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The Relationship Between Athletic Development Personality Factors and Decision Making

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Abstract

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by

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MSM, Notre Dame de Namur University, 2013

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

Ineffective leadership that results from personality defects, ineffective core executive functions, and emotional decision making can lead to destructive actions and executive failures that affect organizational effectiveness. The purpose of this correlational study was to determine if athletic development personality factors correlate with decision making at the executive leadership level. The research questions focused on determining if there was a relationship between athletic development personality factors and decision making. Social exchange theory, social representations theory, and leadership theories comprised the theoretical framework. Participants included 124 executive decision-makers from the United States, the United Kingdom, South Africa, India, and Singapore who completed an online survey measuring self-assessed athletic development personality factors. The data analysis strategy using multiple regression showed that, while each variable was a positive significant predictor of personality factors, the regression approach eliminated redundant predictors from the 5 variable model. The resulting 3 variable model was significant; focus, ethicalness, and leadership found decision making scores to be higher for respondents with highest scores for focus personality ($\beta = .43$, $p = .001$) and ethicalness personality ($\beta = .28$, $p = .001$) and leadership personality ($\beta = .21$, $p = .001$) significantly contributed to the model. Organizational leaders might use the findings of this study on these key personality factors to enhance their knowledge and increase the relationship paths for positive social change by informing leadership development programs and executive training through educational strategies and best practices.

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Dedication

I dedicate this study to my amazing daughter and son, Jennifer, and Aaron, whose support, words of encouragement and prayers helped me stay focused on the doctoral journey. I am also thankful for my journey with my parents, who ingrained in me the value of family, education, and that a person can achieve their dreams with hard work. At the same time, acknowledging there will be hardships along the way in fulfilling those dreams.

Acknowledgments

First, I give all of my thanks to God, who provided me with the opportunity, fortitude, resilience, perseverance, and mental capacity to complete and attain this doctoral degree, with the wisdom and confidence that all things are possible. I am thankful for a greater understanding of a topic that aligns with my professional life and increases the opportunity to influence positive social change. I am grateful for the guidance, direction, and mentorship from both Dr. McCollum and Dr. Jain. Dr. McCollum, my chair, advisor, and mentor, challenge me on the nuances of quantitative research, leadership and provided me with the opportunities to succeed in the doctoral journey. His timely review and response to any submitted work, whether it was a prospectus, proposal, literature review, or post, were exemplary and perceptive. His focus on time management was a guiding light to the completion of the dissertation.

I am also thankful to Dr. Jain, my second committee member for his area of expertise and the timely responses to the submission of the drafts. A special thank you to the cohort, whose members held you accountable on a weekly basis and to several friends and business associate for their words of constant encouragement. Lastly, to my grandchildren, Leah, Alex, and Aaron, that they grow up to understand the importance of leadership and the value of a quality education.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

My goal in this study was to examine the relationships between athletic development personality factors and decision making in order to determine if any correlations exist between the independent variables (athletic development personality factors) and the dependent variable (decision making at the executive level). While the relationship between variables may exist, many researchers regard social exchange as a sequence of giving and taking to create a mutual obligation between two parties. These related exchanges are usually two-way and are dependent on the behavior of both sides (Naseer, Raja, Syed, Donia, & Darr, 2016). Whereas, social representation are relationships that are complex social practices with heterogeneous interactions that lead to organizational activity. It is this understanding of the multiple strategies in the organizations structure for authority and internal politics in the social representation of the system (da Silva, de Pádua Carrieri, & de Souza, 2012). For this reason, cognitive skill transfer may play a role in executive function skills since the transfer of learning from the classroom to the workplace setting has been difficult for educators (Holten, Bøllingtoft, & Wilms, 2015; Jacobson & Matthaeus, 2014). These transfers of skills serve as reasons for educators to focus on linking personality with leadership despite the lack of research contribution to leadership theory and research.

For this study, I chose several athletic development personality factors as constructs identified by Young, Bodey, Harder, and Peters (2013), including: collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, and leadership. Researchers may debate

the existence of a relationship between athletic development personality factors and the executive leadership decision-making ability. The argument is moot if personality is a conceptualization of traits, as there would be no relevance in studying development and change to ensure dispositional tendencies (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2013). Within the continuum of a personality factor there is a sliding scale between positive and negative aspects of top executives. It is this leader behavior that emerge for examination in the dark side of leadership are becoming a concern for organizations in a globalized environment (Naseer et al., 2016). Reviewing the literature involves obstacles when trying to interpret the results of researchers who have used different methods and terminologies to identify personality factors that may correlate with behavior from a short- and a long-term perspective (Day et al., 2013). As I worked to determine the correlation between athletic development personality factors and executive decision making, I encountered several challenges. First, determine the appropriate instruments to measure the personality factors. Second, interpreting measurements of significance due to the high positive correlational relationship between athletic development personality factors and executive decision-making.

Background of the Study

The decisions made by top managers may have consequences due to the relationship among various theories and knowledge obtained through empirical research. It is this information in organizational outcome that are relatable to variables in the personal life and in the professional life of the executive. Many executives have a dual role to provide leadership responsibilities to their work environment and to provide a

sustainable living for their families. Parenting expertise reflects intrapersonal, interpersonal, and organizational skill characteristics used when coping with various life demands (Bean, Fortier, Post, & Chima, 2014). The leadership development process starts at a young age and involves the application of a host of skills, such as wisdom, intelligence, and creativity, formed by personality factors (Day et al., 2013). The personality factor are characteristic continuums that moves as a sliding scale from positive to negative or bright to dark. These individual discrepancies in the situational and organizational factors influences dysfunctional leadership behaviors that coexist with the continuum of personality factor's bright-side and the dark-side characteristics (Naseer et al., 2016). Therefore, behavioral interpretation may be more applicable in moderation as a consistent pattern for a cultural view. In fact, any tendency may simulate a virtue or an iniquity for a personality characteristic (Cullen, Gentry, & Yammarino, 2015). It is this connection between biased self-awareness and negative personality that are a concern by management. This investigation of self-assessment, the assessment of others, and the alignment of cultural assessments to personality is understood by researchers. (Cullen et al., 2015). There is no bearing on a situation when the weakness to embellish is an interpretation on the group's distinct depth in the biased self-analysis.

In light of existing issues in executive business decisions does presents problems in the failures of the operational function due to personality defects. For example, in cases of corporate abuse, derogatory administrative control and the cunning behavior of superiors are often the factors implicated in negative organizational measures and results. Subtle dysfunctional behaviors will result in the replacement and derailment of such

leaders at considerable expense, lead to an unsatisfactory outcome in employee achievement and engagement, and add stress to organizational operations (Cullen et al., 2015). According to Gaddis and Foster (2015), investigators have hypothesized the price of inadequate management to be $500,000 per failed leader. In contrast, Antes et al. (2012) noted the self-reflection processes of ethical decision-making had undergone limited examination. The moral capacity to understand and improve ethical decision-making in leadership development is the concern and principle interest of scholars.

The active involvement of young people in sports in the United States has positive and negative influences, but continues to provide an increase in opportunities for leadership development. These leadership development initiatives depend on personality assessments conducted by executive coaches to improve clients' strategic self-awareness. Therefore, the executive coaching industry continues to flourish, regardless of the prevalence and cost of failed leaders. Some researchers have noted a need for leadership training and development to provide managers with better skills in communicating, translating visions, and engaging employees toward goal attainment (Holten et al., 2015). Consequently, the continuum of the bright side personality spectrum has been the focal point in studies of leadership behavior (Gaddis & Foster, 2015). Research on intrinsic characteristics that facilitate these skills such as wisdom, intelligence, and creativity provides new insights into critical leader behaviors rather than a focus on technical knowledge.

In providing new insight, the characteristics of the nonprofessional athletes, individual team members, teams, and youth participating in physical development have

found that negative perceptions and consequences can lead to problematic, unethical, and illegal sports behaviors and activities. According to Gaddis and Foster (2015), dark-side spectrum of personality measurements from around the world have indicated that these relationships predict significant critical leadership behaviors. Certain personality attributes associated with key performance behaviors can provide researchers with new insights to mitigate the negative impact of a company's performance due to financial improprieties, diversity issues, racism, sexism, and bigotry from personality defects.

These key performance behaviors in the culture of the celebrity involves intense media scrutiny, and because chief executive officers (CEOs) and top management have achieved near celebrity status with sufficient incomes, the characteristics of their leadership have been magnified (Rechner & Smart, 2012). In addition, within the United States, it is typical that at least one child in each family participates in an organized sport between the ages of 6 and 18 (Bean et al., 2014). It is important to understand the impact of participating in sports, which is a primary activity for many youth and their families (Bean et al., 2014). In essence, the strength of causal interpretations depends on the amount of evidence supporting longitudinal research of clearly defined variables (Brittin et al., 2015). Therefore, a need exists to strengthen the effectiveness of future leadership development programs, and to offer solutions based on the knowledge of human biological learning processes and the transfer of learning (Holten et al., 2015). Moreover, physical activity need to improve the pathways between environmental factors and human behaviors to understand athletic development personality factors collaboration,

focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, and leadership is a benchmark in creating positive social change for further research.

Problem Statement

Top management has conflicting interpretations concerning the authoritative qualities that align with the intrinsic and external relationships within organizations. Ineffective or destructive leadership is a concern, and between 33% and 61% of leaders act destructively (Gaddis & Foster, 2015). The general problem is executive leadership failures due to athletic development personality defects, core executive functions, and emotional decision making (Antes et al., 2012; Gaddis & Foster, 2015; Ross, Metcalf, Bulger, & Housner, 2014). The specific problem was to identify whether or not there were any defects among athletic development personality factors in the correlational relationships to executive leadership decision making (see Gaddis & Foster, 2015; Holten et al., 2015; Towndrow & Vallance, 2013). This quantitative correlational study involved using a survey to obtain data from executive leadership to determine if a relationship exists between athletic development personality factors and decision-making.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine if athletic development personality factors (collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, and leadership) correlate with executive leadership decision-making (Young et al., 2013). In fact, different organizational constituencies serve as opportunities to observe leaders' behaviors when encountering various cognitive and affective constraints (Gaddis & Foster, 2015). In this study, I assessed the operational size of executive leadership groups based on corporate

frameworks for large, medium, and small businesses. I used a quantitative method, a correlational design, a Likert-type survey instrument, and a multiple regression procedure to describe characteristics that correlate to the relationship of athletic development personality factors to top management.

My intent was to examine athletic development personality factors (independent variables) and executive leadership decision-making (dependent variable). For this reason, control and causation in the social sciences use correlational factors in the statistical measurement of independent and dependent variables (Leatham, 2012). A scholarly understanding of the factors at play in failures in executive leadership decision-making processes can play a significant role in new research, and can contribute to positive social change.

Research Question

Research Question: What is the relationship between athletic development personality factors and decision making at the executive leadership level of an organization?

H_0: There is no significant relationship between decision making for executive leadership and athletic development personality factors.

H_a: There is at least one significant athletic development personality factor related to decision making at the executive leadership level.

The study involved testing the hypotheses by running the following multiple regression model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \beta_3 X_{3i} + \beta_4 X_{4i} + \beta_5 X_{5i} + \epsilon_i,$$

$$H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \beta_4 = \beta_5 = 0$$

$$H_a: \text{At least one } \beta_i \neq 0,$$

where *i* equaled the *i*th person (out of 124) from the sample, Y_i equaled executive leadership decision making for Person *i*, X_{1i} equaled the collaboration athletic development personality factor of Person *i*, X_{2i} equaled the focus athletic development personality factor of person *i*, X_{3i} equaled the trustworthiness athletic development personality factor of Person *i*, X_{4i} equaled the ethicalness athletic development personality factor of Person *i*, X_{5i} equaled the leadership athletic development personality factor of Person *i*, and ϵ_i equaled error term for Person *i*.

Theoretical Framework

A vast amount of literature has indicated that organizational relationships are parallel and independent in determining organizational effectiveness. Blau's social exchange theory is one of the most prominent theoretical frameworks for interpreting individual behavior in the workplace. As a result, the policy implications of corporate social sustainability and responsibility in decision-making may hinder behavioral understanding (Naseer et al., 2016; Putrevu, McGuire, Siegel, & Smith, 2012). In addition, an understanding of social practices can develop from using Moscovici's social representations theory, which enables an awareness of a broader social and historical context in the analysis of organizational practices (Naseer et al., 2016). Moreover, social representations theory is a mosaic of overlapping strategies. That is, the theory is not just a single strategy in an organization, but a flow of organizational social interactions combined into one practice (da Silva et al., 2012). In contrast, according to Gaddis and

Foster (2015), positive personality characteristics can contribute to organizational success, but due to the dark side continuum of personality, other personal attributes can lead to failure. The psychophysical system is a dynamic organization within individuals, and defining psychological factors and personality may determine the effectiveness on leadership ability as a characteristic behavior (Chien, 2014). The theoretical models used in this study conformed to individual, corporate, industrial, national, and societal behaviors.

Transformational leadership researchers have addressed central questions regarding what makes people in authoritative positions effective in mobilizing, motivating, and inspiring employees, and they have sought to understand how leadership behaviors and processes encourage employees to join in the pursuit of collective objectives (Holten et al., 2015). Over time, individuals develop personality factor associated with trustworthiness, dedication, and shared obligations. The exchange process has basic rules in which the actions of one individual cause reactions in another that will involve interpersonal contact for the exchanges between different parties (Naseer et al., 2016). Subsequently, to develop members of society as leaders, additional theories have been developed to frame the importance of leadership, such as leader–member exchange, servant leadership, and situational leadership (Navarro & Malvaso, 2015). The literature review in Chapter 2 includes a more thorough explanation of the theoretical framework for correlational analysis.

Nature of the Study

This quantitative correlational study involved sending surveys via Survey Monkey to leading executives in a variety of industries. Other types of research designs, such as experimental, quasi-experimental, and pre- or nonexperimental designs, do not have limitations regarding the manipulation of the independent variable. I did not use an experimental design because my study had no exploration of the generalizability of a pretest, did not include time intervals, and a degree of specificity between the time sequence of related events. Researchers can use a correlational design to carry out studies in a natural, real-life setting, which often occurs in educational research that involves testing the cognitive interpretation of a human characteristic (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2007). This study involved using a survey instrument to collect data via the Internet and e-mail, and interpreting the data from the survey research.

The sampling strategy I used served as a guide for the study. In the measurement of the G-Power analysis a probability of detecting a real treatment or actual relationship resulting from a test that showed an accepted value for a statistical power of .80 (80%). A large enough sample will ensure a researchers reasonable likelihood of detecting a difference or of determining that a relationship exists when examining the variables. In other words, the social exchange theory is a prominent theoretical framework for interpreting individual behavior in the workplace. Whereas, the social representations theory are interactions and contextual insertions presented by the individual that emphasize the process of anchoring and objectifying topics in dealing with everyday experience in the workplace (da Silva et al., 2012; Naseer et al., 2016). For instance,

business strategies within organizations include social practices, complex and heterogeneous interactions, and constructs that exist based on authoritative practices where a path is necessary to reveal the existing relationships in the strategy-making process (da Silva et al., 2012). These relationship paths indicate the level of understanding in organizations between the individual and the organization.

Definitions, Assumptions, and Limitations

Definitions

Researchers might use terms to convey different meanings based on the context of a study. Therefore, it is appropriate to delineate, for the reader, the meanings I assigned to key terms.

Athletic development: Motor development represent physical education teachers' role in advocating trained, skillful movement in physical activity, and fitness as an educational frame of reference (Ross et al., 2014).

Athletic development personality factors: Personality traits of individuals participating in sports at recreational and competitive levels that are essential to individual and team performance (Young et al., 2013).

Athletic performance: A person who is proficient in physical movement in the transference of distinct physical exercises by preparation (Cameron, 2014).

Behavior: Characteristics ranging from self-distortion to organizational deviance that can shift in concentration and possible impact to form a meaningful operationalization of unethical conduct (Joosten, van Dijke, Van Hiel, & De Cremer, 2014).

*Big Five factors: T*he dominant paradigms in personality research based off of Cattell's 16 personality factors theory that revealed openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism (Bouchard, 2016, p. 303; Fehringer, n.d.).

Characteristics: Adjectives in creating and assessing reasoning of an individuals manner, influence, and natural characteristics in the allocation to include personality traits (Fehringer, n.d.).

Collaboration: Individuals exhibit collective behavior when they want to combine efforts with others and contribute knowledge (Young et al., 2013).

C-suite: A corporate term widely used to refer collectively to a corporation's most important senior executives (Fitzsimmons, Callan, & Paulsen, 2014).

Dark triad of personality: The unfavorable relationship core of agreeableness to the Big Five personality traits (Furnham, Richards, Rangel, & Jones, 2014, p. 115).

Decision making: The execution of an action in the thinking procedure that corresponds in the choice of an approach (Young et al., 2013, p. 34).

Dimensions of leadership: The balanced temperamental elements entrenched or evolved in either the open-mindedness or conscientiousness in the Big Five personality (Seijts, Gandz, Crossan, & Reno, 2015).

Ethicalness: an operating diligence in attitude regarding what is right or wrong, as a towering anticipation of integrity (Young et al., 2013, p. 34).

Executive leadership: The behavioral preparation toward set goals in persuading individuals and groups (Barrow, 1977).

Focus: A focused person perseveres with a task to its conclusion, regardless of that individual's level of annoyance, exhaustion, or lack of support (Young et al., 2013).

Leadership: The act of convincing subordinates or associates to integrate their activity to accomplish definitive objectives (Young et al., 2013, p. 34).

Mental toughness: A personality construct that constrains domination from anticipated conclusions (Delaney, Goldman, King, & Nelson-Gray, 2015).

Passionate: A person's demonstrated desire in the chosen work (Young et al., 2013, p. 35).

Personality factors: Distinct consequences in the execution that aids in explaining and interpreting individual's behaviors, traits, and characteristics, (Van der Cruyssen, Heleven, Ma, Vandekerckhove & Van Overwalle 2015).

Personality traits: the desire to build an everyday designation of characteristics and traits using a rhetorical path to bring together natural language to common relevant personality adjectives that are vague, individualized habits, and steady modes of a person's modifications to their habitat (Fehringer, n.d.).

Sixteen personality factor model: A multilevel measure of human personality traits established upon 16 traits that outline outward attributes as descriptors. The relationship to source traits is within a high and low range and incorporates specific, narrow primary factors and broad global factors (Fehringer n.d.; Irwing, Booth, & Batey, 2014.

Trustworthiness: Becoming trustworthy involves following the five facets of trust: benevolence, reliability, competence, honesty, and openness (Young et al., 2013, p. 34).

Assumptions

When conducting this study, my first assumption was that the respondents would answer the survey questions truthfully, and that an online survey method would ensure the confidentiality of the interviewees and result in an increased likelihood of honest responses. My second assumption was that the data obtained from the secondary sources would be generalizable to the online survey format. Although, despite differences in reimbursement between the public and the private sector, the quality and performance challenges experienced by executive leaders in both settings are similar. This shared experience increased the probability that the relationship between athletic development personality factors and executive leadership decision making would be the same for managers in large, medium, and small public and private companies. My third assumption was that the managers chosen for the survey served as change agents within their organization. The study population included executive leaders who were not responsible for managing change, but most individuals in top management positions act as primary change agents to execute the strategies needed to make their vision a reality.

Limitations

Limitations or weaknesses may exist in a study, but if properly addressed, limitations do not necessarily detract from a study's value. My goal in this research was to examine correlational relationships, so the results do not imply causality (see

Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 2007). To limit the generalizability of the results, I used

the nonprobability, purposive, and stratification sampling methods. The study did have

limits related to time and scope, and the data were correlational and came from specific

relationships only.

The limitation of the study might have led to patterns of responses among

executive leadership in large, medium, and small companies, and the findings might not

apply to a broader population. There are other predictor variables included such as age

and gender as a profile of the participants' but excluded race and years of experience in

the correlation of athletic development personality factors. Another limitation of this

study was my use of self-reporting surveys, which may have led to distortion or bias in

the responses. Providing complete confidentiality for the respondents might have

mitigated any intentional distortion by the participants.

Significance of this Study

This study was significant because in it I determined if five athletic development

personality factors (collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness and leadership)

exist, even as a guide for future research on the correlation from youth into adulthood

(see Young et al., 2013). These factors may influence the development of executive

leadership decision making and organizational effectiveness. Subsequently, in the United

States, 75% of households take part in extracurricular sports for youth, with 45 million

youth involved in some form of organized sport between the ages of 6 and 18; in

comparison to Canada, 76.4% of households participate (Bean et al., 2014). Researchers

have examined various factors such as experience, skills, personality, self-development,

cognitive functions, and social mechanisms in academic and professional leadership

development program in the educational process involving multiple interactions that

persist over time (Holten et al., 2015). While leadership personality was a significant

correlation the decision making scale in this study, organizations cannot ignore the

failures of others, especially when business failures are common and well known

(Amankwah-Amoah, 2014). Researchers are able to identify, correct, and find that the

transfer of athletic development personality factors (independent variable) is part of the

lessons learned due to personality factors.

The findings indicated whether a relationship exists between decision-making

(dependent variable) and the personality factors (independent variable). Comparatively,

Day et al. (2013) examined various cognitive and metacognitive skills to understand the

underlying patterns of leadership competencies at the core of leadership potential. In

contrast, according to Haskins (2013), 25% of nearly 2,000 U.S. workers observed their

colleagues or company leaders lying, and 88% of 800 executives reported being a victim

of ethics and rule violations, and corporate fraud. Individuals may overuse one end of the

spectrum in the dark-side factors and challenge self-regulation and social vigilance that

represent helpful decision-making strategies in stressful or ambiguous situations (Gaddis

& Foster, 2015). It is these intrinsic and external strategies that are informed by these

variables and factors in organizations. Therefore, indicating the type of behavior needed

to create positive social change through the identification and transfer of personality,

knowledge, and heuristic experience gained through a real-world application.

Contribution to Business Practice

In this study, the contribution of business practices is important when managers and leaders from failed firms may not allow others access to information on lessons learned. Senior management is taking the responsibility to establish and strengthen an ethical environment, improve their competitiveness, their business ethics, and increase the importance of leadership theories (Navarro & Malvaso 2015). On the one hand, this study reflects the expectations in managerial obligation to inform the personality factors for business practices to enhance performance on the intellectual assets, society, and environment (see Su, 2014). On the other hand, understanding business ethics is intrinsically valuable, and it can also serve to improve competitive advantage, affected by ethical thinking to guide the corporate ethical values and its decision-making through its behaviors (Su, 2014). Conversely, business leaders using the study findings can become aware of the full spectrum of personality factors as social leaders that shape the strategic leadership platform. Collaboratively, social change from a business perspective has implications for top management and decision makers biggest challenges in conducting organizational decline/failure research (Purves, Niblock & Sloan 2016). Then business leaders may use the study findings to change a multitude of cultures, the family, business, community, and society for leadership at all levels of the social interaction, both by the individual and as a group.

Implications for Social Change

In the study, social change implications for management decision making is a major dependent variable and factor that crosses international borders. This study has

long lasting social change implications in leadership development for the educational

system as being critical, not just in the sample population of the five countries used in the

study, but for other English and non-English speaking and less developing countries.

Therefore, gaining a better understanding of the similarities in the relationships between

personality factors and decision making, the opportunities to observe the executive

leader's behavior on various informational cognitive and affective constraints basis, as

well as different perceptions of decision-makers are similar in their responses (see Gaddis

& Foster 2015). My study is related to the implications of social change in leadership and

organizational change initiatives as a guide to how an organization can change, influence,

effect, or impact the lives of all stakeholders through the decision making process deep

down and up the organizational infrastructure by understanding the continuum of

personality factors.

Summary

This chapter gives a background on the specific problem regarding what are the

athletic development personality factors that relate to executive leadership decision-

making. These informed personality factor relationships may help or hinder leadership

failures for the executive leaders decision making in the global business environment.

This knowledge is a concern for leadership failures that bring many challenges and

dramatic changes to an already complex reality in the decisions being made by top

management (Endrijaitis & Alonderis 2015). Researchers have indicated that executive

coaching can help senior executives identify leadership failures due to personality factors

defects by exposing these attributes of effective executive decision-making in the organization.

An exhaustive review of the literature follows in Chapter 2, where I discuss in greater detail the theories I used to construct the theoretical foundation of this study. The discussion is based on the theoretical framework of social exchange and social representation theory and leadership theories. I discuss findings from previous research and relevant theories on personality factors, leadership personality traits and organizational failure. The chapter also includes discussion on the bright side of personality versus dark side of the personality, dimensions based on failed companies' experiences, cultural dimensions, cognitive and executive skill transfer, and longitudinal nature of leadership development. Chapter 3 includes a discussion of the research design, methodology, data collection, and analysis. In Chapter 4, I display the results of the survey, while in Chapter 5, I interpret the findings, make recommendations for future studies, and describe implications for managerial practice and positive social change.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

A vast amount of literature exists in which researchers have indicated that the organizational relationships that determine organizational effectiveness are parallel and independent. Individuals in top management positions often have conflicting interpretations concerning the authoritative qualities that align with the intrinsic and external relations of an organization. Researchers have indicated that ineffective or destructive leadership is a concern, and that between 33% and 61% of leaders act destructively (Gaddis & Foster, 2015). The general problem is executive leadership failures occur because of defects in athletic development personality factors, core executive functions, and emotional decision-making (Antes et al., 2012; Gaddis & Foster, 2015; Ross et al., 2014). The specific problem was to identify whether or not there were any defects among athletic development personality factors in the correlational relationships to executive leadership decision making (see Gaddis & Foster, 2015; Holten et al., 2015; Towndrow & Vallance, 2013). My goal in this study was to uncover relationships between multiple athletic development personality factors and decision-making.

I also sought to determine if correlations exist between the independent variables (athletic development personality factors) and the dependent variable (executive leadership decision-making). My goal was to understand how characteristic or traits of decision makers influence others, but if personality is a conceptualization of traits, there would be no relevance to studying the development and the change in personality

dispositional tendencies (see Day et al., 2013). Researchers may still debate about the extent to which athletic development personality factors are important internal components of an individual (Young et al., 2013). Transformational leadership researchers have addressed central questions and factors that make people in authoritative positions effective in mobilizing, motivating, and inspiring employees, and have examined which leadership behaviors and processes inspire employees to pursue collective objectives (Holten et al., 2015). The exchange process has fundamental rules of requirement for the exchange in which the actions of one individual cause reactions in another, which will involve interpersonal contact for the mutual exchanges between different parties (Naseer et al., 2016). Over time, individuals develop senses of trustworthiness, dedication, and shared obligation.

The strategy execution on long-term success of a firm can be a disillusion for research when executives search for a new strategy paradigm. This lack of studies on strategy implementation may lead to failure of some leading companies. Most importantly, the scholarly consensus that strategy is a master concept remains undisputed (Carter, 2013). Particularity, when reviewing the three global economic crises in 1873, 1929, and 2008 illustrated a pattern in which the impact of the international crises triggered responses in political and social domains about the inequities associated with those crises (Clegg, Jarvis, & Pitsis 2013). In addition, it is crucial to consider other nonfinancial matters when searching for a predictor of failure that would enable a timelier prediction (Purves et al., 2016). Researchers has shown that predictors of failure have mainly relied on historical information using financial analysis.

Literature Search Strategy

The literature review for this research study included database searches of keywords associated with theories, theorists, researchers, and industries. Search words included *correlation (statistics), labor mobility, labor turnover, research, executive leadership and development, decision making, knowledge management, health services administration,* and *descriptive statistics*. I used keywords and phrases such as *administration of public health programs, athletic ability, coaches (athletics), competition (psychology), personality, characteristics, traits, methodology, motivation (psychology), soccer,* and *transfer of training team sports* to help establish a direction for the research. I also searched for topical keywords including *sports, economics, sports teams, finance, professional athletes, human capital, management, labor economics, valuation, wages, research, spectator sports, coaches (athletics), employment, sports team owners, athletes,* and *management science research*, and for other categories including *finances, fitness and recreational sports centers,* and *sports teams and clubs*.

Implementing a full keyword search in the literature led me to conceptualize a broad scope that highlighted industry norms to find peer-reviewed articles and books. The categories searches included *business education, ethics, global financial crisis, moral anthropology, discourse, power, strategic change, strategy-as-practice, resistance, sense making, sociomateriality, business ethics, intellectual capital, corporate ethical values, high technology industry, competitive advantage, social practices,* and *social representation theory. Behavioral flexibility, impression management tactics, leader's*

Machiavellianism, organizational Machiavellianism, performance rating, flexible

manufacturing system, make-span simulation, company performance, strategy, and *the*

balanced scorecard helped with the integration of business terms.
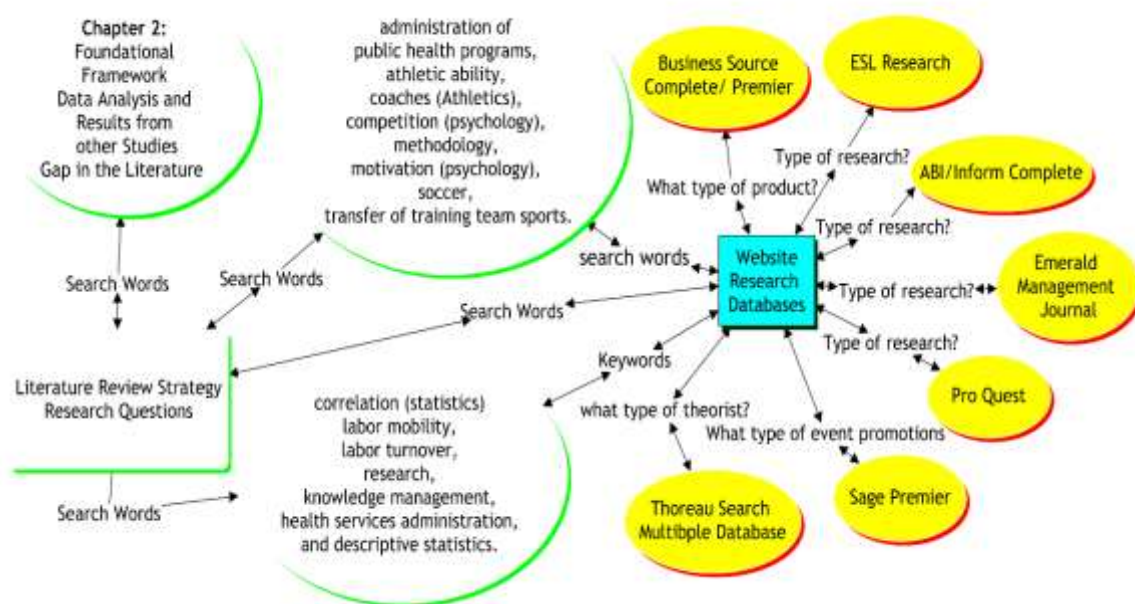
Figure 1. Literature search strategy.

Social Dynamics in the Theoretical Foundations

As time passes, people expand cooperation into convincing, committed, and

common agreements. Social exchange is a suitable theoretical framework for describing a

person's nature in the workplace (Blau, 1964). Many investigators view the framework as

a progression of offering and receiving, building a bilateral commitment between each

party, and complying to an interaction in which each must rely on the other side's

conduct (Blau, 1964; Naseer et al., 2016). For reciprocal agreements to evolve,

individuals need to conform to particular values of transference that are distinct aspects

of the social exchange theory. The transfer process has fundamental rules of requirement

for the exchange in which the behavior of a person may create feedback loops on the

collective interaction among diverse associations (Naseer et al., 2016). Conversely,

researchers have linked social responsibility in an ethical manner, a personal obligation,

and a keen awareness toward accountability for one's decisions in the contrasting

dimension of transformational leadership style. This self-analysis also scores low in

categorizing despotic leaders (Naseer et al., 2016). The beneficiary of that approach will

act appropriately if a person abuses power and makes bad decisions which negatively

impact others. These exchanges characterize both constructive and unfavorable mutual

relationships, as described by the advocates of this theory.

 Literature on the potentially negative dimensions of leadership has increased.

Concern is increasing about a powerful paradigm shift regarding the negative

consequences that executive leaders can cause for workers (Naseer et al., 2016). The

unfavorable conditions created by top management are serious matters for businesses

when exploring the relationship of leadership to other personality factors (Naseer et al.,

2016). Naseer et al.'s (2016) work has contributed to the leadership literature regarding

leaders, followers, and the anticipated governmental essence of a system that constitutes

the questionable and pessimistic allotment of such leaders'. It is these circumstantial

components in developing and maintaining excellence that is a liaison with subordinates

or fellow workers (Naseer et al., 2016). Researchers have theorized the characteristics of

daily interactions of leaders and their employees, and have used the social exchange

theory to mark the importance of leaders' role in subordinates' learning (Naseer et al.,

2016). The situations that occurred with the business improprieties at Enron and

WorldCom provoked business and ethical arguments fueled by extensive media coverage.

The rich resources of social theory help with implementing strategies for systematic engagement in an organizational development context. Testing a model for strategy transformation in a business contributes to the research literature on the impact of internal and external factors (Rose & Cray, 2013). If strategic knowledge is to be applicable to the social sciences and humanity, it must have the scope necessary for researchers to analyze extensive concerns facing institutions (Carter, 2013). The management focus is on interpreting informational data by coordinating the activities of the primary person and his or her agents for executive decision-making covered by distrust and liability (Ihanyi, Graffin, & George 2014). These researchers have demonstrated that managerial authority should be lateral and autonomous to ensure organizational effectiveness.

Decision maker's behavior may lead to a lack of comprehension on the part of others in the organization, which may have ramifications of for corporate responsibility and social sustainability (Naseer et al., 2016; Putrevu et al., 2012). Generally, inductive and deductive methods, if considered as a discipline aim to be a science in the study of phenomena as a question. This will generalize the findings for these research methods. Comparatively, researchers can generalize data to a population when the induction involves aggregating data from individual instances, using statistical methods as an average, and computing probabilities. Consequently, establishing links between cause and effect involves making inferences regarding a set of presumed facts balanced by

deduction when formulating predictions. Methods include exploring history and social psychology when using inductive and deductive methods to combat relativism (Marková, 2012). Principle scientific methods that reflect a specification for induction and deduction indicates an inferred cause in a conclusion, a suggestion by some philosophers. For this reason, objective knowledge is an abstract concept of a specification in logic and is formalistic in the pursuit of proposed alternatives.

Social representations theory targets communal fluctuations in a social system. However, emotional factors are an option for researchers when delineating personality to decide executive leadership's demeanor and the logic of psychophysical systems as a powerful institution within a person (Chien, 2014). These research approaches include contributions that do not reflect past researchers or legitimize the applicability of recommended theoretical methodological paths in strategic thinking in an organization over time, which establish traditional ideas for strategy as a social practice to articulate tactically and to carry out plans operationally (da Silva et al., 2012). In this study, I aligned the social representations theory with the social exchange theory to use them in conjunction as theoretical framework. The theory of social representation includes a variety of methods that entails a central concept in ethics and morality that fluctuates from culturally rational approaches such as ethnography for the detailed research of a group's consent to the use of surveys and experimental designs (Marková, 2012). Therefore, the basis of Marková's (2012) premise was that ethical decisions making is a basic scale structure of the relationship between cultures.

Operationalization of Variables and Theoretical Framework for Alignment

The executive authority groups used in the study served as a sample from the corporate frameworks of large, medium, and small businesses in the United States, the United Kingdom, South Africa, India, and Singapore. Researchers have found it difficult to identify personality traits to define the different operational uses of terms and language due to a lack of longitudinal studies. The longitudinal issue on whether the transfer of athletic development personality factors for an individual and an organization relationship has value in usage of the social exchange, social representation, and leadership theories as the theoretical foundation. In this study, the use of sports ideology has other ramifications regarding the relationship to sports development, including type of organization, sports for social change, engagement through sports, and other terms and language that need clarification (Tannenwald, 2013). Although there are an increasing number of contradictions blocking scientific progress in empirical assertions emphasized by Einstein which indicates that theoretical description is not directly dependent by the sciences but in creating new ideas and new theories (Marková, 2012). It is these experiences that exclude biases to find new ways to construct information into an objective quantitative or qualitative study.

The experiences of self-reflection may have on previous authoritative decisions may inform the decision-making process in the correlation of cognitive ability and executive function. Although, the use of sports as an analogy was not indicative of the scope of this research but served only as a correlational component in understanding the type of athletic development personality factors that affect the experiences in the self-

reflection of the executive. My study involved examining the relationship between the athletic development personality factors collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, and leadership and decision making (Young et al., 2013). Here are other personality factors that will be taken into consideration for future research, for example, overconfidence, arrogance, mental toughness, impulsivity, aggression, and deceit in executive leadership decision making (Gucciardi, Hanton, & Mallett, 2013; Furnham et al., 2014). Other relationships may correlate to executive leadership decision making for employee satisfaction, common job attitudes, work attitudes, and job satisfaction in the influence on organizational effectiveness as an independent variable. This explanation of these variables can play an important role in identifying new connections for research in the decision-making process. Executives can contribute to positive social change using the informed factors discovered in executive leadership failures.

Historical Context in Organizational Representation

The importance of studying social representations is unique to the historical, political, cultural, and social circumstances to obtain the data from participants and objects of representation. The purpose of the interdependent relationship is a relevant feature in the field of social representations data defined and transformed by one another and embedded with the participants (Marková, 2012). Representation within patterns of interdependence jointly generates new cycles of the knowledge, beliefs, and images of all the components to exert mutual influence on one another. In a review among the independent and the dependent variables, the personality characteristic in the relationship toward decision making was a positive significant correlation in the study.

Some researchers concluded that it is unlikely that a high predictive theory would surface due to the nature of the social exchange and the two disciplines of history and social psychology. Predictive and universal principles are part of the superordinate phenomena that characterize a particular epoch but do not make sense in the study of human affairs, but the phenomena do not appear arbitrarily in the history of social representations in a culture (Marková, 2012). Actions, passions, intentions, and thinking are context dependent on the human condition, while some elements remain similar throughout history and across cultures. Exploring social phenomena leads researchers to revise their theories and hypotheses that do not fit their findings.

The day-to-day activities in the interaction were the focal point of the theory in the search for a broader view of scholars who relate to Moscovici's social representation. Many global issues led to the economic crises in 1873, 1929, and 2008, including the emergence of political and social demonstrations about disparities in the system (Clegg et al., 2013). These positions led to a realization that verbal communication is crucial in the construction of a communication strategy that is significant to a business strategy (Balogun, Jacobs, Jarzabkowski, Mantere, & Vaara, 2014). It is this communication strategy between human psychology and modern social and cultural trends helped to articulate the social representation boundaries this study's theoretical framework.

The negotiation of space is where the introspective begins for the person, the organization, and the mental activity between all parties. The interaction of artifacts in the diachronic dimension of history is the mediation within the social representation structure where the meeting will occur for the production of information within

Moscovici's theory (Tateo & Iannaccone 2012). The synchronic and diachronic dimensions of culture mediated by the intersubjective processes occur through a powerful external completeness of a social exchange. The synchronic dimension definition refers to a particular time in the history of human society.

There are pressing issues concerning the repercussions for an organization's fiscal impropriety that can lead to a substantial loss to a company's reputation. Making a manipulative framework for forgiving and anticipated failure gives an archival glimpse of the advancement and the importance of the mechanics of strategy (Kurunmäki & Miller, 2013). It is the contradiction of strategy expected given the range of the financial crisis. While the growth of the anomaly in recent business failures has set aside the evaluation for the failure of full nationwide economies (Kurunmäki & Miller 2013). The failure of essential characteristics that relate to the experience may contrast greatly from other characteristics in a company because of the importance of extraneous parties' evaluations.

One of the arguments is the assumption of failure to the public and private institutions relating to the traditional categories for identity groups and social solidarity in globalization. According to Kurunmäki and Miller (2013), the type of failure has a larger territory, and researchers have paid attention to corporate failure for many years. The connection of a changing public space to connect different identity groups having a sense of shared identity as a personal choice. Many connections that exist between people relate primarily to the growing public space. Functional relationships are identity groups founded in associations with work, interests, and specializations to enable coexistence in

the current globalized and online era. Online discussion groups allow individuals from several different countries to associate and communicate with a complete separation between the various identities that have a common subject. Although an identity group does not know the full details, decision makers can assume which representations will clash (Ben-Asher & Wolff, 2014). The action accepted as the norm is how to build a society based on the shared relationship of beliefs and modes that compare with communities from the past.

The goal for researchers is to analyze hypotheses developed from studies to manipulate assorted types of disclosures. The assessment and evaluation of the markets help in searching for administrative assumptions for success in the failure of an entity's explanation through the business financials (Kurunmäki & Miller, 2013). This self-disclosure is beneficial to distinguishing companies with a poor reputation (Fennis & Stroebe, 2014). A company's reputation in the moderate testing of the hypothesis on the negative information about a business's reputation is another point in testing the consequences of exposure.

Influence of Social Categories During Impression Formation

The formative period for an individual current opportunity is influential in the study of the social categories where researchers understand the mentalization of findings regarding traits. Four default networks are the autobiographical memory network, the evaluative network, and the task-negative network that show commonality and similarity among each network in the social mentalizing network (Van der Cruyssen et al., 2015). Neuroimaging studies have revealed meaningful coverage in using the rhetorical

depiction of trait-implying behaviors in areas of the brain. The inner workings of the

brain, including thoughts, emotions, and beliefs, drive the identity groups network in the

perception of behavior in people (Van der Cruyssen et al., 2015). The results regarding

the unmasking of race and gender help the processing speed indicated from visual

information. The cerebral areas such as the verbal and observable definition are time

sensitive with the impression and formulation of personality traits.

The mentalizing system participates actively in the processing of behavioral

information on social categories, but individual traits are still unclear, despite the lack of

research in the direct correlation in past neuroimaging. The treatment of behavioral

descriptions in the study involved examining how social categories affect the

characteristics (Van der Cruyssen et al., 2015). Arguments support the prediction in the

processing of the knowledge in the formulation process, which appears to influence in

recruiting mental network activity in the social category, as opposed to the individual.

The interpretation of behaviors in these categories will provide an abundance of resources

on personality traits.

Social Situation in the Social Interaction

Some researchers have examined the boundaries of privacy from the perspective

of social psychology in the social representation theory. The examination of the limits of

privacy includes adopting the social control mechanisms to analyze an individual's

identity in the boundaries within the society and the ways a social set of boundaries join

together to change a person. Multiple characters in modern society find the context of a

relationship with others, and the social identity is the way individuals perceive

themselves to convey a level of consciousness beyond the consensual person sameness with the individuals in the group (Ben-Asher & Wolff, 2014). Members of a group evolve in an expansion of the self beyond the individual. The inclusion of a broad understanding of the meaning of a person's actions and life triggers an intertwining of social identity together with the person's knowledge of society, of ideas, and of other individuals.

The description of a social situation in the social interaction conceals parts of an individual's personality, which enables the participants to protect their identity and that of their partners. For instance, when an individual portrays a character that matches the audience's expectation in the comparison of the personalities to a different situation in an exchange between the person and the organization. The social representation proposed by Moscovici finds a person's way in the social world for a description as systems of values, ideas, and work methods to create an order for the people to follow. These laws of reality are a construct of theories used for the implementation of intuitive knowledge (Ben-Asher & Wolff, 2014). The influence of common occurrences within interpersonal relationships helps individuals to perceive social reality in explanations for the behavior that they see around them.

Functional relationships are identity groups built on an association with work, interests, and specializations that enable globalization and online communication, which leads to coexistence. Globalization expands the arguments of Ben-Asher and Wolff (2014) in the traditional categories for identity groups and social solidarity. Given a familiar subject, the opportunity for online discussion groups to associate and communicate with different identities as an individual in different countries.

Globalization has gained acceptance as the way to build a society for the shared

representations of beliefs and modes to contrast across different communities.

Decision Making in Top Management

Critical management researchers have studied unobtrusive managerial controls.

Maravelias (2015) suggested using the health and employability initiative for the

idealized person in the transformation of open-ended values and ambitions that are

operative, communal, and controlled by the individual. The focus of the radical approach

is on protecting an individual's private and social life with the professional capacities that

a person may require to avoid the potential adverse effects of the business world. In

contrast, the neoliberal approach will include opportunities in the form of employment,

business ventures, projects, and friendship to develop into partnerships to supply the

talent for human capital to nurture their lives. These resource factors in the workplace

will give people a way to make better use of the integration in an economic mind-set

instead of safeguarding the financial strength of the business relationship (Maravelias,

2015). An employee's professional behavior regulates a shallow observance of the

initiative in the realization of personal business and fitness (Maravelias, 2015). Several

issues that surfaced in these studies indicated that critical management studies for human

resource administration or business cultural initiatives influence core employees in a

roundabout way to govern the techniques implemented by the executive leadership.

Administering vital uncertainties can be difficult for top management teams. The

teams might explore augmenting both strategies simultaneously, but the leaders will face

continuous burdens of making transparent and dependable decisions about different

strategies to designate resources to the rest of the organization (Smith, 2014). New questions surface regarding executive roles due to emerging trends that highlight issues in organizational contexts, internal and social processes, and changes in governance (Ihanyi et al., 2014). The discussion involves proposing an operational definition of character believed to be relevant to the organizational leadership's alignment in simple terms for the description of the character.

The continuum of personality factors is crucial but not as critical in recognizing the success of an organization. The practical implications for leader attributes in the evolution of a corporation and the surveys relating to these dimensions describe both leader performance and outcomes (Seijts et al., 2015). There are questions regarding how increasing the importance of a leader's character can lead to the identification and development of leadership talent in an organization by a senior authoritative team (Seijts et al., 2015). The findings in Seijts et al**.,** study revealed three dimensions that are essential to individual and organizational success when leaders share the full dimensions of their character in all sectors of society. The examples in the study showed that executives have weaved their leadership style into their conversations for developmental practice in organizations and governments.

Ownership by senior leaders and managers in human resource departments and in leadership development is necessary to understand the importance of character that reflects and embeds itself in organizational systems and processes. According to Seijts et al. (2015), dimensions such as drive, accountability, and integrity help to explain how character or personality aspects contribute to people's promotion to senior roles. The

issue studied was the character failings manifested or individuals who demonstrate positive character dimensions in the leadership role that will build sustainable business operations, integrate sustainability objectives, and improve social priorities to emphasize their competencies and commitments (Seijts et al., 2015). Executive leadership teams instill these factors to include many of the tasks in the performance required for the management position.

The focus on attributes in executive leadership growth and next-generation authoritative initiatives for the leadership role involves the following dimensions: drive, accountability, collaboration, humanity, humility, temperance, justice, courage, transcendence, integrity, and judgment (Seijts et al., 2015). These virtues are personality traits inherited or acquired through the five-factor personality variables. Researchers have discussed business decisions with executives and directors regarding how to view character (Seijts et al., 2015). To report the measure of values and character in relevant literature in the educational tools used in various areas of business, education, psychology, philosophy, sociology, and anthropology.

Researchers' empirical work on authoritative leadership has included practitioners and executive masters in business administration students with many years of leadership experience. Certain personality traits are innate, but the heavily influenced framework of character elements finds that management used virtues and attributes in earlier discoveries and findings. The continuum of a well-developed, mature style is one in which the behaviors include all the facets available (Seijts et al., 2015). Individuals can improve the reflection on their experiences in the evolution of attributes through

deliberate practice over their lifetime. Liu and Maitlis (2014) further discussed liability in the strength of decision making within a group having extensive influence on procedures controlling a business protocols in top management. According to Ihanyi et al. (2014), the interpretation of governance is a direction for inclusivity. An authoritative system gives its leaders the power to force actions to dictate all policy agreements in decision-making.

Organizational Effectiveness Are Multidimensional

Leaders' effectiveness has shown conflicting results in prior research when analyzing adverse relationships amid oppressive leadership and followers' elation and viewpoints. The focus of employee accountability concerning factual documentation is job performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and creativity with the highest direct influence on organizational effectiveness (Naseer et al., 2016). The accomplishment of organizational goals and assignment completeness correlate to the linkages to corporate performance. Workers' creativity improves corporate performance, which has a connection to a more innovative operation; as such, meaningful conclusions identify an adverse impact of authoritative leadership on an organization. Naseer et al. (2016) contended that bolstering the interaction in negative influences over follower results depends on circumstantial components in oppressive leadership. The challenge is to explain the major issues facing organizations and to provide a critical perspective on strategy scholarship that may not be relevant to the social sciences and society (Carter, 2013). The plan to speak the truth about power needs clarity in meaning in its cultural, organizational, and political context to show that strategy scholars must be more skeptical of managerial claims.

Designers to the strategy application for this study, Athletic development personality factors are part of the theoretical proposition as a construct in the literature, thereby contemplating contrasting frameworks of strategy administration in the important research barriers. Governance is a decision-making process that mainly involves interacting with boards of directors, chief executives, and executive managers (Ihanyi et al., 2014). Researchers have found there is a recognized organizational battle with unsuccessful managing activity in the adaption to the context of strategy implementation (Srivastava, 2014). In contrast, the *adapt* construct is more of a present-day reflection technique that headlines the obligation for change management in fruitful strategy execution. The attention to influence cerebral capital, civilization, and the environment echoes anticipation in the commitment to inform management on corporate values, business activity and conduct (Su, 2014). Outlining the theoretical outcome and managerial ramification of business integrity is the ethical consideration of a business against its behaviors and its impacts.

Dysfunctional Leadership Behavior

Managerial success can contribute to positive personality characteristics, but other attributes such as arrogance, volatility, and distrust can lead to decline due to the dark side of personality. Individuals might overuse the dark-side factors or derailers or threaten self-control and social diligence as the attributes delineating day-to-day strategies in stressful or dubious situations (Gaddis & Foster, 2015). The difficulties in building teams were the basis of the Bentz investigations into dark-side personality dimensions that indicated relationship maintenance failed due to major personality

defects that created problems in the delegation to subordinates and in dealing with the complexity of skilled managers.

Individual variations may sway flawed leadership behavior that coexists between the continuums of characteristics. Learning from an encounter, perceptivity, and making intuitive decisions that concern failures and looking at other problems management can gained knowledge from the interviews (Gaddis & Foster, 2015). Seven flawed personality styles (suspicious, shy, sad, pessimistic, sufferer, eccentric, and risk) adversely predict job performance. Gaddis and Foster (2015) investigated the relationship among the cloudy side of personality attributes, assignment, and contextual achievement to find connections between narcissism and discriminatory business behaviors when exploring relationships with the dark-side personality measures. Considering potential moderators and job performance is important, and personality differences across cultures may serve as potential moderators for a country or a culture (Gaddis & Foster, 2015). Regardless of the variances, cultures remain entrenched in the normal framework of personality.

Gaddis and Foster (2015) examined the generalizability of the five-factor model of personality and the meta-analytic research of personality. According to Gaddis and Foster, researchers in the United States, Canada, and Europe have made the same conclusions by predicting that job performance will support the other five-factor model dimensions that support basic ideas for conscientiousness and emotional stability using the measurement of negative-side personality measures not previously conducted to predict leader performance. In comparison with Gaddis and Foster's Euro-American

findings, researchers demonstrated that East Asian cultures predict performance in conscientiousness and that extraversion is an important role based on interpersonal relationships in creating career success in Asia.

The issues facing organizations are similar to the issues facing football teams: applying managerial best practices to develop the best management ideas, coping with mental and physical turmoil, and developing camaraderie. Haskins (2013) studied the methods for workforce optimization in professional soccer, which is the regulated teamwork design presented by the soccer model as it pertains to excellence in relationship building. To gain a better understanding of the nonbusiness to business perspective, the comparison involved studying a business to expose the lack of noticeable principles in analogy models to show how decision support systems can help solve current business problems through using soccer strategies.

Leadership Effectiveness

The dynamics of the authoritative process are more effective when the research by practitioners involves an attempt to understand static trait theory to enrich the literature on leader traits. Such findings lead to further opportunities for practitioners to gain insight on how to develop better leadership qualities. The dynamic featured in Xu et al.'s (2014) study is the multiple paths used to analyze how leaders' traits evolve and are expressed over time. Xu et al. (2014) found leader emergence and authoritative effectiveness were indicative of the outcomes where leadership traits evolve in the whole process. The effect of the leader's abilities in the selection in the leader's growth is essential to leader evolution and leadership efficiency. Leader trait evolution helps to

express applicable traits in various situations; the evolution is not independent, but is interactive in providing two dynamic issues for the work that establishes a need for consideration in the examination of leader emergence and authoritative effectiveness.

Leadership Ability and Personality Traits

The leadership abilities and personality traits of managers of design houses in Taiwan served as the research measures and the business operators studied (Chien, 2014). The leadership abilities included adversity resilience and innovative creativity as two examples, and personality included openness and conscientiousness as examples (Chien, 2014). Leadership ability involves influencing others to understand the belief that leadership is a process that exists among the leader and follower that is a multifaceted influencer of the relationship (Chien, 2014). Maintaining a successful interpersonal relationship shows how to inspire through teaching a future vision. The subdimensions of leadership ability are another subdimension categorized by researchers into four skill-set groups: confidence, autonomy, people-oriented, and task-oriented (Chien, 2014). The overview of leadership abilities is a continuum of personality factors among individuals and best expresses the relationships in the social interactions of a business.

Athletic Development Personality Factors

Personality factors are elements of the psychological health of an individual, and sport is an inhibitor to a person's mentalization for psychological health. Researchers have analyzed the personality traits of people participating in sport recreationally and at a competitive level to understand the demand of sports. Identifying personality traits is essential to individuals in team performance to determine the characteristics of a

particular interest such as collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, and ethicalness, leadership, and decision-making (Young et al., 2013). The need for these athletic development personality resources will provide the personal skills for motivating individual a positive collective performance (Young et al., 2013). Executive leaders in NASCAR motorsports advocate that racing needs able leaders who can hold individuals accountable to provide a common focus for their organizations in the assigned tasks to do what they say with a commitment to openness and honesty.

Cattell's 16-personality factor model is the core path to the principles that established the five-factor model of personality. Cavallera, Passerini, and Pepe (2013) used Cattell's 16 personality factors to observe that swimmers were more assertive, enthusiastic, conscientious, apprehensive, self-sufficient, reserved, and socially precise from other physical movements such as tennis and golf. Male athletes lean toward being more active, aggressive, competitive, dominating, and controlling, in contrast to female athletes who become more goal oriented, organized, and rule-governed (Cavallera et al., 2013). The language of the categorical adjectives ended up with a factor analysis of 35 clusters that created a hierarchy of 16 personality traits.

There are grammatical variances among trait adjectives, such as athletic and athlete, which is a stereotype noun. The practice of using social categories, rather than traits, needs further research regarding the increased activation of the mentalizing network that allows distinction between the visualization task and behavioral processing (Van der Cruyssen et al., 2015). The characteristics of resilience, confidence, commitment, self-belief, concentration, and the ability to cope with pressure represent

mental toughness (Delaney, Goldman, King, & Nelson-Gray, 2015). A review of the
different tasks presented revealed concerns about the differential impact of social
categories and traits that place certain limits on the methodological limitations in the
interpretation of the result.

Sharing Common Traits

Researchers find personality traits less informative and imaginable from social
groups that differ but learn to be more distinctive and exact in the meaning. The sharing
of relatable traits, such as dishonesty, occurs in social categories and individuals and
varies in the specific characteristics of a trait (Van der Cruyssen et al., 2015). The Young
et al. (2013) study scale items comprise six of the seven traits: collaboration, focus,
trustworthiness, ethicalness, leadership, and decision-making. The scale items came from
an online public domain archive affiliated with the University of Oregon best known as
the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) of empirically tested scales (International
Personality Item Pool, 2016). The traits noted indicated that individual attributes are part
of a group membership, like the social categories in the measurement of a person's
passion for the motorsports industry as survey items (Young et al., 2013). The use of past
empirical work helps in obtaining and developing the construct measures and scale items.

Social groups have a hierarchical relationship to traits, are distinctive, and are
exact categories such as nurses that are subsidiary, whereas the term caring is more
general and abstract. Traits only convey behaviors corresponding to a small explanation
of personality traits in which social categories are a more complicated idea that centers on
a higher level of abstruseness (Van der Cruyssen et al., 2015). Combining different traits,

demographic characteristics, and other types of individual knowledge relates to physical

characteristics as a construct entity for the group members of social categories, whereas

traits are basic, distinct, and secondary in the broad social categories.

Leadership Personality Traits and Organizational Failure

The relationship between psychological factors within an organization was under

consideration within Chien's (2014) definition of personality. The importance of the

positioning of leadership with an individual's personality determines the characteristic

behavior and thought within a dynamic organization. Central elements of a personality

include (a) individuality and characteristics and (b) individuality consists of multiple

personalities. Using individual characteristics when studying and measuring personality

traits shows the persistence and integration of the person and the organization (Chien,

2014). Other investigators believe the personality characteristics of a person reflect in the

person's demeanor when these traits emerge under particular circumstances in a constant

manner. If traits are stable, then individuals' personality traits will occur throughout their

life.

The personality characteristics of a person appear in the individuals' behavior,

and while the characteristics emerge under definite circumstances in a constant way, then

they are personality traits. When examining and measuring personality traits, Chien

(2014) indicated that, the characteristics of the individual encompass the constant and

assimilation as instinctive habits. There is a justification for including social attitude,

social values, and work values, which are all psychological interests for measurements.

The explanation of what, why, and how encompasses a broad scope of behaviors in

humans as well as animals (Bouchard, 2016). Motivation broadens the understanding of human personality in maximizing the compatibility of the individual genotype that leads to the construction of the physical and psychological environment.

The findings from a 30-year study for Sears in a Bentz observation of managers found intelligent and skilled managers failed. The study by Bentz showed that astute and adept managers having difficulties in building teams, delegating to employees, handling complicated issues, and managing relationships failed due to major personality defects. When making emotional decisions, other failure concerns are problematic and make leaders sensitive to the learning experience (Gaddis & Foster, 2015). Analyzing the failure of nationwide frugality are severe affairs that may backlash for the business economic impropriety while following the phenomenon stated above in experiencing present organizational failures (Kurunmäki & Miller, 2013). The decisive personality factors are high-quality leadership for the success of all types of organizations, such as a business enterprise or a sport team.

The focus of shared authority is on team direction and on the members rather than the influence and behavior of a single member. The organizational setting refers to leadership emanating from the team members and not just from the appointed leader. Team effectiveness, rather than vertical leadership, is the idea of shared leadership as noted in the growing literature on the transition from organizational leadership to shared leadership responsibility. There are similarities to the structure of a sports team and a business team in the nature of a hierarchical structure for the appointment and acknowledgment of one person being the leader.

Bright Side of Personality Versus Dark Side of Personality

In the examination of the influence for the detrimental consequences of employee outcome, enhances the appropriate role of the despotic leadership's negative type of leadership. The investigation into the continuum of leadership is a significant contributor to research on employee performance and creativity. According to Naseer et al. (2016), the interplay of two serious contextual components that are problematic due to the adverse influence of tyrannical leadership on employees provided insight. Tyrannical authority, anticipated company politics, and leader–member exchange brings issues for investigation in employees quality, productivity and inventiveness (Naseer et al., 2016). Authority is a dynamic interaction of the leader–follower relationship, and this study involved examining various perspectives on the bright and dark sides of leadership.

Malevolence in executive leadership is an increasing concept of the measure in the dark triad. Social dominance is critical due to the malevolent personality that reflects a callous-manipulative core (Furnham et al., 2014). According to Furnham et al. (2014), the three encompassing traits of malevolence are Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy, which are confine to each other. Many researchers have examined and argued whether the discussion should begin in the area of psychology because the traits are diverse (Furnham et al., 2014). It was difficult to prove the primary measures for the three dark triad traits from the extensive inventory in the research literature. The inventories have shown different patterns in the dark triad in the criticism for poor validity and poor predictive power regarding the supportive psychometric properties.

However, arguments do persist for the validity of research instruments in using nine traits rather than 12 in the display of good predictive validity in behavior paradigms in using low dark triad inventories, but more research is necessary in this measurement (Furnham et al., 2014). Based on the key benchmark listed in the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders Fourth Edition* (DSM-IV) conceptualizations, antisocial personality disorder includes impulsivity, aggression, and deceit, which are traits distinguishable from each other. This narcissistic personality disorder is a complex characteristic. Many researchers consider the concept of psychopathy to include grandiosity and claim that a narcissistic personality consists of impulsivity, which means more work is necessary to separate these two types of personality disorders.

Athletic Performance

Athletic performance in adulthood includes a link between performance, training, and skill toward a level of development or maturity that is central to understanding athletic ability. Athletic performance refers to the transference of distinct physical exercises by one prepared or proficient in physical movement by both functional and structural concepts (U.S. National Library of Medicine, 2017). Physical activity depends on the influence of individual differences in biological maturation, which is necessary to highlight the facets of a person's structure. The behavior ranges from birth to adulthood, evolves over time, and includes behavioral capabilities and actions that become increasingly sophisticated over time and that increase in size over time (Cameron, 2014). Athletic behavior is a developmental landmark in children that reflects a predictable pattern in growth and development, which is a specific aspect of ontogeny.

Dimensions Based on Failed Companies' Experiences

Researchers have discussed whether the aftermath of the 2008-2009 financial crises and the economic recession would have changed with better leadership. Leaders from over 300 public businesses and not-for-profit businesses from Canada, the United Kingdom, the United States, and Hong Kong held a discussion in which they referred to the role of organizational authority. The basis for the three dimensional results was failed companies' experiences or the damaged done by the crisis and the companies that survived and continued to move forward. Those decisions for the eventual outcomes present questions about how deep in the organization decisions were being made regarding risk management and commitment in the form of deep engagement by the leadership (Seijts et al., 2015). Reviewing the character of leadership, analyzing authoritative competencies, management controls critiquing practices, and brash risk-taking behavior lead by arrogance great over-confidence in finding the fortitude to speak up. There are added risk features in social consequences due to the lack of accountability and the indifference in decision maker's actions.

Identifying Lessons Learned From Failures

When acknowledging environmental deviations in businesses, there is an urgency to grow and enhance current facilities and assets, while the tenacity of a prevailing strategy may discount future failures through the lessons learned from others, because business failures are a familiar occurrence (Amankwah-Amoah, 2014). Despite the circumstantial relationship to the variables, there is a negative contribution that is problematic for leaders in the aid to the leadership literature between leaders, followers,

and the perceived political nature of the environment (Naseer et al., 2016). Adverse conditions for top executives and leaders are a progressively threatening issue for organizations in a globalized environment through the exploration of leadership on the cloudy side of personality (Naseer et al., 2016). The extensive evidence of corporate abuse at Enron and WorldCom led to many discussions in the media.

Leadership Issue as an Ethical Approach

Researchers have not been able to understand the influence of organizational culture on a particular characteristic of corrupt organizations that leads to employee corruption (Campbell & Göritz, 2014). Researchers may construe that the traits of righteousness and virtuousness can help prevent unethical behavior in an organizational culture and its environment. The study Campbell & Göritz, (2014) showed how organizations decline and how organizational leaders can retrench an upward swing to ensure the organizational culture matters. The outcome of arguments has suitable barrier conditions in the psyche deficiency on unscrupulous leader behavior use of several instruments for moral identity. An often-used instrument that measures workplace deviance in the promotion of corruption finds so many systematic characteristics of organizational culture according to research literature (Campbell & Göritz, 2014; Joosten et al., 2014). Quantitative research serves as a crucial motivator of ethical behavior when testing exact hypotheses as a moral identity and is suitable when deviant behavior serves as voluntary behavior that occurs when management motivates groups in the violations or when people lack the motivation to conform to organizational norms and standards (Joosten et al., 2014). Joosten et al. (2014) chose to use established and validated

measures. In Study 1, Joosten et al. (2014) manipulated depletion using a frequently used task; in Study 2, they analyzed deficiency with a test used successfully in past research.

The stimulation of employees expects to strive toward the goal attainment by looking at the organizational leader depletion in the authoritative role and conflict for the benefits of an organization norm-transgressing behavior. Joosten et al.'s (2014) discussion on future research directions between various cultural settings such as an individualistic culture and a collectivistic culture showed that resource depletion in unethical behavior does not affect leaders who have a high moral identity. Leaders with strong moral character are less vulnerable to a resource being controlled, but leaders with low moral identity are subject to cognitive resources that show that the authoritative role will be more likely to lead to unethical behavior. Leaders who want to display norm transgressive behavior should focus on the benefits of the organization and stimulate employees to strive toward this goal.

Ethical tendencies surface in organizations internalizing settings will highlight the importance of the motivation to counteract bad decisions. Joosten et al. (2014) indicated that leaders who have less containment of assets to act ethically are immense in moral identity thereby showing that leaders more contained to resource deficiency, leadership display unethical behavior. Ethical leaders need to show the cognitive resources that are low in moral identity to indicate that the essence of leadership performance can be unethical leader behavior. Many ethical failures within organizations clearly indicated the need for organizational leaders to act ethically due to the media exposure of fraud and corruption. If leaders focus on behaving ethically, then they will serve as an important

source of ethical guidance for their employees. Leaders are responsible for making important and complicated decisions (Joosten et al., 2014). Leaders also have a busy and demanding schedule, and acting ethically may not be easy for leaders, but if the leaders act unethically, employees will generally follow.

An ethical act can limit the willpower needed due to the pressure that organizational leaders regularly face (Joosten et al., 2014). The negative consequences of unauthorized personnel, stealing of the business property, and discrimination against employees based on gender or race is exposing (Joosten et al., 2014). Leaders' decisions and functions are demanding processes that require energy for other controlled cognitive resources. Ego depletion on the boundary conditions relating to unethical leader behavior is an essential element that may limit the importance of the morality of value that people assign to a decision. When leaders need to behave in a certain manner, ethical variables are important because management may have consequences on the extent of the cognitive resources required for the decision made (Joosten et al., 2014). There are many positive outcomes such as self-control because of the connections to success in education, job, concentration, coping with stress, and marital bliss, but researchers have linked self-control failure to decisions made in adverse actions such as stealing, invasion of privacy, extreme aggression, and various adverse outcomes in obesity, depression, and obsessive thoughts (Joosten et al., 2014). Individuals' self-control scope may help them refrain from acting on their impulses.

Cultural Dimensions and the Personality Traits

All cultures reflect recurrent adaptions to facilitate the best strategic goals for the differences in detecting evolution, ecological, and culture mechanisms. The context of personality has an evolutionary perspective in identifying the problems of humans using globalization in the use of the Big Five dimensions (Church, 2016). People have different levels of adaptive traits, and the individual differences in traits result from an attempt to balance the selection process. Church (2016) used hypotheses that may account for the higher levels of extraversion and openness to experience in the personality flow for Italian mainlanders compared to inhabitants in a small Italian island population. The genetic variation in maintenance due to the different levels of a trait becomes adaptive under the various environmental conditions.

Reviewing cultural dimensions and the personality traits in individualism–collectivism and tightness–looseness balances the connection of genetic variants from studies on molecular genetics. According to Church (2016), researchers find trait scores a difficult personality to identify genetic variants that are significant and reliable in the association. A particular trait may have thousands of common genetic variants displayed in each trait as a minuscule effect. Based on selective migration in cultural neuroscience, the investigation on how culture and genes coevolve affects neural architecture, cultural dimensions, and personality. Additional studies may be necessary on trait structure in less developed or preliterate societies to gain consistency and validity.

The alternative methods in the assessment of observer ratings and behavioral observations may extend to a larger range of languages and cultures. The accuracy of trait

profiles will reconcile the evidence for and against a report on the processes in the trait comparisons for future studies (Church, 2016). These processes may contribute to mean trait differences across geographical regions and give greater confidence in the validity of the common profiles across cultures. The strength of specific trait-outcome relationships will produce theoretical and empirical work that is more refined to account for any cultural differences (Church, 2016). The clarity in selective migration from studies will show a social influence regardless of the limited support for cultural psychology predictions regarding the differential validity of traits across cultures.

There is a lack of emphasis on the possible influence of traits on situations and cultures in the assumption by some researchers of a direction of causality between culture and personality. Although there is a focus on future research adapting to aspects of the individual specific culture, becomes an examination of how traits influence individual situations from an ecocultural perspective in seeking out, internalizing, and conforming to the change mechanism in the culture. Significant progress is necessary in the cross-cultural study of traits to understand the structure and assessment of the situation across cultures. More studies are necessary to investigate situational factors for variability in trait-related behaviors to integrate trait and social-cognitive perspectives more effectively across cultures by the person in the situational interaction (Church, 2016). The lack of current integrative frameworks may one-day lead to new biological, ecological, and cultural contexts of personality (Church, 2016). Multiple genetic influences on personality traits have experienced limited progress, but molecular genetics may have some insight into the gene-culture exchange. The mean trait and heritable manifestation

across cultural contexts may lead to cultural differences in their understanding in the exchange.

In hopes of identifying environmental or cultural influences on personality, psychologists have compared mean trait levels across cultures to confirm better geographical proximity of nations with Big Five scores that are more similar. Studies in which researchers refer to political patterns, wealth, and crime are examples that align with the geographic patterns of the Big Five (Church, 2016). Researchers have noted that conscientiousness correlations are reasonably accurate in response styles, reference group effects, national stereotypes, and measurement invariance. There are questions about the validity of cross-cultural trait comparisons and the counterintuitive correlations involving conscientiousness. The oversampling of college students has produced unexpected negative correlations in the use of country-level behavioral indicators involving conscientiousness, the human development, and competitiveness. Multinational sample of working adults found that conscientiousness and economic development is reflected.

The negative correlations between conscientiousness and development reducing the struggle for economic well-being in developed countries may be the reason (Church, 2016). In contrast to agreeableness and conscientiousness being the highest among the old and the highest in adults and lowest in adolescents, respectively find stereotypes between gender and age are consistent differences in measured traits (Church, 2016). Agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience for gender and age stereotypes are lower in men, with traits converging across cultures. Selected facets of

extraversion and neuroticism in the participants across cultures are weaker in the older generation and highest in adolescents.

Detailed insight surfaced from the examination of various factors such as experience, skills, personality, self-development, and social instruments in leadership advancement to a compelling action involving multiple interactions that are constant over time. Multiple interactions include the evolution process and the implementation of a host of elements in wisdom, intelligence, and creativity formed by factors such as personality and relationships with others (Day et al., 2013). Acknowledging the parental modeling influence indicates the leadership advancement process does start early in life.

Some researchers' models add honesty–humility to the Big Five, in the HEXACO model and Zuckerman Alternative Five presents impulsive sensation seeking, neuroticism–anxiety, aggression–hostility, sociability as an activity. Bouchard (2016) noted that the Big Five (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) are the commanding archetype in personality research. Agreeableness, rugged individualism, dependability, the locus of control, achievement, affiliation, potency, and intellectance come from applied research and are the Big Nine. Bouchard (2016) noted that to compete or threaten the Big Five as a dominant paradigm, the antis need to express these factors in an acceptable number for the lower order personality scales. A lack of involvement in youth sports indicates that students who require a youth sports background need training to advance the leadership traits needed for imminent management (Williams, Bosselman, Hurst, & Zheng, 2013). The existence of competing models conflicts with the content of the dominant personality model, as the breadth and

content of the major personality factors with the higher order factors are not the same regarding the factor analysis.

Cultural Space and Development

There are ways to establish a map of a cultural space that is full of constraints and has borders that change to the rhythm of cultural development in relation to human participation to reshape the territory. Clarifying knowledge structures exposes the identity, metacognitive, and self-regulation processes assumed to be critical to informing the processing capabilities that correlate with leadership expertise (Day et al., 2013). The enlargement of these types of limits indicates borders becoming elaborated in the cognitive work of the associated minds. Mapping the boundaries of the frontier are part of the territory as a new direction. Researchers differentiate between the individual; the collective mind of a relationship; and communal, mental phenomena, transmission, and contemplation (Tateo & Iannaccone, 2012). The purpose of the interpretative factors in the social representation of the educational success or failure for children provides the constraint and meaning of practices and norms that are either right or wrong rather than true or false (Tateo & Iannaccone, 2012). Culture is a common element in the connection between an individual and a civilization as a continuum that links innovations from generation to generation within individuals' negotiated space.

The negotiated space elaborates on the particular individual social identities with specific modalities of the interaction. When exploring in-depth managerial-level leadership concepts to encapsulate the socially responsible leader to entrust others, direction for strategic change gives guidance to the anticipating, envisioning, and

resiliency continues (Raza & Murad, 2014). The traditional attitude in strategic

management grows into a precarious liaison with bureaucratic phenomena in the

operational effectiveness of an organization as a thing apart from strategic management

(Mantere, 2013). In deference to sports, a continuing argument is concurrent to the

investigation of enhanced cognition in athletes. Investigation improves awareness where

the idea and approach is about sport as a discrepancy among researchers.

Cognitive Skill Transfer

Cognitive skill transfer attributes are the means of improving achievement on

complementary new cognitive tasks in training. Regardless of the number of models on

how cognitive skill transfer works, even if they are different, most theorists conclude that

each assignment consists of numerous skills and fragments of knowledge. The executive

function achievements among elite athletes and nonathletes are the documented

differences. When the transference of these abilities occurs in both the short and the long

term, the task shares more skills to transfer knowledge (Jacobson & Matthaeus 2014).

Researchers disagree on the range of differences between two given tasks of the

transference effect that may occur and on how far these skills can transfer. For instance,

chess players' working memory is average, but they appear to have increased functioning

in memory capacity when it comes to arranging their chess pieces.

Several hypotheses support the narrow-transfer and the broad-transfer findings.

An individual who is competent in a distinct field may have favored cognitive processes

in that area and may have no external scope outside, which is the narrow-transfer

hypothesis. In contrast, when video game training assumes an improvement in laboratory

reaction time regarding the improvement of scores, the broad-transfer hypothesis is the theory that skills improve individual components of cognition through extensive practice of context specific, this improvement will occur regardless of the context (Jacobson & Matthaeus 2014). In regards specifically to sports, an ongoing debate is running parallel in the analysis of improved cognition in athletes as a distinct difference between the use of researchers 'expert performance" where the idea and approach improve cognition investigation is within their sport. Cognitive-skill transfer may play a part in transferring executive function skills in the discrepancy among athletes and nonathletes rather than the sparse research on athletics alone (Jacobson & Matthaeus, 2014). The amount of research to support the idea is substantial, but many studies relate to cognitive skills having no benefits.

Athletes interact with their surroundings on a continuous basis to lower the shortfall by advocating for the plasticity of the executive function in the physical disability population. Correlation shows the difference in a particular aspect of executive function in addressing the sport-specific mental skills and aerobic exercise on the cognitive effects (Jacobson & Matthaeus, 2014). Jacobson and Matthaeus (2014) used basketball in their example, but there seems to be no benefits to participants in other sports such as swimming to indicate any differences to athletes, and Jacobson and Matthaeus did not indicate creative or time pressure stimuli had an influence.

Measuring Executive Function

Many researchers have accepted the challenge to examine ways the body and mind interact with each other. Researchers have established that acute physical exercise

intertwines with cognitive competence such that after sessions of physical activity people may score higher on cognitive tests than if they had not participated in fitness training. The significance of Jacobson and Matthaeus, (2014) study is whether elite athletes execute tasks testing executive functioning, which is a subcategory of cognitive functioning, with greater aptitude. Executive function positioning calls for and consists of actions that involve engaging in arduous problem solving, self-consciousness, planning, or diligence (Jacobson & Matthaeus, 2014). Despite repeated preeminent feedback there are probable distraction and original response production highly used in both goal-oriented action and executive functions. Measuring executive function of decision-making, researchers have separated executive function inside from the authoritative cerebral capabilities. Some researchers have engaged in delivering these two complementary items to the relationship amid exercise, executive function, and cognition in accordance with athletic development personality factors.

The purpose of Jacobson and Matthaeus, (2014) study was to explore and unveil the relationships between sports and cognitive performance that may provide new information for leadership development in athletic programs and physical education. If certain activities and development exist throughout the process and correlate with higher cognitive ability more than others correlate, then researchers can place more emphasis on physical educators, coaches, and policy makers (Jacobson & Matthaeus, 2014). In the social representation of its activity, structure, and technology in the organization; an organization's system of authority and internal politics helps in understanding strategy as a flow of events. The dynamic featured in Xu et al.'s (2014) study was the various paths

to interpret how leaders' traits evolved and revealed over time relate to the static trait theory. Xu et al.'s (2014) intention is to enhance the leadership trait literature through their findings to develop opportunities for practitioners to gain insight on how to inform effective leadership qualities.

The literature review revealed leader emergence and authority effectiveness were indicative of the outcomes for a leadership trait evolutions view of the whole process. Leaders' ability to select for growth is an essential factor to leader development for authoritative efficacy. Leader trait transformation helps to explain applicable traits in various attitudes to the expansion that are not independent but are reciprocal in providing the two powerful concerns in establishing examination of leader emergence and leadership effectiveness. Researchers also engage in bringing together other related items, including the relationship between exercise and executive functioning and the relationship between sports training and cognition (Jacobson & Matthaeus, 2014). Determining mental capacities involves measuring the executive function of a specific category for decision-making. I tried to establish the significant relationships between decision-making and the informed athletic development personality factors associated with the hypothesis of this study.

Executive Function Improvements

Gray's (2012) findings assume the differentiation in a variety of sports may facilitate executive function improvements, whereas the executive function will have positive effects in fitness training, cognitive function, and aerobic fitness training. The view of interchangeable executive functions and the belief of dexterity are ambiguous,

with numerous investigations connecting to cognitive skills with no apparent benefits (Gray, 2012). Cognitive competence transfer may not play a role in the transfer of executive functions dexterity against the distinction among athletes and nonathletes, despite the lack of research on athletics alone (Jacobson & Matthaeus, 2014). Transferability is likely to be precarious in an area of the qualified achievement for executive leadership due to the increasing number of cases showing unsuccessful transference of a high-level executive authority (Gray, 2012). Research indicates an absence of leadership training and development to provide managers with metaskills in communicating, translating visions, and engaging employees toward goal attainment (Holten et al., 2015). The possible transference of executive function may provide managers with specialized leadership instruments in the changeable cycle of organizational settings.

The emphasis on the representational dynamics between social representation and commitment is a structural approach that aligns with Moscovici. Two parallel systems discussed in the Souchet & Girandola, (2013) study are the social representation theory's consideration as sociocognitive structures regulated in its functions. A connection exists between the central system and the peripheral system, where organizations frequently observe the peripheral system in general but it is not valid as a rule in the observation. Finding the significance of the representation in the internal organization is the central cognitive structures for stabilizing the role to the resistant to change in constituting a consistency of the representation. Peripheral cognition is a common frame of reference that supports proper adjustments protected by the central system as a confrontation in its

performance for the incorporation to the reality of the individual (Souchet & Girandola, 2013). The representation theory aligned with the current quantitative study as a theoretical base for the problem statement and the theoretical foundation of this study.

While applying the pressure in two directions: the individual on society and society on the individual is a complex system functioning in conflict to the exchange. Ben-Asher and Wolff (2014) discussed the boundaries of privacy of the given information to the individual. The allowance in the system of social pressures for the negotiation over the extent and timing of disclosures appears in the form of sanctions or rewards. In trying to use force a breach in the boundaries of privacy set by society as an imposed gatekeeper mechanism; individuals have set their privacy boundaries for themselves, but society will try to use force to breach those boundaries (Ben-Asher & Wolff, 2014). The interpretation is that social representation has balancing attributes toward the actions of the individual, with the group, and at the same time bridging a reference belonging to various social groups. There is sometimes a conflict in social representation regarding the coexistence that is discrete as well. The balancing of the social representation live with the different identities not revealing information at certain times to protect the individual from society and in situations to protect society's hegemonic character along with a shared social representation.

Patterns of Leadership Competencies

There is some diversity in analyzing athletic development, sports, physical activity, and fitness as a social element rather than a personality factor and in questioning the relationship between executive leadership's decision-making ability and

organizational effectiveness. The issue in this study was not whether organizational

effectiveness relates to athletic development personality factors but whether these factors

can relate to the decision-making processes at the executive leadership level. The study

included more than 300 business leaders from Hong Kong, Canada, the United Kingdom,

and the United States to create a discussion referring to the authoritative organizational

role. The basis of the three-dimensional result is the experiences of failed companies or

the damage done by the crisis and the ones who survived and continued to move forward.

The study involved reviewing leadership capabilities in the areas of risk management that

led to reckless risk-taking behavior and asking questions about decisions made deep in

organizations. Decision-making is the realization deep in organizations that indifference

in executive leadership's actions creates social consequences and a lack of accountability

for risks.

Perception of Leadership in the Attitude Framework

The attitude framework has many benefits regarding potential methodological

advances, using multiple methods of encouragement in the development of the approach

to measure leadership perceptions, and applying an expanded scope for use in research

design. Leadership perception as an attitude has many benefits when the emphasis is not

on developing leaders' leadership skills and metacompetencies, but on using knowledge

that encompasses the understanding of how followers develop attitudes in the change as

well as those perceptions. Central to organizational effectiveness is the collective effort in

offering effective leadership in various perspectives to a group of theories explaining how

leadership influences and describes employee attitudes and behaviors. The differences

among transformational, leader–member exchange and servant leadership theories in the

process of leadership perceptions are common themes regarding leaders and followers as

factors in the leadership process. The follower's interpretation of the way the leader may

act decides leadership style and is usually from the measurement of the leadership theory.

The attitude framework is an advanced theory used to understand leadership

perceptions, where Lee et al. (2015) analyze current measures to show components of

attitude such as affect, cognition, and behavior. Lee et al. (2015) assessed an adequate

concept of the leadership approach on three attitudinal elements. The attitudinal focus

was on understanding the leadership practice regarding the perception of leadership that

transforms into attitude. Work-related outcomes may have a different impact on the

various elements that properly assess the concept of all three attitudinal components. The

different components of attitudes are due to leadership's perception on the implications of

the work-related outcomes. Researchers can provide new insights into the leadership

process in the properties as an attitude of the content, structure, and function in

consideration of both the leader's behavior and the follower's biased view of that

behavior.

There is a view in the leadership perception as a leader-centric property for the

examination of those properties. Researchers have frequently identified transformational

leadership with positivizes regarding employee performance and organizational

effectiveness (Holten et al., 2015). Transformational leadership also addresses

fundamental inquiries in management viewpoints that are sufficient for mobilizing,

motivating, and inspiring employees in authoritative behaviors and processes that inspire

employees to join in the pursuit of common objectives (Holten et al., 2015). The

exchange process has basic rules for the exchange in which the actions of one individual

that cause reactions in another will involve interpersonal contact for the mutual

exchanges between different parties (Naseer et al., 2016). Over time, individuals develop

associations into trustworthiness, dedicated, and shared obligations.

Similarities Between Leadership Styles

The concept of shared leadership has surfaced on team direction, with the focus of

the leadership provided by members rather than through the influence and behavior of

one single member. The organizational setting is defining itself not just from the

appointed leader but also in the form of the team members emanating leadership. Team

effectiveness, rather than vertical leadership, is the concept of shared authority in the

growing philosophy of organizational leadership to share authoritative responsibility.

Fransen et al. (2015) discussed decisive factors in the successes in government, politics,

education, business, and sports regarding high-quality leadership. The hierarchical

structure is a synonym of a sports team to a business team in the characterize nature of

the appointment of one person formally acknowledged as the leader (Fransen et al.,

2015). There are leadership style correlations between business managers and sports

coaches, who both strive for increased sales or victories in performance outcomes.

Researchers have amassed a significant amount of literature on the role of coaches

regarding leadership settings to align with organizational leadership. The links between

leadership styles and behaviors fluctuating from athlete motivation to performance with

other forms of leadership are less dependent on leadership from coaches, which is similar

to business leadership. Sports psychology research refers to interpersonal relationships with teammates and coaches as individual-level measurements in the assessment of team-level constructs to find leadership gaps in research. The social network of the theory of leadership has been an ignored approach for focusing on the interaction of interpersonal relationships. A goal of Fransen et al., (2015) study was to use civil structure investigation to develop a broader insight into the leadership relationship and the behavior within sports teams. The approach involved exploring the coach, the team captain, and the natural athlete leadership relationship within the team as a network approach (Fransen et al., 2015). In previous studies, researchers have restricted the research to the established leader or the designated leader, and this study included a wide scope of leadership relationships that showed evidence of shared leadership.

To verify the reliability as a fourfold athlete categorized for networks that include the roles of the task, motivational, social, and extrinsic authority is in line with one of the hypotheses findings as a positive correlation between the different leadership networks. The results showed global leadership has a similar perception of the various leadership roles, and good leadership has no differences that only moderate correlational emergence and corroborated specific authority roles that compel definite authoritative excellence (Fransen et al., 2015). The display of the highest correlation to the second largest overlap was a comparison of coaching leadership with educational and noneducational athletic authority structures. The explanation of the relationships demonstrated the attributes of both high-quality task leaders and high-quality motivational leaders. The leadership roles of the motivational and social leadership quality networks showed that despite the team

gender, sport, and competition level, the findings of interpersonal relationships could assume the authoritative excellence are characteristic for both roles, thus demonstrating the correlational variances of the leadership roles.

Longitudinal Nature of Leadership Development

In the examination of leaders and leadership development in the content, of the processes from a longitudinal perspective in the evaluation of issues, researchers have found it is not the approach to leadership but the approach in the process rather than replacing the development of leadership. According to Day et al. (2013), the historical evolution is an in-depth analysis to build in the field of leadership development with a detailed summary that is insightful. The underlying patterns of leadership in the various approaches enable other researchers to understand the competencies for examining issues of cognitive and metacognitive skills that surface at the core of leadership potential. The measurement can happen in many ways in the multisource ratings for constructing the leader's current needs in development (Day et al., 2013). Researchers acknowledge that the leadership evolution growth begins at a young age, determined by parental modeling that affects the evolutionary process and the application of the skills in wisdom, intelligence, and creativity assembled by factors such as personality and exchanges with others. The holistic approach shapes the development process through different theories, such as constructive development, transformational, shared, and authentic leadership.

Researchers continue to address and investigate the longitudinal nature of the theoretical and empirical contributions to provide valuable insights into the longitudinal studies of leadership development. Transformational leadership is a potent leadership

strategy that receives the most empirical research attention (Holten et al., 2015). The dysfunctional aspects of leadership indicate a growing interest in a popular paradigm movement that acknowledges the adverse effects that leaders can exert over their subordinates; by creating flexibility by empowering others, leadership is anticipating, envisioning, and maintaining a strategic change (Naseer et al., 2016). Change management helps the thinking of business leaders in the domestic and international arenas to lead their organizations strategically. According to Amankwah-Amoah (2014), to counteract enduring change strategically, the strength in adjustments by top management teams may call for some organizations to deliver strategic reorientation through the changes in leadership development.

Understanding leadership development evaluation methods provides opportunities to examine in-depth managerial-level leadership concepts. Organizational effectiveness is becoming apparent to the leadership and encompassing socially conscious leadership in scholarly literature (Raza & Murad, 2014). Followers and peers in a self-managed work team will feed the misconception by researchers and practitioners about being able to classify and comply to a precise leadership theory (Day et al., 2013). The focus of leader evolution is on developing the individual and on leadership development regarding the evolution of multiple individuals.

Central to organizational effectiveness is the collective effort in offering effective leadership from various perspectives to a group of theories to explain how leadership influences and describes employee attitudes and behaviors. There are differences between different theories, leadership styles, and leadership perceptions as common themes

regarding leaders and followers as factors in sharing in the leadership process. A majority of research in leadership includes followers' subjective evaluation, judgment, and opinion regarding the conceptualization of attitudes (Lee et al., 2015). The follower's interpretation of the way the leader may act decides the leadership style and usually develops from the measurement of leadership theories.

Researchers who have applied the cross-sectional design have indicated those participating in habitual physical activity may show superior cognitive functions compared to those who exercise less frequently or those with lower fitness levels compared to people with higher fitness levels. Researchers who have applied longitudinal designs have reached similar conclusions regarding better cognitive functions in association with long-term exercise training and improved fitness levels as well as a delay in age-related cognitive decline. The exercise effects on cognition have identified the mode of training, age, and the type of cognitive task examined as possible moderators, whereas most researchers have compared the effect of aerobic-type exercise on cognitive functions to the corollary cardiovascular fitness effects. According to research, superior memory performance occurred in preadolescent children with high cardiovascular fitness levels compared to those with low fitness status. Researchers have found that functional neural connectivity, hippocampal volume, and basal ganglia volume are cognitive processes that associate positively with specific aspects of brain anatomy and the prominence of cardiovascular fitness (Chang et al., 2015). The performance of global cognitive functions was better in older adults with moderate levels of cardiovascular fitness than in individuals with lower fitness levels.

Data Analysis Results From Other Studies

Many personality models vary greatly from the Big Five factors and researchers
have tailored the measurements to meet their needs. For example, there were 100 females
with a mean age of 45.5, $SD = 12.1$, age range from 22 to 77 and 60 males with a mean
age of 46.1, $SD = 15.3$, age range from 18 to 79 in a sample with a nonindependence does
not show bias covariances and correlations (Bouchard, 2016). The core personality
measures included 21 scales derived from an item oblique factor analysis with gender-
corrected tetrachoric correlations of $N = 411$ adult participants from the Minnesota
Multiphasic Personality Inventory. The California Psychological Inventory,
Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire, and the Minnesota Psychological Inventory
used a true–false format for all items with a higher order factor analysis similar to the Big
Five with the factors reversed and characterized by two aggression scales (Bouchard,
2016). The tables in the article showed a comprehensive breakdown of individual
personality factors that are high on the mean average of trait and the expectation of adult
participant's actions and achievement.

In defining personality traits, the most popular classification is Casta and
McCrae's, who divided personality traits into five categories: agreeableness,
conscientiousness, extraversion, emotional stability, and openness to experience. These
commonly known traits are the Big Five (Chien, 2014). The analytic hierarchy process is
a feedback mechanism created to achieve optimal decisions to capture and predict the
endogenous relationships between all the criteria via purposed ratio scales. The emphasis
on various research orientations in commitment and social representation surfaced in

different freewill compliance through various models. Souchet and Girandola (2013) used the theory of representation to identify the preparatory acts in conducting a survey or a questionnaire with the public. Preparing the act will activate a central cognition of the representation instead of activating a peripheral cognition.

The model is designed so the processes of influence and the receptiveness from a theoretical and an applied perspective will lead toward comprehension and optimization in a behavioral modification in the short, medium, and long term (Souchet & Girandola 2013). Souchet and Girandola (2013) obtained free choice from the participants and with this binding communication approach associated with the preparation act from the participants. The occurrence is not a promise of a reward or a punishment intention of individuals to make a persuasive aim of the relationship between what they do and what they are expected to do by the message. In obtaining the preparatory act, there is an argument that is consistent with the message conveyed.

Factual research resulted from adopting quantitative methods for 256 companies as samples in Gaál and Fekete's (2012) study. Gaál and Fekete noted that forming a connection among essential character traits and organizational performance in the research started with three hypotheses. The survey questionnaire included inquiries regarding the connection with organizational strategy and performance (Gaál & Fekete 2012). Srivastava (2014) found seven variables and emulated the execution of leadership. Srivastava focused on the quantitative statistical measure of R-squared that alternated from .232 to .532, which indicated that the performance acclimation becomes a significant predictor of business performance, although organizational leaders are

repeatedly amending the efficiency (Srivastava, 2014, Figures 2 and 3). Capabilities surfaced as a compelling negotiated element that expedited the aftermath for performance orientation on strategic enterprise performance.

A distinction in the meaning of *merger* and *acquisition* resulted in some strategic or financial objectives, and they now operate under the same structure. Less than one fourth of mergers and acquisitions reached the intended financial goals, as measured by share value, return on investment, and profitability after the event has occurred. According to Mirna, Barac, and Jelavic (2014), more than 11,000 deals took place worldwide in 2010. Mirna et al. noted the basis of market power depends on economies of scope, coinsurance, and economic diversification of the financial scale. With regard to these outcomes, more than half of the merged companies end up divested (Mirna et al., 2014). The measuring dynamics of strategy, growth strategy, and competitive strategy support the results through adequate statistical and econometric methods using leaders and employees and by transferring the breakdown of strategy into concrete indexes through communication.

The highly commercialized world of intercollegiate athletics has increasingly influenced the way to navigate the college experience by millennial student-athletes' preparation for life after sport since the late 1990s. Mirna et al. (2014) noted that Anglo-Saxon geographical domination has controlled empirical research in the leading scholarly research journals. Navarro and Malvaso's (2015) study included a survey electronically transmitted via Survey Monkey to 211 freshmen student-athletes generated by an athletic department's division of academic support services. The study included descriptive

statistics compiled for all demographic data and each of the 12 questions using a Likert-scale measure (Navarro & Malvaso, 2015). Although the quantitative findings were not statistically significant, the open-ended qualitative responses provided substantial evidence of topics that warrant further exploration both practically and academically on peer mentorship programming (Navarro & Malvaso, 2015). The researchers concluded there was a significant correlation between student-athlete gender and the perceived effectiveness of the program. The survey instrument included three sections, with the survey participants chosen based on the two main factors previously mentioned.

Researchers have used several instruments for moral identity arguments that have important territorial status for the effects of psyche deficiency in unethical leader behavior. The righteous character is an important motivator of ethical conduct (Joosten et al., 2014). In Study 1, Joosten et al. (2014) manipulated depletion that researchers frequently use; in Study 2, they successfully tested an often-used instrument that measures workplace deviance using a recent research study. The work environment entails diverse behaviors ranging from interpersonal deviance to organizational deviance, which can differ in concentration and possible consequences and can form a meaningful operationalization of unethical conduct.

The participants in Study 1 included 41 males and 37 female undergraduate participants from a Dutch university with a mean age of 19.00 years ($SD = 1.95$; Joosten et al., 2014). An effectiveness of the self-regulatory measured on a variety of Likert scales ranging in degree from 1 to 5 or 1 to 7 using a range of disagreeing and agree. The participants in Study 2 included 30 line, 61 middle, and nine senior or top managers who

matched colleagues from various Dutch organizations (Joosten et al., 2014). Similar to Study 1, Study 2 included the same five-item internalization subscale of moral identity created by Aquino and Reed.

The researcher in Joosten et al., (2014) article initiated a hierarchical regression analysis with self-reported improper leader behaviors as the dependent variable. The age, gender, and tenure of leaders served as control variables in the first block for the regression. Regulatory deficiency and righteous character introduced in the second block of the regression added a bilateral exchange between regulatory deficiency and righteous character in the third block of the regression. The aim of the study was to analyze the relationship of normal deficiency and righteous character on abnormal authoritative behavior by extracting supporting evidence for the hypothesis.

The experience-producing-drive theory asserts that personality best reflects over the course of development in the selection and creation when confronted with the complex environmental control. According to researchers, individual must make psychological sense, a IQ-for spouse correlations at .51, .60, and .62 with the average IQ correlation being .33, with the mean correlation for the Big Five was .10. A person's choice of physical, psychological, and social environments requires that measuring personality values and attitudes be part of one's personality. There are guidelines in the selection of activities, occupation, and types of people a researcher prefers to associate such vocational interest with items. Other researchers have found similar correlations over the life of relationships in social attitudes (Bouchard, 2016). In this example,

assortative mating was much higher for values and social attitudes than standard personality scales.

The framework of attitude theory provided a theoretical basis for reviewing leadership perceptions, and given the size of the attitude literature, Lee et al. (2015) limited the scope of the review to some of the main themes that could inform their understanding of leadership perceptions. Evaluating an object in the relationship to a level between agreeable and not agreeable of an attitude in comparison to job attitude is a stable construct in the individual level of organizational research. Lee et al., (2015) examines common job attitudes and job satisfaction in the organizational pledge. Items fit into the three attitudinal components with considerable variation both within and between leadership measures. Researchers have shown that favorability emerges because of a person's beliefs, feelings, and experiences regarding these objects and the concern of the multidimensional leader–member exchange (LMX-MDM) scale items in each of the three attitudinal dimensions (Lee et al., 2015). In contrast, Table 2 of Lee et al.'s study showed a clearly effective panel of raters.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is an effective instrument for estimating error variance for the factor effects to interpret the corresponding outcome of any inclined data in the study as a prediction error. According to Ali and Ahmad (2014), the variance will show the use of the F ratio that emanates from the ANOVA. The objective function will affect each factor building the proportionate degree of a probability statement in relation to the significance of individual factors made in the ANOVA, thereby envisioning the impact of the comparable factors on the achievement measure. The critical F ratio was α

$= .05$, $F(1, 31) = 4.16$ (Ali & Ahmad, 2014). The results of the ANOVA calculated by using the SPSS software appeared in Table 13 of Ali and Ahmad's article.

New Direction in Leadership Education

To attain organizational goals, performing an assignment has a direct association to behavior and mainly correlates to organizational performance. Employee imagination interconnection to a more creative organization to construct for a higher organizational performance; as such, a critical conclusion would have an adverse impact on oppressive leadership for its adverse influence on the total effectiveness of the organization. The installation of a theoretical foundation for a new direction is leadership education and learning configurations will furnish managers with the leadership prowess to navigate the unstable demands and situations of modern work (Holten et al., 2015). With regard to ethics and the violation of rules, 25% of nearly 2,000 U.S. workers detected their coworkers or companies lying, and 88% of 800 executives reported being victims of corporate fraud (Haskins, 2013). Leader effectiveness has resulted in conflicting conclusions in studies when researchers explored both constructive and adverse relationships between authoritative leadership and followers' optimism and perceptions.

Gap in the Literature

Organizational changes may lead to failure due to poor decisions made by executive leadership. Classifying, incorporating, and interpreting themes regarding personality traits and leadership characteristics is a crucial phase that needs ongoing research to create a better understanding of the social consciousness of global leadership in the measurements of intercultural leaders and group behaviors. Antisocial behavior, for

example, manifests as a failure due to the conduct of disorder in childhood that conforms to aggressive behavior that may or may not persist as an antisocial personality disorder in adulthood (Samek, Elkins, Keyes, Iacono, & McGue, 2015). The five-factor model includes a breakdown of the lexical arrangement developed from Cattell's clusters of personality as both negative and positive descriptions (Fehringer n.d.). The preferential treatment and the informal relationships can help in the enforcement of group norms against bribes (Putrevu et al., 2012). There are theoretical and empirical gaps in the literature concerning key issues on the dark-side effects at the personal level. This involves the focus on external environmental factors in previous studies that have investigated dark-side effects.

Depending on any given situation, employees corrupt behavior are affected by their characteristics in the facilitation of corruption by employees that do not share the same personal traits in the explanation of corruption. Personality and neurocognitive disorders substantially influence persistent antisocial behavior, and positive environmental experiences may offset genetic factors (Samek et al., 2015). The inclination toward an action that is morally disgraceful and unethical in behavior in the traditional accounting framework can argue the inquiries in the underlying economics of a firm (Giner & Pardo, 2015. The intertwining of quality in financial reporting and unethical manipulation by managers regarding the accounting controversy in the Enron-Andersen case was probably the most sensational financial failure in which unethical actions extended to illegal behavior and fraud (Giner & Pardo, 2015). The life course of

persistence in the adolescent-limited in the normative of the antisocial behavior is particularly problematic.

In the advancement of members in society as leaders, theories exist to frame the significance of leadership theories such as transformational, transactional, member exchange, servant leadership, and situational leadership. Researchers have created a significant amount of literature on the strong role of coaches regarding leadership settings to align with organizational leadership. Connections between leadership styles in the form of motivation and performance exist in the continuum of behavior. Some forms of leadership are less dependent on leadership from coaches, which is similar to business leadership. Researchers are finding many gaps in Sports psychology leadership literature to the social and communal relationships with teammates and coach as individual-level measurements in the assessment of team-level constructs.

Entrenched in organizational history and likely the future of organizations, the description of some executive leadership and natural factors regulates the decision to persevere with a prevailing direction in the closing or demise of other business failures. Analysis on the uncertainty of success, structural sluggishness, and investment amount of these factors can expose the upkeep of business confidence in the strategic perseverance learned from the failure of others (Amankwah-Amoah, 2014). The construct of leadership is a complementary theme in the scope of athletics, where executive leadership finds ways to inspire staff, and student-athletes search for a way through complicated and turbulent environments by driving themselves and their teammates. The most crucial and pertinent employee responsibility is relative to empirical evidence in job performance,

organizational citizenship behaviors, and creativity has immense direct impact on organizational effectiveness.

Testing executive functioning in elite athletes discovering a significant connection between exercise and cognitive efficiency in recent studies. The cognitive functioning as a subcategory has enabled higher ranked cognitive tests after the intense physical exercise is assumed to execute with higher proficiency. Finding people able to forecast strategic execution and flawed processes may alleviate inevitable failure in an organization (Amankwah-Amoah 2014). Executive functioning foresight can respond to the early anticipation of business failure stemming from poor business decisions if leadership uses the warning signals gained from activities that involve planning and arduous problem solving.

Summary and Conclusion

The experience and knowledge gained through the relationships among senior executives, management, and athletes evolve to develop the decision-making ability to handle day-to-day organization management. Transferring competence from the athletic environment to a business environment can be a topic for additional research. The different behaviors learned can help the executive leadership as it guides the business operation functions to create organizational change. In classifying, incorporating, and examining the themes around the topic of leadership, it is important to take steps to strengthen the social consciousness of global leadership in the measurements of cultural leadership and group behaviors.

The context of personality has an evolutionary perspective in identifying problems using globalization not only in the use of the Big Five dimensions but also in the development of other mechanisms to enable people in all cultures to reflect recurrent adaptions to facilitate the strategic goals of the differences in detecting evolution, ecological, and culture mechanisms. The evolution of traits and personality factors involved are intrinsic and extrinsic in the influences of the formation of those patterns that divide leadership traits. The basic category evolves around the shift in the intensity that over time new traits will replace other traits in the extrinsic category (Xu et al., 2014). Situations do not change intrinsic characteristics, traits, and personality, and they do not affect other people's reaction to a situation, although different situations can activate extrinsic traits such as powerful, gentle, artless, and sagacious that can affect other people's view of a leader. The evolution and situational expression of leader traits found in the literature includes cognitive abilities, motives, values, problem-solving skills, social appraisal, interaction skills, and expertise or tacit knowledge.

The different levels of a trait are adaptive with individual differences and attributed to the balance selection processes. Personality, characteristic, and traits is the genetic variation in maintenance due to a continuum of the different levels in a trait becoming adaptive under various environmental conditions. Cultural dimensions and the personality traits in individualism–collectivism and tightness–looseness balance the connection of genetic variants from studies on molecular genetics. According to researchers, personality trait scores do not identify genetic variants that are significant and reliable in the association, as a particular trait may have thousands of common

genetic variants that appear in each as a minuscule effect. These selective migrations in cultural neuroscience affect the investigation of how culture and genes coevolve on neural architecture, cultural dimensions, and personality.

The essence of a leader is the development of all these attributes through structured practice in the development of leadership over one's lifetime. Individuals can learn to enhance the reflection of their experiences and take the opportunity to evolve and develop character. The maturity of an individual's dimensions of personality will manifest in situationally applicable behaviors (Seijts et al., 2015). Traits are often contradictory, so leaders possessing composite traits who can select and express two different traits within the composite may be appropriate in certain situations, even though they are contradictory. The enhancement of the understanding in the leadership process regarding the perception of leadership that the decision makers transform into attitude. The attitude framework is an advanced theory used to understand leadership perceptions that involves analyzing current measures to show components of attitude as an affect, cognition, and behavior.

The justification for the inclusion of personality measures such as social attitudes, social values, and work values, which are a psychological interest for statistical measurements. Bouchard (2016) discussed the experience-producing-drive theory regarding the domain of personality. Motivation broadens researchers' understanding of human personality. A casual predisposition of the individual genotype leads to the construction of the physical and psychological environments. The explanation of what, why, and how encompasses a broad scope of behaviors in humans as well as animals.

The limitation in this study on athletic development personality factors was definitive due to a small sample size between the countries.

Campbell & Göritz, (2014) indicated there are two separate types of corruption: active corrupt behavior and passive corrupt conduct. The perpetrators of both behaviors negotiate insider deals on behalf of their organization. Bribes or destroying incriminating documents are examples of corruption. Silent observers tolerate this behavior; if employees do not actively engage in corruption, their inaction serves as passive corrupt behavior (Campbell & Göritz, 2014). Cognitive skill transfer may play a role in the transfer of executive functions skills. For example, the transfer of learning from the classroom to the workplace has had difficulties (Holten et al., 2015; Jacobson & Matthaeus, 2014). Based on a leadership-learning model, leadership teaching and learning offer a more holistic approach to education than the previous type of programs (Holten et al., 2015). Consequently, there is a need for formal leadership training and development courses focused on how newly acquired skills facilitate the transfer as an integrated part of a formal program.

Society approach to personal leadership development in the fulfillment of organizational responsibility from institutions of higher education in considering programmatic changes in the learner's evolution. Navarro and Malvaso (2015) noted the enhanced visibility of student-athletes and the increased pressure for student-athletes to perform in higher education systems lead to an opportunity for lifetime success as societal leaders in college and life after sports. Tateo and Iannaccone (2012) noted that the space of negotiation accomplished these requisites of social representation as a

psychological process established in the structure. The approach contributes to the network of social representation as detailed identifications, personal patterns, and the methods that grasp the essence in the space of negotiations (Tateo & Iannaccone 2012). To embellish on the new relationship, advancing the process of psychosocial transition with others will reconstruct its cognition, social structures, and arrangement of goals to cope with adjustments in situations.

The scales and measurement of variables selected in this study may have seemed more applicable to the motorsport context based on success factors identified by Young et al. (2013). The well-established five-factor model of personality traits survey instrument might have been too general for this study. Organizational changes may lead to failure due to the poor decisions of executive leadership. Company leaders must view the effects of an executive leadership or C-level executive decision-making ability regarding economic, social, cultural, and environmental sustainability.

Chapter 2 consisted of a thorough explanation for the development of Chapter 3 relating to the measurement of variables by using a construct from Young et al.'s (2013) study and the International Personality Pool (IPIP), which is an online public domain repository, for accessibility to empirically tested scales, in addition to three instruments similar to the models discussed in the literature review. The three instruments are the Leadership Scale for Sport developed by Chelladurai and Saleh (1980), the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X-Short, and Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). The competing values framework is a predictor of quality improvement implementation, employee and patient satisfaction, and team

functioning, among other outcomes. Chapter 3 includes a discussion on the methodology,

correlational design, and the combined Likert-type survey instruments used to collect

data for this correlation study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction to the Research Study

The purpose of the study was to determine if athletic development personality factors correlate to executive leadership decision making. Researchers have noted that different organizational consultant firms are presenting opportunities to engage, evaluate, and observe leaders' behavior on various informational, cognitive, and affective constraints based on performance (Gaddis & Foster, 2015). In this research, I examined executive leadership (decision making) personality factors in large, medium, and small business frameworks. I used a quantitative method, correlational design, Likert-type survey instrument, and multiple regression statistical measures to test for correlated characteristics between athletic development personality factors of decisions makers, executive leaders, and managers from the United States, United Kingdom, South Africa, India, and Singapore.

Empirical Research Problem

Executive decision makers have leadership skills needed to deliver knowledge and accomplish goals. It is this emphasis on innovation, creativity, and productivity that drives diverse workgroups. Dixon and Hart (2010) noted that organizational leaders who embrace and maintain economic competitiveness in a diverse landscape use the leadership styles that are most effective in motivating the various groups of employees. The relationship between personality, leadership, and leader effectiveness marks the intersection of factors associated with executive decision makers' evolution as leaders.

This study involved using a quasi-experimental design to analyze the research problems in a single group.

Research Design and Rationale

The study involved analyzing the correlation of athletic development personality factors (independent variables) to executive leadership decision making (dependent variable). In this identification of independent and dependent variables in this study the primary rationale was to show the difference between the science and mathematics in statistical measurements (see Young et al., 2013; Leatham, 2012). I selected these variable to understand their relationships in the context of executive decision making. My goal was to contribute to positive social change by providing clarity about the relationship between defective personality factors and executive decision-making failures.

In social science research plans, instrument needs might include Survey Monkey or similar instruments that use data collection procedures for Internet, e-mail, or telephone surveys. My use of an Internet-based survey shows how survey research is affected by its instruments. These instruments ensured that I had access to participants through e-mail and the Internet, which I used to build momentum. The Internet is providing a robust platform for conducting survey initiatives and has numerous advantages, as researchers have noted in several studies (Ahern, 2005; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 2007). Seven hundred and sixty-six CEOs participated in interviews in Flammer's (2013) study, and 93% of the CEOs indicated a critical feature in the sustainability of their business was Internet use. To fit the research strategy, the

questions in a survey need reviewing and modifying so that they can be used to extract pertinent information and provide optimal knowledge for executive or management personnel.

The most important components of applied social science research are obtaining usable data from a sound statistical measurement, and making a generalized interpretation of the information gained through questionnaires, surveys, and interviews. In selecting the survey method in a study, there are several components that need to be considered in the construction of the survey including the types of questions and the content, wording, response format, placement, and sequence (Trochim, 2006). There are implications in the distinction between external and internal validity for sampling in statistics. Statistics sampling is appropriate for a public opinion survey (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). The Internet offers many benefits for researchers, such as planning research studies, developing research methodologies, locating resources, accessing diverse populations, and conducting quantitative and qualitative research studies.

Design Paradigm

In this study, I used a quantitative correlational method that involved sending surveys through the Survey Monkey global platform to business decisions makers in executive leadership positions in various industries and countries. My intent was similar to that of Heffes (2013) who used Likert-type survey instruments to complete a KPMG International survey of 1,000 C-suite executives. I used a 50-question survey predicated on the research question and hypotheses.

I initially chose this method because I sought to carry out research in a natural, real-life setting. In contrast to using am experimental design with time intervals, degrees of specificity, nature of the comparison, and time sequences of events that are relational. Therefore, reaching a sample would have been too costly and time intensive (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2007). Manipulating the independent variable in some designs lacks the adequate control of a rival explanation, where there are limits with no control over the direction of the causation logically or where control is theoretically secondary.

Population

The participants in the study consisted of a population of full-time professionals employed in hierarchically structured, public or private, for-profit or nonprofit organizational cultures in different regions around the world. I submitted into Survey Monkey's global audience profile the sample for the company size, which included 11-50, 51-100, 101-500, 501-1000, and greater than 1000 total employees. The professional positions I listed in the primary profile factor were directors, managers, and decision makers in executive leadership positions. The age range was 25–70, with a larger portion of the respondents in the 33 to 44 range, and education levels consisted of high school and college. Fields of expertise encompassed human resources, finance, accounting, marketing, technology implementation, production, management, engineering, sales and business development, technology development hardware, technology development software, and operations.

I recruited participants from the Survey Monkey global panel commercial site. In the first phase of Survey Monkey use, I designed the construct of the survey. The second

phase involved selecting the profile requirements for survey candidates from drop-down menus. The third phase involved merging both phases and initiating the instrument in Survey Monkey's Audience, which created an available pool of willing participants from the United States ($n = 25$), United Kingdom ($n = 25$), South Africa ($n = 24$), India ($n = 23$), and Singapore ($n = 27$). Of the 140 participants, 124 completed the survey in the Survey Monkey Audience profile section.

Sampling Design

Probability Versus Nonprobability

To find an efficient strategy for optimizing the study, I compared systematic and stratified probabilistic sampling strategies involving the random selection of the sample and the purposive sampling strategies that conformed to the real-life strategies of execution in a wide range of nonprobabilistic sampling strategies. The population I selected was comprised of directors, managers, and other decision makers in executive leadership positions. I defined the construct, scale, and items for the independent variables (athletic development personality factors) and the dependent variable (decision making). The business strategy can be a complicated process that needs to include time elements as part of the equation and is time consuming, mainly due to variations in all the variables (van Hoeven, Janssen, Roes, & Koffijberg, 2015). I examined the sample population to ensure that the correlation of the athletic development factors to executive leadership decision making had a margin of error as low as possible.

I used the available data in the online platform for the evaluation of each participant's criteria before the data collection began. I implemented three practical

sampling strategies to stratify the sample and ensure: (a) each country used the same

criteria in extracting executive leadership organizations in the sampling of the results

from Survey Monkey's Audience global panel, (b) use the maximum variation in

sampling of Survey Monkey's global panel decision makers at the executive management

level, (c) target five global regions to ensure the compatibility of the resulting samples in

the Survey Monkey's global panel. This helped to evaluate the standard multiple

regression base model in the assumptions and to calculate the prediction errors (van

Hoeven et al., 2015). I assumed that if an association existed between a sample and a

distinct data set, then there would also be a link with additional compatible population

results. The outcomes displayed the confines of relating to the nonprobability strategies

are primary and probability strategies will not be maintained (van Hoeven et al., 2015). I

concluded that the practical strategy helped in evaluating the methods to extract and use

the various sampling strategy choices.

Nonprobability

The top sampling strategy for this quantitative research study was purposive

sampling, also known as selective or judgmental selection. A disadvantage was the

failure to generalize the nonprobability sampling results to the general population in the

statistical framework and the inability to reply to some related research questions (van

Hoeven et al., 2015). Bassous (2015) noted that nonprobability sampling is a purposive

method for selecting participants, and researchers applying nonprobability sampling

choose the subjects in the study. Stratification is a subset choice because the design

strategy involves using available information, which enables the researcher to divide the

sample into groups, and its procedures do not violate the principle of purposive selection (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2007). The expectation was to find out from the research findings if there was high validity and reliability documentation for surveys (Cheng, 2009). For example, a study may include an instrument from an actual survey that received some valid responses in another study.

The research sample in the study had no contrasting difference between the numbers of samples from executive leadership in each global profile selection. When using purposive sampling, researchers may find it difficult to select a sample person or group if there is an issue between randomization and logical intentions. Even though random sampling receives high regard in the process of sampling strategies because the sample results can be generalized to the population, there is a chance to interpret the reliability of its projections incorrectly (van Hoeven et al., 2015). The feasibility of random sampling may not be practical in some situations due to the elements of time, assets, and cost, so I picked a person or group to make soliciting to participants' partialities and needs feasible.

Sample Size Analysis

According to Burkholder (n.d.), the researcher must calculate the value of the effect size by hand, thereby giving an indication of how large an effect is or how strong a relationship is between the groups as well as into correlation to athletic development personality factors. Fewer people will need assessing to detect a large effect, but contrasting a smaller effect will require more people to detect a small effect. Rather than use Cohen's d in the measurement of the effect size based on the t statistic, and that is if I

decided to use a 10% attrition, there would be an additional six participants (60 * .10 =

6); $N = 66$ means there are 22 in each group (Burkholder, n.d.). The sample size was 20

executive leaders per group, for 60 executives.

I used the same proportional sampling fraction of 1/10 of KPMG International

survey use 1,000 C-suite level executives, 1000 * .10 = 100 samples and Accenture and

the United Nations Global Compact surveys of 766 CEOs interviewed 766 * .10 = 76

samples. I contacted a representative at KPMG to acquire the participants based on the

research study and the research questions as an option to access $n = 76$ samples required

for validity, but the representative declined the offer to participate. Therefore, I used the

Survey Monkey Audience global panel to obtain a purposively selected sample of

managers from a pool of participants in five countries.

Purposive Sampling

Using the Survey Monkey Audience database was suitable for implementing the

purposive sampling method. As dealing with all types and sizes of organizations was

difficult because of resource constraint (Dwomoh, Kwarteng, Frempong, & Frempong,

2015). The study included a nonprobability sampling of selective or judgmental sampling

to obtain samples of executive leaders and organizations for the study. The study

involved purposive sampling to include profile population groups of directors, managers,

other decision makers in executive leadership, company size, occupation status, age,

education level, field of expertise, and each participant's country, while selective or

convenience sampling led to people who had authoritative positions participating in the

study (Dwomoh et al., 2015). Purposive sampling ensured executive leadership and top

management of various organizations could incorporate the relationship of the issues of decision making in the workplace into the survey.

Purposive sampling is used to guarantee representation from different groups in a population. Bias may transpire in a systematic pattern that is not conducive to an effective sampling strategy (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2007). Issues did occur with patterns in the data that arise unknowingly; in addition, the target population was not a town, school, or identifiable population that was quantifiable due to the nature of the organizational structures. The strategy was to divide and extract the executive leadership from the profile population groups of the professional position in the company, director, manager, other decision maker in executive leadership, company size, occupation status, age, education level, field of expertise from each participant's country business and corporate frameworks. Logic and choices indicate the importance of corresponding mathematical and scientific contexts in analyzing the descriptive demographics and correlation of other independent, dependent, and covariate variables (e.g., age, gender, race; Leatham, 2012). I used a quantitative correlational design with a multiple regression analysis to describe the correlated characteristics of the significant relationship of defective athletic development personality factors to executive leadership.

Calculating Effect Sample Size Through G-Power

G-Power is a power type analysis I used to estimate and to calculate the purposive sample size for the multiple regression. Cohen's *F* was more suitable than Cohen's *d* in measuring effect size based on other statistical models with a comparison of more than two groups, as shown in the table using $\alpha = 0.05$ and power $= .80$ with the estimated

effect size = .15, .25, and .35 (Cheng, 2009). I used purposive sampling as the criterion

for identifying and selecting the population for investigating executive leadership

decision making and athletic development personality factors. The research sample and

the survey employed in the study did not have a large difference between the number of

samples based on the participants and the country of the large, medium, and small

business frameworks.

Sampling Strategy

      I used the sampling strategy as a reference for developing this study. Burkholder

(n.d.) stated that there is a probability of detecting a real treatment effect or actual

relationship resulting from a test that shows an accepted value for the statistical power of

.80 (80%) and of providing a reasonable likelihood of detecting a difference in the

sample size to ensure a large enough sample. Purposive sampling techniques included a

maximum variation strategy as a nonprobability-sampling tool that applied the data from

the targeted survey respondents selected. Researchers advocate employing purposive

sampling techniques to select a sample that represents a wider range in a group of cases

as closely as possible or to set up comparisons among different types of cases on a

particular dimension of interest (Akadiri & Olusanjo, 2013). If a relationship exists in

using the theoretical framework of social exchange and social representations theory will

enable the flow in the social interactions between the personality factors and the

executive leadership decision making as overlapping maze of strategies in an

organization (da Silva et al., 2012). Instruments such as Survey Monkey were necessary

for collecting data through the Internet, by e-mail, and via telephone to address the impact of the Internet and the ways survey research can affect the design selected.

Methodology

Establishing Validity for Measurement for the Study

The reason to establish measuring instruments is to hit certain milestones and benchmarks by using survey-type instruments. I used instruments similar to Likert-type tools from Survey Monkey as a comparison to the completed KPMG International survey of 1,000 C-suite executives (Heffes, 2013). According to Weijters et al. (2013), researchers mark scale categories by labels due to a familiarity hypothesis used frequently in ordinary language and preferred as an endorsement in surveys.

The study scale items consisted of six traits (collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, leadership, and decision-making) selected from the well-known IPIP, an online public domain repository of empirically tested scales. For instance, survey items may measure an individual's passion regarding the independent variables relationship in the motorsports industry (Young et al., 2013). The validity of measurement affects the validity of a conclusion after hypothesis testing is complete. Measuring variables in this study did not involve using the well-established five-factor model of personality traits survey instrument, which might have been too general for this study. The motorsport-selected scales were appropriate for the context based on success factors identified from Young et al.'s (2013) study.

Research Question and Hypotheses

Research Question: What is the relationship between athletic development personality factors and decision making at the executive leadership level of an organization?

H_0: There is no significant relationship between decision making for executive leadership and athletic development personality factors.

H_a: There is at least one significant athletic development personality factor that is related to the decision-making at the executive leadership level.

The study involved testing the hypotheses by running the following multiple regression model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \beta_3 X_{3i} + \beta_4 X_{4i} + \beta_5 X_{5i} + \epsilon_i,$$

$$H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \beta_4 = \beta_5 = 0$$

$$H_a: \text{At least one } \beta_i \neq 0,$$

where i equaled the ith person (out of 124) from the sample, Y_i equaled executive leadership decision making for Person i, X_{1i} equaled the collaboration athletic development personality factor of Person i, X_{2i} equaled the focus athletic development personality factor of person i, X_{3i} equaled the trustworthiness athletic development personality factor of Person i, X_{4i} equaled the ethicalness athletic development personality factor of Person i, X_{5i} equaled the leadership athletic development personality factor of Person i, and ϵ_i equaled error term for Person i.

Procedures for Recruitment

When launching the survey, I targeted a vast audience through a population consisting of executive leadership across various industries in Survey Monkey's network. The recruitment process started with the exact number of participants needed to obtain valid and reliable responses for the study. I used G-Power software to calculate the total sample size for the study. The power analysis computed the required sample size using α, power, and effect size. The input parameter was the calculation for the effect size $f^2 =$ 0.02. For the second sequence, I increased the input parameters for new calculations from the effect size f^2 to α = .15, with changes in the results for the output parameters. The third test in the sequence was to increase sample size in the effect size f^2 to α = .35, with changes in the results. The sample size used was from the Survey Monkey Audience, which was a purposively selected sample of executives, with a minimum of $n = 140$ needed from a pool of participants in various geographic locations determined using the power analysis. The manual approach used in the sample analysis section may have been more appropriate due to time constraints and effectiveness as an effect size.

Data Collection

Data collection from executive leadership (directors, managers, and decision makers) in the countries targeted in this study (United States, United Kingdom, South Africa, India, and Singapore), which one of five English-speaking countries, took place during a 5-day period after receiving approval from Walden University's IRB (Approval No. 01-10-17-0333763). I submitted the survey and an informed consent letter through a link in the Survey Monkey Audience online global panel platform for participants to

agree to participate in the study (see Appendix D). Through the online survey, I

administered the corresponding preliminary IPIP scales to measure similar constructs

supplemented with industry-specific questions, as well as a few questions to understand

the personality factors of the population targeted. I labeled the participants using a

confidential identifier from the data if they chose to exit the study. Finally, I downloaded

the data, stored them on the survey host server in various file types, and downloaded and

stored them on multiple external drives I controlled for easy access and analysis.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

The study included the Survey Monkey Audience global panel to obtain a

purposively selected profile of a sample of executives from their pool of participants

(panels) in the United States, United Kingdom, South Africa, India, and Singapore. The

study involved examining the relationship between athletic development personality

factors (collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, leadership; independent

variable) and decision-making (dependent variable) among the participants who agreed to

participate (Young et al., 2013). The scale items used were a 7-point Likert-type scale

ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (7) selected from the IPIP. An

example of a measuring tool is the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, which is a Likert-type

scale with bivalent and symmetrical labels about a middle or neutral point (Leung, 2011).

Rosenberg used the instrument to measure concepts of power in bureaucracy, gender

relations, freedom, and intelligence.

Socioeconomic status is a common index that includes three indicators: income,

education, and occupation. Researchers use measuring instruments for testing indexes

and scales; the design can represent the complexities developed by social scientists (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2007). In measuring similar constructs, published instruments provided the corresponding preliminary IPIP scales. Using IPIP has benefits because no permission is necessary for a developer to use the instrument and there is no need to include a permission letter in the appendix (see Appendix B). Individuals do not need to ask permission to use instruments in the public domain and can use the IPIP items and scales in any way they deem acceptable.

<div align="center">**Data Analysis Plan**</div>

I used SPSS software to calculate statistical patterns in the data obtained during the data collection process. Multiple regression involves an attempt to predict and determine future outcomes using the regression model (Sherperis, n.d.). The elaborate codes are a system of learning to conduct simple or complex analysis in an easy-to-use data editor with the appropriate transformation of the variables. The relative contribution of each predictor's variance took place in a multiple regression analysis to determine the overall fit (variance explained) of the model.

Cronbach's α indicates the reliability of a survey, and a statistical value of around .8 is good (or .7 for ability tests and the like). The reliability analysis indicates the consistency of a measure. The intent is to reverse-score a questionnaire before a researcher can run the analysis, which is a reverse-phrase, to run on any item with all subscales of the survey running separately for a reliability analysis. Cronbach's alpha indicates whether removing an item will improve reliability when the deleted item is in a column. Researchers who delete an item rerun the factor analysis to ensure the factor

structure will still hold (Field, 2013). A significant relationship at the mean level of difference may be consistent across the post hoc test, as statistical software such as SPSS has changed the teaching of statistics.

The options in analyzing data from one menu to another menu in the creation of graphs in the distributions of variables are numerous. Many readers will understand and help the data to overcome obstacles in the selection of various statistical analyses that are appropriate options for the benefit of applications such as SPSS (Green & Salkind, 2014). If the scale improves reliability, values greater than reliability will occur with the removal of that item while looking for items that increase the value of α following the deletion of the item. The bivariate correlation helps researchers to create a reliable and valid score on the scale, thereby deciding the kind of terms to include or choosing the item to discard. The first stage of factor analysis used was the bivariate correlation coefficient (Pearson's *r*), which indicated how closely the linked items were to the whole scale (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2007). Ensuring the validity of a criterion is a serious problem due to the cost of the procedure. The degree of correlation known is the correlation coefficient between the external criterion and any given measure.

Categorical Labeling and Items

The athletic development personality traits from Young et al. (2013) were an appropriate measurement because they measured sports-related personality factors. The construct of items used was the 7-point Likert-type scale with a range from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (7). The research question for the study aligned with the independent and dependent variables for the athletic development personality factors

from Young et al. (2013): collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, leadership, and decision-making. Building Likert-type scale attributes counteracts the differences in response to the perceived intensity of the labels suggested by Weijters et al. (2013). The fixed alternative expressions were *strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree,* and *strongly disagree*, which is a continuum of responses. Rating scales are ways to respond alternatively to the labels attached, and the labels used can affect the response distributions.

Validity of the Study

I ensured the validity of the study by using the discriminative power of the item, the factor analysis statistical technique, and Cronbach's alpha estimates for the average of all possible split-half reliability coefficients. The acceptable level needed on a scale of 1.0 was .70, which indicates items tightly connected to the scale (see Appendix C). The results of a study hold content validity when the measurement instrument covers all the attributes extracted from the findings. Content validity includes both face-to-face validity and sampling validity using a specialist to help ensure content validity for survey design and evaluation to capture all the elements under study (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2007). The third validity category was a descriptive posture in measuring the construct for validity. The correlation coefficient established an index with the two measures to translate the predictive validity coefficient as it relates to a measuring instrument for the general theoretical framework. The survey instrument consisted of questions that measured closeness, personality trait, and thought processes (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2007). These instruments were similar in purpose as a measuring tool but

different in the extraction of the data for statistical evaluation and interpretation of the data.

I used the basics of validity, which are content, empirical, and construct, and are unique values under specific conditions. Reliability evaluates the measuring instrument regarding the characteristics used to define testing methods in the relationship between reliability and validity that complement one another (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2007; see Appendix C). According to Köksal, Ertekin, and Çolakoğlu (2014), measuring usage are important factors in threatening internal validity in research even when the same scale is a different study. Depending on the Likert-type scale training the collected scores may change the reliability and validity with a different application (Köksal et al., 2014). The differences arising in the use of various data collectors are an important component to finding gaps in the research results.

Ethical Procedures

An ethical approach to the anticipated legal or ethical issues, bias, and context needs consideration. I used caution to ensure the ethical protection of the participants was adequate to maintain the confidentiality of participants' data by storing the data in a safe place for 5 years. Requirements bind the profiles of the sample in a federation or organization to retain the adherence of their administrative responsibility. Recruiting for senior managers, employees, and the employment of the media communications that put messages out to the public could have had an effect on the perception of the readers and the interpretation of the researcher. While analyzing the data, the use of statistical information was small for the executive leadership sample.

I protected the names of individuals and organizations using password-protected

databases that included files, folders, and external and internal drives, thereby keeping

the participants and organizations' identity confidential. There were n = 140 responses to

the surveys. However, Survey Monkey signified that the ethical considerations related to

the plan did have a high impact through surveys for several reasons. The clearance for

executive leadership participation received IRB and Survey Monkey's consent approval,

a study introduction was forwarded from the researcher to the attention of Survey

Monkey global panel through the profile data inquiry for the participants'.

Summary

This chapter included a description of the methodology, correlational design,

reliability, validity, and combined instruments (Likert-type surveys) used to collect data

from Survey Monkey. The explanation provided was an accurate representation for

developing the results section in Chapter 4 relating to the sample of executive leadership

extracted from the G-Power software. SPSS was suitable for analyzing the relationship

between the variables. Multiple instruments coincided with the study's construct, and a

discussion of similar models appeared in the literature review. The study did not include

all types of measures, but researchers can implement other types in future studies. For

instance, the Leadership Scale for Sport developed by Chelladurai and Saleh (1980)

shows a good leader can demonstrate five different types of behavior. Researchers widely

use the MLQ Form 5X-Short for measuring leadership styles, and the OCAI to start the

dialogue about an organization's current situation and what it would like to become. The

competing values framework is a predictor of quality leadership and organizational

effectiveness for the approved implementation of employee satisfaction, patient

satisfaction, and team functioning, among other outcomes. I used nonprobability and

purposive sampling to ensure the adequate representation of different groups of the

population at the desired level of accuracy.

I used Young et al.'s (2013), study and the IPIP. The population size is the total

number ($N = 140$) in the total population, and each stratum was a proportionate stratified

sample within the population size, and the sample distributed proportion of the five

countries consisted of United States ($n = 25$), United Kingdom ($n = 25$), South Africa ($n = 24$), India ($n = 23$), and Singapore ($n = 27$). The basis of the executive leadership

profile was access to Survey Monkey's global panel to see if a relationship existed

between athletic development personality factors (independent variable) and decision-

making (dependent variable). The purpose of designing simple questions is to mitigate

and collect data personally by using instruments from established studies (Cheng 2009).

The ethical protection to safeguard participants ensures compliance with the requirements

of Walden University IRB procedures. In this chapter, I have identified the study

population and the method for acquiring informed consent, confidentiality, reliability,

and validity, as well as the methods for data collection and data analysis procedures. The

discussion on the data analysis and results appears in Chapters 4 and 5.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to determine if athletic development personality factors correlate with executive leadership decision making. The study included surveys of 124 respondents. Correspondingly with surveys, different organizational constituencies have opportunities to observe leaders' behavior within various informational cognitive and affective constraints (Gaddis & Foster 2015). Survey Monkey was a suitable platform for collecting data for this research project. The study involved interpreting statistical data to determine whether a correlation exists between athletic development personality factors and the decision-making construct in a sample I selected (see Young et al., 2013).

Sampling Selection

After receiving IRB approval on January 9, 2017, I began data collection. The survey went out to a global audience via Survey Monkey. I captured and identified the sample of executive leaders from the profiles of directors, managers, and decision makers in the targeted industries by field of expertise. I used nonprobability sampling, which is a purposive method of selecting participants for a study. The process of stratification included dividing the sample into groups, and did not violate the principle of purposive selection (see Bassous, 2015; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2007). Upon approval of my IRB (Approval No. 01-10-17-0333763), I submitted the survey to Cint, a strategic partner of Survey Monkey's global audience platform, that confirmed compliance with local regulations and best practices.

Survey Participant Demographic Classification

I labeled the participants using a confidential identifier for each. The data remained on the survey host server until I download and stored the data on multiple external drives that I controlled for easy access and analysis. The selected targeted sample was English speaking, as the survey and questions were all in English. Identifying the respondents was not permitted or necessary. After receiving approval from a Cint representative, I directed the respondents to the survey according to the study's specifications. The survey was sent to a selected sample population residing in India, Singapore, South Africa, the United Kingdom, and the United States, which all have large English-speaking populations. The survey participants were directors, managers, and other decision makers in executive leadership positions. At the start of the survey, they provided information regarding their gender, age, education, number of employees in their company, and whether they worked full-time.

Data Collection, Conversion, and Analysis

When launching the survey, I targeted an expansive audience across various industries using Survey Monkey's network. I collected data from January 13, 2017, to January 18, 2017. I recruited participants from Singapore, South Africa, the United Kingdom, the United States, and India in order to obtain valid and reliable responses for the study. I sent individuals who agreed to participate in the study links to the Survey Monkey platform, provided them informed consent using the online platform, and administered the 50-question Likert-type survey scales through an online survey.

Data Cleaning

In total, 140 respondents began the online survey, 131 respondents had no missing answers, and nine respondents had between 35 and 45 missing responses. I removed respondents with missing data from the sample. Boxplots for the six scale scores showed seven additional respondents with 16 outliers (see Figure 2) that I also removed from the sample. No multivariate outliers existed based on Mahalanobis distance test statistics, which left the final study sample at $N = 124$.
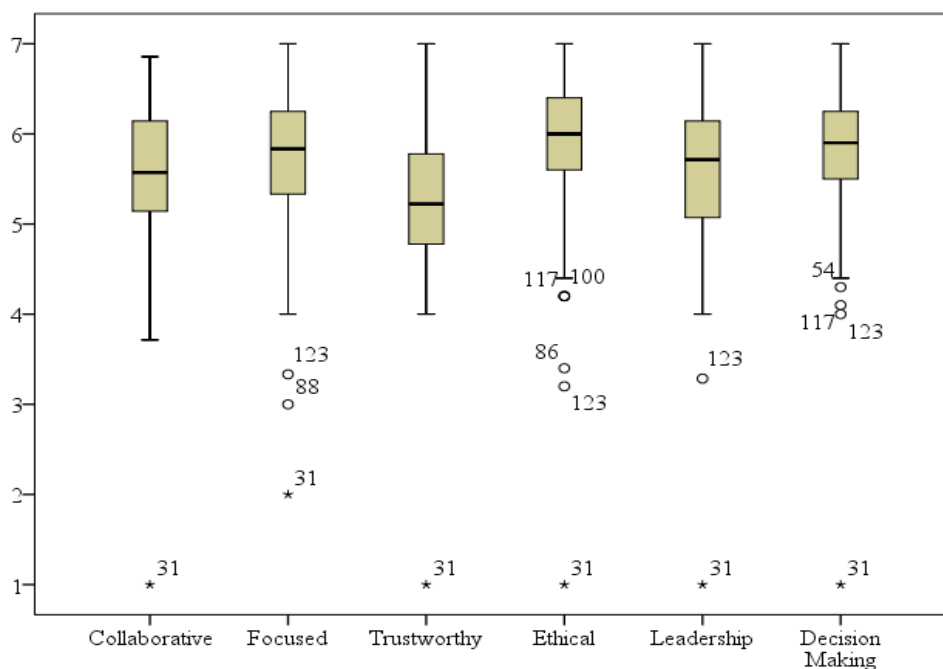
Figure 2. Initial boxplots for the six scale scores.

Assumptions

The assumption in there was a correlation between all athletic personality factors and executive decision making. Data analysis showed that the scale has reliability between these personality factors items with Cronbach's alpha for the five personality

factor components in the study. The assumption was that all the items had a positive correlation over .30 for the reliability (Field, 2013).

Assumption Testing

Normality testing for the six scale scores showed that the assumption was adequately met using frequency histograms. Scatterplots showed evidence of linearity between each of the five predictors and the criterion variable, as well as support for linearity based on the Pearson correlations that were all significant at the $p < .001$ level. Testing multicollinearity included both tolerance and variance inflation factor statistics, and emerged as acceptable. The Durbin-Watson statistic indicated the data met the assumption of independence. In addition, a histogram (see Figure 3), normal P-P plot (see Figure 4), and a scatterplot (see Figure 5) of the standardized residuals against the standardized predicted values provided further evidence that the data met the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. The data adequately met the statistical assumptions for multiple regression.
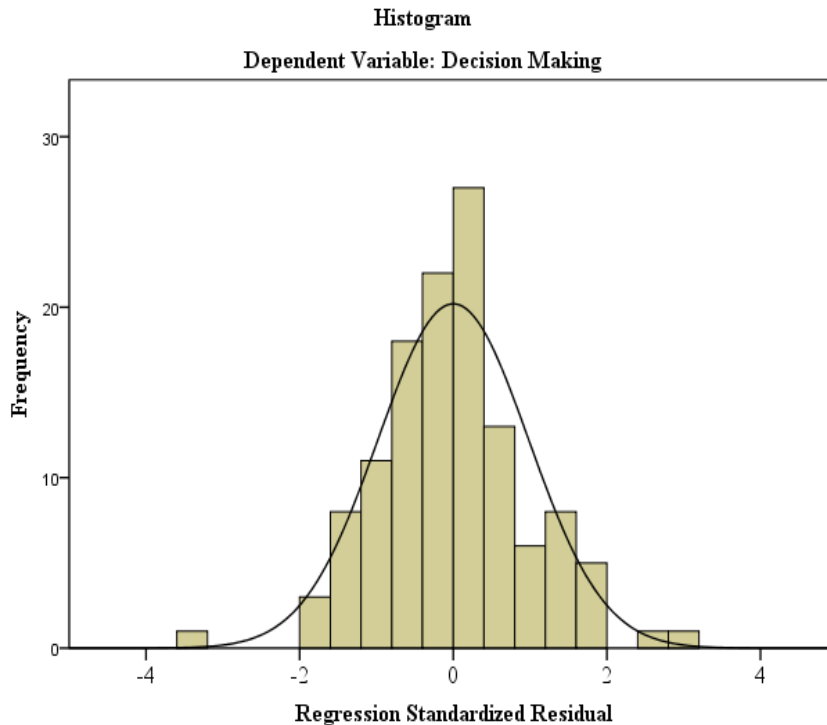
Figure 3. Regression standardized residual frequency histogram (primary multiple regression model, *N* = 124).
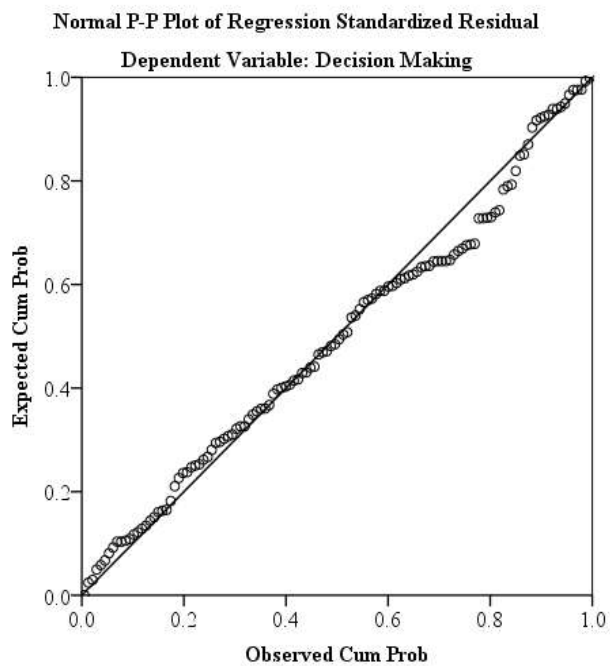
Figure 4. Normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual.
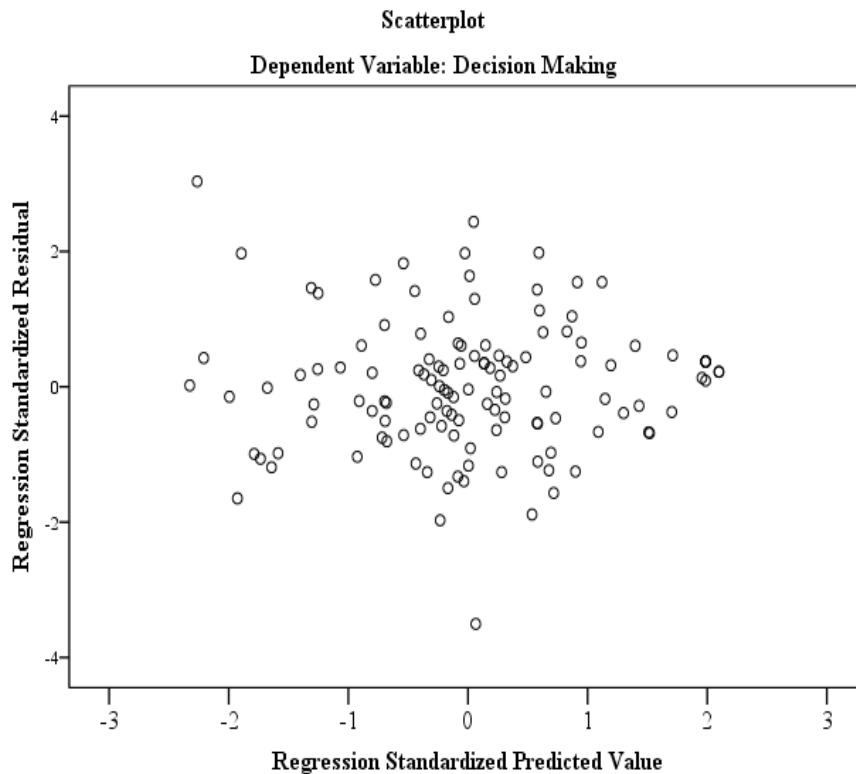
Figure 5. Scatterplot of regression standardized residual.

Results of the Study

The participants responded to simple industry-specific agree-and-disagree questions, and to questions regarding how the personality factors correlated with executive leadership decision making (see Young et al., 2013). The only requirement was that the respondents answered the survey questions truthfully. I conducted the research using Likert-type scale responses through the SurveyMonkey platform. The 124 respondents lived in one of five English-speaking countries. Participants ages ranged from 18-29 (11.3%) to 60+ (4.8%), with a median age of 37. There were twice as many males as females (see Table 1).

Table 1

Frequency Counts for Selected Demographic Variables

Variable and category	*N*	%
Country		
India	27	21.8
Singapore	23	18.5
South Africa	24	19.4
United Kingdom	25	20.2
United States	25	20.2
Age category [a]		
18-29	14	11.3
30-44	80	64.5
45-59	24	19.4
60+	6	4.8
Gender		
Female	40	32.3
Male	84	67.7

Note. N = 124.
[a]*Mdn* = 37 years old.

Reliability Analysis

Conducting a reliability analysis to measure the validity of the survey ensured

consistency in measuring the items. The exercise was a reverse-score on the original

survey from Young et al.'s (2013) study. I ran the analysis, which was a reverse-phrase of

the subscales of the survey questionnaire run separately for a reliability analysis for the

actual study. Cronbach's alpha indicates the reliability of a questionnaire, and values

around .8 are good (or .7 for ability tests). If the researcher deletes an item in a column,

then Cronbach's alpha will indicate whether removing an item will improve reliability.

The scale improved reliability, and the values greater than reliability indicated what

occurred with the removal of an item. The items dramatically increased the value of α,

and I removed them. I reran the factor analysis to check that the factor structure still held the reliability (Field, 2013).

The aggregated scale in Table 2 shows the psychometric characteristics for the six scale scores. All Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients were above $\alpha > .70$, which indicated adequate levels of internal reliability (Field, 2013). Alpha coefficients ranged from $\alpha = .73$ to $\alpha = .88$, with the median alpha being $\alpha = .75$. The basis of these scales is a 7-point scale: 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Decision-making had a mean of $M = 5.91$. Among the five personality factors, the highest rated was ethicalness ($M = 6.00$), and the lowest was trustworthiness ($M = 5.38$).

Table 2

Psychometric Characteristics for the Aggregated Scale Scores

Scale	No. of items	*M*	*SD*	Low	High	α
Collaboration	7	5.67	0.67	3.71	6.86	.73
Focus	6	5.87	0.65	4.17	7.00	.74
Trustworthiness	9	5.38	0.72	4.00	7.00	.74
Ethicalness	5	6.00	0.62	4.20	7.00	.80
Leadership	7	5.71	0.70	4.14	7.00	.77
Decision Making	10	5.91	0.59	4.40	7.00	.88

Note. Scales based on a 7-point scale: 1 = s*trongly disagree* to 7 = s*trongly agree.*

Research Question and Hypothesis Findings

The research question for this study was as follows: What is the relationship between athletic development personality factors and decision making at the executive leadership level of an organization? The related alternative hypothesis was the following: There is at least one significant athletic development personality factor related to decision making at the executive leadership level. As a preliminary set of analyses, Table 3 displays the results of the Pearson intercorrelations among the six scale scores. All five

personality factors had significant positive correlations with the decision making score at the $p < .001$ level. All five correlations were at least $r = .57$, with the largest correlation between focus personality and decision-making ($r = .75$, $p < .001$). Among the intercorrelations for the five personality factors, all 10 were significant at the $p < .001$ level. Specifically, the intercorrelations ranged in size from $r = .43$ to $r = .71$, with the median sized correlation being $r = .62$.

Table 3

Pearson Intercorrelations Among the Scale Scores

Scale score	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Decision making	1.00					
2. Collaboration	.60	1.00				
3. Focus	.75	.63	1.00			
4. Trustworthiness	.57	.68	.59	1.00		
5. Ethicalness	.66	.45	.61	.43	1.00	
6. Leadership	.67	.71	.71	.64	.57	1.00

Note. $N = 124$. All correlations were significant at the $p < .001$ level.

Descriptive Analysis of the Variables

Independent Variable

In the study, I investigated the assumptions between the relationship, athletic development personality factors independent variables, collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, and leadership. The question of whether a defective side in the continuum of the personality factors would agree with the hypothesis of this study. The question whether or not there is a significant relationship to the executive leadership decision making relates to age in decision-making. Any issues regarding company size, country and culture, age, and athletic development personality factors distinguish executive leadership decision making. The assumption may or may not dictate that the

activity is disruptive in executive leadership decision making, but the findings may or may not consistently relate across all five cultures.

Dependent Variable

Executive leadership decision-making (dependent variable) may form relationships that negatively or positivity surface in athletic development personality factors. The correlational design of the research categorized executive leadership decision making between several of the athletic development personality factors in relationship to the individual, country, age, and gender. The agreement or significance was either negative or positive in executive leadership decision making, as decided by participants' response to the survey, which may create other questions regarding the relationship to decision-making to the personality factors for a valid response of $N = 124$ participants.

Multiple Regression Assumptions

Table 4 displays the results of the standard multiple regression equation predicting decision-making based on the five personality factors. The model was significant ($p = .001$) and accounted for 65.7% of the variance in the dependent variable. Inspection of the table indicated decision-making scores were higher for respondents with higher scores for focus personality ($\beta = .39$, $p = .001$) and ethicalness personality ($\beta = .28$, $p = .001$). The resulting prediction equation was as follows:

$$Y_i = 0.83 + 0.08 \ (\text{Collaboration}) + 0.35 \ (\text{Focus}) + 0.07 \ (\text{Trustworthiness}) + 0.27$$

$$(\text{Ethicalness}) + 0.10 \ (\text{Leadership})_+ \epsilon_i.$$

Table 4

Prediction of Decision Making Based on the Five Personality Factors Using Standard

Multiple Regression

Variable	B	SE	β	p	Tolerance	Variance inflation factor
Intercept	0.83	0.35		.020		
Collaboration	0.08	0.08	.09	.320	0.39	2.54
Focus	0.35	0.08	.39	.001	0.40	2.49
Trustworthiness	0.07	0.06	.09	.270	0.47	2.11
Ethicalness	0.27	0.07	.28	.001	0.59	1.71
Leadership	0.10	0.08	.12	.190	0.35	2.87

Note. $N = 124$. Full model: $F(5, 118) = 45.22$, $p = .001$. $R^2 = .657$. Durbin-Watson = 2.29.

Data Analysis

The Pearson intercorrelations scale scores displayed the five predictor scores

shown in Table 3 (possibility of multicollinearity). To verify the findings, Table 5

displayed the results of the stepwise regression model predicted decision-making based

on the five personality factors. The regression approach eliminates redundant predictors

from a model and protects against multicollinearity (Field, 2013). The resulting three-

variable model was significant ($p = .001$) and accounted for 64.7% of the variance in the

dependent variable. Inspection of the table found decision-making scores to be higher for

respondents with higher scores for focus personality ($\beta = .43$, $p = .001$), ethicalness

personality ($\beta = .28$, $p = .001$), and leadership personality ($\beta = .21$, $p = .01$). The resulting

prediction equation is as follows:

$$Y_i = 0.99 + 0.40 \text{ (Focus)} + 0.27 \text{ (Ethicalness)} + 0.17 \text{ (Leadership)} + \epsilon_i.$$

This combination of findings provided support for the alternate hypothesis.

Findings Aligned to Research Question

Descriptive statistics for individual collaboration items appear in Table 5,

displayed by the highest mean. The basis of these ratings was a 7-point scale: 1 =

strongly disagree to 7 = *strongly agree*. Highest level of agreement was for Item 14, "I

work cooperatively with employees when working as a leader of a team" ($M = 6.36$). The

lowest level of agreement was for Item 18, "Participating in an individual sport in college

exposes the lack of a teamwork culture" ($M = 4.65$).

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Individual Collaboration Items Sorted by Highest Mean

Item	M	SD
14. I work cooperatively with employees when working as a leader of a team.	6.36	0.75
6. I support fellow group members when working as a leader of a team.	6.30	0.76
32. Participating in a team sport in college is a beneficial experience in working with employees.	6.03	1.14
45. I value cooperation over competition when working as a leader of a team.	5.99	0.92
20. I am sensitive to the needs of employees when working as a leader of a team.	5.63	0.74
34. It is important that I believe that there are no 'honest' mistakes - there is always an ulterior motive.	4.70	1.79
18. Participating in an individual sport in college exposes the lack of a teamwork culture.	4.65	1.84

Note. N = 124. Items based on 7-point scale: 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

The six individual focus items in Table 6 display the descriptive statistics sorted

by the highest mean. The basis of these ratings was a 7-point scale: 1 = *strongly disagree*

to 7 = *strongly agree*. Highest level of agreement was for Item 10, "I concentrate hard on

a task until it is done when working on a challenging project" ($M = 6.24$). The lowest

level of agreement was for Item 39, "I spend time reflecting on employee's

unprofessional behavior when working on a challenging project" ($M = 4.82$).

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Individual Focus Items Sorted by Highest Mean

Item	*M*	*SD*
10. I concentrate hard on a task until it is done when working on a challenging project.	6.24	0.81
1. I stick to a task until it is complete when working on a challenging project.	6.15	1.15
21. I try to understand myself when working on a challenging project.	6.13	0.84
27. I try to examine myself objectively when working on a challenging project.	6.06	0.82
15. I look for hidden meanings in things when working on a challenging project.	5.78	1.14
39. I spend time reflecting on employee's unprofessional behavior when working on a challenging project.	4.82	1.61

Note. N = 124. Items based on 7-point scale: 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

The descriptive statistics in Table 7 display nine individual trustworthiness items

sorted by highest mean. The basis of these ratings was a 7-point scale: 1 = *strongly*

disagree to 7 = *strongly agree*. Highest level of agreement was for Item 11, "It is

important that I am honest" (*M* = 6.47), and lowest level of agreement was for Item 41,

"It is important that I distrust employees in subordinate positions" (*M* = 3.73).

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for Individual Trustworthiness Items Sorted by Highest Mean

Item	*M*	*SD*
11. It is important that I am honest.	6.47	0.79
16. It is important that I am trustworthy in my business relationships.	6.40	0.82
23. It is important that I trust what employees say.	5.91	0.92
33. It is important that I believe in human goodness.	5.89	0.97
28. It is important that I trust business competitors.	5.39	1.34
7. I believe that employees seldom tell you the whole truth.	5.12	1.53
47. It is important that I suspect hidden motives in business competitors.	4.94	1.59
38. I find it hard to forgive employee's unprofessional behavior.	4.59	1.75
41. It is important that I distrust employees in subordinate positions.	3.73	2.15

Note. N = 124. Items based on 7-point scale: 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

The five individual ethicalness items in Table 8 show the descriptive statistics sorted by the highest mean. The basis of these ratings was a 7-point scale: 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Highest level of agreement was for Item 24, "It is important that I believe that honesty is the basis for trust by the executive leadership" (*M* = 6.30). Lowest level of agreement was for Item 17, "It is important that I do the 'right thing' even if it causes problems in the business" (*M* = 5.53).

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for Individual Ethicalness Items Sorted by Highest Mean

Item	*M*	*SD*
24. It is important that I believe that honesty is the basis for trust by the executive leadership.	6.30	0.76
3. It is important that I follow the spirit of the rule of an organization.	6.23	0.99
48. It is important that I try to always tell the truth.	6.09	0.89
29. It is important that I believe that employees are basically honest and good.	5.84	1.01
17. It is important that I do the "right thing" even if it causes problems in the business.	5.53	1.20

Note. N = 124. Items based on 7-point scale: 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

The seven individual leadership items in Table 9 display the descriptive statistics by the highest mean. The basis of these ratings was a 7-point scale: 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Highest level of agreement was for Item 12, "I motivate and inspire team members when working as a leader of a team" (*M* = 6.23). Lowest level of agreement was for Item 49, "I wait for employees to lead the way when working as a leader of a team" (*M* = 4.55).

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics for Individual Leadership Items Sorted by Highest Mean

Item	M	SD
12. I motivate and inspire team members when working as a leader of a team.	6.23	0.81
4. I lead and direct team members when working as a leader of an executive team.	6.19	0.93
25. I am the first to act when working as a leader of a team.	6.02	0.97
8. Participating in an individual sport in high school is beneficial to experience for leadership development.	5.83	1.19
30. I am never at a loss for words when working as a leader of a team.	5.67	1.17
35. Low youth sports participation need the training to develop the effective leadership traits required for future management.	5.48	1.16
49. I wait for employees to lead the way when working as a leader of a team.	4.55	1.97

Note. $N = 124$. Items based on 7-point scale: 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

The descriptive statistics for the 10 individual items in Table 10 display decision-making items sorted by the highest mean. The basis of these ratings was a 7-point metric: 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Highest level of agreement was for Item 13, "I think about implications before making decisions when working on a challenging project" ($M = 6.16$). Lowest level of agreement was for Item 22, "I listen to my feelings when making important decisions when working on a challenging project" ($M = 5.58$).

Table 11 shows the Spearman correlations between the seven collaboration items with the decision-making scale, age category, and gender. All items had significant positive correlations with the decision-making scale, with the largest correlations being with Item 14, "I work cooperatively with employees when working as a leader of a team" ($r_s = .61$, $p < .001$) and Item 45, "I value cooperation over competition when working as a leader of a team" ($r_s = .57$, $p < .001$). None of the items significantly related to the respondent's age category or gender (see Table 11).

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for Individual Decision Making Items Sorted by Highest Mean

Item	SD	M
13. I think about implications before making decisions when working on a challenging project.	6.16	0.86
26. I believe important decisions should be based on logical reasoning when working on a challenging project.	6.15	0.80
31. I plan and prioritize a course of action when working on a challenging project.	6.13	0.89
50. I believe that important decisions should be based on logical reasoning when working on a challenging project.	6.08	0.77
19. I break down tasks into manageable parts when working on a challenging project.	5.98	1.06
9. I make decisions based on facts, not feelings when working on a challenging project.	5.96	0.96
40. I listen to my brain rather than my emotions when working on a challenging project.	5.73	0.96
44. I believe that both feelings and thinking are important in making decisions and solving problems when working on a challenging project.	5.69	1.23
5. I take a long time to think before making big decisions when working on a challenging project.	5.65	1.20
22. I listen to my feelings when making important decisions when working on a challenging project.	5.58	1.08

Note. N = 124. Items based on 7-point scale: 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

Table 11
Spearman Correlations for Collaboration Items to Decision-Making Scale, Age, and Gender

Item	Scale	Age	Gender[a]
6. I support fellow group members when working as a leader of a team.	.50****	.14	-.02
14. I work cooperatively with employees when working as a leader of a team.	.61****	.05	-.11
18. Participating in an individual sport in college exposes the lack of a teamwork culture.	.26***	-.01	.07
20. I am sensitive to the needs of employees when working as a leader of a team.	.39****	.05	-.09
32. Participating in a team sport in college is a beneficial experience in working with employees.	.37****	.06	-.04
34. It is important that I believe that there are no 'honest' mistakes - there is always an ulterior motive.	.35****	-.05	.16
45. I value cooperation over competition when working as a leader of a team.	.57****	.09	-.07

Note. N = 124.
[a] Gender: 1 = *female*, 2 = *male*.
* *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01. *** *p* < .005. **** *p* < .001.

Table 12 displays the Spearman correlations between the six focused items with decision-making scale, age category, and gender. All items had significant positive correlations with the decision-making scale, with the largest correlations being Item 27, "I try to examine myself objectively when working on a challenging project" (r_s = .63, *p*

< .001), and Item 10, "I concentrate hard on a task until it is done when working on a

challenging project" (r_s = .61, p < .001). None of the items significantly related to the

respondent's age category. Women had higher levels of agreement with Item 10, "I

concentrate hard on a task until it is done when working on a challenging project" (r_s

= -.22, p < .05).

Table 12

Spearman Correlations for Focus Items to Decision-Making Scale, Age, and Gender

Item	Scale	Age	Gender[a]
1. I stick to a task until it is complete when working on a challenging project.	.51****	-.06	-.10
10. I concentrate hard on a task until it is done when working on a challenging project.	.61****	.04	-.22*
15. I look for hidden meanings in things when working on a challenging project.	.52****	-.11	-.06
21. I try to understand myself when working on a challenging project.	.50****	.01	-.03
27. I try to examine myself objectively when working on a challenging project.	.63****	-.06	-.10
39. I spend time reflecting on employee's unprofessional behavior when working on a challenging project.	.38****	-.01	.02

Note. N = 124.
[a] Gender: 1 = *female*, 2 = *male*.
* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .005. **** p < .001.

      Table 13 shows the Spearman correlations between the nine trustworthiness items

with the decision-making scale, age category, and gender. Eight of nine items had

significant positive correlations with the decision-making scale, with the largest

correlations being with Item 16, "It is important that I am trustworthy in my business

relationships" (r_s = .54, p < .001), and Item 33, "It is important that I believe in human

goodness" (r_s = .54, p < .001). None of the items significantly related to the respondents'

age category or gender.

Table 13

Spearman Correlations for Trustworthiness Items to Decision-Making Scale, Age, and Gender

Item	Scale	Age	Gender[a]
7. I believe that employees seldom tell you the whole truth.	.37****	-.14	.05
11. It is important that I am honest.	.48****	.05	-.16
16. It is important that I am trustworthy in my business relationships.	.54****	-.02	-.05
23. It is important that I trust what employees say.	.36****	.13	-.03
28. It is important that I trust business competitors.	.36****	.02	.04
33. It is important that I believe in human goodness.	.54****	-.09	-.14
38. I find it hard to forgive employee's unprofessional behavior.	.17*	-.07	.09
41. It is important that I distrust employees in subordinate positions.	.16	-.11	.17
47. It is important that I suspect hidden motives in business competitors.	.35****	-.12	.06

Note. $N = 124$.

[a] Gender: $1 = female$, $2 = male$.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

Table 14 displays the Spearman correlations between the five ethicalness items with the decision-making scale, age category, and gender. All items had significant positive correlations with the decision-making scale, with the largest correlations being with Item 24, "It is important that I believe that honesty is the basis for trust by the executive leadership" ($r_s = .57$, $p < .001$), and Item 3, "It is important that I follow the spirit of the rule of an organization" ($r_s = .48$, $p < .001$). None of the items significantly related to the respondents' age category or gender.

Table 14

Spearman Correlations for Ethicalness Items to Decision-Making Scale, Age, and

Gender

Item	Scale	Age	Gender[a]
3. It is important that I follow the spirit of the rule of an organization.	.48****	.10	-.07
17. It is important that I do the "right thing" even if it causes problems in the business.	.30****	.05	.01
24. It is important that I believe that honesty is the basis for trust by the executive leadership.	.57****	-.01	-.05
29. It is important that I believe that employees are basically honest and good.	.45****	.06	-.04
48. It is important that I try to always tell the truth.	.37****	.07	-.12

Note. $N = 124$.
[a] Gender: $1 = female$, $2 = male$.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

Table 15 shows the Spearman correlations between the seven leadership items

with the decision-making scale, age category, and gender. All items had significant

positive correlations with the decision-making scale, with the largest correlations being

with Item 25, "I am the first to act when working as a leader of a team" ($r_s = .62$, $p <$

.001); Item 12, "I motivate and inspire team members when working as a leader of a

team" ($r_s = .58$, $p < .001$); and Item 30, "I am never at a loss for words when working as a

leader of a team" ($r_s = .58$, $p < .001$). None of the items significantly related to the

respondents' age category. Women had higher levels of agreement with Item 12, "I

motivate and inspire team members when working as a leader of a team" ($r_s = -.22$, $p <$

.01), but lower levels of agreement with Item 25, "I am the first to act when working as a

leader of a team" ($r_s = .18$, $p < .05$) and Item 30, "I am never at a loss for words when

working as a leader of a team" ($r_s = .20$, $p < .05$).

Table 15

Spearman Correlation for Leadership Items to Decision-Making Scale, Age, and Gender

Item	Scale	Age	Gender[a]
4. I lead and direct team members when working as a leader of an executive team.	.47****	-.01	-.15
8. Participating in an individual sport in high school is beneficial to experience for leadership development.	.46****	-.03	-.15
12. I motivate and inspire team members when working as a leader of a team.	.58****	.06	-.22**
25. I am the first to act when working as a leader of a team.	.62****	.03	.18*
30. I am never at a loss for words when working as a leader of a team.	.58****	.04	.20*
35. Low youth sports participation need the training to develop the effective leadership traits required for future management.	.46****	-.03	-.13
49. I wait for employees to lead the way when working as a leader of a team.	.20*	-.07	.09

Note. $N = 124$.
[a] Gender: $1 = female$, $2 = male$.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

Table 16 displays the Spearman correlations between the 10 decision-making items with the decision-making scale, age category, and gender. All items had significant positive correlations with the decision-making scale, as expected given that all these items are in the decision-making scale. The highest levels of agreement were with Item 31, "I plan and prioritize a course of action when working on a challenging project" ($r_s = .74$, $p < .001$), and Item 26, "I believe important decisions should be based on logical reasoning when working on a challenging project" ($r_s = .70$, $p < .001$). None of the items significantly related to the respondents' age category or gender.

Table 16

Spearman Correlations for Decision-Making Items to Decision-Making Scale, Age, and

Gender

Item	Scale	Age	Gender[a]
5. I take a long time to think before making big decisions when working on a challenging project.	.57****	-.11	-.08
9. I make decisions based on facts, not feelings when working on a challenging project.	.65****	-.09	-.06
13. I think about implications before making decisions when working on a challenging project.	.63****	.04	-.16
19. I break down tasks into manageable parts when working on a challenging project.	.63****	.04	-.11
22. I listen to my feelings when making important decisions when working on a challenging project.	.48****	.08	.01
26. I believe important decisions should be based on logical reasoning when working on a challenging project.	.70****	-.02	-.09
31. I plan and prioritize a course of action when working on a challenging project.	.74****	.12	-.13
40. I listen to my brain rather than my emotions when working on a challenging project.	.60****	.06	-.10
44. I believe that both feelings and thinking are important in making decisions and solving problems when working on a challenging project.	.67****	.09	.00
50. I believe that important decisions should be based on logical reasoning when working on a challenging project.	.64****	.14	-.05

Note. N = 124.
[a] Gender: 1 = *female*, 2 = *male*.
* *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01. *** *p* < .005. **** *p* < .001.

Additional Findings

Table 17 displays the Spearman correlations between the decision-making score

and each of the five personality factors. This first included the entire sample (*N* = 124)

and then included each of the five country subsamples. The analysis included Spearman

correlations instead of the more common Pearson correlations due to the small sample

sizes in each of the five country subsamples (*n* = 23 to 27). In the sample, the sizes of the

Spearman correlations were similar to those found based on the original Pearson

correlations (see Table 3). Among the country subsamples, the country-specific

correlations for most countries were similar in size to those found in the entire sample.

However, in the South Africa subsample, the correlations were generally smaller, with

two of the five correlations not significant at the $p < .05$ level (see Table 6). In addition,

for the Indian sample, the correlation between decision-making and the five personality

factors was larger than for the entire sample.

Table 17

Spearman Correlations Between Decision Making Score and Personality Factors for

Selected Subgroups

Personality correlation factor	Entire sample	India	Singapore	South Africa	United Kingdom	United States
Collaboration	.57****	.80****	.51**	.32	.66****	.49**
Focus	.75****	.80****	.73****	.62****	.84****	.65****
Trustworthiness	.53****	.61****	.58***	.51**	.53**	.48*
Ethicalness	.61****	.72****	.72****	.49*	.76****	.43*
Leadership	.66****	.77****	.64****	.32	.63****	.74****

[a] Subgroups: 1 = entire sample ($N = 124$); 2 = India only ($n = 27$); 3 = Singapore only ($n = 23$); 4 = South Africa only ($n = 24$); 5 = United Kingdom only ($n = 25$); and 6 = United States only ($n = 25$).
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

Linear Correlation Assumptions

Cohen (1988) provided some guidelines for interpreting the strength of linear

correlations. Cohen suggested that a weak correlation typically had an absolute value of r

$= .10$ ($r^2 = 1\%$ of the variance explained), a moderate correlation typically had an

absolute value of $r = .30$ ($r^2 = 9\%$ of the variance explained), and a strong correlation

typically had an absolute value of $r = .50$ ($r^2 = 25\%$ of the variance explained). Therefore,

for the sake of parsimony, this results chapter primarily included correlations that were of

at least moderate strength to minimize the potential of numerous Type I errors stemming

from interpreting and drawing conclusions based on potentially spurious correlations.

One-Way ANOVA Correlation Assumptions

One-way ANOVA tests with eta coefficients (η) comparing each of the six scale

scores in Tables 18, 19, and 20 display the results of country, age group, and gender,

respectively. The eta coefficients (Pearson correlations between a nominal or categorical

variable with a continuous variable) were included as measures of the strength of the

relationship. The eta coefficients also help reduce the likelihood of Type I errors based on

the over interpretation of weak correlations. Table 18 shows the one-way ANOVA

correlations between each of the six scale scores with the respondent's country. Five of

the six test scores were not significant, and none of the eta coefficients were of moderate

strength based on Cohen's (1988) criteria.

Table 19 shows the one-way ANOVA correlations between each of the six scale

scores with the respondents' age group. None of the six test scores was significant, and

none of the eta coefficients was of moderate strength based on Cohen's (1988) criteria.

Table 20 shows the one-way ANOVA correlations between each of the six scale scores

with the respondents' gender. Five of the six test scores were not significant, and none of

the eta coefficients were of moderate strength based on Cohen's (1988) criteria.

Table 18

One-Way ANOVA Tests for the Scale Scores Based on Country

Scale score and category	*n*	*M*	*SD*	H	*F*	*p*
Collaboration				.25	1.99	.10
1. India	27	5.80	0.57			
2. Singapore	23	5.44	0.76			
3. South Africa	24	5.48	0.70			
4. United Kingdom	25	5.71	0.71			
5. United States	25	5.85	0.53			
Focus				.27	2.33	.06
1. India	27	6.13	0.62			
2. Singapore	23	5.59	0.52			
3. South Africa	24	5.79	0.70			
4. United Kingdom	25	5.89	0.69			
5. United States	25	5.87	0.61			
Trustworthiness				.25	2.01	.10
1. India	27	5.61	0.67			
2. Singapore	23	5.26	0.61			
3. South Africa	24	5.10	0.66			
4. United Kingdom	25	5.39	0.88			
5. United States	25	5.51	0.69	.24	1.81	.13
Ethicalness						
1. India	27	5.94	0.62			
2. Singapore	23	5.72	0.62			
3. South Africa	24	6.11	0.62			
4. United Kingdom	25	6.06	0.66			
5. United States	25	6.14	0.56			
Leadership				.28	2.50	.05
1. India	27	6.04	0.64			
2. Singapore	23	5.50	0.60			
3. South Africa	24	5.69	0.70			
4. United Kingdom	25	5.54	0.82			
5. United States	25	5.74	0.64			
Decision Making				.25	1.96	.11
1. India	27	6.11	0.60			
2. Singapore	23	5.65	0.53			
3. South Africa	24	5.90	0.49			
4. United Kingdom	25	5.94	0.73			
5. United States	25	5.93	0.54			

Note. $N = 124$.

Table 19

One-Way ANOVA Tests for the Scale Scores Based on Age Group

Scale score and category	*n*	*M*	*SD*	η	*F*	*p*
Collaboration				.12	0.62	.61
1. 18 – 29	14	5.52	0.95			
2. 30 – 44	80	5.68	0.63			
3. 45 – 59	24	5.77	0.63			
4. 60+	6	5.45	0.54			
Focus				.15	0.95	.42
1. 18 – 29	14	6.10	0.74			
2. 30 – 44	80	5.80	0.66			
3. 45 – 59	24	5.94	0.58			
4. 60+	6	5.89	0.50			
Trustworthiness				.18	1.28	.29
1. 18 – 29	14	5.71	0.81			
2. 30 – 44	80	5.33	0.71			
3. 45 – 59	24	5.41	0.76			
4. 60+	6	5.20	0.37			
Ethicalness				.24	2.52	.06
1. 18 - 29	14	6.17	0.49			
2. 30 - 44	80	5.89	0.67			
3. 45 - 59	24	6.22	0.51			
4. 60+	6	6.20	0.36			
Leadership				.05	0.10	.96
1. 18 - 29	14	5.77	0.88			
2. 30 - 44	80	5.69	0.71			
3. 45 - 59	24	5.74	0.67			
4. 60+	6	5.79	0.34			
Decision making				.16	1.08	.36
1. 18 - 29	14	6.00	0.75			
2. 30 - 44	80	5.84	0.58			
3. 45 - 59	24	6.08	0.55			
4. 60+	6	5.97	0.48			

Note. $N = 124$.

Table 20

One-Way ANOVA Tests for the Scale Scores Based on Gender

Scale score and category	*n*	*M*	*SD*	η	*F*	*p*
Collaboration				.06	0.46	.50
Female	40	5.61	0.76			
Male	84	5.69	0.62			
Focus				.07	0.57	.45
Female	40	5.93	0.69			
Male	84	5.84	0.63			
Trustworthiness				.07	0.53	.48
Female	40	5.31	0.77			
Male	84	5.42	0.70			
Ethicalness				.07	0.60	.44
Female	40	6.06	0.63			
Male	84	5.97	0.62			
Leadership				.19	4.36	.04
Female	40	5.90	0.63			
Male	84	5.62	0.72			
Decision making				.14	2.26	.14
Female	40	6.03	0.56			
Male	84	5.86	0.61			

Note. N = 124.

Summary

In summary, data analysis included answers from 124 respondents to determine if the informed athletic development personality factors collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, and leadership correlate with executive leadership decision making (Young et al., 2013). Reliability analysis indicated that the scale was a reliable instrument. The results of the Pearson inter-correlations found all five-personality factors had significant positive correlations with the decision-making score. The results indicated the largest correlation was between focus personality and decision making (personality factors correlated with decision-making; see Tables 3 to 5).

Researchers use the stepwise regression model to eliminate redundant predictors from the model and protect against multicollinearity. This regression approach eliminates redundant predictors from the model and protects against multicollinearity (Field, 2013). In the sample, the sizes of the Spearman correlations were similar to those found based on the original Pearson correlations (see Table 3). Among the country subsamples, the country specific correlations for most countries were similar in size to those found in the entire sample. However, in the South Africa subsample, the correlations were generally smaller, with two of the five correlations not significant (see Table 6). In addition, the correlation between decision-making and the five personality factors in the Indian sample was larger than that for the entire sample.

One-way ANOVA tests with eta coefficients (Pearson correlations between a nominal or categorical variable with a continuous variable) were measures of the strength of the relationship. The eta coefficients were suitable for reducing the likelihood of Type I errors based on the over interpretation of weak correlations. The final chapter involves comparing these findings to the literature, making conclusions, implications, and presenting a series of recommendations.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to determine whether the informed athletic

development personality factors collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, and

leadership correlate with the decision-making of individuals in leadership positions.

Chapter 5 includes my interpretation of the findings and a discussion of the study's

limitations. In addition, an extensive review of the recommendations for future research,

positive social change ramifications and a discussion of its implications.

Chapter 3 included discussions of the operationalization of all the variables and

background information on the reliability of the survey instruments. The sample

consisted of directors, managers, and decision makers in the five countries: the United

States, the United Kingdom, South Africa, India, and Singapore, with 124 respondents

lived in one of five English-speaking countries. The study included one research question

and two hypotheses. The research question was: What is the relationship between athletic

development personality factors and decision making at the executive leadership level of

an organization?

This final chapter includes my interpretation of the findings of the study, which

will indicate whether the data support or do not support the null hypothesis (H_0: $B_1 = B_2$

$= B_3 = B_4 = B_5 = 0$), which stated there is no significant relationship between decision

making for executive leadership and athletic development personality factors. Data

analysis showed that significant positive correlations existed between collaboration and

decision making, $r = .60$, $p < .60$, which had a strong correlation; focus and decision

making, $r = .749$, $p < .741$, which had a strong correlation; and ethicalness and decision making, $r = .662$, $p < .662$, which had a strong correlation, with leadership and decision making, $r = .67$, $p < .67$ showing a strong correlation as well. The significant positive correlation between trustworthiness and decision-making showed a moderate correlation at $r = .569$, $p < .569$ (see Table 3).

Based on the findings, I accepted the alternative hypothesis H_a, as at least one $\beta_i \neq 0$. At least one significant athletic development personality factor related to decision making at the executive leadership level. The Pearson correlation displayed the effect size and correlation strength for the absolute value of ŗ (see Evans 1996). Data analysis indicated the five athletic development personality factors collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, and leadership all have a correlation to decision making, but the correlation varies from very weak to very strong.

Interpretation of Findings

The reliability scale I used was appropriate for measuring the five athletic development personality factors identified in Young et al.'s (2013) research. Consequently, answering the research question helped me determine significant correlations existed between athletic development personality factors and decision-making. Therefore, developing successful interpersonal relationships can contribute to an individual's ability to inspire others by teaching a future vision. For the reason, the subdimensions of leadership ability fit into four skill set groups: confidence, autonomy, people-oriented, and task-oriented (Chien, 2014). As a result, categorized leadership abilities are a continuum of personality factors expressed through the description of a

relationship in the social interactions between individuals within and outside an organization.

Many researchers regard social exchange as a sequence of giving and taking to create a mutual obligation between two parties. Exchanges are usually two-way and are dependent on the behavior of both sides (Naseer et al., 2016). The relationships showed that all five athletic development factors correlated with decision making, the regression approach eliminates redundant predictors from a model and protects against multicollinearity (Field, 2013). The resulting three-variable model was significant: $Y_i =$ 0.99 + 0.40 (Focus) + 0.27 (Ethicalness) + 0.17 (Leadership) $_+$ ϵ_i. According to these findings, collaboration and trustworthiness were nonsignificant athletic development personality factors. In the sample, the sizes of the Spearman correlations were similar to those statistical measurements based on the original Pearson correlations (see Table 3). Again, the correlations were weak, which showed variance between the five countries. In addition, these personality factors were not significant correlation in all but one out of six test scores personality factor in One-way ANOVA tests with none eta coefficients (η) were of moderate strength according to (Cohen's (1988). Each of these results were from the country, age group, and gender, respectively.

The model for the standard multiple regression was significant ($p = .001$) and accounted for 65.7% of the variance in the dependent variable. I used standard multiple regression equations for the decision making based on the five personality factors. I used the stepwise regression model to eliminate redundant predictors from the model and to protect against multicollinearity (Field, 2013). The findings provided support for the

alternate hypothesis (see Tables 3, 4, and 5). The results of the Pearson intercorrelations

showed that all five personality factors had significant positive correlations with the

decision-making score. Therefore, the data did not support the null hypothesis (see Field,

2013). All five correlations were at least $r = .57$, with the largest correlation between the

focus personality factor and decision-making, $r = .75$, $p < .001$.

The alternative hypothesis that personality factors correlated with decision

making received support (see Tables 3 to 5). In the interpretation of the R^2 is the variance

accounted for in the dependent variable (percentage of the reasoning) in Model 1 (full

model), $F(5, 118) = 45.22$, $p = .001$, $R^2 = .657$, and Durbin-Watson = 2.29. The sum of R^2

$= .657$ is the coefficient of determination for multiple regression (see Table 4). The R^2 is

the variance accounted in the dependent variable (percentage of reasoning) that the

correlation could not be explained or accounted for in the variability of the response data

of its mean was .343. This variable response is the data that a researcher cannot explain

but can account for in the association to new research.

Among the country subsamples, the country-specific correlations for most

countries were similar in size to those found in the entire sample. However, in the South

Africa subsample, the correlations were smaller, with two of the five correlations not

significant at the $p < .05$ level (see Table 17). In addition, the Indian sample correlation

was larger between decision-making and the five personality factors than they were for

the entire sample (see Tables 18, 19, and 20). The Spearman correlations found all items

had significant positive correlations with the decision-making scale in the age and gender

category. indicated the individual collaboration items with the decision-making scale having the largest correlations.

When examining the strength of the relationship between two variables in a way that did not rely on the assumptions of a parametric test, I took into account the individual items from the highest levels of agreement and the lowest level of agreement. I converted mean scores into ranked scores from the Pearson's correlation coefficient performed on the data. The intraclass correlation coefficient is used to assess the consistency between measures of the same class and the relationship between variables of a different class (Field, 2013). I used the items of each personality factor to assess the consistency between the individual mean raters score $N = 124$ for the calculation of the correlations to see if there was a measure of uniformity (see Tables 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10).

The analysis encompassed the order of the mean scores but not the actual value of the mean and standard deviation. The highest agreement in the items for collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, leadership, and decision making were Items 14, 10, 11, 24, 12, and 13, respectively (see Tables 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10). The lowest levels of agreement for collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, leadership, and decision making were for Items 18, 39, 41, 17, 49, and 22 (see Tables 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10). The dependent variable that had the highest levels of agreement for decision-making was Item 13, "I think about implications before making decisions when working on a challenging project." The lowest level of agreement was for Item 22, "I listen to my feelings when making important decisions when working on a challenging project."

When comparing paired data in the assessment depends on whether a measure of consistency between defined ratings of a set of objects in the calculation of these correlations. This serves as an agreement in the ranked score in the mean and the standard deviation. Consequently, whether there is an absolute agreement is not dependent on the actual values to which the scores are attached. The purpose is to use both the order of scores and the relative values in any consideration of relationship, and this can be done for one or many measures; the dependency on data within the same context also helps to measure in the multilevel linear model (Field, 2013). I compared the individual items between age and gender from the highest levels of agreement to the lowest level of agreement and listed the items in each category for collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, leadership, and decision-making. However, none of the items significantly related to the respondents' age category or gender.

The data in Tables 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15 showed support for the null hypothesis H_0. Subsequently, the items listed in each category of the same tables for collaboration, focus, trustworthiness, ethicalness, and leadership with the decision-making scale, age category, and gender does not support the alternative hypothesis H_a. The dependent variable had the highest levels of agreement for decision-making for Item 31 and Item 26, but none of the decision-making items significantly related to either the respondents' age category or their gender. The decision-making scale included all personality factors, and there was a significant positive correlation, but none of the personality factors significantly related to the respondent's age category or gender. The data indicated

support for the null hypothesis H_0 with regard to the respondents' age category and their gender.

The difference between this study and Gaddis and Foster's (2015) study is that Gaddis and Foster studied successful executives versus unsuccessful executives in three U.S.-based organizations and looked at other problems when learning from an encounter, perceptivity, and making intuitive decisions that concern failures. This current study included directors, managers, and decision makers in the United States, United Kingdom, South Africa, India, and Singapore, which are all English speaking countries. I used the maximum variation sampling of Survey Monkey's global audience decision makers to target five global regions to evaluate the performance-based model based on the assumptions and to calculate the prediction errors (van Hoeven et al., 2015).

I used the nonparametric Spearman's rho correlations due to the strong Pearson's correlations across the athletic personality factors. The study involved running the Spearman's rho correlations between the athletic development personality factor, the scale score, and the countries of Singapore, South Africa, the United Kingdom, the United States, and India. Each country was nonsignificant with collaboration, $r = .566$, $p = .000$, but all personality factors had weak correlations (see Table 6). Church's (2016) study had results that were similar to this study, where there is a strong positive correlation between the personality factors in collaboration and decision making across countries, gender, and age group. In addition, the ANOVA was not significant and similar across age groups (see Tables 16, 17, 18, and 19). Even though the findings from Gaddis and Foster's (2015) study were parallel with and beyond the five-factor model,

the statistical measures indicated a negative direction of unskilled and authoritative jobs connected to the dark-side personality measures in projecting performance. There is an economic well-being to a developed country's relationship to negative correlation, and this development between conscientiousness reduces the struggle within reasons in a continuum for the athletic type of personality factors (Church, 2016).

Fransen et al. (2015) discussed the display of the highest correlation to the second largest overlap in a comparison of coaching leadership among educational and noneducational athletic authority structures. According to Van der Cruyssen et al. (2015), examining the treatment of behavioral descriptions in the social categories affect the characteristics. The process of thinking as a link to the relationship will have meaning within the social group. A social category influences the formulation process in these arguments in recruiting and supports the predictions in knowledge, as opposed to the influence of the individual. The behavior categories will give an abundance of resources on the personality trait in the interpretation of behaviors, which has a narrow view due to the construct of the survey answers in the correlation between the personality factors and decision-making.

Survey Monkey's global audience and panel encompassed profiled population groups centered on participants' professional position as director, manager, or decision maker in executive leadership. Survey Monkey maintains a profile of company size, occupation status, age, education level, and the field of expertise for each participant's country. Although the rest of the studies followed a similar direction, there was no connection to the dark-side personality continuum regarding nonsignificant differences

between the relationship of the athletic development personality factors and decision-making outcomes. The U.S. decision-making score was the lowest for the ethical factor at .43, $p < .05$ (see Table 17). These results were dependent on the organizational answers from the directors, managers, or management decision makers' responses to the questions asked in the survey.

Findings in the behavior literature were similar to the findings on agreement between the individual, countries, age, and gender. Corporate social sustainability is a process in decision making with a pattern to show the construct is absence of the impediment for the administrative ramification in approaching comprehensive responsibility (Naseer et al., 2016; Putrevu et al., 2012). In support of the other five-factor models, researchers domestically and abroad (United States, Canada, and Europe) encountered similar results in predicting job performance according to Gaddis and Foster (2015). These dimensions supported the core idea of conscientiousness and emotional stability in using negative measurement of personality measures not previously conducted to predict leader performance (Gaddis & Foster, 2015). In comparison with the Euro-American findings, the researchers have demonstrated that predicting performance in conscientiousness and extraversion in East Asian cultures is important based on interpersonal relationships in creating career success in Asia.

Researchers have indicated that conscientiousness correlations are reasonably accurate in response styles, reference group effects, national stereotypes, and measurement invariances. Studies on political patterns, wealth, and crime were examples that aligned with the geographic patterns of the Big Five, according to Church (2016).

The questions, then, are about the validity of cross-cultural trait comparisons and the counterintuitive correlations involving conscientiousness. The use of country-level behavioral indicators affecting conscientiousness in the human development of competitiveness in a multinational sample of working adults indicated that conscientiousness and economic development produce unexpected negative correlations, as reflected in the oversampling of college students.

In contrast to agreeableness and conscientiousness being the highest among older adults, highest in adults, and lowest in adolescents, stereotypes are consistently different in measured traits between gender and age (Church, 2016). In the decision-making scale, women had higher levels of agreement with Item 12, "I motivate and inspire team members when working as a leader of a team" and lower levels of agreement with Item 25, "I am the first to act when working as a leader of a team" (see Table 15). Agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience for gender and age stereotypes are lower in men with traits and converge across cultures.

There is an agreement in theory regarding the relationship between the predictor variable and the response variable. In the current study, I verified reliability using the scale developed by Young et al. (2013) for a comparison in the reliability. Fransen et al.'s (2015) findings showed different perceptions in global leadership regarding the various leadership roles and the reasons that good leadership has differences that only moderate correlational emergence in the corroborated specific authority roles that compel definite authoritative excellence. The scale categorized a network of items, including the roles of the task and the motivational, social, and extrinsic authority in having a continuum

associated with factors as a predictive or dependent variable. These variable classifications aligned with the alternative hypotheses as a positive correlation between the different athletic development factors.

Theoretical Framework Expansion

The significance of leadership theories for the advancement of members of society as leaders' to create theoretical frameworks to understand transformational, transactional, member exchange, servant leadership, and situational leadership. Researchers have created a significant amount of literature to align with the role of the executive coach in organizational leadership settings. It is this linkages of the behavior continuum of leadership styles can be the motivation form toward the organizational performance.

There are forms of leadership that are less dependent on direction from coaches, but there are similarities to leadership in organizations. Sports psychology research refers to social and communal relationships with their teammates and coaches as individual levels of measurement. Researchers are finding many gaps in the research based on their assessment of team-level constructs in leadership literature. The interpretative factors used in social representations of educational success or failure for children provide the constraint and meaning of practices and norms, which are either right or wrong rather than true or false (Tateo & Iannaccone, 2012). Culture is a common element in the connection between individuals and civilizations as a personality continuum linking innovations between generations within a person's negotiated space.

However, management has conflicting interpretations concerning which authoritative qualities align with the intrinsic and external relationships of an organization. I believe the well-established five-factor model of personality traits survey instrument may have been too complex for this study. The scales and measurement of variables I selected were constructs from the motorsports context based on success factors identified by Young et al. (2013). Organizational leaders can view the effect of an executive leader's or a C-level executive's decision-making ability on the economic, social, cultural, and environmental sustainability of an organization. These organizational changes may lead to failure due to the poor decisions of the executive leadership.

The Big Five factors advanced through an exploration into Cattell's 16 personality factors theory are warmth, reasoning, emotional, stability, dominance, liveliness, rule-consciousness, social boldness, sensitivity, vigilance, abstractedness, privateness, apprehension, openness to change, self-reliance, perfectionism, and tension (Fehringer, n.d.). Researchers have found it difficult to replicate Cattell's factors in other studies. Cattell and other researchers did not gain validity well into the late 20th century, but advances in technology and further investigation have resulted in validating Cattell's model. The following Big Five factors are now the dominant paradigm in personality research: openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism (Bouchard, 2016; Fehringer, n.d.). I did not use the well-established five-factor model of personality traits as part of the survey instrument.

The goal of the organizational strategy is to discover leaders with high moral character who can face manipulation, but leaders with low moral character who face

these situations have shown that authoritative leaders are more likely to display unethical behavior. Joosten et al.'s (2014) discussion on future research directions between various cultural settings as an individualistic culture and a collectivistic culture showed that the resource depletion revealed in unethical behavior would not affect leaders with a high moral identity. The focus of the expected leadership role that exhibits norm transgressive behavior should be on the benefits of the organization and on stimulating employees to strive toward positive goals and achievement.

The literature review included many examples of studies led by researchers who were unclear in the language and the interpretation of statistical measurement in quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods regarding the influence of personality factors. Social scientists have not found group consensus in measuring such characteristics and behaviors in a consistent manner. This characteristic and behavior personality factor influences the leadership style in the development of a socially conscious leader is combatting the competitive landscape in the global business environment. Social representation theory belongs to various social groups has balancing attributes toward the actions of the individual and at the same reference of time within the group. Findings on leaders' effectiveness were contradictory in past research when exploring constructive and adverse relationships between authentic leadership and followers' optimism and perceptions. Even though random sampling has a high regard in the process of sampling strategies about not having biased tendencies, there is a chance to interpret the reliability of its projections incorrectly (van Hoeven et al., 2015). When using purposive sampling, researchers might find themselves in a conflict when selecting

a sample person or group if there is an issue between randomization and logical intentions.

Limitations of the Study

There were constraints in the choice of athletic development personality factors as the predictive variables while trying to examine the survey questions to facilitate responses with Survey Monkey's Audience global panel. Regardless of whether a sample is anonymous, finding a sample of top management and C-suite executives had boundaries in obtaining specific references to confirm these leaders' roles. I used the global panel in Survey Monkey's Audience platform to target a particular population. The professional positions held were directors, managers, and decision makers in executive leadership as the primary profile factor as part of the profile classification.

The participants identified the size of their company, whether they worked full time, and their field of expertise with regard to their role as a director, manager, or decision maker in executive leadership. However, these identifiers were not part of the 50-question survey, which would have meant adding another type of question other than the 7-point Likert-type scale used in this study. Due to the financial constraints in cost to a researcher, a quantitative method may negate the opportunity to identify a sample, enhance and improve future studies. There is a debate on whether a self-rater survey obtains honest answers. Another limitation is the resources needed to target a population of employees to evaluate top management and decision makers on whether the employees can identify defects in the antisocial behavior of their managers' personality, characteristics, or traits.

Köksal et al. (2014) mentioned discrepancies that originate from data collectors, researchers, investigators, or whoever is collecting the data can lead to differences in the values of reliability and validity. These issues have a negative effect on the accuracy of inferences based on measurements and self-reporting surveys. Distortion or bias may exist, but suggested patterns of response in the findings among executive leadership in large, midsize, and small companies may not apply toward a broader population.

The cultural limitations of this study also presented other factors, primarily from the perspective of individuals in the English-speaking countries of Singapore, South Africa, United Kingdom, United States, and India. More weight can be accessed to a cross-cultural view from non-English-speaking countries on whether an organization is corrupt, for example, Russia or China. Experts who work with corrupt organizations in the qualitative approach limit the generalization of the results, as organizational culture includes much more than the experiences of a decision maker, but the financial results of a company (Campbell & Göritz, 2014). The question is whether or not the transferable characteristics of athletic development personality factors is consistent to other non-English speaking countries with the executive leadership from Singapore, South Africa, the United Kingdom, the United States and India's.

Recommendations

The bases for the recommendations for further research are the strengths and limitations of this current study, as well as the literature review in Chapter 2. The SPSS software may be suitable for analyzing the relationship between the variables in this

correlational study, but multiple instruments parallel the study's construct, as discussed in similar research models presented in the literature review. An appropriate instrument that related to the athletic development personality factors from Young et al.'s (2013) study is the Leadership Scale for Sport. Chelladurai (1984) created a 40-item instrument that included five types of leadership behavior. The first classification was training and instruction to the relationship for a performance improvement program aimed at behavior. Second was the decision to work collectively third was the authority personally given by the leader, fourth was considering others' well-being, and fifth was the positive reinforcement given as a reward to the team members. This instrument provides a valid and reliable scale.

The MLQ Form 5X-Short is an instrument researchers use widely for measuring leadership styles, and researchers use the OCAI to start a dialogue about where an organization is and what it would like to become. The competing values framework is a predictor of quality leadership and organizational effectiveness for the approved implementation of the employee, patient satisfaction, and team functioning, among other outcomes. Leadership types range from passive leaders, to leaders who reward followers, to leaders who transform followers into management positions; the MLQ measures leadership development process. Transformational leaders identified characteristic measures from the perspective of those they work with and from the leader's point of view. Leadership programs track changes in leadership through retesting and providing the MLQ training program.

The maintenance of a successful interpersonal relationship shows inspiration by teaching for a future vision. However, researchers lack the knowledge in various areas that indicates authority is a dynamic exchange of the leader–follower relationship. A comprehensive strategy recognizes future failures through lessons learned from others, as business failures are a frequent occurrence (Amankwah-Amoah, 2014). The current political nature is between leaders and followers personality variables and cultures. This aid to the leadership literature is a negative contribution that is problematic for leaders' (Naseer et al., 2016). The exploration adverse conditions of the cloudy side of leadership for top executives and leaders are an ongoing issue for organizations (Naseer et al., 2016). I examined the differences in each country, as well as between the countries, as a deciding factor for future research in the various cultural perspectives on the bright and dark side of leadership.

A particular characteristic may have thousands of common genetic variants that appear in each trait as a minuscule effect. According to Church (2016), researchers have found it difficult to identify genetic variants of personality trait scores that are significant and reliable. The investigation on how culture genes coevolve is based on selective migration in cultural neuroscience, the effect on the neural architecture, cultural dimensions, and personality factors. Future studies may be necessary on trait structure in less developed or preliterate societies to gain consistency, validity, and strong correlations among financial and social factors.

Future researchers should address the following questions:

1. How does decision making in a cultural exchange between communications processes such as social media, networking, and the Internet influence executive leadership?

2. How does the growth of the social sciences affect the development of management decision making and the psychological relevance to personality factors by the scholarship of executives?

3. How does executive leadership relate cultural perspective and change management methods in decision-making?

A decision approach exists that involves measuring competence while accessing individuals' management of the decision process both pre- and post decision, such as indecision or regret. The study did not include any measures of decision competence other than the construct developed from Young et al. (2013) study and the IPIP.

These processes may contribute to mean trait differences across geographical regions and give greater confidence in the validity of standard profiles across cultures. Accurate trait profiles will reconcile the evidence for and against a report on the processes in the attribute comparisons for future studies (Church, 2016). Strong trait–outcome relationships will produce more refined theoretical and empirical work to account for any cultural differences (Church, 2016). Although there is a focus on future research adapting to aspects of an individual's culture, the focus of a future study will be how traits influence individual situations from an ecocultural perspective in seeking out, internalizing, and conforming to the change mechanism in the culture. Significant

progress in cross-cultural research on traits needs to include the structure and assessment of the situation across cultures.

Implications

Opportunities in the search for gaps can be as simple as redoing a study using different countries, a particular industry, a specific methodology, or many well-established surveys and questionnaire instruments. Cognitive skill transfer may play a role in the transfer of executive function skills. However, the transfer of learning from the classroom to the workplace setting has faced difficulties (Holten et al., 2015; Jacobson & Matthaeus, 2014). This transference of skills serves as a reason to focus on linking personality with leadership, despite the lack of contributions to leadership theory and research.

The combined relationship of the individual, moral issues and organizational characteristics presents gaps in research. According to By, Armenakis, and Burnes (2015), not much has changed since the 2008 financial crisis and the established practices of organizations are still unethical. A few unscrupulous decision makers are still making bad decisions, and the core of the team is absorbing these practices at all levels of an organization. New laws and restructured codes will not solve these problems, but replacing unethical cultures with ethical cultures will help. The drivers of culture according to OCAI's competing values framework indicate sustainable change that occurs through a comprehensive change structure commands a personal and collective effort by everyone in an organization. Global change is occurring quickly, with instantaneous access to information, rewards, baby boomer retirements, gadgets,

confidence, attitudes of self-reliance, and high educational goals. Organizational change strategies with increase innovation are happening quickly with new insights in ideas of enhancing culture, leadership and diversity engagement.

Researchers formulate a qualitative research plan by addressing the size and diversity of the sample and by acknowledging that qualitative studies include probability-sampling designs that drive a predetermined purpose (Griffith, 2013). In contrast, researchers of quantitative studies use probability-sampling designs with their most important features derived from randomness (Griffith, 2013). Researchers may explore processes, activities, and events in a narrative, ethnography, phenomenology, case study, or grounded theory approach. Researchers can target the population and sample of executives from small, midsize, or large corporations to create a sample that represents a particular community; divide the executive leadership into structured groups configured by the size of the company or the location of the country; and randomly choose one group to represent each of the groups for interviews.

In reviewing the narrative, phenomenology, ontology, grounded theory, and case study approaches, qualitative methods present some interesting perspectives on the available options. With a solid foundational understanding of the five approaches to the qualitative research designs, the structure in the research process time element needs a strong commitment. A research project strategy can have options divided into three phases into the approaches. Researchers use both interviews and observations to achieve triangulation within an attained inquiry strategy by mixing different types of purposeful samples (Patton, 2002, which gives researchers an opportunity to produce additional

scalable studies in the evolution from one approach to the next approach or a combination

of all three strategies. The connection between the data and the color-coded phrases

shows a connection to the establishment of the themes and subthemes that indicates an

efficient way to make word associations when reporting the differences in the use of hand

coding compared to NVivo or SPSS software.

Failures are common in the current decision-making direction of organizations but

it is the through lessons learned acknowledgment that is persistent in overcoming

leadership business failures (Amankwah-Amoah, 2014). However, there is a need for

organizational leaders to identify, correct, and transfer the athletic development

personality factors (independent variable) as part of the lessons learned in the correlation

of variables for the business and to understand leadership failures across countries.

Quantitative research is a significant motivator of ethical behavior when testing specific

hypotheses in moral identification and is suitable when deviant behavior serves as a

voluntary behavior that occurs when motivated groups are in violation or when people

lack the motivation to conform to organizational norms and standards (Joosten et al.,

2014). Researchers using longitudinal designs have reached similar findings regarding

better cognitive functions in association with long-term exercise training and improved

fitness levels, as well as a delay in age-related cognitive decline.

In the examination of leaders and leadership development in the content,

processes, longitudinal nature, and evaluation of issues, researchers find it is the approach

in the process rather than replacing the development of leadership. According to Day et

al. (2013), the historical evolution of leadership includes an in-depth analysis to build in

the field of leadership development with a detailed summary that is insightful. The underlying patterns of leadership in the various approaches enable other researchers to understand the competencies for examining issues of cognitive and metacognitive skills that surface at the core of leadership potential.

Researchers can measure personality in many ways using multiple-source ratings for determining leaders' current needs in development (Day et al., 2013). Researchers acknowledge that the evolution and growth of leadership begins at a young age, as determined by parental modeling that affects the evolutionary process and the application of skills in wisdom, intelligence, and creativity assembled by factors such as personality and exchanges with others. The holistic approach shapes the development process through different theories, including constructive-development, transformational, shared, and authentic leadership.

Social Change Implications

Gaps in the literature review revealed opportunities in the research of personality factor relationships that affect top management's impact on employees and the decisions made in organizational activities. Knowledge of human biological learning processes leads to solutions based on the transfer of learning to strengthen the effectiveness of future leadership development programs (Holten et al., 2015). The complex need to improve physical activity through causal pathways between environmental factors and human behaviors compounds the understanding of these factors becomes a benchmark in creating positive social change for further research. Researchers are continuously

searching for answers by asking how executive leadership affects labor relations and what problems do executive leaders have in promoting personal motives.

Researchers find it difficult to identify youth personality traits due to a lack of longitudinal studies. Transferring athletic development personality factors may be a problem with individuals and organizations' relationship to the social exchange, social representation, and leadership theories. Using sports ideology has other ramifications regarding the relationship to sports development types of organizations, sports for social change, engagement through sports, and other terms and language that need clarification (Tannenwald, 2013). Approaches involving groups and large collectives that happen over time increase the change patterns within and between the person from a multilevel and longitudinal perspective.

Policy Recommendations

The findings in this study indicated that participants in Singapore, South Africa, the United Kingdom, the United States, and India profiled a similarity in the athletic development personality factors, and decision making with the nonsignificant coefficients outcomes. Despite, the policy implications of corporate social sustainability and responsibility toward decision-making may lead to a lack of understanding in the hindrance of behavior (Naseer et al., 2016; Putrevu et al., 2012). The attempt to understand social practices can involve using Moscovici's social representations theory to provide a broader social and historical context to the analysis of organizational practices (Naseer et al., 2016). The corporate policies will have a direct relationship to the decision made by decision makers across various behavior patterns.

Practitioner Recommendations

Organizational leadership is the primary concern and principle interest of scholars in the thinking processes for the development in leadership. Strong causal interpretations are necessary due to the lack of evidence for the supporting longitudinal research of clearly defined variables (Brittin et al., 2015). According to some researchers, the focus on the bright side of personality is the focus in leveraging relationships with leadership behavior (Gaddis & Foster, 2015). A need exists for leadership training and development that provide managers with meta-skills to communicate, translate organizational visions, and engage employees toward organizational goal attainment (Holten et al., 2015). These factors will enable a process to evolve in pinpointing personality factors that need to be addressed by human resource departments.

Conclusions

The context of personality has an evolutionary perspective in identifying the problems of human personality dimensions in the age of globalization, which enables people of all cultures to reflect on recurrent themes to facilitate strategic goals in detecting the differences in developmental mechanisms. Personality traits in individualism–collectivism link the genetic variants from studies on molecular genetics to the tightness–looseness of the cultural dimensions. The intent of the study was to see if a significant correlation existed between athletic personality factors and decision-making. The study involved assessing how well the personality of the executive leadership decisions makers reaches satisfactory decision outcomes. Many decision-making measures relate to cognitive-style and decision-style measures.

The literature review on the relationship between the personality of individuals and the ways personality relates to the social exchange and the social representation theory intertwines with leadership theories. According to Digman (1990), researchers assess the constellations of traits through batteries of personality inventories. The inventories fit into two groups. Big Five inventories assess the constellation of traits defined by the five-factor theory of personality. The other constellations of traits define the personality inventories by the assets of other personality theories, a subset of the Big Five traits, or a superset of traits that may include the Big Five. In the study, I show how initiating a correlation of variables between the five athletic development personality factors and the executive in the decision-making has a correlational relationship. Researchers have shown there are many facets in the effects of interwoven personality throughout organizational cultures, across cultures, and within cultures.

The result in this study was not consistent with Gaddis and Foster's (2015) study, as they found that individual variations are a result of flawed leadership behavior that coexists between the continuums of characteristics, whereas the findings in this study were from theme-based interviews rather than from a survey-based correlational study. There are various questions asked by the researcher regarding each of the athletic development personality factors thus a different statistical measure would have occurred from the different self-rated responses. Due to the various self-rated responses, I deemed it necessary to decipher these statistical measures into a quantitative methodology rather than to use interviews for a qualitative study.

More studies are necessary in the investigation of situational factors for the variability in trait-related behaviors, where researchers can better integrate character and social cognitive perspectives across cultures in the situational exchange with the individual (Church, 2016). New integrative frameworks may one day address biological, ecological, and cultural contexts of personality (Church, 2016). Offering leadership scholars a vehicle to conceptualize their experience in the relevant skills, knowledge, and practice acquired while holding various jobs may be of interest to researchers studying the role of experience in leader development (Day et al., 2013). The research implications regarding understanding personality may enhance people's accessibility through e-mail and the Internet, which continues to improve; this form of social media is providing numerous advantages for future researchers.

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Appendix A: Survey Instrument

Likert-type 7 scale

Level of Agreement Survey

- 1 – Strongly Disagree

- 2 – Disagree

- 3 – Somewhat Disagree

- 4 – Neither Agree nor Disagree

- 5 – Somewhat Agree

- 6 – Agree

- 7 – Strongly Agree

1. I stick to a task until it is complete when working on a challenging project.
2. It is important that I keep my promises on a business commitment.
3. It is important that I follow the spirit of the rule of an organization.
4. I lead and direct team members when working as a leader of an executive team.
5. I take a long time to think before making big decisions when working on a challenging project.
6. I support fellow group members when working as a leader of a team.
7. I believe that employees seldom tell you the whole truth.
8. Participating in an individual sport in high school is beneficial to experience for leadership development.
9. I make decisions based on facts, not feelings when working on a challenging project.
10. I concentrate hard on a task until it is done when working on a challenging project.
11. It is important that I am honest.
12. I motivate and inspire team members when working as a leader of a team.
13. I think about implications before making decisions when working on a challenging project.
14. I work cooperatively with employees when working as a leader of a team.
15. I look for hidden meanings in things when working on a challenging project.
16. It is important that I am trustworthy in my business relationships.
17. It is important that I do the "right thing" even if it causes problems in the business.
18. Participating in an individual sport in college exposes the lack of a teamwork culture.
19. I break down tasks into manageable parts when working on a challenging project.
20. I am sensitive to the needs of employees when working as a leader of a team.
21. I try to understand myself when working on a challenging project.

22. I listen to my feelings when making important decisions when working on a challenging project.
23. It is important that I trust what employees say.
24. It is important that I believe that honesty is the basis for trust by the executive leadership.
25. I am the first to act when working as a leader of a team.
26. I believe important decisions should be based on logical reasoning when working on a challenging project.
27. I try to examine myself objectively when working on a challenging project.
28. It is important that I trust business competitors.
29. It is important that I believe that employees are basically honest and good.
30. I am never at a loss for words when working as a leader of a team.
31. I plan and prioritize a course of action when working on a challenging project.
32. Participating in a team sport in college is a beneficial experience in working with employees.
33. It is important that I believe in human goodness.
34. It is important that I believe that there are no 'honest' mistakes - there is always an ulterior motive.
35. Low youth sports participation need the training to develop the effective leadership traits required for future management.
36. I am easily overpowered when decisions need to be made when working on a challenging project.
37. I disliked playing on a team sport when I was high school.
38. I find it hard to forgive employee's unprofessional behavior.
39. I spend time reflecting on employee's unprofessional behavior when working on a challenging project.
40. I listen to my brain rather than my emotions when working on a challenging project.
41. It is important that I distrust employees in subordinate positions.
42. It is important that I try to cheat business competitors in an external business relationship.
43. I have difficulty expressing my feelings when working as a leader of a team.
44. I believe that both feelings and thinking are important in making decisions and solving problems when working on a challenging project.
45. I value cooperation over competition when working as a leader of a team.
46. I rarely look for a deeper meaning in things when working on a challenging project.
47. It is important that I suspect hidden motives in business competitors.
48. It is important that I try to always tell the truth.
49. I wait for employees to lead the way when working as a leader of a team.
50. I believe that important decisions should be based on logical reasoning when working on a challenging project.

Appendix B: Reliability and Validity of IPIP Scales

Reliability

The International Personality Pool scales are available as Cronbach alpha reliability estimates with the scoring keys based on the Eugene-Springfield Community Sample. The scoring keys use the scoring key of numerous scales on the web site with each displaying the coefficient alphas listed alongside each scale. addition, comparison tables that includes Alpha Reliability based on all single construct, multi-construct IPIP inventories in statistical measurements.

Validity

The correlations of the IPIP scales are found on the website in the comparison table where the partial list of studies with many of the IPIP scales constitutes a primary form of validity in the correlation based on the scale of the personality inventories. In order to find and discover other studies using these scales must seek other research resources.

Appendix C: Scale Items and Reliabilities for Constructs

Table 20

Scale Items and Reliabilities for Constructs

Construct	Reliability Score
Collaboration	.732

6. I support fellow group members when working as a leader of a team. (agree)
14. I work cooperatively with employees when working as a leader of a team. (agree)
18. Participating in an individual sport in college exposes the lack of a teamwork culture.
    (disagree)
20. I am sensitive to the needs of employees when working as a leader of a team. (agree)
32. Participating in a team sport in college is a beneficial experience in working with
    employees. (agree)
34. It is important that I believe that there are no 'honest' mistakes - there is always an
ulterior motive. (disagree)
37. I disliked playing on a team sport when I was in high school. (disagree)
45. I value cooperation over competition when working as a leader of a team. (agree)

Focus	.744

1. I stick to a task until it is complete when working on a challenging project. (agree)
10. I concentrate hard on a task until it is done when working on a challenging project.
(agree)
15. I look for hidden meanings in things when working on a challenging project.
(disagree)
21. I try to understand myself when working on a challenging project. (agree)
27. I try to examine myself objectively when working on a challenging project. (agree)
39. I spend time reflecting on employee's unprofessional behavior when working on a
challenging project. (disagree)
46. I rarely look for a deeper meaning in things when working on a challenging project.
(disagree)

Trustworthiness	.744

2. It is important that I keep my promises on a business commitment. (agree)
7. I believe that employees seldom tell you the whole truth. (disagree)
11. It is important that I am honest. (agree)
16. It is important that I am trustworthy in my business relationships. (agree)
23. It is important that I trust what employees say. (agree)

28. It is important that I trust business competitors. (disagree)
33. It is important that I believe in human goodness. (agree)
38. I find it hard to forgive employee's unprofessional behavior. (disagree)
41. It is important that I distrust employees in subordinate positions. (disagree)
47. It is important that I suspect hidden motives in business competitors. (agree)
.

Ethicalness   .798

3. It is important that I follow the spirit of the rule of an organization. (agree)
17. It is important that I do the "right thing" even if it causes problems in the business. (disagree)
24. It is important that I believe that honesty is the basis for trust by the executive leadership. (agree)
29. It is important that I believe that employees are basically honest and good. (disagree)
42. It is important that I try to cheat business competitors in an external business relationship. (disagree)
48. It is important that I try to always tell the truth. (agree)

Leadership   .771

4. I lead and direct team members when working as a leader of an executive team. (agree)
8. Participating in an individual sport in high school is beneficial to experience for leadership development. (agree)
12. I motivate and inspire team members when working as a leader of a team. (agree)
25. I am the first to act when working as a leader of a team. (disagree)
30. I am never at a loss for words when working as a leader of a team. (disagree)
35. Low youth sports participation need the training to develop the effective leadership traits required for future management. (agree)
43. I have difficulty expressing my feelings when working as a leader of a team. (disagree)
49. I wait for employees to lead the way when working as a leader of a team. (disagree)

Decision Making   .882

5. I take a long time to think before making big decisions when working on a challenging project. (disagree)
9. I make decisions based on facts, not feelings when working on a challenging project. (disagree)
13. I think about implications before making decisions when working on a challenging project. (agree)
19. I break down tasks into manageable parts when working on a challenging project. (agree)
22. I listen to my feelings when making important decisions when working on a challenging project. (disagree)

26. I believe important decisions should be based on logical reasoning when working on a challenging project. (agree)
31. I plan and prioritize a course of action when working on a challenging project. (agree)
36. I am easily overpowered when decisions need to be made when working on a challenging project. (disagree)
40. I listen to my brain rather than my emotions when working on a challenging project. (disagree)
44. I believe that both feelings and thinking are important in making decisions and solving problems when working on a challenging project. (agree)
50. I believe that important decisions should be based on logical reasoning when working on a challenging project. (agree)

Note. a Based on 7-point scales with 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree (N=325).
b Scale items pulled from the International Personality Item Pool: A Scientific Collaboratory for the Development of Advanced Measures of Personality Traits and Other Differences.