and Ethical Assurance

Participant confidentiality was protected through anonymous log-in and random user code sequencing. Participant survey responses were encoded to protect participant confidentiality and ensure anonymity. Data gathering and entry was solely researcher executed and no outside parties were given access to compiled data. Per institutional IRB guidelines, each participant provided implied consent prior to survey execution.

Only participant responses were entered into master SPSS files. Resultantly, individual responses cannot be associated with participants or specific organizations. Participant names were not collected and names do not appear in analyzed data. Throughout the research effort, singular researcher access to SPSS data ensured confidentiality. Data are currently electronically stored in two locations to ensure a back-up data set is available should the initial data set be compromised. Both sites are password protected as well as physically secured. All survey responses have been digitized and will be stored for a 5-year period minimum using remotely stored secure digital media. Files containing request letters and response forms are separate from analyzed data and only the researcher has access.

Potential interest conflicts were deemed minimal. Investigator possessed no formal, work, employment, or personal relationships with participants or participating universities. No adverse action potential toward participants exists and participation

refusal had/will have no impact. Offered incentives were minimal to preclude monetary incentive bias.

Summary

Need to identify new potential approaches for breaking American social poverty cycles is well documented. This research effort explored (a) overarching poverty theory, (b) social poverty theory, (c) greater leadership theory, (d) TL, and (e) IC, connecting them in a manner suggesting possible poverty diminution through improved scholastic athlete educational attainment. Furthermore, research efforts employed mature athletic programs, augmenting validity. Programs were considered mature if said program participated in D1 or D2 athletics for at least 25 years. Similarly, an instrument with superb historical validity was employed.

A research gap exists in linking leadership constructs to poverty reduction. Identifying culturally embedded leadership behaviors which serve to foment educational progression opens promising advancement paths in countering generationally transferred poverty. Understanding leadership characteristics which serve to further collegiate athlete degree fulfillment should serve to significantly increase graduation rates (and thereby lower poverty rates) among a high-need demographic (Livestrong, 2011).

Although social poverty may never be eliminated in the United States, to limit another's impoverishment to the greatest possible extent is an inherently moral human endeavor. Study results inform potential collegiate athletic administration in the United States, may increase collegiate athlete academic success rates, and enlightens U.S. public policy in regards to scholastic athletic leadership requirements.

Chapter 3 was a description of quantitative research survey methodology, overarching study method, and its justification. Chapter 3 included study design, investigative approach, research questions, sample selection procedures, data collection, and data analysis processes. Chapter 4 is a description of the survey study findings, data analysis, results interpretation, and outcomes. Chapter 5 includes the study conclusion, implications, and recommendations.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

In this chapter, analyses used to answer the four study research questions and test two research hypotheses are presented. Data collection methods are initially described, followed by data inspection, reliability analyses, outcomes, and findings. Chapter 4 will conclude with an overall results summary.

This quantitative study's purpose was to test for a parallel relationship between individualized consideration's (IC) practice and collegiate athlete graduation rates in order to identify and isolate possible social poverty remediation measures. In order to ascertain IC effectiveness as a poverty countermeasure, an existing correlational relationship between IC recurrence and educational attainment was hypothesized. IC served as the study's IV. Socially impoverished college athlete graduation rates served as the study's DV. IC's confirmation as an uplifting force potentially increases athlete graduation rates, which may be of critical import to those mired in socially impoverished conditions.

Two hypotheses, three descriptive research questions, and one inferential research question served to frame this investigation. First, the research hypothesis presupposed (H_1) statistically significant differences exist in collegiate athlete graduation rates in relation to individualized consideration presence in scholastic athletic program cultures. A hypothesis which claimed no statistically significant differences exist in collegiate athlete graduation rates in relation individualized consideration presence or absence served as the null (H_o).

DQ 1 was asked to ascertain extent to which scholastic athletic programs provide IC to student-athletes. DQ1 tested for independent variable presence. DQ2 tested for dependent variable density. DQ2 bridged independent and dependent variables by probing student-athlete graduation rates in particular universities. DQ3 sought to positively identify supportive and/or developmental leadership behaviors which impact socially impoverished followers. As such, DQ3 investigated possible social poverty remediation behaviors amongst collegiate athletes. Finally, IQ1 was used to draw conclusions about the extent to which IC related to student-athlete graduation rates. IQ1 tested relationship validity between independent and dependent variables.

Two research questions (DQ1 and DQ3) were answered using MLQ form 5X instruments. Remaining research questions were answered using external data resources and correlational statistical analysis. Table 2 depicts relationships between research queries and MLQ 5X extract instrumented questions:

Table 2

Research Question to Instrument Link

Research Question	Associated MLQ 5X Extract Question
DQ1: To what extent are scholastic athletic programs providing individualized consideration (IC) to its student-athletes?	Questions 15, 19, 29, and 31 used collectively
DQ3: Descriptive Question 3 (DQ3): What supportive and/or developmental leadership behaviors positively impact socially impoverished followers?	Questions 15, 19, 29, and 31 used reductively

This chapter is a description and presentation of data collection procedures, sample characteristics, participant transferability, arithmetic results, detailed statistical analyses, and summarized research question answers. Chapter 4 preludes future inquiry avenues discussed in Chapter 5.

Data Collection

Data were collected over a 3 week period at four Midwestern Division I (D1) and Division II (D2) universities with varying student athlete graduation rates. Data were collected for 210 students across a five point Likert scale where higher scores are deemed better. One high graduation rate institution (HGRI), two medium graduation rate institutions (MGRI), and one low graduation rate institution (LGRI) were used. 366 participants from four institutions were contacted. The response rate was 57.3% (210/366). At least 50 responses were received from respective school types. Original research effort designs called for only one school of each type. However, data collection at the first MGRI did not reach intended participant goals. As such, a second MGRI was leveraged to achieve response density necessary to ensuring validity.

Sample participants were recruited through participating university athletic departments. Each participating school athletic department was provided a soliciting email narrative to be sent to volunteer student-athlete participants. Given four disparate participating school approval and operating procedures and divergent IRB endorsement requirements, school representatives agreed to support an survey on-line format to reduce participating school disruption.

Participating Sample

During collection effort execution, planned sampling techniques became increasingly convenience based. Although originally intended to be probability based two-stage random sample, individual participants were not selected in complete adherence with intended methods. First stage sampling (school selection) was accomplished according to approved plan. However, individual participant selection was more nonprobablity based than originally projected. As Trochim (2006) indicated, this is not uncommon in research efforts, especially if college students are involved. Given survey collection occurred during midterm exam weeks for many student athletes, original second stage selection procedures became unfeasible and impractical. Due to time constraints and midterm exams, regular student and administrative routines were disrupted, causing a shift in sample participant selection.

Daniel (2011) indicated issues arise with pragmatic sampling when population representation evidence is lacking. However, in this instance, because the study sample was drawn from originally intended student-athlete populations, internal and external validly were not compromised. Internal validity concerns were offset by increasing sample size by more than double (90 to 210).

Participant make-up was very similar to the greater collegiate student-athlete demographic. As Table 3 below indicates, sample participant levels were commensurate with actual NCAA student athlete participation rates. Participant sample possessed a 1.4% (0.014) average deviation from typical National Collegiate Athletic Association reported student athlete demographic composition (NCAA, 2010a).

Table 3

Participant vs. NCAA Student-Athlete Demographics

Ethnicity/Gender	Total Responses	Participation %	Actual College Athlete Population %	Over/Under Representation Percentage
Caucasian Male (CM)	67	73.6%	71.6	+2.0%
Caucasian Female (CF)	90	75.6%	78.1%	-2.5%
African American Male (AM)	14	15.3%	18.7%	-3.4%
African American Female (AF)	16	13.4%	11.6%	+1.8%
Hispanic Male (HM)	3	3.3%	3.0%	+0.3%
Hispanic Female (HF)	3	2.5%	2.4%	+0.1%
Asian/Pacific Islander Male (APIM)	1	1.0%	1.2%	-0.2%
Asian/Pacific Islander Male (APIF)	3	2.9%	1.5%	+1.0
Not Categorized Male (NCM)	6	5.2%	N/A	N/A
Not Categorized Female (NCF)	7	5.9%	N/A	N/A

Generalizability

In comparative studies, transferability can be limited when outcomes may be due to reasons other than the independent variable. This inquiry acknowledges transferability

threats and intended to ascertain independent variable potential to positively impact the dependent variable. Result exclusivity was neither intended nor sought, but to open potentially novel research avenues (Piovani, 2008).

Campbell's (2004) proximal similarity modeling techniques were employed to enhance transferability. Five prevailing proximity factors were used when generalizing results: school athletic program functioning, student athlete demographics, school size, language, and school location. Proximal similarity modeling permits transferability to populations which have similar cultural norms. Research findings were generalized to other milieus which possess relative similarities. Generalizing and transferability are never accomplished with certitude (Bordieu, 1986). However, proximity similarity modeling trends and generalities can be used to forecast behaviors among comparable groups. Figure 26 depicts sample, modeled criteria, and larger population.

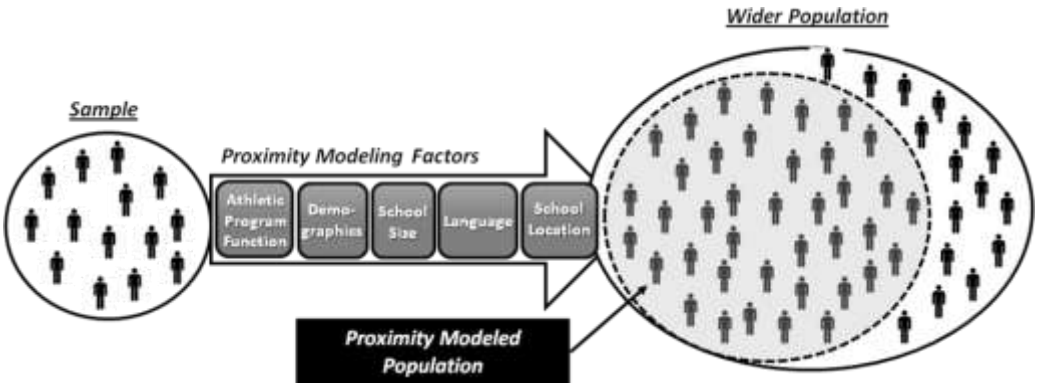

Figure 26. Proximity Modeled Generalization

Initially, athletic department functioning was employed as a proximity factor. In order to be generalized to, schools must participate in D1 or D2 athletics in a core sport.

Core sports programs are considered basketball, volleyball, soccer, and football. Collegiate athlete graduation rate debates surround specific athlete participation in these sports. Results were generalized to those schools which participated in core sports. Additionally, proximal schools must have "pay-for-play" athletic systems. Without an overt quid pro quo transaction compensation system, athlete graduation rate motivations are significantly altered. As such, generalizations are not readily transferrable to smaller D3, NAIA schools, and junior colleges.

Proximal school demographics were required to be within NCAA reported student-athlete statistical tolerances (less than a 5% average deviation). Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) fell outside study demographic tolerance. Study generalizations were limited to the remaining 559 D1 and D2 schools not considered HBCUs. Figure 27 depicts school ratios.

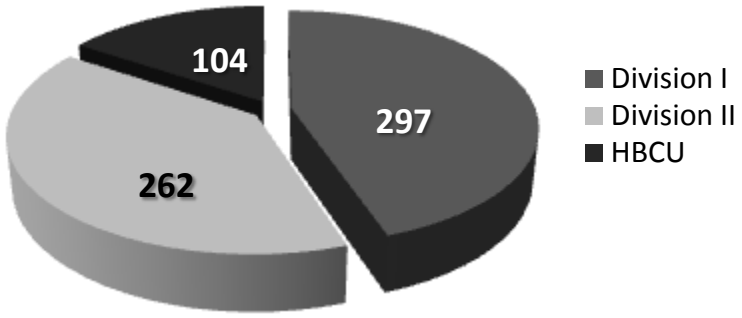

Figure 27. Division I-II Historical Black College Density.

School size was used as an extrapolation criterion. Prevailing memes suggest smaller schools generally have higher graduation rates. NCAA D1 and D2 universities

and colleges tend to have larger student bodies than D3, NAIA, and junior college counterparts. Resultantly, findings were generalized only to those students who attend D1 and D2 schools

School location was used to scope applicable populations. Only universities and schools located in North America were considered part of the larger generalizable population. Although English-speaking US and Canadian universities exist across globally, significant contextual and cultural factors serve to impact athlete graduation rates which are not found in U.S. and Canadian based universities. Cultural and contextual factors include religious beliefs, linguistic considerations, power distances, and societal economic and administration structures.

Given linguistic impact on leader-led exchange processes, only those schools with English as a primary instructional language were generalized to. Language nuance often serves to significantly mute transformational leadership influence. Tapara (2011) asserted that leader-led dyad common understandings are heavily language dependent. Trustworthiness and authenticity are critical transformative exchange components. Language serves to convey crucial leader qualities to subordinates.

Resultantly, 84% of U.S. collegiate athletes (more than 336,000 annually) can be generalized to. Similarly, 52 Canadian universities with approximately 7200 athletes shared common proximal similarities and can be generalized to as well. Given 210 responses (73 LGRI, 59 MGRI, and 78 HGRI), the manner in which these responses were attained, and proximal criterion application, the research population is strongly and

proportionally representative thus ensuring relevant external validity. Figure 28 depicts the responses by school type:

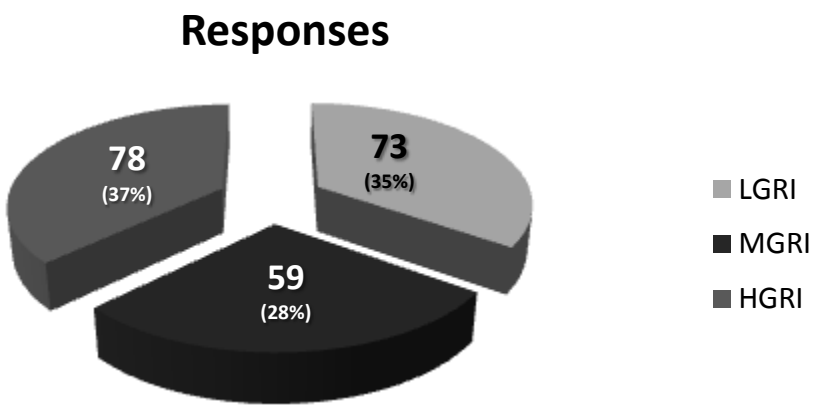

Figure 28. Response by School Type.

Results

Data were collected for 210 students across a five point Likert scale where higher scores were deemed better (0 = *Not at all* and 4 = *Frequently*, if not always). Statistical means and standard deviations were conducted on coaching and mentoring (CM), individual recognition (IR), personal aspirations (PA), self-improvement facilitation (SI), and individual consideration (IC) by school type. Three school types were recognized. Recognized school types were (LGRI), medium (MGRI), and high graduation rates (HGRI). Means and standard deviations are presented in Table 4 by graduation rate.

Table 4

School Type Means and Standard Deviations

Variable	LGRI		MGRI		HGRI	
	M($\bar{x}$)	SD(σ_x)	M($\bar{x}$)	SD(σ_x)	M($\bar{x}$)	SD(σ_x)
Coaching and mentoring (CM)	1.25	1.09	2.61	1.07	3.17	0.90
Individual recognition (IR)	0.70	0.72	1.22	0.87	1.97	0.99
Personal aspirations (PA)	0.71	0.75	1.02	0.68	1.82	0.99
Self-improvement (SI)	1.26	0.91	1.93	0.96	2.99	0.92
Individual consideration (IC)	0.98	0.69	1.69	0.60	2.49	0.75

Some general inclinations can be extrapolated from collective central data tendency scores. Descriptive statistical analyses reveal three significant trends and characterize the data set in the following ways. Virtually all response scores were within acceptable dispersion ranges. For example, standard deviations scores remained strongly consistent over four measured areas as well as in regards to composite individualized (IC) consideration scores. Although developmental leadership scores (CM and SI) were more widely dispersed (σ_x=1.14 vs. 0.92) than supportive leadership scores (IR and PA), diffusion was insufficient to adversely affect generalization. Resultantly, only marginal response score biases were present, reliability was inveterately supported, and internal validity was sustained.

A clear and inimitable trend indicated IC employment frequency increased as graduation rates rose. As graduation rates increase, individualized consideration was found in increasing amounts within given athletic program cultures. As central tendency calculations indicate, HGRIs routinely practiced developmental leadership and drove follower self-improvement while providing modest tailored concern. Conversely, LGRIs displayed developmental leadership tendencies on a hit-and-miss basis while giving very little credence to individualized treatment. Haphazard LGRI IC practice is a landmark finding and directly supports the research hypothesis that IC can be found in increasing degrees as student athlete graduation rates increase.

MLQ 5X response scores measure specific leader action frequencies. As descriptive statistics indicate, developmental leadership response scores significantly outpaced supportive IC responses. Developmental leadership score ascendency indicates developmental leadership primacy over supportive leadership. Developmental leadership actions offer greater follower individualized consideration contribution. Developmental leadership presence serves to strongly correlate with tailored follower achievement.

Conversely, supportive leadership plays only a complimentary role in individualized consideration and subsequently affected athlete graduation rates. Given constrained leader time resources, response scores suggest increased leader efforts be invested in developmental leadership practices vice supportive ones. Participant survey scores unambiguously indicate supportive leadership functions are superficially practiced. And even when supportive leadership is practiced, it possesses only cursory follower development impact.

Univariate Analysis

Univariate analyses were conducted on each specific MLQ 5X question asked. MLQ 5X questions were selected to address four distinct individualized consideration aspects. Figure 29 comparatively depicts each question central tendency.

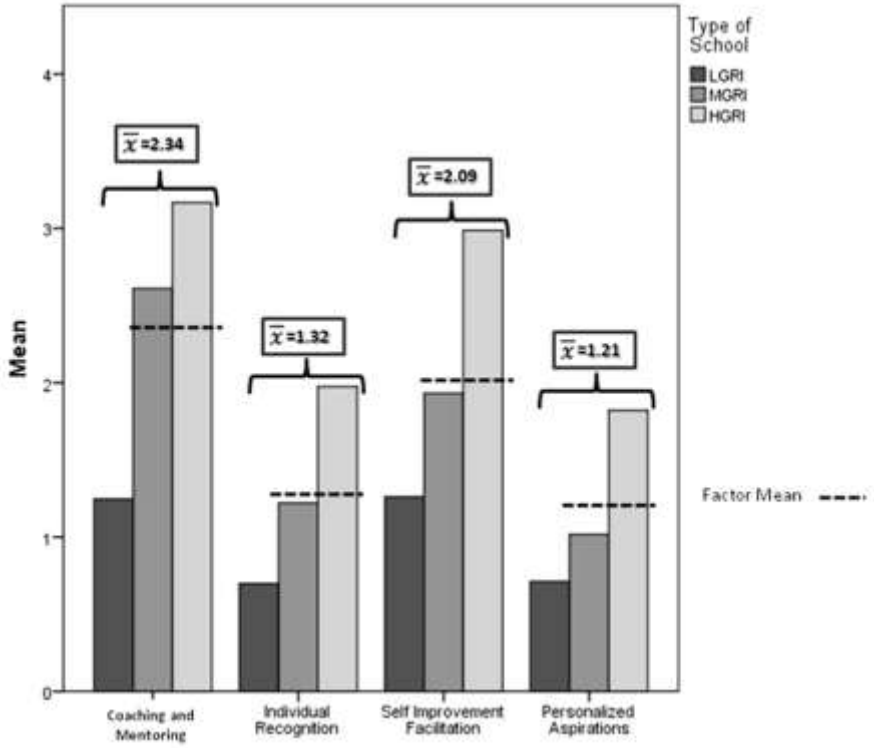

Figure 29. IC Factor Central Tendency Comparison

Univariate analyses explored each MLQ 5X data set question independently. Park (2005) indicated that univariate investigation is characteristically research's initial phase and serves to offer preliminary data descriptions. Although univariate analysis is primarily descriptive, central tendency measures can yield preliminary phenomenon

understanding. After scrutinizing each MLQ 5X question independently, a bivariate analysis was conducted to arrive at explanatory conclusions.

Coaching and Mentoring

MLQ 5X tests specific developmental leadership behavior recurrence rates. As indicated in Figure 30, developmental leadership actions include mentorship, coaching, obstacle removal, sponsorship, and progress attainment. Per MLQ 5X, coaching is intended to include many multi-faceted follower development leadership activities (Aviolo & Bass, 2004). Emerson and Loehr (2008) defined coaching as "an interactive process through which a person helps another person reach higher effectiveness through increased awareness and action" (p. 2). Increased student athlete effectiveness includes progression in both personal and athletic exploits. Figure 30 depicts transformational leadership developmental leadership actions.

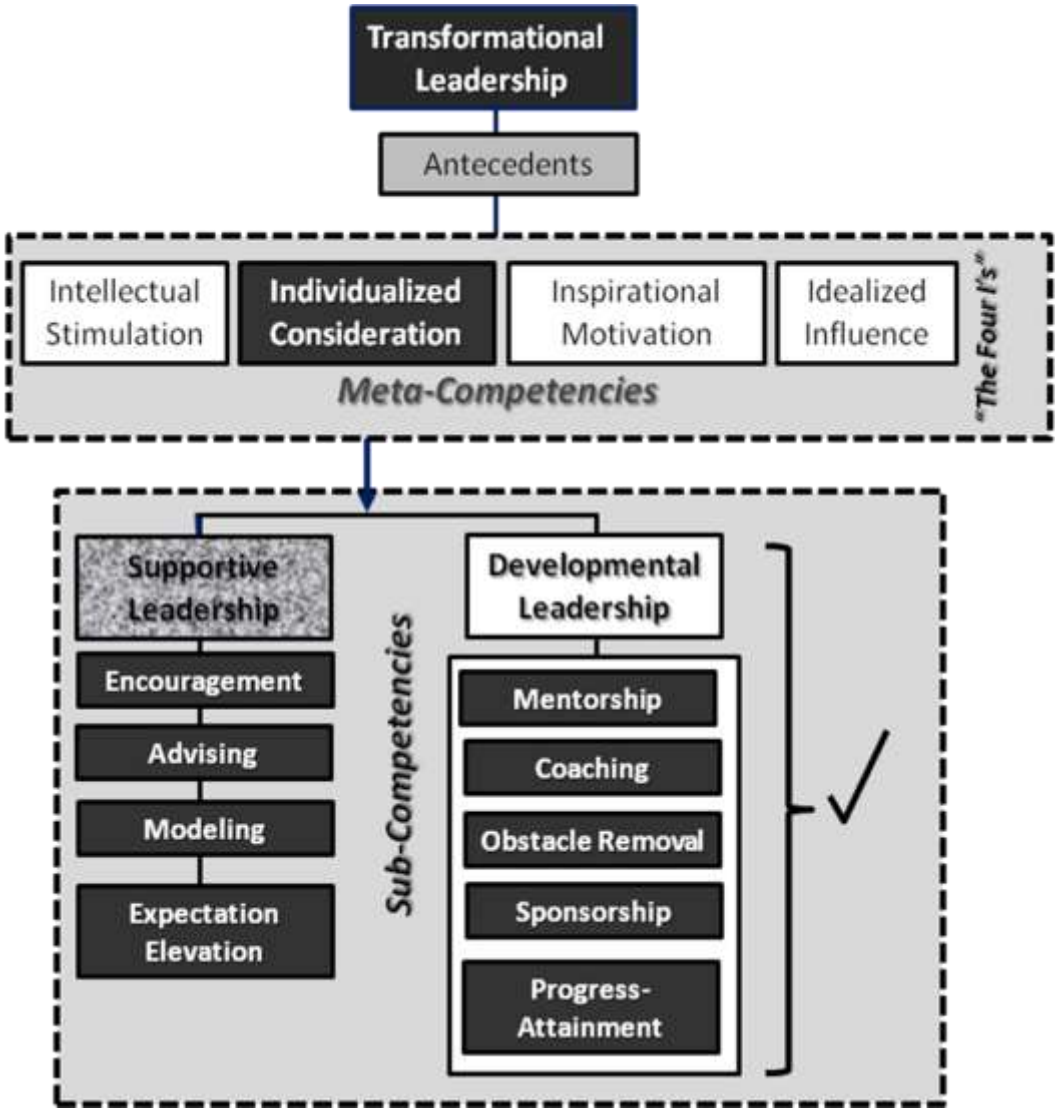

Figure 30. Developmental Leadership Actions

As Table 4 and Figure 31 indicate, school graduation rates increase in parallel with coaching and mentoring (CMs) practice. As such, a positive correlational relationship can be deductively reasoned to exist between CM practice and follower growth.

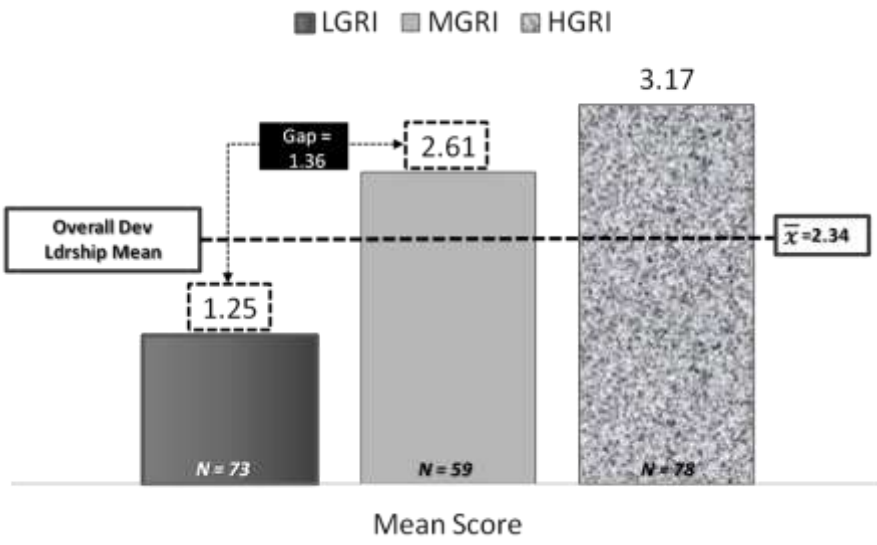

Figure 31. Coaching and Mentoring (CM) Central Tendency

There are three significant surmised outcomes derived from univariate CM analyses. The first significant outcome are gap size implications (∑= 1.36) associated with LGRI and MGRI scores. As Figure 31 depicts, significant negative distortions were associated with LGRIs, suggesting coaching and teaching leader behaviors were found in significantly varying degrees among universities with graduation rate challenges.

Gap scores between CM practice at LGRIs and MGRIs is approximately 60% larger than gaps between MGRI and HGRI scores (∑= 0.56). This expansive result begs questions as to what causes such a disparately large gap. The answer lies in developmental leadership effects on followers. If response scores exponentially increase as coaching and mentoring is practiced, then CM presence significantly correlates with follower goal attainment, even when practiced irregularly. When coaching and mentorship are accomplished, a 50% increase in student athlete graduation chances is also found. Without CM activities being present in specific cultures, followers tend to fail

to achieve key poverty-preventing life goals. Participant Response scores and score gaps clearly indicate strong analogous connections between coaching and mentorship importance and receiver achievement.

CM univariate investigation indicates a threshold is crossed when CM is practiced on at least an irregular basis. Located between LGRI and MGRI scores, this threshold is where a given leadership culture transitions from transactional to transformational. Shortened response score intervals between MGRIs and HGRIs ($\sum$= 0.56) suggest developmental leader behaviors among MGRI and HGRI hold comparable impact. As such, transformational threshold crossover is surmised to occur between LGRI and MGRI scores. Statistical data analyses supports this assertion, indicating coaching and teaching presence, even in moderate degrees, saliently parallels follower progression. Figure 32 depicts the transformational threshold.

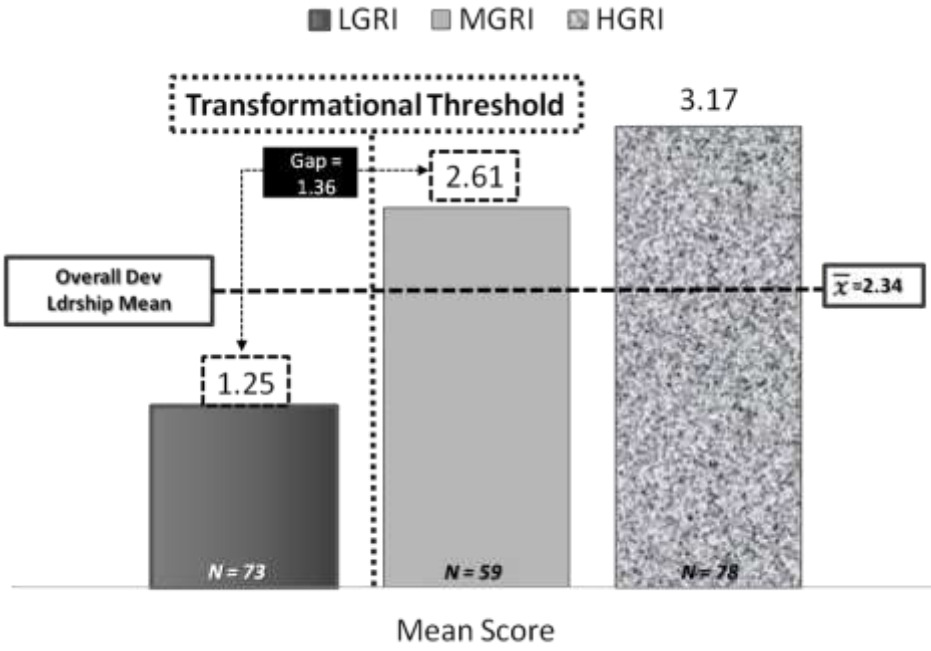

Figure 32. Transformational Leadership Threshold Crossover

Low LGRI response scores on CM suggest dissimilar cultural values held by LGRI institutions than at other schools. Divergent cultural values focus on success metrics other than athlete graduation rates. Assumptions must be made that if follower educational progression isn't the overriding concern, then something else must be. For most LGRIs, response scores indicate a much weaker CM variable correlation. Anecdotal follower commentary suggests revenue generation and on-the-field success metrics regularly achieve ascension over educational goals. Resultantly, in LGRI cultures, student-athlete degree attainment is viewed as a tertiary goal at best. Follower anecdotal email commentary recorded during survey execution confirms this cultural divergence. For example, in LGRI settings the following student athlete comments were recorded:

"I wish our coaches had time to mentor me."

"You know, if coach was really serious about my learning, he/she would make more time for them. Heck, on road trips we hardly ever open a book."

"Our coaches care about winning games. That's how they get paid. Their jobs are tied to wins and losses, not my grades or what I turn out to be after college."

"Coach says it's my job to study; not hers. She says her job is coach me on the floor."

"My coach only cares if I stay eligible to play."

"If I were to get hurt and couldn't play anymore, do you really think I'd ever hear from anyone in this athletic department again?

No negative comments were recorded at MGRI and HGRI institutions in regards to coaching and mentoring. Although anecdotal, student commentary shed some insight into culture differences which separate LGRIs from other school types. When combined with collected participant comments, the coaching and mentoring gulf between LGRIs and other schools clearly indicates LGRI cultures are primarily concerned with transactional relationships between school and athlete.

Athletic leaders should not be characterized as transformational unless they successfully mentor or guide program members (Beamon, 2008; Hamilton, 2005). Statistical data analyses point toward a corresponding relationships between developmental leadership absence and graduation rates where athletes more often than not fail to attain a bachelor's degree. Survey participant scores indicate LGRI cultures do not make necessary coaching and mentoring time investments in followers, while MGRIs

and HGRIs do. Commitment related leadership failures contribute to continued social poverty transferral.

Discreet coaching and mentorship (CM) inspection reveals most leaders attempt to be developmental in actions toward followers. Coaching and mentoring survey scores point toward scholastic leaders being sensitized to progression responsibilities vis-à-vis followers. MGRI and HGRI scholastic leaders acknowledge and invest time resources in mentoring, facilitating, or sponsoring follower growth. MGRI and HGRI leaders act on acknowledged leadership responsibilities, albeit often in a haphazard way. Conversely, LGRI leaders regularly eschew or abdicate assigned leader-based responsibilities.

CM possessed appreciably wider response score distributions than other IC factors. 11% of LGRI scores were from "special-case" followers who rated respective athletic departments highly when it came to providing individualized consideration. During data collection, special case participants such as team captains, seniors with four years invested in a specific program, coaches' children, and full scholarship recipients (vice partial scholarship student athletes) tended to rate leaders higher than typical student athletes. Analysis suggests individual self-concepts (those deeply and positively nested within a given athletic program) and personalized validation needs impacted follower responses. In short, special case student athletes tended to rate school leadership culture higher than average despite athletic leader failure to ensure follower degree completion.

Self-Improvement (SI)

Also considered a developmental leadership activity, individualized consideration's self-improvement (SI) factor focuses on leader actions to help followers develop strengths. MLQ 5X survey questions do not ask followers to comment on leader actions to redress known follower shortcomings. Figure 33 depicts self-improvement response score central tendencies.

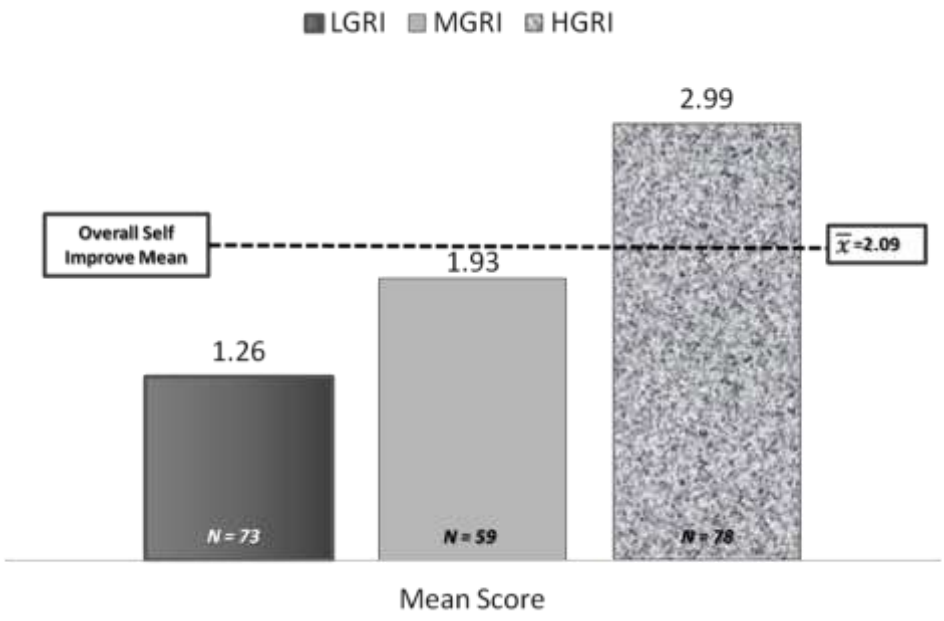

Figure 33. Self-Improvement (SI) Central Tendency

In order to actualize student-athlete self-development, athletic program leaders must develop follower strengths. To develop follower strengths, leaders were assumed to have subjectively or overtly completed a follower talent inventory or assessment at some juncture. Based upon leader assessment, follower development steps were presumably taken to individually advance subordinates.

As Figure 33 indicates, HGRIs have inculcated follower self-development into respective cultures. Furthermore, discrete and observable relationships exist among HGRI cultures, self-improvement activities, and follower attainment. Participant responses denote HGRI athletic leaders regularly engage in follower improvement activities. Conversely, MGRIs and LGRIs only engage in follower progression behaviors at irregular intervals, if at all. As indicated by LGRI survey respondents, follower expansion activities are regularly absent in low-graduation rate athletic program milieus. Statistical analyses conclude LGRI institutional athletic leaders paid scant attention to follower self-improvement whereas HGRI leaders made follower growth a priority.

Individual Recognition (IR)

Individual recognition (IR) and personal aspiration (PA) consideration are considered supportive leadership actions. Figure 34 depicts IC associated supportive leadership activities.

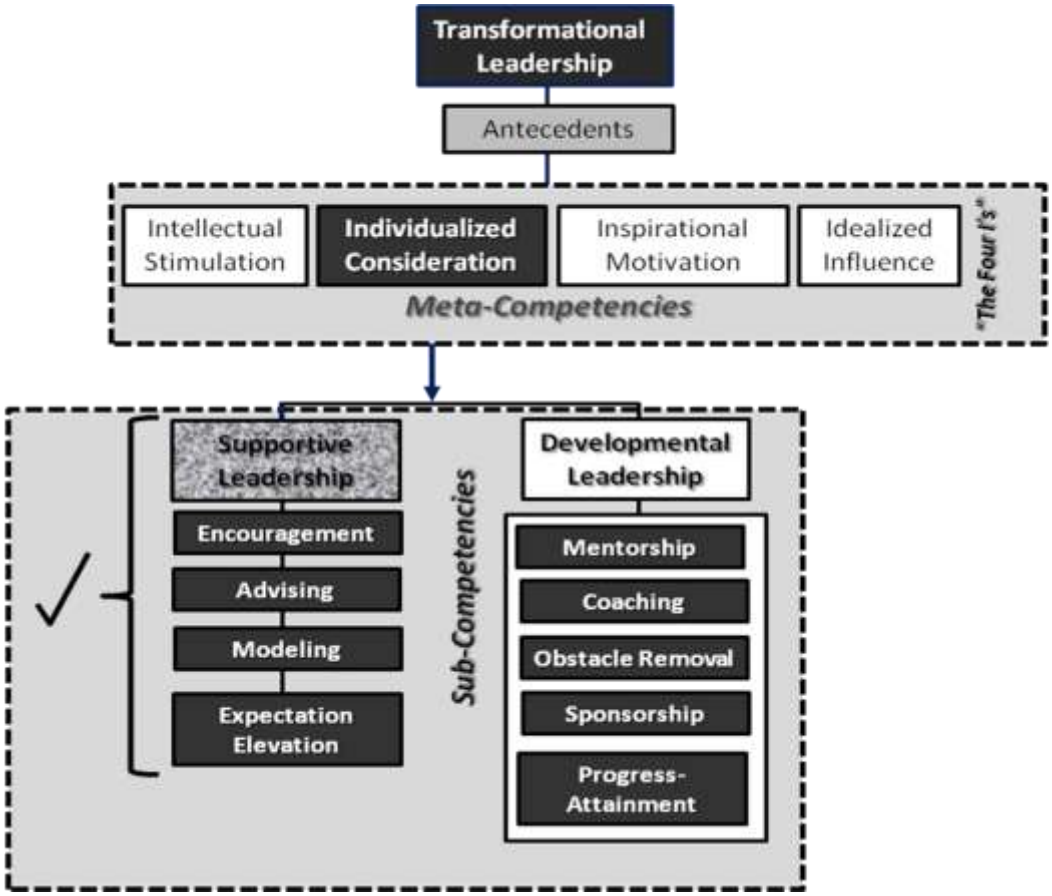

Figure 34. Supportive Leadership Actions

MLQ 5X based individual recognition scores explore individual follower treatment as opposed to group membership, hypothesizing IR may contribute to transformative follower advancement. Treating followers as distinct persons is regularly proclaimed a paramount transformational leadership component (Crouse, 2010; Schott, 2012b).

Participant central tendency measures ($\bar{x}$= 1.30) suggest otherwise. Analyses indicate individual recognition is not routinely practiced, school institution type aside. Furthermore, correlated individual recognition importance on follower advancement as it

relates to individualized consideration is limited. As shown in Figure 35 below, treating followers as distinct persons as opposed to group members is a hit-and--miss proposition graduation rate notwithstanding.

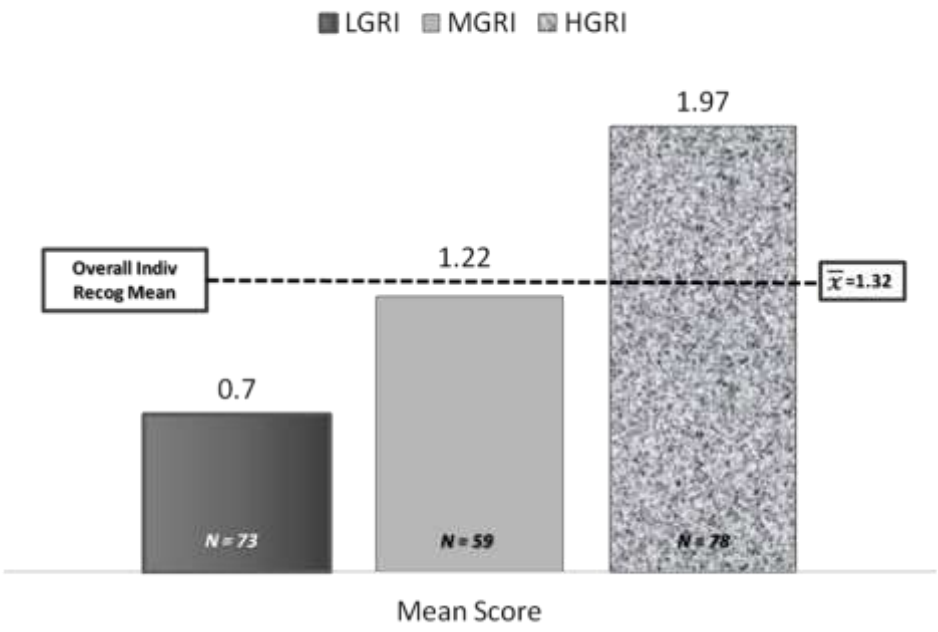

Figure 35. Individual Recognition (IR) Central Tendency

A supportive leadership function, lower overall average IR response scores and narrower response densities suggest individual acknowledgment is erratically practiced and functionally limited. Although data suggests a moderate upward corresponding trend in recognition and acknowledgment levels as institution graduation rates increase, supportive leadership influence is appreciably less impactful on student athlete degree attainment.

Survey respondent marks suggest acknowledging follower individuality is usefully limited in spurring even rudimentary subordinate forward progress. Given its

restrained follower advancement power, IR is seldom practiced. Low across-the-board response scores indicate making followers feel "special" and specific individual treatment has marginal effect on individualized consideration effectiveness.

Given IRs spurious results, championing follower uniqueness is assessed to be a complementary (vice core) IC factor. Survey respondents unmistakably signify IR triviality when it comes to degree achievement. Data implications propose individual recognition and acknowledgment plays a facilitative follower development function, vice a transformative one.

Personal Aspirations (PA)

Similar to individual recognition, central tendency measures support conclusions personal aspiration (PA) supportive leadership is haphazardly practiced at most universities. Possessing the lowest mean score ($\bar{x}$ = 1.21), personal aspiration (PA) is practiced least among the four IC actions. PA consideration is regularly linked directly with individualized tailored concern. As such, low PA scores as a formative IC factor was an unexpected and unanticipated result. Intended to capture tailored leader-follower dyad interaction, the MLQ 5X examines personalized leader interaction frequency (Avolio & Bass, 2004). A supportive leadership measure, leader abilities to recognize divergent needs, aspirations, and abilities among followers is individualized consideration's inherent essence.

As figure 36 indicates, an associative relationship does exist between institutional graduation rates and leader PA actions. However, this relationship is weak in all scholastic athletic milieus. PA response scores indicate lower central tendencies than

other IC-based questions and hold a distinctive negative skew. Averaged response score dispersions (LGRI=0.71, MGRI=1.02, HGRI=1.782) were narrow and indicate follower need recognition by leaders. PA central tendency measures leave much to be desired at all institution types. Analyses clearly indicate most athletic leaders are poor at tailoring leadership to meet specific follower needs.

Low personalized aspiration central tendencies across schools speak volumes in regards to athletic leader transformational capacity shortfalls. Even at HGRIs, leaders routinely fail to engage followers in a personalized fashion. Data suggests athletic leader either can't or won't tailor individual subordinate leader-led interaction.

Furthermore, survey participant marks definitively connect leader concern shortfalls with marginal follower progression. As Figure 36 indicates, leaders show little regard for follower wants or desires, school type notwithstanding.

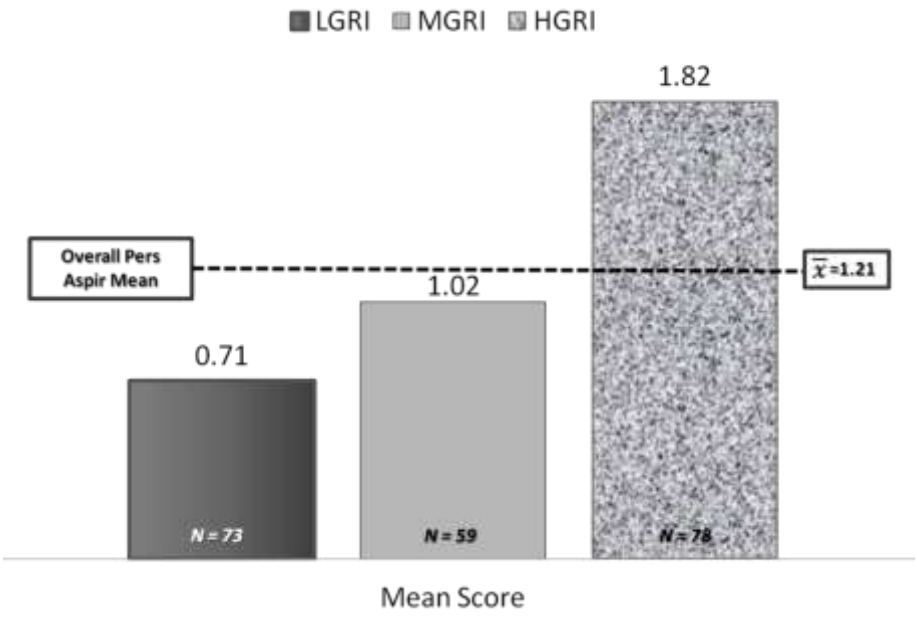

Figure 36. Personal Aspiration (PA) Central Tendency

Anecdotal participant annotations corroborate notions individual follower goals and desires receive minimal leader regard. Captured participant remarks regarding follower goals and wants imply leader beliefs tilt strongly toward supercilious assumptions regarding follower best interests. Testimonial follower observations suggest leaders regularly adopt paternalistic power distance attitudes toward subordinates, frequently dismissing follower personal desires.

Statistical Findings

Three foundational assumptions underpin research inquiry statistical data analyses. First, in order to conduct a suitable and consistent correlation, both variables must be measured on interval, ordinal, or ratio scale. Both MLQ 5X response scores and NCAA graduation rate measurements meet foundational assumption criteria.

A monotonic relationship must be assumed to exist between correlated variables. Hazewinkel (2001) described a monotonic relationship as one in which two independent data sets possess an ordered and structured relationship. In order to be considered monotonic, as one variable value increases, the other must necessarily increase or decrease accordingly. A positive monotonic relationship between individualized consideration presence and increased athlete graduation rates was sought. As depicted in Figure 37, high positive correlation occurs when variable measures increase as its associated variable is increasingly present.

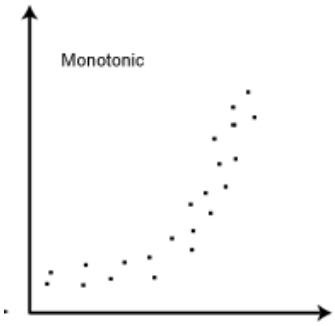

Figure 37. Sample Positive Monotonic Correlation

Correlations normally have associated linearity values. Variable relationships are assessed to be increasingly correlational as results fall to closer to positive or negative 1. Similarly, stronger correlated results assume variable relationships to more linear than correlational scores near 0 (Suhr, 2011). Figure 38 depicts correlational value.

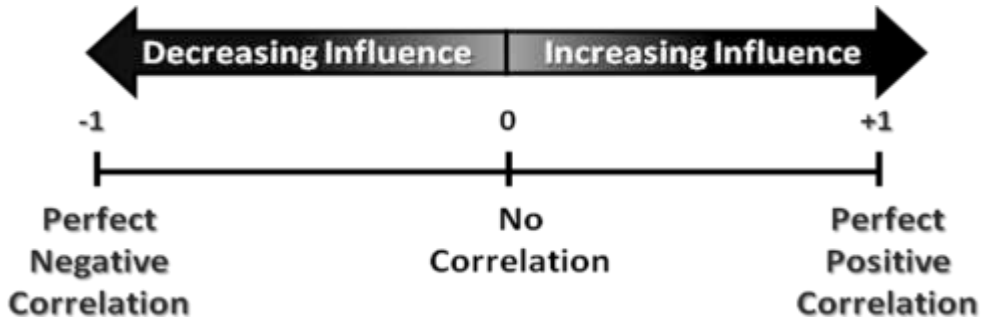

Figure 38. Correlational Relationships

Correlations are measured by determination coefficients (*r*). Determination coefficients serve critical functions by predicting dependent variable outcomes when introduced to an independent factor. Determination coefficients (*r*) establish confidence degrees when making model based outcome predications. For example, if $r = .707$, then 71% of the variable relationship can be explained by independent-dependent variable association.

The third assumption is correlational relationships contain no significant outliers. Outliers are particular data points within a data set which fail to conform to established patterns. Trochim and Donnelly (2008) pointed out correlational analyses are outlier susceptible. In this inquiry, data were collected for 210 students. Data were assessed for univariate outliers with *z* score use. Outliers were *z* scores > 3.29 and < -3.29. No dataset outliers were present. Final data analysis was conducted on 210 cases. In this case, participant response score outlier absence reinforces data set linearity and statistical reliability.

Research Outcomes

Four research questions and two hypotheses underpinned this research effort. Descriptive research questions (DQ1-DQ3) were asked to ascertain why a phenomenon is occurring, occurrence frequency, and event transpiration. Under correlational research designs, descriptive questions are used to inspect statistical associations between two or more variables. Statistical association is measured to determine if two variables are numerically combined (Suhr, 2011).

Inferential statistics were used to draw statistically significant implications about greater proximal populations through selected sample inspection (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). Conclusions regarding IQ1 were based on probability principles. The higher correlations were found to be, the higher probability examined phenomenon were assumed to be.

Inferential statistics were used to assess research hypothesis (H_1) probability while rejecting null hypothesis (H_0) correctness. This research effort, predicted individualized consideration (IC) differences would be found (H_1), while the null (H_0) forecasted no differences among college university graduation rates.

Descriptive Question 1. DQ1 inquired as to extents which scholastic athletic programs provide IC to its student-athletes. DQ1 tested for independent variable presence. Lower average/cumulative response scores indicated IC absence. Higher MLQ 5X extract response scores indicated increased IC presence. CM, IR, PA, and SI were averaged to calculate IC presence. Table 5 below depicts overall IC central tendency measures by school type.

Table 5

Individualized Consideration Means and Standard Deviations by School Type

Variable	LGRI		MGRI		HGRI	
	M($\bar{x}$)	SD(σ_x)	M($\bar{x}$)	SD(σ_x)	M($\bar{x}$)	SD(σ_x)
Individual consideration (IC)	0.98	0.69	1.69	0.60	2.49	0.75

As indicated by Table 5, LGRI (*n*= 73) ($\bar{x}$= 0.98) tend to provide IC to student athletes infrequently. MGRI (*n*=59) ($\bar{x}$= 1.69) tended to provide IC on an occasional basis. In comparison, survey respondents suggested HGRIs (*n* = 78) frequently provide IC to followers. HGRI mean ($\bar{x}$= 2.49) scores unmistakably conclude high graduation rate institutions regularly provide IC to student athletes at a rate two and half times greater than LGRIs and a third more often than MGRIs ($\bar{x}$=1.69). As depicted by Figure 39, only HGRIs fell above the statistical mean in regards to providing IC to student athletes.

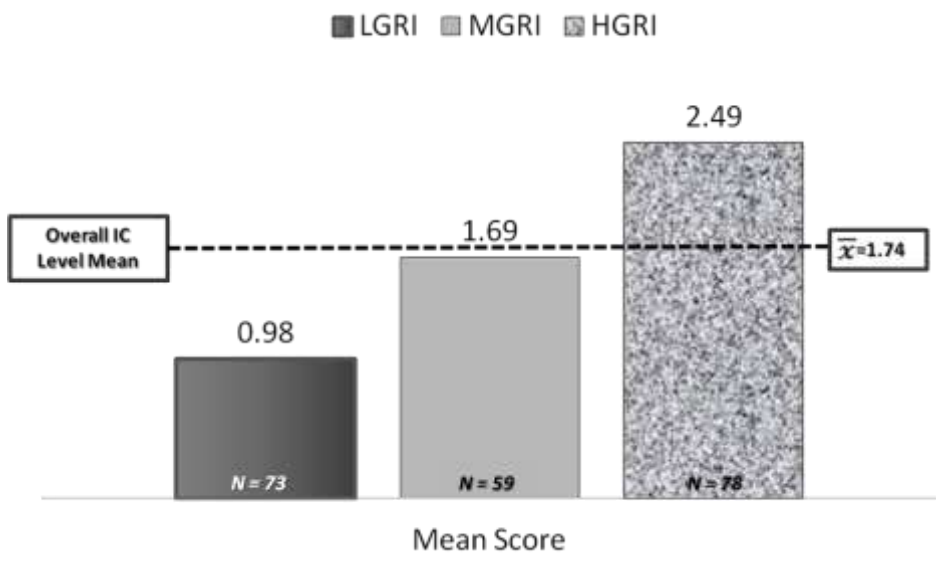

Figure 39. Individualized Consideration (IC) Central Tendency

Participant MLQ 5X responses suggest HGRIs provide individualized consideration to student athletes at significant levels which parallel increased scholastic attainment. Conversely, LGRIs are, more often than not, failing to provide followers IC, corresponding to decreased academic performance trends. MGRIs tend to provide IC in a hit-and-miss fashion. Several potential explanations exist for elevated individualized consideration presence at HGRIs.

At schools with high graduation rates, IC is institutionalized. Understanding college education's life-long lifting influence, HGRIs have established hard-and-fast athlete academic progression rules. HGRIs regularly mandate athletes take a full academic course load to facilitate on-time graduation.

HGRIs regularly empower admissions offices, not athletic departments, with final institutional attendance approval. Accepted collegiate athletes are sufficiently equipped for collegiate course work.

Most HGRIs have higher athlete admittance standards for incoming participants than NCAA requirements. For example, most HGRIs require athletes to complete 40% more secondary school university introductory course items to gain admittance. Most HGRIs mandate student body-athlete integration to assist student development, eschewing set-aside athletic facilities.

IC is found in increasingly noteworthy amounts among HGRIs. DQ1 statistical findings suggest IC may have significant impact on powering impoverished follower advancement. DQ1 based conclusions imply impoverished Americans would reap progression benefits associated with IC presence.

Descriptive Question 2. DQ2 inspected student-athlete graduation and/or success rates in particular D1 and D2 universities. DQ2 tested the dependent variable by analyzing follower success metrics among scholastic athletic programs. Figure 40 below depicts graduation rates among tested sample universities.

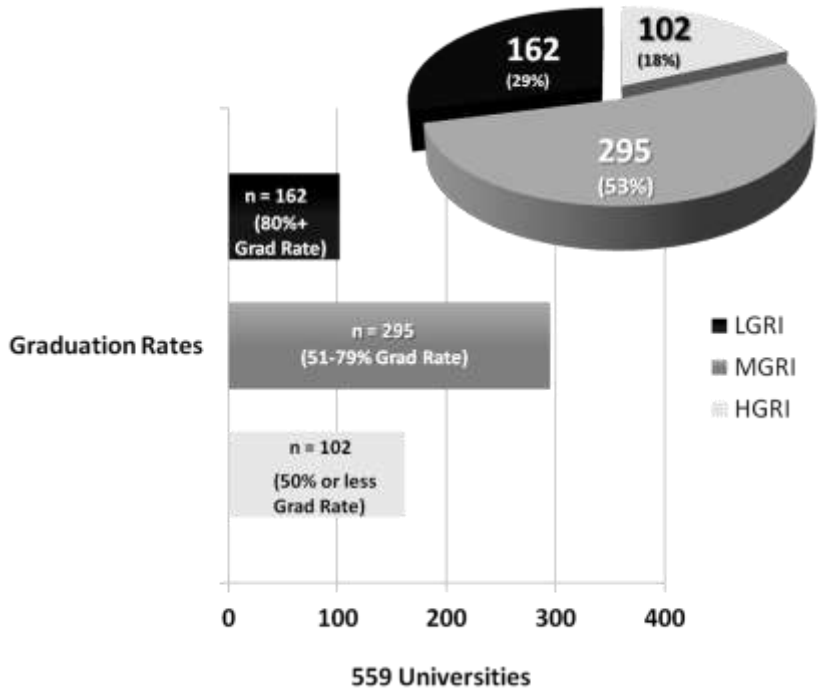

Figure 40. Graduation Rates by Population

Graduation rate research analyses attuned to 559 D1 and D2 universities comprising the wider proximity modeled population. Analysis reveals three critical graduation rate trends. First, typical collegiate student athletes attend a medium graduation rate institution. As such, student athletes stand reasonably fair bachelor's degree achievement likelihood. However, chances increase if IC is provided to student athletes.

Survey responses indicate MGRI leaders are hit-and-miss when it comes to providing IC to followers ($\bar{x}$= 1.69 or once in a while/sometimes). However, increased IC presence is unmistakable in institutional cultures with higher graduation rates. If the typical student athlete attends an MGRI and institutional athletic leaders provides IC on a recurring basis, the student stands approximately three in four bachelor's degree

attainment likelihood. Conversely, if the archetypical student athlete attends an MGRI where IC is not practiced with some frequency semblance, athlete graduation probabilities drop to approximately half.

Graduation rates are higher at smaller D2 schools than larger D1 universities (NCAA, 2011a). NCAA (2011b) reporting suggests several factors directly influence rate disparity. However, reputed existing relationships between individualized consideration and student athlete degree attainment suggests schools with improved graduation rates ought to possess better individualized consideration scores. As indicated by Table 5, IC scores increased as school academic success rates increased. Although exploratory, results indicate smaller colleges and universities are more apt to provide student athletes with individualized consideration, thereby increasing small school student graduation opportunities.

Finally, collegiate readiness and preparedness may play a significant role in resultant student graduation rates. Annually, the American College Testing (ACT) organization provides each state with a *Condition of College & Career Readiness* report, which encapsulates ACT test participant collegiate preparedness. According to ACT (2012) analytics, high academic achieving secondary school students, such as National Honor Society members, regularly chose HGRI recognized schools. Conversely, marginal high school performers more often selected MGRIs and LGRIs for attendance. This greater student trend holds for collegiate athletes as well. HGRIs such as Duke, Notre Dame, Stanford, Ivy League, and Big 10 schools normally hold more academic prestige and are held in higher esteem by true student-athletes. Conversely, LGRI and

MGRI student-athletes tend to hold only modest concerns about scholastic stature, reputation, or standing (ACT, 2012; Rivas et. al, 2005; Schmidt, 2008).

Based on participant survey responses, when synthesized with recent educational research, evidence to support "quality-in/quality-out" conjectures exists. This "quality-in/quality-out" conclusion argues for mandating IC inculcation into MGRI and LGRI cultures where student athletes are at significantly increased attrition risks.

Descriptive Question 3. DQ3 was asked to illuminate which specific IC-based leadership behaviors positively impacted socially impoverished followers. As Hollander and Julian (1969) once opined, leadership research history has been tumultuous. Isolating and identifying effective transformative follower development behaviors is imperative, given limited available leader time resources.

MLQ 5X Questions 15 and 31 specifically address subordinate coaching, teaching, and competency growth. Coaching, teaching, and competency development are fundamental developmental leadership constructs. Similarly, MLQ 5X Questions 19 and 29 reflect supportive leadership action occurrence such as providing encouragement, advice, and positive role representation. Higher scores on developmental questions juxtaposed against supportive leadership queries strongly suggest developmental leadership primacy (Aviolo & Bass, 2004; Dvir et al., 2002). Figure 41 depicts mean scores for the four questions as they relate to developmental and supportive leadership.

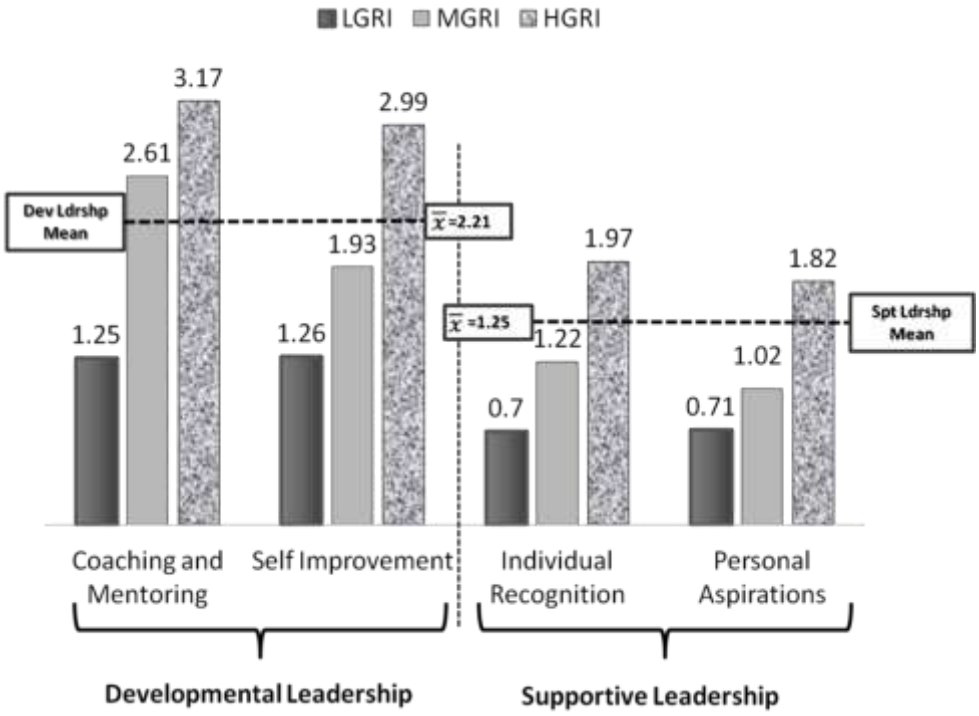

Figure 41. Developmental vs. Supportive Leadership Tendencies

Participant developmental and supportive leadership response scores were averaged separately. Table 6 presents overall means and standard deviations for each leadership behavior type. Table 7 illustrates means and standard deviations for both developmental and supportive leadership actions by school type. Across the board, central tendency analyses indicate developmental leadership behaviors are increasingly practiced as graduation rates rise. Often, developmental leadership behaviors were practiced twice as often as supportive leadership actions. Furthermore, student athletes can expect developmental leadership behaviors to be practiced with sharply increased frequency should they choose to attend schools with elevated graduation rates. Conversely, students selecting low-end MGRIs and LGRIs should expect developmental

leadership to be practiced only sparingly. Resultantly, low-end MGRI and LGRI students will most likely receive marginal assistance from athletic leaders, should they decide to attend such institutions.

Table 6

Developmental and Supportive Leadership Means and Standard Deviations

Variable	$M(\bar{x})$	$SD(\sigma_x)$
Developmental Leadership behaviors	2.21	1.14
Supportive Leadership behaviors	1.25	0.92

Table 7

Developmental and Supportive Leadership Means and Standard Deviations by School Type

	LGRI		MGRI		HGRI	
Variable	$M(\bar{x})$	$SD(\sigma_x)$	$M(\bar{x})$	$SD(\sigma_x)$	$M(\bar{x})$	$SD(\sigma_x)$
Developmental Leadership behaviors	1.25	0.90	2.27	0.87	3.08	0.76
Supportive Leadership behaviors	0.71	0.64	1.12	0.67	1.90	0.94

Each school type leadership behavior score is depicted by the histograms in Figure 42. As Figure 42 depicts, developmental leadership scores possess higher positive skews than supportive leadership scores. Average student athletes attend MGRIs. As such, MGRI leadership behavior central tendency measures are crucial. Developmental leadership scores were more than double supportive leadership scores at schools most student athletes are likely to attend. As such, typical student athletes should choose an MGRI with a strong developmental leadership culture, should said athlete desire to achieve a degree. MGRIs found near the MGRI graduation score high end are those with a strong developmental leadership presence.

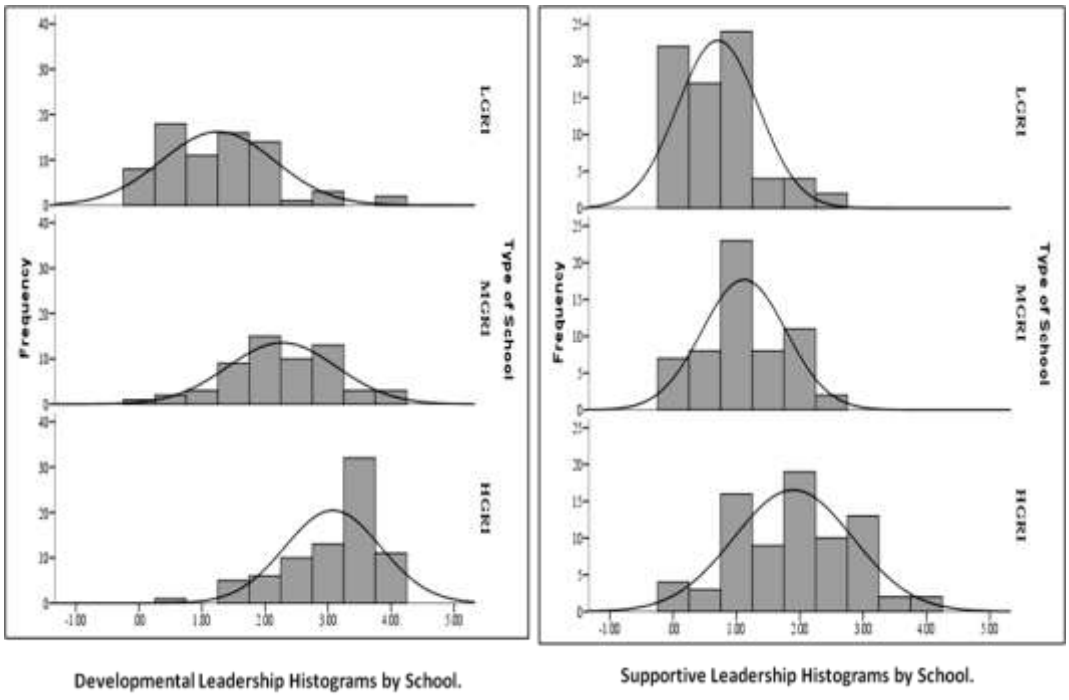

Figure 42. Leadership Behaviors Central Tendency by School

Developmental leadership achieves ascendency over supportive leadership where improving followers is concerned. Central tendency analyses noticeably point toward markedly increased developmental leadership practice as school graduation rates increase. Furthermore, school type trend analysis supports conclusions developmental leadership actions are more effective than supportive leadership behaviors in powering follower advancement at all levels.

Leadership behavior scores were correlated against school types. According to Cohen (1988) and Dusick (2013) correlation coefficients > .40 indicated a significant corresponding relationship between two variables. Spearman's Rho *(r_s)* correlations conducted between developmental leadership behaviors and school graduation rates was strongly significant, $r_s(210) = 0.68$. Strong parallel r_s scores suggest schools with higher developmental leadership behavior scores will also possess higher graduation rates. Spearman's correlations between supportive leadership and school types was weaker and not considered significant, $r_s(210) = 0.37$. As such, supportive leadership is deemed to have approximately half the impact on student athlete graduation rates developmental leader actions possess. Correlational results are presented in Table 8. Figure 43 depicts where supportive and developmental leadership correlational strength falls along the correlational continuum.

Table 8

Spearman's **(r_s)** *Developmental and Supportive Leadership Correlations*

Variable	Correlational Strength
Developmental Leadership Behavior	.68**
Supportive Leadership Behavior	.37**

Note. **p < .01.

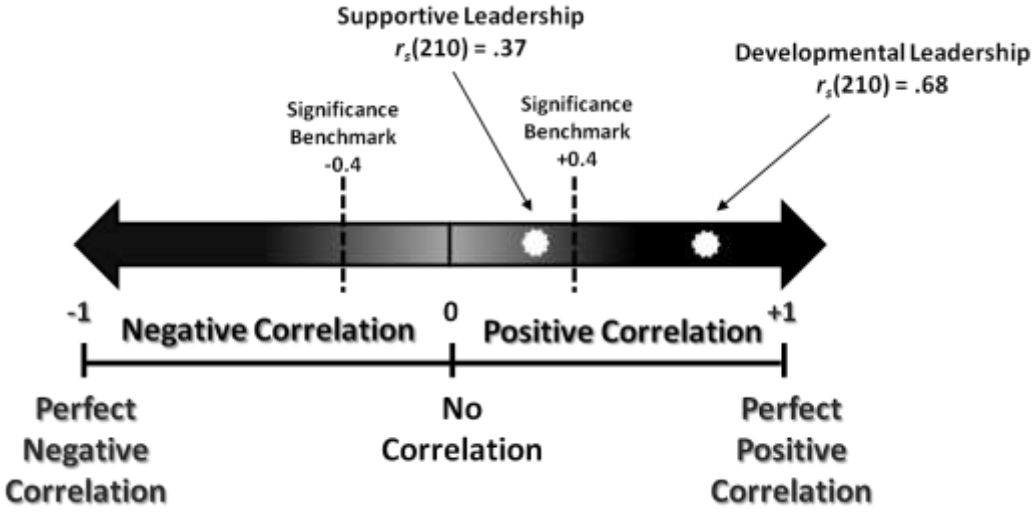

Figure 43. Developmental and Supportive Leadership Correlation

Participant response score trends clearly indicate observed supportive leadership increases in all schools types (See Figure 42). In general, athletic leaders at all institution types provide supportive leadership to some degree. However, supportive leader actions tend to be much less meaningful and impactful than developmental leader actions. This finding corroborates Polston-Murdoch's (2013) recent conclusions supportive leadership

is easier to execute, yet less formative than developmental leadership. Rudimentary and easily enacted supportive leadership measures, vice increasingly complex and difficult developmental leadership actions, are presumed to be this phenomenon's basis. Supportive leadership functions are often seen as more superficial, and are generally considered easier to execute than developmental ones (Shivers-Blackwell, 2006; Torres, 2003; US Army, 2006). Given most athletic program leader's limited follower development experience, logic would suggest supportive leaders would be better able to perform rudimentary leadership functions vice sophisticated developmental ones.

Inferential Question. IQ1 explored parallel relationships between IC and student-athlete graduation rates. IQ1 tested independent and dependent variable coupled strength. To assess IQ1, an ANOVA and a Spearman's Rho (r_s) correlation analysis were conducted. Prior to conducting the ANOVA, normality and homogeneity variance assumptions were assessed. Normality was assessed with a Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The KS test was significant, $p = .041$, indicating normality was violated. The F statistic was robust with respect to assumed normality (Stevens, 2009). Variance homogeneity assumptions were assessed using Levene's test. Levene test results were not significant, $F = 1.47$, $p = .232$, indicating the assumption was met. Resultantly, Spearman's (r_s) correlation was conducted.

An ANOVA was conducted to evaluate differences in average IC scores by school type (LGRI vs. MGRI vs. HGRI). ANOVA results were significant at the .05 level, $F(2, 207) = 90.40$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.47$, indicating significant differences in

IC by graduation level. Large differentiation among school types was indicated by effect size (0.47).

Bonferroni post hoc analyses were conducted to ascertain where differences lie. Individualized consideration scores were significantly lower at schools with low graduation rates ($\overline{x}$ = 0.98) than at schools with medium graduation rates ($\overline{x}$ = 1.69) and those with high graduation rates ($\overline{x}$ = 2.49.) Schools with high graduation rates had statistically higher IC scores ($\overline{x}$ = 2.49) than those at schools with medium graduation rates ($\overline{x}$ = 1.69). The null hypothesis (*Ho*) that no statistically significant differences exist in collegiate athlete graduation rates in relation individualized consideration presence or absence in a given athletic program culture, can be rejected. The ANOVA results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

IC Score Graduation Rate ANOVA Differences

Variable	SS	df	MS	F	p	Partial η^2
School type	85.89	2	42.95	90.40	.001	0.47

Spearman's Rho (r_s) correlations were calculated to determine if a relationship between IC scores and graduation rates existed and possible relationship significance. The relationship between variables was deemed positively significant, $r_s(210) = 0.77$. Figure 44 depicts correlation significance between IC and school graduation rates.

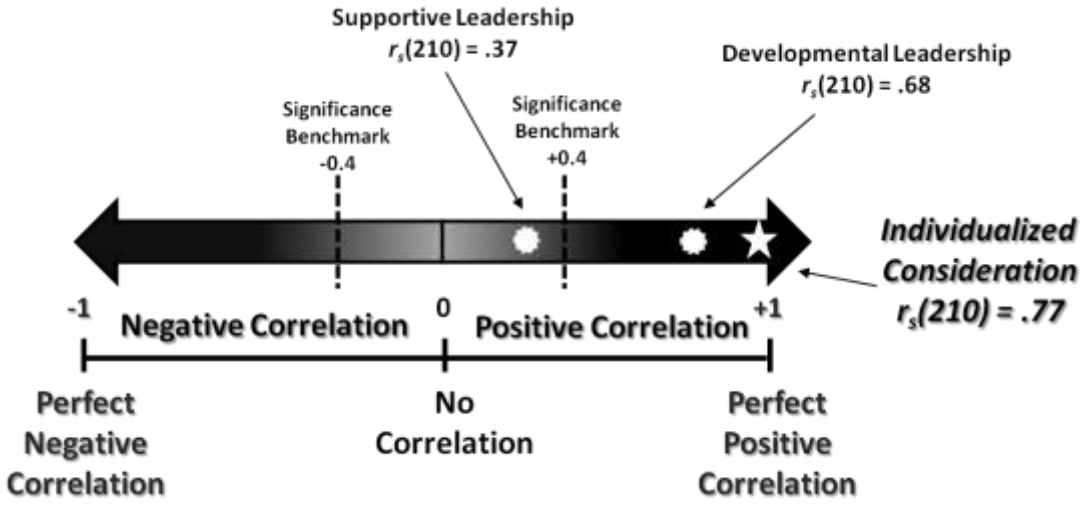

Figure 44. IC to Graduation Rate Correlation Significance.

As Figure 44 depicts, as schools possess higher IC scores, graduation rates improve as well. $r_s(210) = .77$ correlation coefficient indicates large affiliated strength between variables. If, as indicated in DQ3, developmental leadership shares a strong parallel relationship with student-athlete graduation rates, then adding supportive leadership behaviors ought to logically result in a cumulative increased correlation among IC and graduation rates. This logical syllogism is supported by r_s scores between the IV and DV. Correlational results are presented in Table 10. Figure 45 depicts a monotonic scatterplot relationship between variables.

Table 10

Spearman's Rho (r_s) IC Score-Graduation Rate Correlation

Variable	IC Scores
Graduation rates	.77**

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

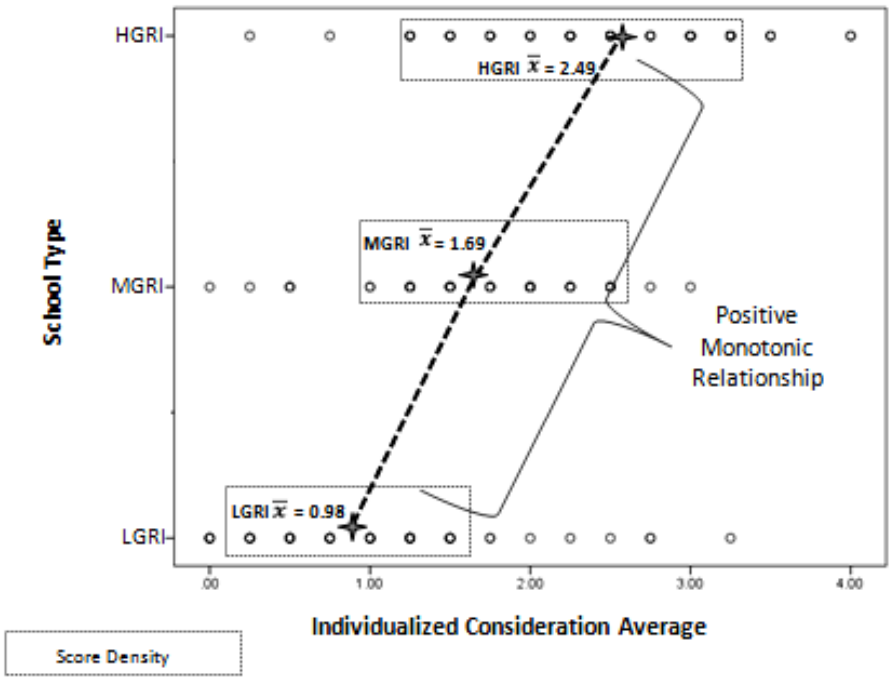

Figure 45. IC Average Score Scatterplot by School Type.

Reliability Analysis

A Cronbach's alpha (*a*) test for internal consistency was conducted. Cronbach's alpha (*a*) scores will generally increase as internal associations among correlated test items increases. Cronbach's *a* = .895 where a score above .70 is considered acceptable and .90 is considered excellent. In this case, *a* scores were closely aligned with traditional MLQ Form 5X scores, suggesting strong internal study validity (Revelle & Zinbarg, 2009).

Summary

Given statistical and anecdotal survey response analyses, evidence overwhelmingly suggests significant differences exist in collegiate athlete graduation rates in relation to individualized consideration presence or absence in a given athletic program culture. As such, the research hypothesis (H_1) is assessed to be supported. Investigation research question analytics further support this conclusion.

Testing for independent variable presence, DQ1 sought to ascertain extents to which scholastic athletic programs provide IC to student-athletes. Correlational analyses conclude individualized consideration is provided to impoverished followers more regularly and more often at schools with higher graduation rates. Conversely, modest graduation rate schools do not routinely provide IC to followers and IC is not inculcated in LGRI and MGRI athletic program cultures.

DQ2 inspected student-athlete graduation and/or success rates, testing dependent variable significance. Summary findings point to archetypal student athlete attendance at medium graduation rate institutions, making MGRIs the focal point into IC effectiveness studies. Analyses indicate the typical student stands roughly a 75% degree attainment chance when attending an IC-providing MGRI. Statistical results underscore student-athlete school choice selection importance, should he or she desire a bachelor's degree. Additionally, DQ2 inspection indicated smaller schools regularly practice IC more often than do larger schools. Finally, collegiate preparedness significantly impacts student graduation rates. As such, better prepared student-athletes regularly choose schools with

higher graduation rates. This finding advocates for IC inculcation at MGRI and LGRI institutions where student athletes are at significantly increased attrition risks.

DQ3 sought to illuminate which specific IC-based leadership behaviors positively impacted socially impoverished followers. Five landmark findings resulted from DQ3. First, higher response scores and correlational analyses highlight developmental leadership primacy over supportive leadership in overcoming repressive mental routines. Low response scores indicate supportive leadership actions do not share transformative developmental leadership impact.

Developmental leadership behaviors are increasingly practiced as graduation rates rise. Resultantly student athletes can expect developmental leadership behaviors to be practiced with sharply increased frequency should they choose to attend HGRI institutions. Conversely, low-end MGRI and LGRI students will most likely receive only marginal developmental assistance from athletic leaders. Central tendency analyses clearly indicate developmental leadership is regularly practiced more often than supportive leadership as school graduation rates increase. Furthermore, school type trend analysis supports conclusions developmental leadership actions are more effective in powering follower advancement on all levels.

Finally, DQ3 results indicated supportive leadership is practiced with increased regularity as graduation rates increase, but with limited effect. Due to athletic leader maturational shortcomings, supportive leaders are more able to perform less influential rudimentary follower improvement functions vice sophisticated developmental ones. Statistical data analyses suggest developmental leadership shortfalls correlate with low

collegiate degree attainment rates. Response scores point toward results which surmise LGRI cultures fail invest adequate coaching and mentoring social capital in followers, while MGRIs and HGRIs do so. Increased IC presence serves to potentially reduce social poverty among collegiate athletes through increased matriculation. Inadequate IC investment arguably contributes to continued social poverty transferral. Figure 46 depicts conclusive research survey logic supporting IC investment conjectures.

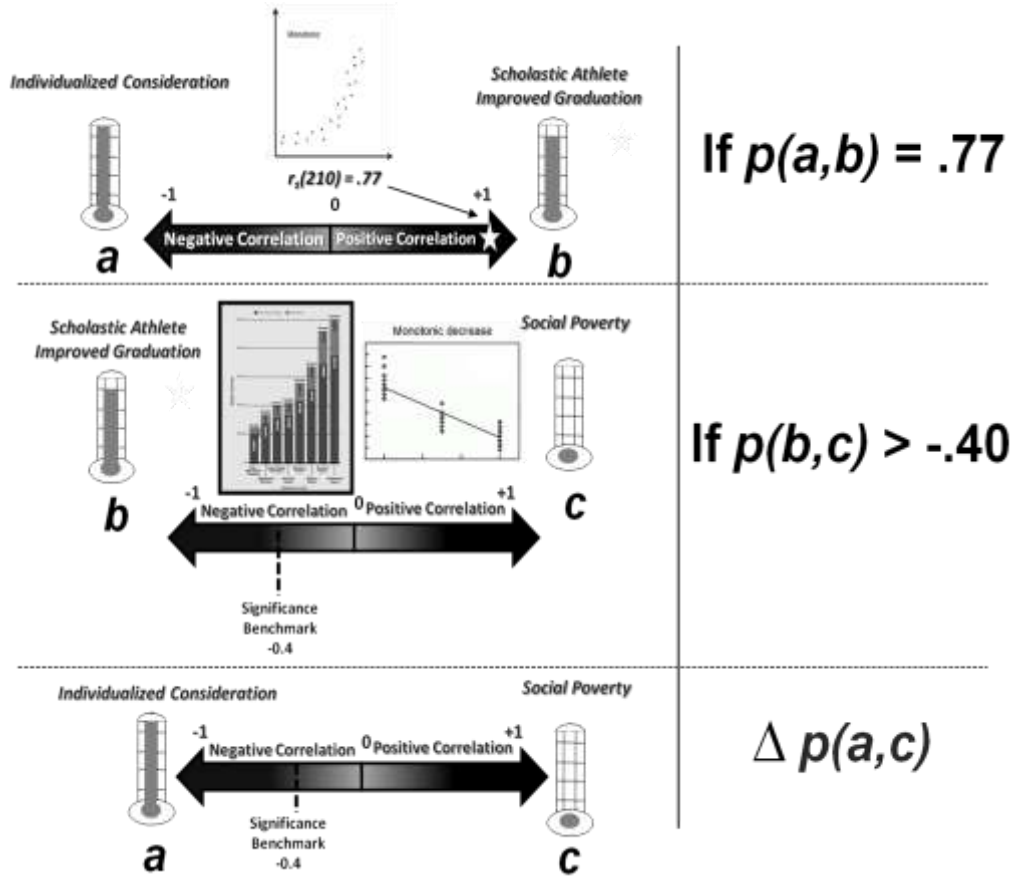

Figure 46. Conclusion Syllogistic Logic.

IQ1 sought to link independent and dependent variables. Statistical correlated linkages unambiguously indicate individualized consideration was found in increasing

amounts within given athletic program cultures as graduation rates increased. Research variable relationship was deemed positively significant with strong affiliated strength between individualized consideration presence and elevated student-athlete graduation rates.

Research effort findings hold far-reaching social change consequences and offer tangible improvements for individuals, organizations, and specific cultures. If leader provided individualized consideration is mandated, long-term poverty remediation may result. Chapter 5 discusses social change impact, makes significant professional practice recommendations, and offers further inquiry avenues.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This quantitative study's purpose was to test for a parallel relationship between individualized consideration's (IC) practice and collegiate athlete graduation rates in order to identify and isolate possible social poverty remediation measures. Adopting a novel antipoverty approach, transformational leadership presence or absence was tested in selected scholastic athletic cultures. Leveraging MLQ 5X, IC presence or absence was correlated against school graduation rates. America's static 4-decade poverty rate in combination with annual trillion dollar antipoverty governmental expenditures strongly suggests economic poverty countermeasures have failed to remediate impecunious paucity. Poverty was hypothesized as a social condition. Socially transmitted poverty serves to keep poor Americans economically repressed. Identifying transformative individualized consideration as a poverty countermeasure unlocks unexplored inquiry avenues and offers to deeply affect societal change.

Summarized Outcomes

Research effort statistical and anecdotal evidence suggested significant differences exist in collegiate athlete graduation rates. Statistical analyses support logical conclusions which suggest graduation rate differences exist in relation to individualized consideration presence or absence in specific athletic program cultures. As such, the base research effort hypothesis (H_1) is accepted

DQ1 inspected IV occurrence and ascertained individualized consideration is regularly provided at schools with higher graduation rates. Conversely, lower graduation

rate institutions routinely failed to provide IC to followers. IC is not habitually inculcated in LGRI athletic program cultures.

Student-athlete graduation and/or success rates were tested (DQ2), to ascertain dependent variable significance. Summary statistical research findings indicated archetypal student athletes generally attend medium graduation rate institutions. As such, MGRIs serve as operational baseline for any IC value studies. Analyses indicate IC-providing MGRIs graduate average student-athletes at increased rates (+25%) over non IC providing MGRIs. Increased educational attainment rates highlight student-athlete school choice importance. Smaller schools regularly practice IC more often than do larger schools. Finally, collegiate preparedness significantly impacts student graduation rate regardless of school type. Resultantly, more prepared student-athletes frequently select higher graduation rate schools. In particular, this finding argues for IC inculcation at lower graduation rate athletic programs, where student athletes are at appreciably enlarged attrition risks.

DQ3 sought to illuminate specific leader behaviors which served to appreciably impact socially impoverished followers. Higher participant response scores and correlational analyses point to developmental leadership primacy over supportive leadership. Supportive leadership actions do not possess transformative developmental leadership impact. Research outcomes indicated developmental leadership is regularly practiced as school graduation rates rise. Low-end MGRI and LGRI students will most likely receive only marginal developmental assistance from athletic leaders. Finally, DQ3

results indicated supportive leadership impact is limited due to poor scholastic athletic leader development.

Connecting independent and dependent variables, IQ1 evaluation indicated individualized consideration was found in increasing amounts as graduation rates increase. Strong conjoined variable relationship was calculated as positively significant.

Research Implications

Research analysis served to conjoin two primary theoretical fields: poverty theory and transformational leadership theory. Linking the two theories intended to potentially alleviate the first condition by leveraging the second. Research effort findings supported noneconomic poverty geneses for poor Americans. Inadequate economic resources are a result of poverty outcomes, not origin. As Baum, Ma, and Payea (2010) pointed out, 4-year college degree attainment is an economic viability prerequisite in the United States. Failing to attain a bachelor's degree perpetuates economic poverty. Leaders failing to provide IC decreases follower degree attainment chances and increases subordinate collegiate educational attrition. This landmark IC-based finding supports impoverished culture disposition, social temperament, and base assumptions as poverty root causes (Meade, 1996; Sawhill, 1998; Werther, 2003).

Poverty Theory Implications

This explorative inquest serves to confirm, disconfirm, and extend existing poverty theory memes, knowledge holdings, and mental models in significant directions. Research effort participant response scores and statistical analyses hold significant cross-cultural and societal implications.

Poverty theory confirmations. Inquiry findings supported contentions certain collective philosophies play formative economic inadequacy roles. Principal provided developmental leadership injects social capital and alters economic stagnation caused by underlying virtue orientations (Judge et al., 2004). As indicated in IQ1, without transformative leadership practice, little orientation shifting occurs and regression to established means results. This inquiry serves to support Lewis's (1998) global ghetto residents' study, which suggested impoverished subcultures exclude requisite upward economic advancement norms.

Research design presupposed individualized consideration is required to alter culturally imbued poverty causation attitudes. In the United States, value incongruencies between prevailing social expectations and culturally-based horizontal networks are significant poverty contributors (Brown, 2011; Farr, 2004; Lewandowski, 2006; Senge, 2006). Culturally imbued student athlete behaviors serve to facilitate incongruence gaps. Inquiry analytics conclude horizontal social networks serve as pooled normative (or soft) constraints on social capital accrual.

This research effort buttresses Hauberer's (2011) premise indicating higher education is a prevailing vertical forward progression network. Similarly, education-based social capital shortfalls restrict and limit opportunity. Social capital resident in degree possession increases individual lifetime economic viability. Educational opportunities foment social capital accrual through undergraduate degree attainment (Covey, 2008; Farr, 2004; Wilson et al., 2003).

Finally, notions personal virtue shortcomings contribute to social impoverishment are upheld by this research effort. Social poverty is imbued and reinforced by restrictive horizontal networks and social structures. As such, leader provided individualized consideration assistance is required to overcome generationally imbued low-quality decision making habits. Perhaps no other decision contributes more to impoverished existence than decisions not to seek higher education. Transformative change-driven leadership is required to counter economic paucity stemming from maladaptive mental schema imbued by restrictive horizontal social connections. In the U.S., social impoverishment can potentially be overcome by leveraging higher education opportunities.

Poverty theory disconfirmations. Refuting significant structural poverty speculations, research inquiry conclusions hypothesize socially transferred educational failure contributes to poverty (Rank, Yoon, & Herschel, 2003). Capitalism is not poverty's ascribed culprit. Individual destitution is not a prearranged U.S. economic system result. In fact, monies generated from scholastic athletics regularly serve to disproportionally fund education opportunities for economically depressed U.S. societal segments. Athletes serve to receive substantial benefits not available or provided to typical college students (Beamon, 2008; Huma, 2012; Huma & Staurowsky, 2012; London, 1993).

Similarly, noteworthy aptitudinal poverty claims are countered. In the United States, academically failed athletes generally return to originating impoverished environments, serving to further fuel repressive social poverty cycles. Investigation

statistical findings suggest transformative leadership presence correlates with increased student athlete graduation rates. Likewise, TL absence serves to negatively impact student athlete matriculation.

This correlation indicates leader ability to lift followers from penurious cultural surroundings. IC existence correlates with degree realization, thereby reducing aptitudinal poverty and allowing increased desire levels occur. Higher income or living standards do not necessarily close aspiration level disparities. However, individualized consideration presence parallels higher educational attainment, thereby remedying poor upper mobility aptitude scarcity (Appadurai, 2004; Wattier, 2000).

Poverty theory extensions. By identifying latent educational success and failure grounds, poverty theory knowledge has been extended. Although ambition levels are certainly altered by IC presence or absence, improved economic objectives may not necessarily result. By participating in scholastic sport, many impoverished student athletes obtain the highest living standard they have enjoyed thus far in their short life span. Student athletes commonly receive enhanced basic amenities and financial rewards not afforded to typical nonathlete students. However, concluding higher living standards reduce ambition level disparities, thereby remedying upper mobility aptitude scarcity is uncertain and not supported by this research (Appadurai, 2004; Wattier, 2000).

Similarly, social poverty and social capital theoretical knowledge holdings have been significantly enriched. First, athletic leader provided individualized consideration improves social capital accrual among the socially impoverished. As such, impoverishment is potentially overcome by leveraging value among socially formed

relationships when IC is provided (Hammond et al., 2001; Johnson, 2005; Meade, 1996; Van Bavel, 2001). Linking individualized consideration to social capital accrual is a significant poverty theory knowledge extension.

Social capital is defined as "resources embedded in relationships among actors" (Hauberer, 2011, p. 257). Social capital provides holders with increased opportunity. Correlational analyses suggest leaders providing transformational leadership to followers will increase subordinate educational attainment and by extension, social capital accrual. Presumably, increased opportunity and economic viability result. Findings identify potential social capitol expansion methods and establish leadership and poverty theory linkages.

Social capital is an enduring personal competitive advantage source derived from interpersonal relationships. Social capital possesses intrinsic practical usefulness. This investigative inquiry verifies social capital vertical facilitation utility by identifying IC and developmental leadership activities as formative poverty reducing leadership behaviors (Greenberg & Barron, 2008; Serageldin & Dasgupta, 2000). Figure 47 depicts individualized considerations' link to economic improvement.

Input		*Output*
⇧ Individualized Consideration (IC)	ρ	Graduation Rates ⇧
⇧ Graduation Rates	ρ	Social Capital ⇧
⇧ Social Capital	ρ	Opportunity and Income ⇧
⇧ Opportunity and Income	ρ	Poverty ⇩

Figure 47. IC to Poverty Reduction Link.

This exploration extends poverty knowledge understandings by strengthening educational attainment and increased economic advantage associations. Conjectures suggesting individualized consideration provision increases economic capacity were supported by connecting scholastic degree matriculation to individualized consideration presence. IC provisions student athletes with much needed educational attainment benefits (Baum et al., 2010, p. 8; Carroll & Erkut, 2009).

Just as this research effort served to impact poverty-based theoretical understandings, key leadership theory sub-segments were confirmed, disconfirmed, and extended. Commonly held leadership ideas, models, theories, and concepts were affected. Research effort participant response scores and statistical analyses hold noteworthy leadership theory implications.

Leadership Theory Implications

This examination serves to confirm, disconfirm, and extend leadership theory understanding, knowledge holdings, and comprehension in significant directions. Research effort results and findings possess significant transformative societal implications.

Leadership theory confirmations. Investigative study reinforces current transformational leadership knowledge holdings in a number of ways. First, DQ3 participant response scores support Dvir et al.'s (2002) contention transformational leadership elements must be present in order to achieve individual actualization. With individualized consideration present, followers achieve wealth producing educational goals at rates which clearly outpace cultures where IC is absent.

Graduation rates increase as IC is increasingly practiced. As a result, Downton's (1973) exalted transformational leadership form premise appears precise. Burns' (1978) contention transforming leaders recognize and set about extracting full follower potential is also buttressed. Research outcomes uphold assertions that transcendent TL targets elevating follower personal and professional states (Burns, 1978; Goleman, 2004; Northouse, 2010, p. 173; Pink, 2009; Robinson-Hickman, 2010).

Inquiry conclusions serve to strengthen Bass (2008) and Zigon's (1998) transactional leadership as a status quo maintaining process hypothesis. LGRI eschew transformational leadership tenets and rely heavily on overt exchange agreements (college tuition for athletic service). LGRI transactional leadership practice serves to maintain socially impoverished student athlete equilibrium. Exchange-based leadership

actions fail to provide sufficient change impetus to followers (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). LGRI athletic leaders mirror the greater American population by employing transactional leadership methods.

This investigative endeavor supports charismatic transformational leadership characterizations. Contemporary understandings define charismatic leadership as an influencing capacity which engages follower self-concepts thereby increasing subordinate goal achievement efforts. If charismatic leadership processes foment follower motivation and change, then a strong corresponding relationship between study variables fully supports transformational leadership as charismatic (Eriksen, 2007; Fiol et al., 1999; Kendall et al., 1998).

Leadership theory disconfirmations. DQ3 identifies developmental leadership actions as significantly effective in spurring follower development. Many developmental leadership actions leverage imbued leader power to overcome follower intransience toward degree completion. As such, research findings dispel contemporary narratives depicting power as an evil force. Power is influence's genesis. Power must be leveraged to uplift one from impecunious beginnings toward an improved future state. Employing power to induce, compel, coerce, or otherwise persuade impoverished student athlete to bachelor's degree realization is an inherently moral act (Finkelstein, 1992; Givens, 2011; Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

This research effort dispelled accepted situational leadership knowledge. Strong parallel relationships between individualized consideration presence and follower advancement conclude effective leadership situational characteristics can be reprioritized.

This inquiry refutes notions which suggest detailed environmental, task, and follower analytics are effective leadership essentials (Hersey, 1985; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Van Seters & Fields, 1990).

Leadership theory extensions. This leadership and poverty remediation inquiry serves to extend currently accepted leadership knowledge in three distinct ways. First, this research effort affirms contentions leader roles include motivating and inspiring followers (Northouse, 2010/2013). Research outcomes clarify and expand leader requirements to stimulate and arouse subordinates by mandating individualized consideration practice. Research findings support suppositions one cannot be a transformative leader unless he or she provides IC to followers.

Second, DQ3 focused on effective leadership behaviors. Striking differences between developmental and supportive leadership scores clearly indicate limited supportive leadership action effectiveness. Insight into supportive leadership impacts serve to extend what is currently known about "hollow" leader practices. Analyses indicate supportive leadership may possess impact similar to laissez-faire leadership. Similarly, nontransactional, laissez-faire, and supportive leadership offer little utility when overcoming social poverty (Howell & Costley, 2006; Pithers, 1985). Further supportive leadership effectiveness inquiries are required in order to further ascertain supportive leadership limitations and establish linkages with laissez-faire leadership practice.

This inquiry extends transformational leadership understanding by identifying effective transformative leader behaviors. DQ3 analyses indicate five developmental

leadership subcompetencies (mentorship, sponsorship, coaching, obstacle removal, and required follower development) serve to appreciably influence followers in positive directions. If TL inspires followers to do more by raising expectations and addressing higher order needs, then practicing five transformative developmental leadership sub-competencies has most impact. Findings serve to extend presently held TL subcompetency understandings (Avilio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass & Avilio, 1994; Burns, 2003; Cialdini, 2001; Harari, 2004).

Limitations, Reliability, and Validity

This bounded inquiry explored research gaps linking leadership constructs to poverty reduction. Study execution gave rise generalizability, validity, and reliability limitations. Restricted and exploratory, this investigation unmasks promising and as-of-yet untried, poverty reduction procedures. Understanding which leadership characteristics further collegiate athlete degree fulfillment should serve to significantly increase graduation rates (and thereby lower poverty rates) among high-need societal demographics. Although limited, this bounded inquiry serves to open six major future avenues of inquiry (AoI) into potential leadership behaviors which serve to counter impecunious existences. Figure 48 depicts these six AoI.

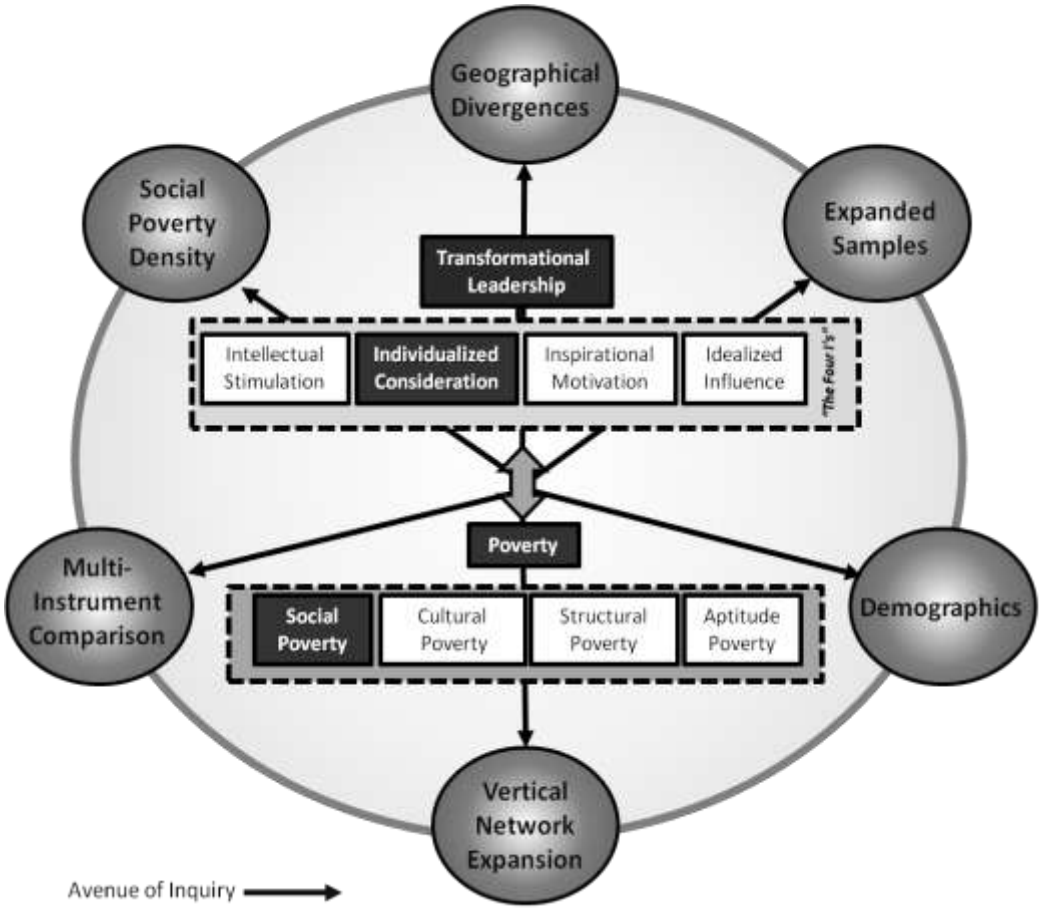

Figure 48. Further Avenues of Inquiry (AoI).

Limitations

Resource limitations impacted this study. Financial constraints limited further survey data attainment from more than four universities. Given unique and prototypical study boundaries, requisite proof-of-principle was judged attainable with four institutions. However, further expanded research must include wider sampling to ascertain if study findings hold for most universities. Initiating mandated landmark scholastic sports program reforms based on such a small sampling would be injudicious until corroborated with larger trials.

Geographical divergences. Although graduation and IC-provision rates varied greatly, four survey population universities shared roughly contiguous geographical origins. Expanding participating athletic program geographical constituency is required to address regional limitations. Future investigative avenues must encompass a wider geography in order to rule out potential provincial-based causes. Determining regional similarities and differences to IC effectiveness may serve to expand current assumptions regarding transformative leadership usefulness as an anti-poverty measure.

Social poverty density. Additionally, this survey did not test for social poverty density among collegiate athletes. Literature-grounded foundational assumptions understood social poverty to exist among collegiate athletes at rates which outpace societal norms. Further social poverty prevalence research among collegiate athletes is required to fully determine potential IC effectiveness.

Expanded sample. This inquiry focused on one implicit socially impoverished population. Extending TL research to other socially impoverished populations, such as unpartnered mothers, chronically unemployed persons, and addicts is necessary to ascertain potential IC usefulness. Socially impoverished population multiannual longitudinal studies are required to determine tangible TL follower progression value. When attempted, providing test group subjects with IC while withholding IC from a control group should result in stark educational and economic progression divergences over time.

Multi-instrument comparison. This survey-based inquiry focused solely on MLQ 5X metacompetencies. Although strong reliability and validity are embedded in

this inquiry, further trustworthiness can be enhanced by extending MLQ 5X use. By using comprehensive MLQ 5X survey results, further research into other TL meta-competencies can be actualized. Full range TL effectiveness comprehension is required to determine social poverty reduction capacities while fully validating IC as the preeminent poverty countermeasure.

Leveraging other established leadership measurement instruments such as the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire (TLQ) are required to achieve harmonious survey comparisons. Employing instruments other than MLQ 5X would serve to extend findings in promising directions, further clarify educational advancing transformative behaviors, and illuminate unexplored potential poverty reduction paths (Alimo-Metcalf & Alban-Metcalf, 2001).

Demographics. Conclusions based on race, gender, income, and other demographic factors were not included in this bounded research effort. Sensitive demographic data such as behavioral role model influence, family structure, and economic affluence are all hypothesized to impact impoverishment. Each has been repeatedly studied in depth and offer logical poverty causality arguments. Conversely, this effort sought only isolate IC as a potential poverty remediation measure. Future studies should cross walk demographic factors with MLQ-5X responses to analyze socioeconomic response skews for explanatory poverty reduction findings.

Vertical network expansion. This survey study attended to only one vertical social network type. Vertical social networks are those connections which exist between socioeconomic or cultural groups which serve to promote social capital growth. Vertical

networks provide social capital accrual and increased opportunity to the socially impoverished. Higher education, religious volunteerism, and military service are hypothesized to be expansive vertical network exemplars which serve to provide opportunity. Further investigation into education, service, or military based vertical networks is required to fully ascertain capacities to counter opportunity limiting horizontal networks (Hauberer, 2011). Increased vertical network understanding would serve to increase inquiry trustworthiness and soundness.

Reliability and Validity

External validity was attained by generalizing from a small sample group to macro-level populations using specific transferability factors. Broad generalizability was achieved by drawing sample sets from four different schools across the graduation rate spectrum. However, validity can further be increased by inspecting particular graduation rate sub-groups for nuanced leadership behaviors which target specific athletic cultures. Formative specific leadership insights related to countering specific sub-culture impoverishment may be gained by leveraging restrictive sampling and extrapolation procedures.

Correlational study structure did not inspect potential attributions to factors other than the independent variable. Generalizability threats were acknowledged and this research effort was strictly intended to ascertain IV potential to positively impact the DV. Further research investigation is required to arrive at causality and open further potential research explorative avenues.

Campbell's (2004) proximal similarity modeling techniques were employed to enhance transferability. Contextual similarity gradients were examined. Five prevailing proximity factors were used when generalizing results: school athletic program functioning, student athlete demographics, school size, language, and school location. Proximal similarity modeling permitted transferability to populations possessing similar cultural norms. Research findings were generalized to like milieus possessing relative similarities. Future research can be extended by expanding or modifying proximal modeling criteria to include factors such as income levels and geographic region.

Given excellent Cronbach's alpha (*a*) scores (*a* = .895), little room for correlated internal consistency growth exists. Cronbach's alpha (*a*) scores will generally increase as internal associations among correlated test items increases. Elevated research effort Cronbach's scores indicate strong instrument cross-observation reliability and trustworthiness. MLQ 5X Cronbach *a* scores routinely range between .74-.94, indicating high overall scale reliability (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 2000; Givens, 2011; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008). Reliability and trustworthiness were buttressed by mature athletic program selection. Programs were considered mature if the program participated in D1 or D2 NCAA Athletics for at least 25 years. Expanding research populations to include recently emergent athletic programs offers uncovered insight and innovation possibilities.

Finally, an experimental design was leveraged for this research effort. Experiments are generally considered the most precise research design type and are readily accepted by most disciplines as statistically provable (Sayer, 2005, pp. 195-6).

Future nonexperimental qualitative or mixed-methods research efforts into TL-social poverty links are necessary to corroborate findings, expand knowledge holdings, and enhance inquiry trustworthiness. Initial exploratory correlation research efforts focused on establishing preliminary conclusions. Embedded observation and investigation over time is essential to gaining a deeper TL counter-poverty appreciation.

Social Change Implications

This research effort offers affirmative multilevel social change promise. Investigative findings proffer transformational potential at individual, communal, institutional, and societal levels. Practically applied, study findings inform social policy poverty affliction remedies for more than 50 million Americans. As such, this inquiry promises far-reaching revolutionary social poverty countering impact.

Individual Level Changes

Interconnected Chapter 4 findings point toward collegiate athletes being bound by culturally imbued repressive mental schema which serve to inhibit high quality decision making. Study conclusions echo Koralus and Mascarenhas's (2012) who concluded that circumscribed mental models serve to shape future outcomes. This research effort offers insight into leadership practices which serve to alter volitional selection, thereby improving graduation rates among impoverished populations.

Inquiry findings further suggest questioning existing mental models increases decision making quality leading to improved future outcomes. This research offers significant societal transformation promise by illuminating leader procedures for improving follower educational decisions. By identifying IC as a cognitive modification

tool, stasis propagating decision-making may be countered (Kahneman, 2003; Schroyens & Braem, 2011).

The Schott Foundation (2012) indicated less than half (47%) of minority secondary school students matriculate as scheduled. Educational failure rates regularly transfers to scholastic student-athletes where collegiate athletes fail to grasp collegiate sports as a full time job equivalent. Student-athlete educational preparedness shortfalls are exacerbated because student athletes expend approximately 40 hours per week on athletic endeavors (NCAA, 2011b; Reynolds, Fisher, & Cavil, 2012). This inquiry serves to identify processes to counter elevated student athlete educational attrition rates. This investigation serves to recommend IC inculcating actions to facilitate educational attainment among impoverished student athletes.

Finally, this research effort offers individual societal members evolutionary improvement by identifying belief-set advancement barriers, illuminating logic reasoning disablers, and offering alternative progression paths. Imbued belief biases serve as logic inhibitors which regularly counter advancement and educational attainment. Those choosing a socially impoverished path do so despite overwhelming and acknowledged repudiation evidence. This analysis serves to identify leadership behaviors which counter entrenched regressive beliefs and subsequent actions. Identifying and altering biased operating assumptions offers to significantly decrease annual educational attrition rates among more than 385,000 collegiate athletes. Extending research effort scope and population promises to positively influence more than 50 million Americans living in poverty (O'Brien & Manfrinati, 2010; Oaksford & Chater, 2010).

Communal Level Transformations

Educational failure is poverty's primary contributor, especially among socially impoverished demographics such as unpartnered parents. Approximately one in three single mothers, and one in five single fathers, are impoverished. These statistics parallel educational failure rates among like demographics where 37% of single mothers and 17% of single dads fail to attain a high-school diploma. Many transformative communal benefits can be realized if research findings are extended to wider impoverished populations. If individualized consideration presence does indeed impact educational attainment among impoverished populations, then leaders practicing IC may serve to counter poverty continuance (Crouse, 2010).

Poor secondary educational institution matriculation contributes to social poverty prolongation, especially in impoverished areas. Having authored a Fordham Foundation educational attrition report, Schott (2012) found fewer than one in five (20%) US states achieved success in improving minority educational attainment. Given this research study genesis in educational arenas, analytical findings should prove applicable to most educational milieus. Extending individualized consideration practice into socially impoverished primary education settings offers stirring progression opportunities to untold numbers who would otherwise fail academically.

Finally, certain American subcultures stand to appreciably grow from required IC practice. African and Hispanic American horizontal networks tend to transfer poverty-

inducing belief sets to follow-on generations at higher rates than other sub-cultures. Educational failure, family breakdown, strong present time orientations, and other socially impoverished indicators are increasingly present in Black and Hispanic communities. Resultantly, individualized consideration practice among these societal segments offers formative social change promise (Crouse, 2010; Rivas et. al, 2005; Schott, 2012).

Institutional Level Benefits

Broadly applied, this research effort promises expansive organizational level cross-cultural social change. If institutionally applied, individualized consideration underpinned development programs could serve to significantly combat socially transmitted poverty. Inculcated into all existing organizational culture types, developmental leadership actions will offer socially impoverished followers future growth opportunity. Mandating institutional mentoring programs, written evaluative performance counseling, compulsory individual development plans, obligatory broadening experiences, required educational progress, responsibility expansion, and authority transfer efforts are IC-based follower development programs which spur follower growth. However, most organizational follower development programs tend to employ only token follower development tools. Requiring follower progression as an organizational membership condition would serve to advance follower future states.

Narrowly applied, this research effort revolutionizes scholastic sport landscapes. As inquiry findings attest, corresponding relationships exists between individualized consideration presence and scholastic sports program graduation rates. As such,

compelling individualized consideration provision by athletic program leaders will serve to increase graduation rates among socially impoverished student athletes. Currently, more than 10 million former American collegiate athletes lack college degrees. With typical student athletes receiving benefits worth $141,000 each year, the former college athlete without a degree population represents a significant societal resource investment. Not only will initial societal educational investments be increasingly actualized, but future broad-based societal enhancements will be realized (Lapchick, Adams & Jackson, 2011; Severns, 2010; Wieberg, 2010).

Mandating individualized consideration-based developmental leadership practices in primary and secondary educational institutions offers transformational organizational outcomes. Most educational institutions employ guidance counselors or faculty advisors at extremely low densities. Appointed institutional representatives normally have little qualitative interaction with students, mostly in haphazard, irregular, and superficial exchanges which are supportive (vice developmental) in nature (Severns, 2010; Wieberg, 2010).

Followers stand to reap this inquiry's developmental leadership benefits when actualized through educational mentorship program application, codified coaching responsibilities, and hard-and-fast educational progression requirements. Improving educational development and credential attainment serves to counter current and future impecunious circumstances among socially impoverished populations. Mandating numerous and compounding developmental leadership actions would significantly impact

follower development in a positive manner, thereby increasing organizational effectiveness while concurrently improving impoverished societal standing.

Integrating individually tailored leadership actions will progressively effect student athlete attainment. Removing many scholastic athlete special benefits while increasing educational attainment expectations will positively stimulate student athlete matriculation. London (1993) suggested that athlete graduation rates ought to actually be superior to regular student rates due to institution provided services and support not afforded to tuition-paying students. Many athletes are engaged in educational programs which could easily be considered fraudulent. Athletes are commonly advantaged and given liberties not gifted to most college students.

Conversely, most HGRI cultures employ "tough love" developmental leadership measures which facilitate student athlete end state attainment. Forced integration programs, educational milestone mandatory achievement, and direct educational oversight are IC-based programs with proven track records. Requiring collegiate athletic programs to adopt IC-grounded measures offers to counter unrelenting educational attrition among scholastic athlete populations.

Societal/Policy Impacts

Applied nationally, mandating individualized consideration offers significant social change promise. Requiring individualized consideration provision offers to revolutionize scholastic athletics landscapes. Scholastic athletics offers educational opportunities to socially impoverished societal segments at disproportionate rates. Replacing current university based athletic programs with a European club system does

not serve wider public best interests. Impoverished athlete graduation is a societal necessity. As such, mandatory degree attainment rates for scholastic athletic programs are an economic and moral imperative. Requiring scholastic sports programs to achieve mandatory graduation rates or face punitive participation suspensions would serve to transformationally compensate socially impoverished athletes (Huma & Staurowsky, 2012; Paterno, 2011).

If a student athlete achieves a bachelor's degree, he or she stands a 95% welfare avoidance probability (Huma, 2012). If a scholastic athletic program desires to pay its athletes, it should do so by ensuring they graduate. The NCAA should mandate across-the-board IC practice and hold individual schools punitively accountable for achieving elevated graduation rates. As Paterno (2011) put forth, if a school recruits a player, then the school incurs an ethical obligation to graduate said athlete.

London (1993) suggested that three out of four collegiate athletes would not be granted college admission, if not for athletic competency. Student-athletes rarely take intellectual development sincerely, actually attend classes as a sports participation precondition, and find scholastic work necessarily inconvenient. This low priority educational approach is embedded in LGRI institutional cultures. Realities suggest athletic leaders are hired to run successful athletic programs as measured by competitive athletic success, not athlete matriculation. Most athletic leader employment is not tied to student-athlete graduation rates (Beamon, 2008; NCAA, 2010b). Compelling mandatory individualized consideration provision, as confirmed by student athlete mandatory

graduation rates, would serve to significantly impact more than 10 million impoverished Americans.

Implementing national and regional policies which require educational progression as a benefit receipt precondition would also serve to counter negative poverty drift. Current poverty remediation methodologies focus on wealth redistribution, which serves to encourage poverty stasis. As of December 2013, more than 120 national antipoverty programs distributed roughly 1.3 trillion dollars annually to more approximately 50 million Americans (Fox et. al, 2014). A multiecheloned, IC-based progression program as a poverty counter-strategy offers to fundamentally change American society. Mandating IC-based developmental leadership practice, while simultaneously applying poverty countermeasures, would serve to remit generational social poverty.

Conclusion

Given educational attainment contributions to poverty remediation, this research effort possesses significant methodological, theoretical, and empirical value. Infusing individually tailored transformative leadership practices into existing vertical networks will serve to counter poverty causing behaviors. Requiring individually considerate leadership practices promises to counter static mental schema, negate imbued low-quality decision making, and improve scholastic attainment. Integrating developmental leadership techniques such as mentoring, coaching, mandated progression, and obstacle removal into socially impoverished subcultures increases traditionally insolvent expectations.

The theoretical impacts are profound. Serving to connect greater leadership and poverty theories where the first serves to remediate the second, this inquiry supports a parallel relationship between the two. Where transformative leadership is practiced, poverty remediation outcomes occur. Transformative leader guidelines and techniques are virtually requisite in milieus where socially impoverished followers are offered vertical network access.

This inquiry possesses pronounced practical value. Multi-level growth, improvement, and development ought to result from practiced transformative leadership. Implementing individually considerate leadership techniques promises to greatly improve follower advancement, thereby advancing organizational and societal progression.

Finally, stark poverty intransience argues innovative approaches are required to counter its generational grip. A half-century of economic poverty countermeasures have spectacularly failed to reduce America poverty rates. As such, novel poverty remediation measures are a moral imperative. Provided sufficient transformative tailored development, the socially impoverished can escape societal poverty by achieving a 4-year college degree.

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Appendix A: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Instrument (Leader and Rater Form)

and Scoring Guide
(Form 5X-Short)

by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass

Published by Mind Garden, Inc.

info@mindgarden.com
www.mindgarden.com

MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Rater Form (5x-Short)

Name of Leader: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

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

IMPORTANT (necessary for processing): Which best describes you?

___ I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.
___ The person I am rating is at my organizational level.
___ I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.
___ I do not wish my organizational level to be known.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

THE PERSON I AM RATING. . .

1.	Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	0	1	2	3	4
2.	Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3.	Fails to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4.	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
5.	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4
6.	Talks about their most important values and beliefs	0	1	2	3	4
7.	Is absent when needed	0	1	2	3	4
8.	Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	0	1	2	3	4
9.	Talks optimistically about the future	0	1	2	3	4
10.	Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her	0	1	2	3	4
11.	Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	0	1	2	3	4
12.	Waits for things to go wrong before taking action	0	1	2	3	4
13.	Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0	1	2	3	4
14.	Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	0	1	2	3	4
15.	Spends time teaching and coaching	0	1	2	3	4

Continued =>

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

16.	Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	0	1	2	3	4
17.	Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."	0	1	2	3	4
18.	Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	0	1	2	3	4
19.	Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group	0	1	2	3	4
20.	Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action	0	1	2	3	4
21.	Acts in ways that builds my respect	0	1	2	3	4
22.	Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	0	1	2	3	4
23.	Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	0	1	2	3	4
24.	Keeps track of all mistakes	0	1	2	3	4
25.	Displays a sense of power and confidence	0	1	2	3	4
26.	Articulates a compelling vision of the future	0	1	2	3	4
27.	Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards	0	1	2	3	4
28.	Avoids making decisions	0	1	2	3	4
29.	Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	0	1	2	3	4
30.	Gets me to look at problems from many different angles	0	1	2	3	4
31.	Helps me to develop my strengths	0	1	2	3	4
32.	Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	0	1	2	3	4
33.	Delays responding to urgent questions	0	1	2	3	4
34.	Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission	0	1	2	3	4
35.	Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations	0	1	2	3	4
36.	Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	0	1	2	3	4
37.	Is effective in meeting my job-related needs	0	1	2	3	4
38.	Uses methods of leadership that are satisfying	0	1	2	3	4
39.	Gets me to do more than I expected to do	0	1	2	3	4
40.	Is effective in representing me to higher authority	0	1	2	3	4
41.	Works with me in a satisfactory way	0	1	2	3	4
42.	Heightens my desire to succeed	0	1	2	3	4
43.	Is effective in meeting organizational requirements	0	1	2	3	4
44.	Increases my willingness to try harder	0	1	2	3	4
45.	Leads a group that is effective	0	1	2	3	4

MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Scoring Key (5x) Short

My Name: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

Scoring: The MLQ scale scores are average scores for the items on the scale. The score can be derived by summing the items and dividing by the number of items that make up the scale. All of the leadership style scales have four items, Extra Effort has three items, Effectiveness has four items, and Satisfaction has two items.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

Idealized Influence (Attributed) total/4 =

Idealized Influence (Behavior) total/4 =

Inspirational Motivation total/4 =

Intellectual Stimulation total/4 =

Individualized Consideration total/4 =

Contingent Reward total/4 =

Management-by-Exception (Active) total/4 =

Management-by-Exception (Passive) total/4 =

Laissez-faire Leadership total/4 =

Extra Effort total/3 =

Effectiveness total/4 =

Satisfaction total/2 =

1.	**Contingent Reward**	0	1	2	3	4
2.	**Intellectual Stimulation**	0	1	2	3	4
3.	**Management-by-Exception (Passive)**	0	1	2	3	4
4.	**Management-by-Exception (Active)**	0	1	2	3	4
5.	**Laissez-faire**	0	1	2	3	4
6.	**Idealized Influence (Behavior)**	0	1	2	3	4
7.	**Laissez-faire**	0	1	2	3	4
8.	**Intellectual Stimulation**	0	1	2	3	4
9.	**Inspirational Motivation**	0	1	2	3	4
10.	**Idealized Influence (Attributed)**	0	1	2	3	4
11.	**Contingent Reward**	0	1	2	3	4
12.	**Management-by-Exception (Passive)**	0	1	2	3	4
13.	**Inspirational Motivation**	0	1	2	3	4
14.	**Idealized Influence (Behavior)**	0	1	2	3	4
15.	**Individualized Consideration**	0	1	2	3	4

Continued =>

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

16.	Contingent Reward	0	1	2	3	4
17.	Management-by-Exception (Passive)	0	1	2	3	4
18.	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	0	1	2	3	4
19.	Individualized Consideration	0	1	2	3	4
20.	Management-by-Exception (Passive)	0	1	2	3	4
21.	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	0	1	2	3	4
22.	Management-by-Exception (Active)	0	1	2	3	4
23.	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	0	1	2	3	4
24.	Management-by-Exception (Active)	0	1	2	3	4
25.	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	0	1	2	3	4
26.	Inspirational Motivation	0	1	2	3	4
27.	Management-by-Exception (Active)	0	1	2	3	4
28.	Laissez-faire	0	1	2	3	4
29.	Individualized Consideration	0	1	2	3	4
30.	Intellectual Stimulation	0	1	2	3	4
31.	Individualized Consideration	0	1	2	3	4
32.	Intellectual Stimulation	0	1	2	3	4
33.	Laissez-faire	0	1	2	3	4
34.	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	0	1	2	3	4
35.	Contingent Reward	0	1	2	3	4
36.	Inspirational Motivation	0	1	2	3	4
37.	Effectiveness	0	1	2	3	4
38.	Satisfaction	0	1	2	3	4
39.	Extra Effort	0	1	2	3	4
40.	Effectiveness	0	1	2	3	4
41.	Satisfaction	0	1	2	3	4
42.	Extra Effort	0	1	2	3	4
43.	Effectiveness	0	1	2	3	4
44.	Extra Effort	0	1	2	3	4
45.	Effectiveness	0	1	2	3	4

Appendix B: Sample Participant Email Sent by Schools

Good Morning Student Athlete,

You are receiving this email to solicit your participation to take part in a research study designed to test for a relationship between student athlete graduation rates and leader effectiveness. It is believed that athletes provided tailored and individualized support will graduate at higher rates than those who are not. The purpose of this study is to determine if a possible link between the two exists. To determine if personalized mentoring has an impact on the student, we are offering athletes and athletic leaders the opportunity to answer a historically validated survey. The answers to the survey will be used in the preparation of a doctoral thesis. This relationship is being studied for the purpose of increasing graduation rates among student athletes. The principal investigator for this project is Mr. Lawrence Wilson. There are no co-investigators.

PROCEDURES TO BE FOLLOWED

You will be asked to answer questions on a historically validated survey. It will take you approximately 5 minutes to complete the survey. You are being invited to take part in this study because you are a collegiate student athlete. Your survey results, along with results from at least 30 other athletes from your university will be analyzed to determine which leadership actions help students to graduate at higher and lower rates. You must be 18 years or older to participate in this study.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THIS FORM?

This is an implied consent form. This form gives you the information you will need to help you decide whether to be in the study or not. Please read the form carefully. Once completed and if you agree to participate, simple please click link below. You will not sign this form. If you decide to complete the survey you are giving the researcher permission to use the results in his PhD dissertation research.

WHAT WILL HAPPEN DURING THIS STUDY AND HOW LONG WILL IT TAKE?

This survey covers four different areas. You will be asked to complete the survey using a five point scale. The questions deal with how much coaching and mentoring you have received, the degree to which you are treated as an individual, whether your personal education needs have been considered, and the improvement help you have received from your coaches or others in the athletic department. This survey should take approximately 5 minutes to complete.

WHAT ARE THE RISKS OF THIS STUDY?

Because you, and your school, are to remain anonymous all times no names are to be recorded. There is very little risk associated with taking this survey. Results will not be shared and life-impacting decisions will not be made based on this survey's results. Given the short survey format, fatigue should not occur. Also, the impersonal nature of the survey should not cause any embarrassment to you. If at any time you decide not to continue, simply disregard or exit the survey without completing it.

WHAT ARE THE BENEFITS OF THIS STUDY?

However, we hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study because if we can identify individualized consideration as a way of improving graduation rates, we can recommend procedures to ensure an increase in college graduation by scholastic athletes. Doing so would serve to reduce the population of more than 10 million former college athletes who do not have a degree. Follow-up studies will be conducted at later dates to see if other factors affect graduation rates in a similar fashion.

WHO WILL SEE THE INFORMATION I GIVE?

The information you provide during this research study will be kept confidential to the extent permitted by law. To help protect your confidentiality, your name will remain unknown and there will be no link to identify your survey from the others collected. Data gathering and entry will be done solely by the researcher and no outside parties will be given access to the raw data. Only participant survey results will be entered into the master SPSS file. Resultantly, individual responses cannot be associated with participants or specific organizations. Participant names are not part of the raw data collected and names do not appear in the data base used for analysis.

DO I HAVE A CHOICE TO BE IN THE STUDY?

Your decision to be in this research is voluntary. You can stop at any time. You do not have to answer any questions you do not want to answer. Refusal to take part in or withdrawing from this study will involve no penalty or loss of benefits you would receive otherwise. If you decide not to take part in this study, your decision will have no effect on the quality of any care or service you receive. You will not be treated differently if you decide to stop taking part in the study. You will not sign this form. Completion and return of the survey is considered your implied consent to participate in this study. Please keep this form for your records.

OK, YOU WANT TO PARTICIPATE, HOW DO YOU DO SO?

Simply click the link provided at the bottom of this email. Clicking the link will take you to the survey and you may begin whenever you so desire. Keep in mind, that by clicking the link below you are giving your researcher implied consent to use your returns.

WHAT IF I HAVE FURTHER PARTICIPATION QUESTIONS?

If you have any questions about this research project or simply want to know/learn more about it, please contact: Mr. Lawrence Wilson at 913-306-6012 (text and voice are acceptable), Lawrence.Wilson@waldenu.edu, or Skype WilFam41. Mr. Wilson is prepared to answer any questions you may have or discuss any issues with you.

If you have questions about your rights as a participant, please contact the Northwest Missouri State University Institutional Review Board by email at IRBNWMS@nwmissouri.edu.

If you have any issues regarding this survey's conduct, you can also contact the Walden Research Participant Advocate's contact information (612-312-1210).

The survey can be accessed at:

http://transform.mindgarden.com/survey/13820

Appendix C: MLQ-5X Copyright Permission

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Third Edition

Manual and Sample Set

Bruce J. Avolio and Bernard M. Bass
University of Nebraska and SUNY Binghamton

Contributions by:
Dr. Fred Walumbwa
Weichun Zhu
University of Nebraska—Lincoln
Gallup Leadership Institute

mind garden
Published by Mind Garden, Inc.
info@mindgarden.com
www.mindgarden.com

Appendix D: Human Subjects Certificate

Certificate of Completion

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that **Lawrence Wilson** successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course "Protecting Human Research Participants".

Date of completion: 12/22/2012

Certification Number: 1067217

Appendix E: Walden University IRB Approval

part in this study, your decision will have no effect on the quality of any care or service you receive. You will not be treated differently if you decide to stop taking part in the study. You will not sign this form. Completion and return of the survey is considered your implied consent to participate in this study. Please keep this form for your records.

WHAT IF I HAVE QUESTIONS?

If you have any questions about this research project, please contact: Mr. Lawrence Wilson, 913-306-6012, Lawrence.Wilson@waldenu.edu.

If you have questions about your rights as a participant, please contact the Walden University Institutional Review Board by email at IRB@waldenu.edu.

If you have any issues regarding this survey's conduct, you can also contact the Walden Research Participant Advocate's contact information (612-312-1210).

Walden University's approval number for this study is 12-05-13-0086825 and it expires on December 4, 2014.

Curriculum Vitae

Professional Organizations

- International Association of Coaches Level 1 certified Executive Coach
- Kansas Scholastic Athletic Association
- Knights of Columbus
- Association of the United States Army
- Veterans of Foreign Wars
- Mid American Collegiate Athletic Association

Academic Qualifications

- Scholastic All-American, Northwest Missouri State University 1990
- Summa Cum Laude, Northwest Missouri State University, 1990
- Masters of Science, Kansas State University, 2008
- Associate Professor, US Army Command and General Staff College
- Adjunct Professor of Management, Webster University
- Adjunct Professor of Business Administration, Ottawa University

Professional Leadership Experience

- Retired professional military officer (28 years, US Army, Lieutenant Colonel)
- Chief Operating Officer, Decisive Edge Consulting, 2008-Present
- Director of Baseball Operations, Leavenworth Regional Catholic School System , 2009-2012
- Senior Advisor, Ministry of Defense, United Arab Emirates, 2012-Present
- Deputy Associate Commissioner, Mid-America Intercollegiate Athletic Association
- Championship caliber athletics administrator and coach