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TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN
THE ASSOCIATION OF RELATED
CHURCHES: A CROSS-SECTIONAL
EXAMINATION OF MINISTRY STUDENTS
AT SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY
REGIONAL CAMPUSES

Jordan M. Vale

Southeastern University - Lakeland

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TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN THE ASSOCIATION OF RELATED
CHURCHES: A CROSS-SECTIONAL EXAMINATION OF MINISTRY STUDENTS AT
SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY REGIONAL CAMPUSES

By

JORDAN M. VALE

A doctoral dissertation submitted to the
College of Education
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree Doctor of Education
in Organizational Leadership

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CHURCHES: A CROSS-SECTIONAL EXAMINATION OF MINISTRY STUDENTS AT
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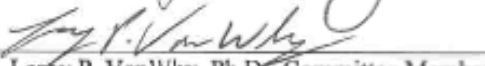
Dissertation Approved:



Fredrie W. Rohm, Ph.D., Dissertation Chair



Thomas J. Gollery, Ed.D., Committee Member



Leroy P. Van Why, Ph.D., Committee Member



James A. Anderson, Ph.D., Dean, College of Education

DEDICATION

“Count it all joy, my brothers, when you meet trials of various kinds, for you know that the testing of your faith produces steadfastness” (James 1: 2-3, ESV). First and foremost, thank you, God, for the opportunity to pursue this educational endeavor. More than the experience or knowledge gained in this program, I know You have used this doctorate to grow my faith in You.

I would like to thank my wonderful wife, Carissa. I know that the sacrifice you have made has been greater than mine. Thank you for the love and support you have provided during these years. I know that I would not be able to do this if I did not have you by my side. I love you dearly and am very grateful for you.

To my daughters, Ellie and Olivia, I love you so much. You are so precious to Mommy and me. To Pops and Mimi, thank you for all the encouragement and support. To Grandma and Grandpa, thank you for all the prayers, and to the many friends and family that have supported me in a number of different ways, thank you.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to identify independent programmatic leadership activity variables that showed the most robust correlation to higher transformational leadership scores in ministry students. Recognizing which variables have the strongest correlation to higher transformational leadership scores may help regional campus directors and pastors better understand how to develop future church leaders in their programs. This quantitative study utilized a survey method that addressed six research questions. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) served as the instrument. Association of Related Churches (ARC) ministry students located at Southeastern University regional campuses in Florida were the population. Idealized influence-attribution represented the most robust correlate within transformational leadership, the independent variable of GPA had a moderate correlation to higher transformational leadership scores, and the independent variable of leadership courses had a moderate inverse correlation to transactional leadership. Implications of this study include recommendations for future strategies related to developing transformational leaders within ARC regional campuses.

Keywords: Association of Related Churches (ARC), ministry training, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), non-traditional education, transformational leadership

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I. INTRODUCTION

Every organization must learn to evolve, and the church is no exception. Many pastors feel unequipped to handle the challenges faced in the pastorate (Barna Group, 2017). Data gathered by the Barna Group (2017) showed that the top three areas where pastors wish they had been better prepared for ministry were in handling conflict, administrative burdens, and people's problems. The leadership deficit increased when the focus was on pastors who were at a high risk of burnout. Pastors near burnout felt underprepared in the areas of delegation, training people, church politics, and challenges in leadership (Barna Group, 2017). The Barna Group data point to the systemic need for pastors to be better equipped as leaders through their academic training.

This study assessed the degree to which five Association of Related Churches (ARC) regional campuses located in Florida are developing transformational leaders. The study analyzed ARC regional campus students' self-perception related to transformational leadership. Southeastern University (SEU) has launched extension sites and regional campuses located at thriving churches around the United States. Through these sites, SEU offers academic programming that is matched with the hands-on leadership experience a church can provide. The framework for this study was the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Regional campus ministry students located at five Florida ARC sites were the population. Demographic and programmatic leadership activity data were gathered from each student and served as the independent variables for this study. The variables were used to assess which represented the strongest correlate of whether a student was a transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire leader as measured by the MLQ.

Background and Review of Relevant Literature

Transformational leadership is a theory that brings clarity to how certain leaders can foster performance beyond expected standards in other individuals (Avolio & Yammarino, 2002). Transformational leaders act as change agents who transform their followers' attitudes, beliefs, and motives to a higher level (Antonakis & House, 2008). They do this by meeting the needs of their followers and empowering them through aligning the followers' work with the shared vision of the organization (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders have the ability to help followers view their work from new perspectives, to create awareness of the mission of the organization, to develop potential into skill, and to motivate individuals to look beyond their own self-interests (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Since the late 1980s, transformational leadership has been described as "the single most studied and debated idea within the field of leadership studies" (Diaz-Saenz, 2011, p. 299). Although transformational leaders are found all through history, the formulation of transformational leadership is believed to have been birthed with the work of Weber (House, 1977). Weber was a German sociologist and political economist. Weber recognized three pure types of legitimate authority: legal, traditional, and charismatic (Weber, Parsons, & Henderson, 1947). Weber saw the charismatic leader as one who arose in times of crisis. A charismatic

leader had the ability to lead great feats and to inspire others to follow. Weber called charisma “the greatest revolutionary force” (Weber et al., 1947, p. 363).

Following Weber, Downton (1973) also noted charisma as primarily being related to politics but expanded the idea to include transactional and inspirational characteristics. Downton deemed this “rebel leadership”. According to Antonakis and House (2008), Downton found charismatic leaders have an influential effect on followers because of their appeal to higher ideals and commanding authority. In the late 1970s, House (1977) produced the seminal work on charismatic leadership. House provided a theoretical framework that presented propositions to explain the attributes and behaviors of charismatic leaders (Antonakis & House, 2008).

Although the first mention of transformational leadership occurred in Downton’s (1973) work, the conceptualization of the theory was found in Burns’ (1978) landmark text, *Leadership*. In his work, Burns proposed that leadership is either transforming or transactional. A transforming leader is elevating. Transforming leaders engage with their followers and motivate them to higher levels of morality, ethics, and performance. A transactional leader governs based on exchange. Burns’ notion of transforming leadership has had a tremendous influence on what is now defined as transformational leadership.

In 1985, Bass developed a typology of leadership for the transformational theory. In Bass’ theory, transformational leadership is viewed as an expansion of transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Bass identified nine leadership types that fit into the categories of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. Transformational leadership in the Bass conception has traditionally been identified as the four I’s: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1994). In addition to the four I’s, three transactional and one non-leadership type are represented in the

MLQ: contingent reward, management-by-exception–active, management-by-exception–passive and laissez-faire (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Bass and Avolio (2004) have since updated the MLQ, and idealized influence is now viewed as two parts: attributes and behavior, thus making five I's.

Another popular conception of transformational leadership has come from Kouzes and Posner (2012). They identified five characteristics of transformational leadership: (a) model the way, (b) inspire a shared vision, (c) challenge the process, (d) enable others to act, and (e) encourage the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) was included in this brief review because of its popularity as a transformational leadership instrument. However, unlike Bass and Avolio's model, the LPI only measures transformational leadership and not the full range of transformational and transactional leadership found in the MLQ. This study utilized the MLQ.

Research studies conducted in the areas of business, military, education, government, and the church have shown that transformational leaders were more effective than those who functioned as transactional or laissez-faire leaders only (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Onnen, 1987; Stewart, 2006). In her research, specifically to the church, Onnen (1987) found that Methodist pastors who had high transformational leadership scores were more likely to have seen attendance and membership growth in their church. In a similar study conducted 23 years later, Adams (2010) found a significant difference in the Methodist church pastors and congregation MLQ scores between declining and growing churches. Growing churches had significantly higher scores than churches in decline.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to assess the degree to which regional Southeastern University campuses located within the Association of Related Churches are developing

transformational leaders. As supported by the literature review, a lack of transformational leadership has the potential to limit the growth of the church and the leadership capacity of the pastor. The significance of measuring transformational leadership in ministry students was that the relationship could inform the extent to which transformational leadership scores can correlate to thriving pastors and churches (Adams, 2010).

Research Questions

The right research questions can breathe life into the research (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2012). The questions give energy and purpose to the study. Quantitative research questions inquire about the relationship among variables that the researcher seeks to discover (Creswell, 2014). The present study examined the relationship between independent variables and the MLQ scores of ministry students located at ARC regional campuses. The MLQ utilizes a 0-4 Likert scale. Scores of three or higher overall for transformational behaviors, two or lower overall for transactional behaviors, and one or lower for the laissez-faire behavior represent the broad benchmark for each category (Bass & Avolio, 2004). For this study, the mean of 3.5 was taken as the standard for measuring transformational behaviors. Table 1 identifies the demographic and programmatic independent variables that were used.

The following research questions and hypotheses served as guides to uncover the relationship between variables; five null hypotheses and one alternative hypothesis were represented. The hypothesis for Research Question 2 was selected based on two primary reasons. First, evidence discovered in similar studies performed with the MLQ showed congregations look for pastors who exhibit idealized influence–attributes (Fogarty, 2013; Onnen, 1987). Second, the researcher found in working with all these sites over the past five years that

Table 1

Demographic and Programmatic Leadership Activity Variables

Category	Independent Variables
Demographic	Campus location
	Year classification
	Grade point average
	Church membership
Programmatic	Number of years at campus
	Number of years in a practicum
	Church volunteer involvement
	Chapel attendance
	Mission trip attendance
	Student leadership involvement
	Leadership related courses taken (See appendix D for course descriptions)

there seemed to be an over-emphasis from campus leadership on developing the traits exhibited in idealized influence–attributes. What follows are the six research questions.

Research Question 1: To what degree do participants in the study perceive themselves as transformational leaders?

H₀: Participants in the study do not perceive themselves as transformational leaders to a statistically significant degree.

Research Question 2: Of the five transformational leadership dimensions, which one best predicts the likelihood of a leader being transformational?

H₂: The dimension of idealized influence will represent the most robust correlate of transformational leadership.

Research Question 3: Considering the independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities associated with the campus model, which variables represent the most robust correlate of transformational leadership?

H₀: The independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities do not correlate with transformational leadership.

Research Question 4: Considering the independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities associated with the campus model, which variables represent the most robust correlate of transactional leadership?

H₀: The independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities do not correlate with transactional leadership.

Research Question 5: Considering the independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities associated with the campus model, which of variables represent the most robust correlate of laissez-faire leadership?

H₀: The independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities do not correlate with laissez-faire leadership.

Research Question 6: Considering study participant scores on the domains of transactional and laissez-faire leadership, which represented the most robust correlate and predictor of transformational leadership?

H₀: Neither of the two domains represented as covariates in the predictive model will be statistically significant correlates or predictors of participant transformational leadership score.

Overview of Methodology

The purpose of the study was to analyze ARC regional campus students' self-perception related to transformational leadership through the MLQ. The results should provide greater clarity for ARC pastors to better evaluate how to develop transformational leaders at their regional campuses and churches. The study's participants included ministry students from the ARC regional campuses (see Table 2). The churches are all located in Florida. Table 2 identifies the location, weekly church attendance (*Outreach*, 2018), county, and county population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017a-e) of these regional campuses.

Table 2

Church and County Size for Regional Campus Locations

Location	Weekly Attendance	County	Population
Christ Fellowship Church	28,612	Palm Beach County, FL	1,471,150
Grace Family Church	8,927	Hillsborough County, FL	1,408,566
Celebration Church	14,659	Duval County, FL	937,934
Bayside Community Church	9,408	Manatee County, FL	375,888
Meadowbrook Church	4,028	Marion County, FL	354,353
Mean	13,127	Total	909,578

SEU partners with churches across the nation to provide students with affordable degrees that are matched with hands-on ministry experience (Southeastern University, 2018); these five ARC campuses are some of the larger campuses partnering with the university. SEU offers a variety of academic delivery options for regional campuses, including both face-to-face and online courses. Every ministry student has the opportunity to enroll in a practicum. The practicum is not mandatory, and some students may elect to take elective courses in its place. Other students come into the program with their elective block partially filled and are not able to

take the full allotment of practicum hours. Through the practicum, students gain hands-on experience in a variety of areas of church ministry (Southeastern University, 2018). SEU allows for up to 24 elective practicum hours for those enrolled in the Bachelor of Science in Ministerial Leadership and 16 elective practicum hours for those in the Bachelor of Science in Worship Ministries. SEU is accredited through the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools Commission on Colleges (Southeastern University, 2018).

In this partnership, SEU provides enrollment, marketing, admission, and operational support. SEU also provides an academic director who is on site at each church and oversees all academic operations at the site. The academic director at each site is a ranked professor who facilitates faculty development, student advising, academic coaching, and a variety of other academic responsibilities at the location. The church provides a campus director who oversees the campus, and each campus has a variety of support staff to facilitate the on-site student experience (Southeastern University, 2018). These individuals handle the daily operations, recruitment, student life, leadership development, and practicum experiences at the location (Southeastern University, 2018). Regional campuses vary in size, having between 25 to 150 students per location. The students can choose from a variety of on-site and online degrees.

The focus of this study was on ministry students located at five Florida-based ARC regional campuses. The scope of this study was limited to students enrolled in a ministry degree; the ministry degrees are the most developed degrees at these locations. A church partnering with a university is a natural fit for the development of ministry students.

What makes the partnership successful is the accessibility and affordability of attending a regional campus. Students are able to attend college at their church; the flexibility has allowed extension site students of traditional college age (18 to 25) as well as adult learners who are over

the age of 25 to be in the program. The program's flexible schedule and convenient locations have attracted non-traditional college age students as well as many who are married.

These campuses are located at churches that are all part of the same network. The churches are similar in organizational structure, ministry vision, and ethos. Therefore, the similarities will allow for comparisons between the ARC regional campus students as they relate to the MLQ scores.

A purposive sampling model was used in this study. The purposive sampling strategy is used when the researcher selects the sample using his or her experience and knowledge of the group being sampled (Gay et al., 2012). The advantage of this type of method for the study is that the researcher is able to deliberately identify the criteria for selecting the sample, which in this case was students located at ARC regional campuses.

A well-conducted study will have an acceptable effect size (Albers, 2017). The effect size is a way of quantifying the difference between two groups (Coe, 2002). Cohen (1988) described an effect size of 0.2 as small and an effect size of 0.8 as large, but an effect size of 0.5 is considered medium and is "large enough to be visible to the naked eye" (p. 26).

The next factor is power analysis. If the sample is not large enough, the study is in danger of making a Type I error (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012). Statistical power is directly correlated with the size of the sample. Normally, a power analysis of 80% is adequate (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012).

Alpha levels to measure significance are .001, .01, .05, and .10 (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012); the levels reveal the probability of rejecting a true null hypothesis. For this study, the sample size varied from campus to campus. Because of the small population size and the variance at the site level, the level of significance for this study was set at $\alpha = .05$.

Data were collected by administering the MLQ to participants through an online survey. The researcher hosted field meetings at each regional campus. The meetings allowed the participants to meet the researcher and allowed the researcher to explain the rationale for this study. Each participant was provided an informed consent form at the meeting. The participants were informed there would be no adverse consequences if they decide to discontinue their participation at any point.

All students who attended the field meetings were sent an email asking them to participate in the study. When participants agreed to the terms of the study, they were sent a link of the MLQ to complete an online version of the instrument located on CheckMarket survey platform. The system is a platform to collect data. The MLQ questions were not adjusted or manipulated in any form. The only addition to the surveys were the demographic and programmatic questions. All of the survey responses were tabulated through CheckMarket. Once the survey was closed, the results were analyzed, and the total sample size with the percentage of returns and response rate for each item were presented in the analysis chapter. Each student who completed the survey was given a \$5 Starbucks gift card.

Every participant who completed the online MLQ was assigned a number. The number was used to maintain the confidentiality of each student who participated in the study. The researcher communicated through the consent form and in person that personal information would be kept confidential. All forms are kept in the same envelope with the title of the study and Institutional Review Board (IRB) number on the outside of the envelope, and the envelope is properly sealed. The consent forms are stored appropriately, locked, and accessible to only the researcher. These forms will be kept for three years. After three years, the forms will be destroyed.

The instrument utilized in this study was the MLQ. The MLQ is viewed as the “best-validated instrument to represent the Full Range Leadership Theory” (Antonakis & House, 2008, p. 18). The advantage of using the MLQ is that it implies that leaders display both transformational and transactional qualities (Bass, 1999). The MLQ is a nuanced approach that does not discredit transactional leadership but recognizes that transactional leadership should augment transformational leadership (Antonakis & House, 2008).

The MLQ is a 45-item survey in Likert scale format that assesses the development of transformational and transactional leadership in both individuals and organizations. The MLQ comprises three broad classes of leadership preference: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership (Antonakis & House, 2008). Under these three broad classes are nine distinct dimensions: (a) idealized influence–attributes, (b) idealized influence–behaviors, (c) inspirational motivation, (d) intellectual stimulation, (e) individualized consideration, (f) contingent reward, (g) management-by-exception–active, (h) management-by-exception–passive, and (i) laissez-faire.

The MLQ is the most well-known and valid instrument for measuring transformational leadership (Avolio et al., 1995). Many of the early criticisms of the MLQ were taken into account in the latest modifications of the MLQ (Avolio et al., 1995). Avolio et al. (1995) demonstrated that the latest MLQ has shown evidence for its discriminant validity between the different factors in the MLQ. Through structural-equation modeling, Antonakis (2001) affirmed that the nine-factor model has been found to be invariant. The reliability of an instrument is determined by its internal consistency and the test/retest measurement for the items found on the instrument. Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008) found that the MLQ had a Cronbach’s alpha score of $\alpha = .87$, indicating the instrument is a reliable way to measure transformational leadership.

Analyses

The study was a quantitative, non-experimental, cross-sectional survey. Quantitative research collects “numerical data to explain, predict, or control phenomena of interest” (Gay et al., 2012, p. 7). The quantitative research followed Creswell’s (2014) six-step process:

1. Report information on who did and did not return the survey.
2. Discuss response bias.
3. Provide a descriptive analysis of data.
4. Discuss reliability checks for internal consistency.
5. Provide a rationale for choices of statistical test(s).
6. Present results in tables and/or figures.

A non-experimental research design is used to either describe a group or examine relationships between preexisting groups (Lohmeier, 2010). A cross-sectional survey collects data from individuals at a certain point in time (Gay et al., 2012). The cross-sectional design is effective when a researcher wants to get a snapshot of current behaviors, attributes, attitudes, or beliefs (Gay et al., 2012). A cross-sectional design also involves examining the characteristics of several samples. With this research looking at five different regional campuses, the cross-sectional design served well.

Demographic and programmatic information was gathered for all participating students and served as the independent variables. The independent variables were used to examine which of the items represented the most robust correlate of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership scores in ministry students located at ARC regional campuses.

In conducting a questionnaire study, the researcher clearly stated the problem to motivate participants to respond to the survey as recommended by Gay et al. (2012). The researcher

defined the topic in relation to both internal and external motivations on the part of the participant. Internally, participants who took the MLQ became more self-aware of their leadership profile. Externally, by taking the MLQ, participants were helping their specific regional campus staff lead more effectively.

A study will lack the strength to produce anything profitable if it lacks internal validity (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012). Internal validity was found by controlling variance. In an experimental design, a researcher will attempt “to manage and understand the change between variables by maximizing experimental variance, minimizing error variance, and controlling extraneous variance” (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000, as cited in Martin & Bridgmon, 2012, p. 54). Although this study was non-experimental in design, the researcher sought to ensure internal validity by carefully monitoring variance. First, variance was monitored by carefully formulating the conditions and procedures of how the survey was communicated to the participants. Second, systematic variance was found by taking a sample from a population of five different regional campuses.

Minimizing error variance was accomplished by using the MLQ, which has a high level of validity and reliability. Controlling extraneous variance was accomplished by identifying and reducing the effects of unwanted variables. Adding a demographics section to the survey helped to control for variables such as gender, age, and regional campus location.

External validity is the degree to which the results of a study are applicable to environments outside of the experimental setting (Gay et al., 2012). The present study was narrow in focus. The study analyzed data collected within a single university (SEU) and the five Florida-based regional campuses located at ARCs. Gay et al. (2012) note that the more a research study is narrowed and controlled, the less generalizable it becomes, yet the more natural

the setting, the more challenging it becomes to control extraneous variables. Although this study does not have a great level of generalizability, the results should prove valuable for ARCs.

Five primary limitations were present in this study. The first, generalizability, has been noted already. Because the study only surveyed students located at regional campuses that are a part of SEU, the value of the research profits a small group. The second limitation was response bias, which refers to conditions or factors such as answering questions in a way to be viewed as favorable by others (Villar, 2008). The third limitation was researcher bias; the researcher helped develop all the regional campuses included in this study and currently oversees one of the campuses. The fourth limitation was response size, the survey only included 125 participants. The fifth limitation was survey design; the research is limited to data gathered from a single survey.

Once the dissertation proposal and IRB were approved, data were collected and analyzed during the Fall 2018 semester. The cost for the study was \$625 in gift cards for participants, \$400 to utilize the MLQ, and \$350 in travel expenses. The expenses were covered by the researcher.

The study used two specific statistical tests, *t* tests and multiple linear regression analysis, in analyzing the data, and these tests evaluated whether there were relationships between the different variables. A *t* test is utilized when a researcher is determining whether there is statistical significance between two groups (Gay et al., 2012). The *t* test was used to compare the difference between the means of the regional campus students. Regression analysis is an objective way to analyze data and was used to identify relationships between independent and dependent variables (Armstrong, 2012).

Conclusion

Through a survey of ministry students at five Florida-based ARC regional campuses, the study provided clarity on what variables were the strongest correlation for developing transformational leaders. Using the MLQ, students self-assessed their perceived levels of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors. The following demographic and programmatic leadership variables were used to test for relationships: (a) campus location, (b) year classification, (c) grade point average, (d) church membership, (e) number of years at campus, (f) number of years in a practicum, (g) church volunteer involvement, (h) chapel attendance, (i) mission trip attendance, (j) student leadership involvement, and (k) leadership courses taken. The study has hopefully provided more clarity on how to develop transformational leaders at ARC regional campuses.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Leadership is woven throughout the tapestry of history. Attention has always been called to the development of strong leaders (Landis, Hill, & Harvey, 2014). From the Bible describing the leadership of Moses (Baron & Padwa, 1999) to Plato recognizing the centrality of leadership in a successful government (Landis et al., 2014), leadership has always been present in cultural development. The literature review for this research is composed of multiple sections. The review begins by presenting the conceptual development of leadership theories. From this base, a thorough review of transformational leadership theory and practice as it relates to ministry training is discussed.

Concise History of Leadership Theories

The systematic approach to framing leadership began in the middle of the 19th century. Carlyle in the great man theory saw the leader as hero (Carlyle, Sorensen, & Kinser, 2013). The theory postulated that leaders are born not made. The view assumed that through great men culture could be change and organizations improved.

Towards the end of the 19th and into the early 20th century, classical and scientific management theories emerged. The focus was on the structure of the organization and the systematic management of individual jobs within the greater system. An organization that was rightly managed would lead to greater prosperity for both employer and employee (Taylor, 1911). The role of the leader under scientific management theory was to create performance

criteria to meet the expectations of the organization. Stone and Patterson (2005) noted the focus was on the organization at-large and not the individual worker. Proponents of this theory were concerned about efficiency and productivity, and in light of this, the theory often failed to recognize the psychological complexity of the organization.

The leadership paradigm began to shift with the trait approach. The trait approach emphasized that leadership was about possessing certain traits, but the theory still implied leaders were born rather than made (Cowley, 1931). The approach looked at three broad types of traits. First were physical factors such as height, physique, and appearance; second were ability characteristics such as intelligence and fluency of speech; and third were personality features such as introversion-extroversion and emotional control (Bryman, 1992). The shift away from the trait theory began with Stogdill's (1948) examination of trait research, which showed there was not consistent evidence to conclude certain traits determined who was a leader.

From the late 1940s to the late 1960s, the dominant methodology shifted from the trait approach to the style or behavior approach. The latter terms described what leaders do (Bryman, 1992). Reversing the model, the focus shifted from internal traits to examining external behavior exhibited within the organization; leadership was viewed as useful organizational behavior (Bowers & Seashore, 1966).

Researchers at Ohio State University gathered data from subordinates on what kind of behaviors their leaders exhibited (Hemphill & Coons, 1957). The researchers created the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), which assessed what behaviors were common in leaders. The study revealed two broad types of behaviors: task and relationship (Hemphill & Coons, 1957). In the University of Michigan studies, the emphasis was on two types of behavior: employee orientation and production orientation. Employee orientation focused on

behaviors between superiors and subordinates, whereas production orientation focused on technical skill (Cartwright & Zander, 1960). The two major criticisms of this view have been, first a lack of correlation between behaviors and outcomes (Yukl, 2012) and, second the approach failed to find a universal style of leadership applicable in all settings (Northouse, 2018).

The late 1960s shifted towards a more adaptable approach. Contingency theory was developed as a contextual leadership method (Early, 2017). Fielder's contingency theory (1964, 1967) recognized the effectiveness of leaders who were task or relationship oriented, depended on the situation. The view posited that effective leadership was contingent on matching the leader's style to the correct setting (Northouse, 2018). In the situational approach, effective leaders adjusted their approach to supportive or directive behaviors to match the needs of the situation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). A primary criticism of both views is that they don't completely explain why certain leadership styles are more effective in certain situations than in others (Northouse, 2018).

The path-goal theory (House, 1971) followed the contingency approach. The model focused on leader behavior relating to subordinate satisfaction and motivation. The leader chooses the style that fits with the needs of the individual. An effective leader in the model will define goals, clarify the path, remove obstacles, and provide support for subordinates (Northouse, 2018).

The theories thus far looked at leadership through the lens of the leader or follower; the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory shifted and looked at leadership as a dyadic relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The approach saw leadership as a process of interactions between leaders and followers, with the central focus on the dyadic relationship, where a leader creates

trust and respect with each of his or her followers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Alongside servant, charismatic, and transformational leadership, the focus in the 1970s to the present day has shifted towards the unique relationship between leaders and their followers.

Transformational Leadership Models and Instruments

Since the 1980s, transformational leadership has held a central place in leadership research (Northouse, 2018). Lowe and Gardner (2000) analyzed the first 10 years (1990-1999) of articles from *Leadership Quarterly* and found a third of the articles were related to the field of transformational leadership. The attractiveness of transformational leadership is that leaders appeal to the needs of their followers and empower them to succeed within the organization (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The model is multifaceted, concerned with the emotions, values, ethics, and long-term goals of both leaders and followers (Northouse, 2018).

The term transformational leadership was coined by Downton (1973) and conceptualized by Burns in his book *Leadership* (1978). Burns recognized leadership as being transactional or transforming, with transactional leaders being guided by social exchange. Transformational or transforming leaders, on the other hand, have the ability to achieve extraordinary results in their followers and for the organization by leveraging the greatest resource in any company: the people (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Following Burns' theory, Bass (1985) provided a more refined version of transformational leadership, creating space for both transformational and transactional qualities in a leader. Rather than creating a stark dichotomy between the two concepts, Bass generated a continuum allowing for both dynamics to be present in a leader. Bass included laissez-faire leadership in the continuum as well to represent a non-leadership model. Bass and Avolio

(1990) created the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) which measures the full range of leadership in an individual.

Since the conceptualization of the MLQ instrument, a multiplicity of transformational leadership models and instruments have been formed. Table 3 outlines six of the most common models of transformational leadership. Provided are the authors' names, earliest publication date, instrument, and the number of categorical dimensions. The models are roughly in chronological order. What follows the table are descriptions of each model and the associated instrument.

Table 3

Transformational Leadership Models

Authors	Instrument	Dimensions
Bass & Avolio (1990)	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire	9
Kouzes & Posner (1987)	Leadership Practices Inventory	5
Podsakoff et al. (1990)	Transformational Leadership Behavior Inventory	6
Conger & Kanungo (1994)	Conger-Kanungo Scale of Charismatic Leadership	5
Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2000)	Transformational Leadership Questionnaire	9
Carless & Mann (2000)	Global Transformational Leadership Scale	7

Bass and Avolio (1990) and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Bass (1985) presented a conceptual model whose theory was the first to include an instrument to measure transformational leadership. The theory was refined further over the next decade by Bass, Avolio, and colleagues (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Through their work, the full range of leadership model was created. The model serves as the basis for the MLQ.

The MLQ can be taken as a self-report or 360-degree questionnaire. The instrument has nine dimensions: (a) idealized influence–attributed, (b) idealized influence–behaviors, (c) inspirational motivation, (d) intellectual stimulation, (e) individualized consideration, (f) contingency reward (CR), (g) management-by-exception–active (MBE-A), (h) management-by-exception–passive (MBE-P), and (i) laissez-faire (LF). The first five dimensions represent transformational characteristics, and the last three dimensions represent transactional and non-leadership characteristics. The premise of the MLQ is that every leader displays each style to some degree (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

In an optimal profile, an effective leader would most frequently display the transformational five I’s, followed by contingent reward (Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1994). Contingent reward is considered an effective form of transactional leadership when the five I’s are the most frequently displayed dimensions. The optimal leader would infrequently display the characteristics of MBE-P, MBE-A, and LF (Bass & Avolio, 1994). According to Bass and Avolio (1994), transformational leadership is demonstrated when leaders:

stimulate interest among colleagues and followers to view their work from new perspectives, generate awareness of the mission or vision of the team and organization, develop colleagues and followers to higher levels of ability and potential, and motivate colleagues and followers to look beyond their own interests toward those that will benefit the group. (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 2)

In the Bass and Avolio (1994) conception, the focus is on inspiring colleagues and followers to work for the good of the organization rather than the good of the individual. In Burns’ (1978) view, leadership was seen as either transactional or transforming. Bass and Avolio (1994) saw “transformational leadership as being an expansion of transactional leadership” (p. 3). Bass and

Avolio’s approach recognized the need for a level of transactional leadership to take place for an organization to work properly.

First conceptualized by Bass (1985) and modified into an instrument by Bass and Avolio (1990), the MLQ is the instrument they use to measure transformational leadership. The instrument is a 45-item survey that scores individuals on a 0 to 4 Likert scale (Mind Garden, n.d.). Since its inception, the MLQ has been used in countries around the world (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). The MLQ is the standard instrument for assessing the range of transformational and transactional behaviors in leaders (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 2004; Rowold, 2005). Table 4 below displays the dimensions and descriptions for the MLQ.

Table 4

Bass & Avolio’s (1990) Transformational Leadership Model

Dimensions	Definition
Idealized Influence Attributes	“Leaders demonstrate the attributes of role models for followers. The leaders are admired, respected, and trusted. Followers identify with the leaders and want to emulate them. Leaders are endowed by their followers as having extraordinary capabilities, persistence, and determination” (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p. 2).
Idealized Influence Behaviors	“Leaders are willing to take risks. They can be relied upon to do the right thing, displaying high moral and ethical standards. They avoid using power for personal gain and only when needed” (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p. 2).
Inspirational Motivation	“Leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers’ work. Enthusiasm and optimism are displayed. They create clear expectations and demonstrate commitment to the shared vision” (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p. 2).

Intellectual Stimulation	“Leaders stimulate their followers’ efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways” (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p. 2).
Individualized Consideration	“Leaders pay special attention to each individual follower’s needs, achievement, and growth by acting as a coach or mentor” (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p. 3).
Contingent Reward	“The leader assigns or obtains follower agreement on what needs to be done with promised or actual rewards offered in exchange for satisfactorily carrying out assignment” (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p. 3).
Management-by-Exception–Active	“The leader arranges to actively monitor deviances from standards, mistakes, and errors in the follower’s assignments and to take corrective action when needed” (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p. 4).
Management-by-Exception–Passive	“The leader waits passively for deviances, mistakes, and errors in the follower’s assignments to take corrective action” (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p. 4).
Laissez-Faire	“The avoidance or absence of leadership” (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p. 4).

Kouzes and Posner (1987) and the Leadership Practice Inventory

The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) is based on the transformational leadership model of Kouzes and Posner (2012) first developed in 1987. The LPI was formed after qualitative data were gathered from people’s personal-best leadership experiences; thousands of case studies were examined to identify exemplary leadership practices (Posner, 2016). From the data, five characteristics emerged: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart.

Kouzes and Posner (2012) created the LPI to measure transformational leadership in individuals. In their instrument are 30 statements evaluated on a 10-point Likert scale (Posner,

2016). Both a self-report and 360-degree survey have been developed for the LPI. Between 2007 and 2015, the LPI had 2.8 million responses on the online platform (Posner, 2016). The reliability of the LPI, as measured by Cronbach alpha coefficients, is consistently strong (Posner, 2016). Table 5 displays the dimensions and descriptions for the LPI.

Table 5

Kouzes & Posner's (1987) Transformational Leadership Model

Dimensions	Definition
Model the Way	“Leaders clarify values by finding their voice and affirming shared values, and they set the example by aligning their actions with the shared values” (Kouzes & Posner, 2013, p. 7).
Inspire a Shared Vision	“Leaders envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities, and they enlist others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations” (Kouzes & Posner, 2013, p. 7).
Challenge the Process	“Leaders search for opportunities by seizing the initiative and looking outward for innovative ways to improve, and they experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from experience” (Kouzes & Posner, 2013, p. 8).
Enable Others to Act	“Leaders foster collaboration by building trust and facilitating relationships, and they strengthen others by increasing self-determination and developing competence” (Kouzes & Posner, 2013, p. 8).
Encourage the Heart	“Leaders recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence, and they celebrate values and victories by creating a spirit of community” (Kouzes & Posner, 2013, p. 8).

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) and the Transformational Leadership Behavior Inventory

The Transformational Leadership Behavior Inventory (TLI) is based on the model proposed by Podsakoff et al. (1990). While the majority of studies in transformational leadership have focused on the effects certain behaviors have on *in-role* performance, the focus of the TLI was on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). OCB relates to the behaviors not critical to the job an individual is hired to do; rather, they relate to the individual contributing to the social and psychological environment of the organization (Organ, 1997). A high level of OCB has been shown to lead to improved effectiveness within the organization (Podsakoff et al., 1997; Srivastava, 2008). Connell (2005) noted, through the TLI, that Podsakoff et al. (1990) were able to uncover significant relationships between the TLI and the dimensions of OCB as developed by Organ (1988).

The model proposed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) consists of six dimensions: (a) articulate a vision, (b) provide an appropriate model, (c) foster acceptance of group goals, (d) high-performance expectations, (e) individualized support, and (f) intellectual stimulation. The instrument is a 22-item survey featuring a seven-point Likert scale (Podsakoff et al., 1990). The subscales for the instrument have good to excellent Cronbach's alpha reliability ranging from .78 to .92 (Podsakoff, et al., 1990). Table 6 displays the dimensions and descriptions for the TLI.

Table 6

Podsakoff et al. (1990) and Transformational Leadership Behavior Inventory

Dimensions	Definition
Identifying and Articulating a Vision	“Behavior on the part of the leader aimed at identifying new opportunities for his or her organization, and developing, articulating, and inspiring others with the vision of the future” (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 112).
Providing an Appropriate Model	“Behavior on the part of the leader that sets an example for employees to follow that is consistent with the values of the leader” (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 112).
Foster the Acceptance of Group Goals	“Behavior on the part of the leader that sets an example for employees and is consistent with leader values” (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 112).
High Performance Expectations	“Behavior that demonstrates the leader’s expectations for excellence, quality and high performance on the part of followers” (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 112).
Individualized Support	“Behavior on the part of the leader that indicates respect for followers and their personal feelings and needs” (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 112).
Intellectual Stimulation	“Behavior on the part of the leader that challenges followers to re-examine some of their assumptions about their work and rethink how it can be performed” (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 112).

Conger and Kanungo (1994) and the Conger-Kanungo Scale of Charismatic Leadership

Innovators of charismatic leadership, Conger and Kanungo (1994) developed the Conger-Kanungo Scale of Charismatic Leadership (C-K scale) based on their 1987 model of perceived behavioral dimensions of charismatic leadership. Unlike other models of transformational and charismatic leadership, the Conger and Kanungo theory is a process model that looks at

perceived behavioral dimensions by followers in three distinct stages: environmental assessment, vision formulation, and implementation (Conger & Kanungo, 1997). Building on earlier theories of charismatic leadership (House, 1977; Weber et al., 1947), Conger and Kanungo (1994) recognized five dimensions of charismatic leadership: (a) strategic vision and articulation, (b) sensitivity to the environment, (c) sensitivity to members' needs, (d) personal risk, (e) and unconventional behavior. Table 7 displays the stages of charismatic leadership.

Table 7

Conger & Kanungo (1997) Stages of Charismatic leadership

Stage	C-K Subscale
Stage 1: Environmental Assessment	Sensitivity to the environment Sensitivity to member needs
Stage 2: Vision Formulation	Strategic vision and articulation Personal risk
Stage 3: Implementation	Unconventional behavior

The C-K scale is a 25-term questionnaire measuring the five subscales of charismatic leadership as presented by Conger and Kanungo (1997). The subscales have good to excellent Cronbach's alpha reliability ranging from .72 to .87 (Conger & Kanungo, 1997). Based on multiple studies, convergent and discriminant validity were found in the C-K scale (Conger & Kanungo, 1997). Table 8 presents displays the dimensions and descriptions for the C-K scale.

Table 8

Conger & Kanungo (1994) Conger-Kanungo Scale of Charismatic Leadership

Dimensions	Definition
Strategic Vision and Articulation	“Leader provides inspiring strategic and organizational goals. Leader is inspirational, generates new ideas, and is an exciting public speaker. He or she is entrepreneurial and often casts vision” (Conger & Kanungo, 1997, p. 302).
Sensitivity to the Environment	“Leader readily recognizes constraints in the physical environment. Leader recognizes constraints in the organization’s social and cultural environment. Leader recognizes the abilities and limitations of the members in the organization” (Conger & Kanungo, 1997, p. 302).
Sensitivity to Members’ Needs	“Leader influences others by developing mutual respect, shows sensitivity towards others and expresses personal concern for other members” (Conger & Kanungo, 1997, p. 302).
Personal Risk	“Leader takes high personal risk for the sake of the organization, often incurs high personal cost for the good of the organization” (Conger & Kanungo, 1997, p. 302).
Unconventional Behavior	“Leader engages in unconventional behavior in order to achieve organizational goals. Uses nontraditional means to achieve organizational goals” (Conger & Kanungo, 1997, p. 302).

Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2000) and the Transformational Leadership

Questionnaire

Unlike other transformational leadership instruments, Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2000) developed the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire (TLQ) from a qualitative grounded theory approach. The second differentiating factor of the TLQ is its focus on gender inclusivity. As noted in former studies (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995; Bass 1985; Sparrow & Rigg, 1993), gender differences have the potential to play a significant role within

transformational leadership (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000). Thus, the TLQ was developed based on female and male constructs of transformational leadership (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000). Nine subscales are represented in the TLQ: (a) genuine concern for others; (b) political sensitivity and skills, (c) decisiveness, determination, self-confidence, (d) integrity, trustworthiness, honesty and openness, (e) empowering, develops potential, (f) networker, promoter, communicator, (g) accessibility, approachability, (h) clarifies boundaries, and (i) encourages critical and strategic thinking. In the TLQ, the number of items in each scale varies from five to 17, and the Cronbach's alpha coefficients were considerably high, ranging from 0.85 to 0.97 (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000). Table 9 displays the dimensions and descriptions for the TLQ.

Table 9

Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2000) Transformational Leadership Questionnaire

Dimensions	Definition
Genuine Concern for Others	“Genuine interest in me as an individual; develops my strengths” (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000, p. 296).
Political Sensitivity and Skills	“Sensitive to the political pressures that elected members face; understands the political dynamics of the leading group; can work with elected member to achieve results” (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000, p. 296).
Decisiveness, Determination, Self-Confidence	“Decisive when required; prepared to take difficult decisions; self-confident; resilient to setback” (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000, p. 296).
Integrity, Trustworthy, Honest, and Open	“Makes it easy for me to admit mistakes; is trustworthy, takes decisions based on moral and ethical principles” (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000, p. 296).
Empowers and Develops Potential	“Trusts me to take decision/initiatives on important issues; delegates effectively; enables me to use my potential” (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000, p. 296).

Inspirational Networker and Promoter	“Has a wide network of links to external environment; effectively promotes the work/achievements of the department/organization to the outside world; is able to communicate effectively the vision of the authority/department to the public community” (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000, p. 296).
Accessible and Approachable	“Accessible to staff at all levels; keeps in touch using face-to-face communication” (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000, p. 296).
Clarifies Boundaries and Involves Others in Decisions	“Defines boundaries of responsibility; involves staff when making decisions; keeps people informed of what is going on” (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000, p. 296).
Encourages Critical and Strategic Thinking	“Encourages the questioning of traditional approaches to the job; encourages people to think of wholly new approaches/solutions to problems; encourages strategic, rather than short-term thinking” (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000, p. 296).

Carless and Mann (2000) and the Global Transformational Leadership Scale

Carless and Mann (2000) saw the MLQ and LPI instruments as being relatively long and time-consuming to complete. They sought to develop an instrument for transformational leadership that was short and easy to administer. The approach taken by Carless and Mann was to create an instrument with a broad measure of transformational leadership. The name Global Transformational Leadership Scale (GTL) suggests a global measure of transformational leadership, reflecting the different instruments within the field of transformational leadership. Based on their assessment, seven behaviors are in the GTL: vision, staff development, supportive leadership, empowerment, innovative thinking, lead by example, and charisma (Carless & Mann, 2000). Cronbach’s alpha was high for the GTL (Carless & Mann, 2000). Table 10 presents displays the dimensions and descriptions for the GTL.

Table 10

Carless and Mann (2000) Global Transformational Leadership Scale

Dimensions	Definition
Vision	“Communicates a clear and positive vision of the future” (Carless & Mann, 2000, p. 396).
Staff Development	“Treats staff as individuals, supports, and encourages their development” (Carless & Mann, 2000, p. 396).
Supportive Leadership	“Gives encouragement and recognition to staff” (Carless & Mann, 2000, p. 396).
Empowerment	“Fosters trust, involvement and cooperation among team members” (Carless & Mann, 2000, p. 396).
Innovative Thinking	“Encourages thinking about problems in a new way and questions assumptions” (Carless & Mann, 2000, p. 396).
Lead by Example	“Is clear about his/her values and practices what he/she preaches” (Carless & Mann, 2000, p. 396).
Charisma	“Instills pride and respect in others and inspires me by being highly competent” (Carless & Mann, 2000, p. 396).

Transformational Leadership Theories Conclusion

As reviewed, a variety of instruments exist related to transformational leadership. Each instrument surveyed has its own advantages. What separates the MLQ from the other transformational theories is the emphasis on the Full Range Leadership model within the instrument. The MLQ is a more rounded approach to leadership development because it recognizes the role transactional and laissez-faire leadership can play within an organizational setting alongside transformational leadership.

Transformational Leadership and Related Theories

The following section presents the relationship between transformational leadership and similar theories. The theories examined exhibit overlapping or similar concepts found in transformational leadership. The subsequent theories compared, are: charismatic leadership, servant leadership, authentic leadership, and visionary leadership.

Transformational and Charismatic Leadership

Transformational and charismatic leadership present similar theory. Both examine the relationship between leaders and their followers and assert similar desired characteristics and behaviors. Some theorists suggest charismatic leadership is a dimension of transformational leadership, while others state the two theories overlap but have significant differences (Levine, Muenchen, & Brooks, 2010). The following section delineates the varying views on the relationship between the two theories.

Burns (1978) expressed a distaste for the term charisma, choosing instead to use the phrase heroic leadership, arguing the variety of meanings in the word charisma created ambiguity. Bass (1985) insisted charisma was a component of transformational leadership. The tendency presented by Bass is found throughout the literature on transformational leadership with many writers using the terms charismatic and transformational interchangeably. Much of the melding of the two theories stems from the dominant place of charisma in Bass' conceptual model and the role charisma plays in casting vision, as found in the transformational views of Bennis and Nanus (2003) and Tichy and Devanna (1990).

Trice and Beyer (1991) saw a distinction between the two by suggesting that charismatic leaders look to create new organizations and transformational leaders look to change existing ones. The primary differences for Trice and Beyer related to the shape and development of an

organization. Conger and Kanungo (1997) perceived the Bass conception as stifling the range of charismatic leadership. By treating charismatic leadership as a subset of transformational leadership, Conger and Kanungo (1997) saw it as limiting the influence and emphasis of charismatic leadership.

The difference between the two theories tends to be based on emphasis. Individuals who write using the charismatic or transformational distinction employ similar motifs and themes to describe both theories (Bryman, 1992). Regardless of the nuanced differences, both approaches are a part of “the new leadership theories,” a phrase from the late 1980s (Bryman, 1992), and both focus on similar behaviors and actions a leader inspires in his or her followers.

Transformational and Servant Leadership

Servant leadership is seen throughout history. Traces of it can be found in some of the oldest religious traditions, such as Buddhism, Christianity, Islam, and Judaism (Bekker, 2010, p. 56). Greenleaf’s (1970) conception is the basis for much of modern servant leadership theory. For Greenleaf (1970, 1977), leadership was about serving others. The role of a leader is to meet the needs of followers rather than the needs of self or the organization. Sendjaya and Sarros (2002) noted that the servant leader would operate on the ideal that “I am the leader, therefore I serve” rather than “I am the leader, therefore I lead” (p. 60). The servant leader “does not serve with a primary focus on results; rather the servant leader focuses on service itself” (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004, p. 355). Servant leadership is established on an ontological premise; the theory is about being a servant before doing the work of a servant (Greenleaf, 1977; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). The emphasis on *being* separates it from many of the action-oriented theories.

Stone et al. (2004) developed a conceptual model for servant leadership and then compared the attributes in their model to the attributes found in the MLQ. They found both

views had relatively corresponding characteristics. The researchers recognized the following concepts as being shared in both frameworks: influence, vision, trust, credibility, risk-sharing, integrity, and modeling (p. 354). The comparison showed Bass' (1985) conception of transformational leadership and Stone et al.'s conception of servant leadership as having similar characteristics. Stone et al. suggested the commonality may be because both are people-oriented leadership styles. In both formations, emphasis is placed on the value of appreciating people and empowering followers (Stone et al., 2004).

Although there are attributes that overlap between the two views, the overall emphasis of each theory is built on different presuppositions. A stronger correlation exists between servant leadership and Burns' (1978) conception of transformational leadership than there is between servant leadership and Bass' (1985) conception (Andersen, 2018; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008). Because this study utilized the MLQ, the present comparison primarily focused on the relationship between servant leadership and the Bass (1985) construct.

Servant leadership is a more radical view than transformational leadership; in servant leadership, individuals give a high degree of freedom and trust to their followers and gain influence through service (Graham 1991; Russell & Stone, 2002). A transformational leader operates within the bounds of the organizational structure and gains influence through charisma and inspirational motivation. In transformational leadership, the leader empowers the follower to accomplish organizational objectives (Yukl, 2012). In servant leadership, credibility is externally built through service; in transformational leadership, credibility is internally built through idealized influence. A servant leader is also more inclined to serve marginalized individuals (Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008).

Both views claim to represent moral leadership; however, servant leadership more clearly articulates how its specific model embodies moral leadership. Defining transformational leadership's moral base is a cloudy process (Parolini, Patterson, & Winston, 2009). Greenleaf more clearly defined servant leadership's moral base by building the theory on the foundation that other people's needs come first (Parolini et al., 2009). Servant leaders are not only engaged on an emotional and intellectual level, they are engaged spiritually with their followers (Sendjaya, Eva, Butar, Robin, & Castles, 2017). Altruistic action is also more prominent in servant leadership theory (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006).

The central difference is a matter of priority; the servant leader is focused on his or her followers before the organization. The difference allows the servant leader to lead from a relational context (Stone et al., 2004). The desire to serve followers surpasses the vision of the organization. The transformational leader is focused on building the organization first, with follower development and empowerment being a secondary concern (Stone et al., 2004; van Dierendonck, 2011; van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, De Windt, Alkema, 2014). In servant leadership, the person is put first; in transformational leadership, the organization is put first (Rohm, 2013).

Transformational and Authentic Leadership

Authentic leadership has taken shape within organizational theory over the past 20 years (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008), but its conceptual roots are much deeper and can be found in the philosophical work of Heidegger (1962) and the psychological work of Rogers (1963). Walumbwa et al. (2008) defined authentic leadership as:

A pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized

moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development. (p. 94)

The definition reframed and narrowed Luthans and Avolio's (2003) earlier definition of authentic leadership that was found to be too broad in its construct. The Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) was developed by Walumbwa et al. (2008) to gauge authentic leadership. The ALQ measures four factors: self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective.

Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) correlated authenticity with transformational leadership. In their view, a transformational leader was one who embodied the constructs of the MLQ in a way that was authentic and moral. The current field has broken away from this conception and sees authentic leadership as its own theory (Illies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005; Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Although authentic leadership stands on its own as a theory, many similarities exist between the two views. Both place high consideration on authenticity in actions, are considered positive leadership styles, and promote positive social exchanges. Each view also places an emphasis on having a high level of emotional intelligence (Banks, McCauley, Gardner, & Guler, 2016; George, 2003; George, Sims, Mclean, & Mayer, 2007). Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, and Wu (2017) performed a meta-analysis comparing transformational leadership with authentic, ethical, and servant leadership and found the strongest correlation coefficient existed between transformational and authentic leadership.

Nevertheless, strong differences also exist between the theories. Transformational leadership is focused on developing followers for roles within the organization. Like servant leadership, authentic leadership is more concerned with developing the followers' sense of self (Banks et al., 2016). At the core of transformational leadership is an individual who exhibits

charismatic behaviors; authentic leaders are not necessarily charismatic. The charismatic factor is central to the shared vision and intellectual stimulation that transformational leaders are trying to create within the organization (Banks et al., 2016). In authentic leadership, explicit focus is placed on the psychological health of both leader and follower. The emphasis on psychological health is not necessarily present in transformational leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Banks et al., 2016). A transparency between leader and follower exists in authentic leadership that is also not normally present in transformational leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005).

Transformational and Visionary Leadership

Visionary leadership, developed by Sashkin and Fulmer (1987), has three core elements. The first element is that visionary leaders possess certain personality and cognitive skills needed to create vision (Sashkin, 1988). The second element identifies the need for leaders to understand the content dimensions of an organization, and the third element relates to a leader's ability to articulate the vision (Sashkin, 1988). Sashkin (1995) developed the Leader Behavior Questionnaire (LBQ) as a tool for measuring visionary leadership. The LBQ measures 10 subscales that are clustered into three categories as seen in Table 11.

Visionary leadership has primarily been linked to Bennis and Nanus' (2003) notion of transformational leadership. While not representing the full range of transformational leadership attributes as characterized by Bass and Avolio (1994), the conception proposed by Sashkin and Fulmer (1987) does cover some of the elements of transformational leadership, with focused attention on the development of vision. Through vision, the leader creates a picture of what could be (Almog-Bareket, 2012; Nanus, 1992). Similar to transformational leadership, visionary leadership attention is placed on the advancement of the organization before the individual. Both

views also create high levels of commitment and follower trust to the organization (Zhu, Chew, & Spangler, 2005).

Table 11

Sashkin (1995) Leadership Behavior Questionnaire

Categories	Subscales
Visionary Leadership Behavior	Clear leadership
	Communicative leadership
	Consistent leadership
	Caring leadership
	Creative leadership
Visionary Leadership Characteristics	Confident leadership
	Empowered leadership
	Visionary leadership
Visionary Culture Building	Organizational leadership
	Cultural leadership

Related to differences, visionary leadership has a narrower view than transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is built on a broad category of attributers and behaviors, whereas visionary leadership is built on a leader’s ability to communicate a vision that empowers others to act (Taylor, Cornelius, & Colvin, K, 2014). Unlike the Full Range Leadership (FRL) model, visionary leadership also does not address how to manage within an organization, making it difficult to see how visionary leadership relates to the day-to-day operations of an organization.

Criticism of Transformational Leadership

Any leadership theory has its limits. A number of critiques have been presented relating to transformational leadership (Conger, 1989; Lee, 2014; Tourish, 2013; Tourish & Pinnington,

2002). Conger (1989) in *The Charismatic Leader* recognizes a number of different liabilities related to the charismatic/transformational theory. One of the more serious issues of the theory is the tendency of senior leaders to project their personal needs and beliefs onto followers (Conger, 1989). The projection can happen on both explicit and implicit levels. Conger (1989) noted that in a charismatic/transformational conception, a leader can begin to “identify with his vision to an unhealthy extent. The vision personifies himself” (p. 142). When this happens, leaders begin to develop a blind spot and think they are invincible, which can lead to developing narcissist tendencies (Maccoby, 2003).

The blind spot can cause leaders to make costly miscalculations. In the pursuit to achieve a vision, the transformational leader can become so driven he or she ignores the cost of their strategic goals (Conger, 1989). Conger (1989) labeled this as a *Pyrrhic victory*, where the leader has success, but the costs of the victories can undermine the whole organization (p. 142).

With the dominant place of vision within the charismatic/transformational perspective, a leader can become too visionary (Conger, 1989). A leader’s perception of market trends can become exaggerated when he or she is over-focused on the vision and under-focused on the strategy (Conger, 1989, 1990). If a leader is not careful, vision can become a crutch rather than a tool.

Charismatic/transformational leaders tend to be gifted communicators, but when the leader does not have a high moral compass, a tendency can arise where they misuse their ability (Conger, 1989). Through their communication skills, they can present their visions to make them more appealing than they actually are, give exaggerated self-descriptions, or present fulfilling images that manipulate their followers (Conger, 1989).

Kellerman (2004) noted effective leadership is not always ethical leadership. A leader can be transformational within the organization and not exhibit ethical behavior. Kellerman (2000) labeled this phenomenon *Hitler's ghost* (p. 11). Few people made a cultural, economic, and organizational impact on the world in the 20th century like Adolf Hitler. Hitler was “skilled at inspiring, mobilizing, and directing his followers” (Kellerman, 2000, p. 11). Kellerman (2000) calls attention to the complex nature of transformational leadership.

Within transformational leadership, there can be a tendency to return to a modified version of the *great man* theory of the mid-19th century (Lee, 2014). Bass' writings tended to have a strong heroic leaning, with transformational leadership representing the flawless, idealized form of leadership (Lee, 2014). Critics of transformational leadership have pointed to its abuse throughout history. In response, Bass (1999) differentiated between what he called transformational leadership and pseudo-transformational leadership. Bass (1999) insisted moral development is a critical factor to a truly transformational leader. The challenge proposed by Lee (2014) was that Bass did not specify how to deal with pseudo-transformational leaders or how to identify them.

The heroic leadership bias that can be found in transformational leadership can lead to followers placing blind trust in their leaders (Lee, 2014; Shamir, 1995). The followers may begin to assume a higher level of credibility in the leader, based on the leader's effectiveness within the organization. Organizational health can begin to be equated with the health of the leader.

Follower assumptions can lead to over-attributing the direction of an organization to the transformational leader. Rosenzweig (2007) deemed this the *halo error* where the success or failure of the organization was primarily based on top leadership. The error can undermine the

organization as a whole because it does not take into consideration the complex social systems existing within the organization and exaggerates the contributions of one leader (Meindl, 1995).

In casting a shared vision, the transformational leader can create an organization that leads to excessive conformity. Tourish (2013) noted new members tend to overconform to organizational norms; otherwise, they feel penalized. Followers begin to over comply without questioning whether the behavior is helpful or destructive (Tourish, 2013).

When an organization over-emphasizes the transformational model, not all leaders will be able to thrive. If a manager does not demonstrate charismatic behavior, he or she may not have the opportunity to move up in the organization (Tourish, 2013). Even if the individual has the skills needed to serve in a high-level role, the lack of charisma can lead to the role going to someone else. The challenge is that not every leadership role within the organization needs to be filled by a charismatic leader; functional roles need to be filled by managers who can establish a clear direction and policies.

Tourish (2013) sees a correlation between transformational leadership and cults. Separated from their polarizing place in American culture, cults are organizations in which followers conform to the codes and needs of the cults, members unite around a shared vision, and leaders create an emotional connection to the vision and themselves (Hochman, 1984). Charismatic leadership is indispensable in the development of a cult (Tourish, 2011). Followers are drawn into the powerful charismatic qualities exhibited by the cult leader (Blanck, 1993; Tourish, 2011; Tourish & Pinnington, 2002). Cult leaders will go to great lengths to show individual consideration to members, demonstrating ingratiating behavior, and to develop commitment from followers (Tourish, 2013). Members are intellectually stimulated to align their goals with the collective objective of the cult organization (Tourish & Pinnington, 2002).

Based on the prevailing literature on transformational leadership, the traits of cults show similarities to the transformational dimensions (Tourish & Pinnington, 2002).

Transformational leadership has been proven to be effective in ensuring organizational success (García-Morales, Jiménez-Barrionuevo, & Gutiérrez-Gutiérrez, 2012; Nemanich & Keller, 2007). Like any view, transformational leadership is not without its limitations; the model has the capacity to be utilized in effective ways (Bass, 1985) and in ineffective ways (Kellerman, 2004; Tourish, 2013). The merits of transformational leadership can lead followers to transcend their self-interest for the greater good; however, if abused, transformational leadership can become a weakness (Lee, 2014).

Transformational Leadership and Education

The present study examined the relationship between MLQ scores and regional campuses. The focus on an educational environment predicated a review of the connection between transformational leadership and education. The focus of this section was on two areas: first, how transformational leadership relates to the classroom environment, and second, how the theory relates to educational leadership.

In the classroom, a professor is not just transferring knowledge; an exceptional instructor is a content expert who stimulates students' curiosity to learn and acts as a role model by demonstrating transformational leadership behavior (Bogler, Caspi, & Roccas, 2013). Learning in an educational environment is not a one-dimensional experience, a student is being holistically formed in the classroom. Every classroom is a small organization (Pounder, 2008) where the teacher is the leader and students are the followers, the role of the teacher is to intellectually stimulate the students to change and to help them achieve personal and collective goals (Bogler et al., 2013).

The MLQ has been utilized to show positive associations between the effectiveness of an instructor and transformational leadership in the traditional (Ojode, Walumbwa, & Kuchinke, 1999; Walumbwa & Ojode, 2000) and virtual classroom (Bogler et al., 2013). When demonstrated by instructors, transformational leadership is generally well received by students (Pounder, 2006). The positive effects of transformational leadership in the classroom are consistent with the general findings on transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Pounder, 2006).

Transformational leadership has emerged as one of the most frequently studied models of academic leadership (Heck & Hallinger, 1999; Stewart, 2006). At the forefront of this movement is Kenneth Leithwood. Stewart (2006) noted that Leithwood and his colleagues have been instrumental in taking transformational leadership into the field of educational administration. Building off Bass' conceptual model of transformational leadership, Leithwood (1992) identified seven dimensions to describe transformational leadership in an academic environment: building school vision and establishing goals, providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualized support, modeling best practices and important organizational values, demonstrating high performance expectations, creating a productive school culture, and developing structures to foster participation. In Leithwood's (1992) model, school administration and teachers work collaboratively to stimulate improvements. The partnership encourages all members of the organization to play a part in the shared vision. Leithwood, Jantzi, and Steinbach (1999) found seven studies that showed evidence of the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational improvement and effectiveness in an educational setting.

At both an administrative and classroom level, transformational leadership has been found to be an effective paradigm for stimulating leadership improvements. Transformational leadership has the potential to have a significant effect on organizational development, classroom effectiveness, and school culture and climate (Leithwood et al., 1999). The MLQ can be a helpful tool within an educational setting to measure the level of transformational leadership present in administration, faculty, or students.

Leadership and the University

Over the past 10 years, leadership programs have developed at universities across the US (Greenwald, 2010). Schools like Creighton and Arizona State have developed leadership training for their students while others like Gonzaga and City University of Seattle have developed degree programs in leadership (Greenwald, 2010). SEU currently offers degrees such as an undergraduate degree in organizational leadership and a PhD and EdD in organizational leadership (Southeastern University, 2018). Greenwald (2010) noted that when leadership programs were first introduced on college campuses 30 years ago, they were at best marginal in the big scheme of the universities' missions. The programs were often housed in centers led by charismatic personalities. Over time the emphasis on leadership within a university setting changed to what is called leadership studies (Greenwald, 2010). Many business schools and universities alike have incorporated leadership training into their programs or have created stand-alone degrees.

While many schools are focused on organizational leadership, some schools have an emphasis on a particular framework of leadership. As noted in Table 12, Bethel, Northeastern, and Seattle University School of Theology and Ministry all offer graduate degrees in transformational leadership. Harvard, Naropa, and Gonzaga offer unique programs related to

authentic leadership. Rohm (2013) noted the following universities promoted servant leadership: Gonzaga, Regent, Palm Beach Atlantic, and Trinity Western.

In a research similar to that of this current study, Rohm (2013) conducted a mixed-methods analysis at Southeastern University where he evaluated the relationship between eight independent variables and the seven dimensions of servant leadership found in Wong and Page's (2003) model. Rohm (2013) found that a student's degree program was related to his or her vulnerability and humility; years at SEU related to developing and empowering others; holding a student leadership position related to developing and empowering others, inspiring leadership, and visionary leadership; and an increase in student age related to developing and empowering others, inspiring leadership, visionary leadership, and courageous leadership.

Non-traditional students have not only become the fastest growing segment in higher education but are also the new majority according to the National Center for Education Statistics (MacDonald, 2018). Because this study had a non-traditional population, importance was placed on reviewing leadership development and non-traditional ministry education. Non-traditional students find themselves challenged in different areas than traditional students. Many non-traditional students struggle academically because of the length of time they have had out of school (Ross-Gordon, 2011), and they may find it difficult to create an academic structure for themselves so they can succeed (Bidwell, 2014). A non-traditional population needs early intervention (Keup, 2012), flexibility (Berling, 2013), and campus support to thrive (Erisman & Steele, 2012).

Using non-traditional theological students as the population, Hillman (2008) evaluated what independent variables showed the largest correlation to higher scores on the Leadership Practice Inventory (LPI). Similar to what Rohm (2013) found with servant leadership, Hillman

discovered that age was a significant factor in higher leadership scores, with those in their 30s and 40s scoring higher than those in their 20s. Hillman noted that non-traditional students may already have significant leadership experience when they enter a university or a seminary setting. Many non-traditional-age students have learned transformational leadership lessons that traditional students may not have experienced yet (Hillman, 2008).

Multiple studies have recognized the importance of mentoring and a ministry student's leadership development at school (Cloete & Chiroma, 2015; Harkness, 2001; Selzer, 2008). One of the primary ways a student learns is through experience (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). Mentors can help students navigate experiences and model for students how to lead in a ministry context (Selzer, 2008). Leadership is dynamic, much more than theory, and affects every aspect of someone's life; a mentor can help a student process questions, concerns, and fears, and teach them how to lead effectively (Selzer, 2008).

Transformational Leadership and the Church

Jesus was a transformational leader. He had a way of creating vision, shaping values, and empowering His followers (Lewis, 1996). Jesus birthed a movement that influenced the entire world from history forward. The following section examines the literature related to transformational leadership, ministry training, and the church.

Ministry training has evolved over the centuries. In the early 2nd century, two systems of training emerged; the first was in the church and the second in schools (Rowdon, 1971). In the church model, young presbyters were under the supervision and guidance of a bishop. In the school model, two training centers were developed for ministry education: the Catechetical school of Alexandria and the school of Antioch (Rowdon, 1971).

In the Middle Ages, the model evolved into monasteries (Jackson, 1997), and from monasteries came the development of the university. Universities were developed to train monks and priests (Stark, 2003). In the 16th century, the scope of universities began to expand beyond ministry, and ministry training centers emerged in Europe (Rowdon, 1971). In the 18th and 19th centuries, small schools for ministers began to appear; the schools were often based out of churches (Jackson, 1997). The emphasis in these schools was on theological and biblical development, with development of practical skills often taken for granted (Jackson, 1995). Many of the oldest universities in North America, including Harvard, Yale, and Princeton, were created to train pastors (West, 1974).

In the 21st century, students attend seminary or a Bible college with the desire to be trained for the ministry. Upon graduation, students do not always enter ministry feeling fully equipped to face the demands of leading in a church environment (Barna Group, 2017; Harkness, 2001; Selzer, 2008; White, 2011). The predominant emphasis of ministry training in the 21st century has been on theological, biblical, and practical ministry preparation. While students are taught to think doctrinally, create worship experiences, preach, teach, and counsel, they are not always given all the tools they need to lead effectively in a church (Selzer, 2008).

In light of this, many Christian universities and seminaries have begun offering more degrees related to ministerial leadership. Table 12 gives a sample of seminaries and universities from a variety of traditions who offer undergraduate or graduate degrees in ministry leadership. Three of the schools listed offer graduate degrees in transformational leadership through their ministry programs.

Table 12

Leadership Degree Offerings

School	Location	Tradition	Degrees Offered
Asbury Theological Seminary (2018)	Wilmore, KY	Wesleyan	Master of Arts in Leadership
Assemblies of God Theological Seminary (2018)	Springfield, MO	Assemblies of God	Master of Arts in Pastoral Leadership
Bethel Seminary (2018)	St. Paul, MN	Non-denominational (Protestant)	Master of Arts in Transformational Leadership
Gordon-Conwell Theological Seminary (2018)	Charlotte, NC	Non-denominational (Protestant)	Master of Arts in Christian Leadership
Liberty University (2018a, 2018b)	Lynchburg, VA	Baptist	Bachelor of Science in Pastoral Leadership, Master of Arts in Religion–Leadership
Northeastern Seminary (2018)	Rochester, NY	Wesleyan	Master of Arts in Transformational Leadership
Northwest University (2018a, 2018b)	Kirkland, WA	Assemblies of God	Bachelor of Arts in Ministry Leadership, Master of Arts in Leadership studies
Seattle University School of Theology and Ministry (2018)	Seattle, WA	Catholic	Master of Arts in Transformational Leadership
Southeastern University (2018)	Lakeland, FL	Assemblies of God	Bachelor of Science in Ministerial Leadership,

Southern Baptist
Theological Seminary
(2018)

Louisville, KY Baptist

Master of Arts in
Ministerial Leadership
Master of Arts in
Leadership

Transformational leadership behaviors have shown to produce positive organizational outcomes for churches (Fogarty, 2013). Transformational leadership behaviors have been connected to followers' satisfaction with pastoral leadership (Rowold, 2008), followers' assessment of pastoral effectiveness (Onnen, 1987), and church growth (Bae, 2001). Onnen (1987) found congregational members wanted pastors who had charisma, demonstrated individual consideration, and were intellectually stimulating. Multiple studies have been done relating to transformational leadership and the church (Adams, 2010; Fogarty, 2013; Rumley, 2011; White, 2012). The following section reviews four recent studies on the subject from the past 10 years. The studies were selected because they utilized the MLQ.

Adams (2010) sought to uncover what aspects of transformational leadership based on the MLQ were demonstrated in pastors at declining and growing churches. The study was quantitative, with a correlation research design. Pastors at four United Methodist churches in Elizabethtown, Kentucky, participated in the study. For this study, the MLQ served as the dependent variable, and the independent variables were church type.

Adams (2010) found pastors in both growing churches and declining churches received positive ratings from the MLQ. However, the results of an ANOVA indicated there was a significant difference in pastor and congregant MLQ scores between growing and declining churches, with growing churches having significantly higher scores (Adams, 2010). While limited in scope, the Adams study suggested that when pastors have a positive MLQ score, they

have the potential to be more effective within the organization and may possibly influence and inspire their congregation.

The second study evaluated whether there was a correlation between MLQ scores and the Natural Church Development instrument (NCD), a tool that measures the effectiveness of a church. The sample was 15 Assembly of God senior pastors and a total of 60 raters participating in the study (Rumley, 2011). The MLQ served as the independent variable, and the average of the NCD scores of the churches surveyed served as the dependent variable. The NCD evaluated eight specific categories within these Assembly of God churches: empowering leadership, gift-oriented ministry, passionate spirituality, functional structures, inspiring worship services, holistic small groups, need-oriented evangelism, and loving relationships (Schwarz, 2006).

Rumley (2011) found a statistically significant linear relationship between transformational and transactional leadership as measured by the MLQ and church effectiveness as measured by the NCD. No significant relationship was found with laissez-faire leadership. Rumley (2011) noted, “If a pastor can become more transformational, he or she will increase the effectiveness of the church. If a pastor is more transactional he or she can more efficiently manage the church” (p. 157).

The third study assessed whether there was a significant relationship between the MLQ score of pastors and the Transformational Church Assessment Tool (TCAT) (White, 2012). The sample for this study were pastors and congregations of 18 Grace Brethren churches. The MLQ functioned as the independent variable, and the TCAT served as the dependent variable. The categories in the TCAT are missionary mentality, vibrant leadership, relational intentionality, prayerful dependence, worship, community, and mission (Stetzer & Rainer, 2010). Findings

from this study did not uncover a statistically significant relationship between MLQ scores and congregations who were considered transformational as measured by the TCAT (White, 2012).

Churches are volunteer-driven. The fourth study assessed the impact of transformational leadership on volunteer motivation (Fogarty, 2013). The sample was 790 volunteers attending 28 different Australian Christian Churches (ACC). The independent variables in this study were the transactional and transformational behaviors of senior pastors, and the dependent variable was volunteer motivation. The dependent variables utilized were volunteer age, volunteer gender, volunteer tenure, senior pastor tenure, congregational size, trust, value congruence, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation. Fogarty (2013) used regression analyses and found that senior pastors' transactional leadership behaviors influenced extrinsic motivation in volunteers and that senior pastors' transformational leadership behaviors influenced intrinsic motivation in volunteers.

As previously supported by Onnen (1987), Fogarty (2013) recognized the *halo effect* that was likely to be found in a church congregation, whereby members project transformational leadership qualities onto a pastor because of the position. Onnen (1987) found transformational qualities were projected onto pastors in both growing and declining churches. Fogarty noted, "In the case of clergy, the role is identified with charisma and virtue" (Fogarty, 2013, p. 85). The halo effect was likely to result when congregation members were rating transformational leadership characteristics of lead pastors (Fogarty, 2013). Although this is a limitation of assessing pastors through the MLQ, the study was able to connect transformational leadership theory to volunteer motivation in a church context.

Conclusion of the Literature Review

No leadership theory is perfect. As demonstrated in this literature review, transformational leadership has its weaknesses, particularly when the style is used in a manipulative manner. However, when followed in an ethical way, transformational leaders have the ability to gain trust and respect from their followers, inspire followers to reach new goals, and to foster innovation within the organization.

The MLQ was utilized in this study. The advantage of using the MLQ compared to other transformational leadership instruments was the importance placed on Full Range Leadership model within the MLQ. By assessing ministry students through the MLQ, the data revealed whether ministry students were being developed as transformational or transactional leaders. The MLQ also revealed what kind of transformational leaders are being developed, based on the dimensions of the MLQ.

The current research builds on the research of others. Transformational leadership has been shown to have a positive effect on a number of areas related to a thriving church. Although much has been said relating to the application of transformational leadership and the church, further research was needed on how to best equip ministry students into becoming transformational leaders.

III. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to examine the degree to which five Association of Related Churches (ARC) regional campuses located in Florida were developing transformational leaders as measured by the MLQ. Transformational leaders have the ability to inspire and motivate others towards the collective goals of the organization (Bass & Avolio, 2007). Numerous studies have been conducted using the MLQ as an instrument (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003), and various studies have been performed to assess the correlation between thriving churches and transformational leadership as measured by the MLQ (Adams, 2010; Fogarty, 2013; Onnen, 1987; Rumley 2011; White 2012). However, no research findings were found in the professional literature assessing transformational leadership in ministry students located at university extension sites.

At SEU, extension sites are the fastest growing population of the university (Miller, 2017). The primary degrees offered at these locations are the associate and bachelor of ministerial leadership (“Partners,” n.d.). Because of the emphasis placed on leadership development at these sites, fruitful work was done evaluating what kind of leaders were being formed at regional campuses and which independent variables had the greatest influence on their development. The MLQ was chosen because it measures the full range of leadership in an individual.

Description of Methodology

The study was quantitative, non-experimental, and, more specifically, survey research, focusing on the measurement of ministry student self-perception of transformational leadership. The cross-sectional questionnaire was administered through an online website. By using a quantitative design, the researcher was able to examine variables and determine whether significant statistical relationships existed (Cozby, 2015).

The advantage of using a survey was its accessibility and affordability. Surveys can produce a large amount of data in short time (Kelley, Clark, Brown, & Sitzia, 2003). The convenience of the online survey allowed the researcher to collect the largest sample size from the population. The breadth of coverage of the population meant the survey was more likely to obtain a representative sample, and therefore be generalizable for the whole population (Kelley et al., 2003).

Although survey data are relatively easy to gather, sampling error can occur (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The following measures were put in place to resist sampling error: maximizing systematic variance, minimizing error variance, and controlling extraneous variance. Systematic variance was maximized by ensuring there were enough variance between the demographic and programmatic variables used to assess correlation with the MLQ. Taking a sample size from five different regional campuses also improved systematic variance. Error variance was minimized by using the MLQ, which featured a high level of coefficient validity and reliability. Controlling for extraneous variance was accomplished through the demographic variables, which allowed the researcher to examine variables that might skew the results, such as gender, age, ethnicity, or campus location.

External validity is the degree to which the results of a study are applicable to environments outside of the experimental setting (Gay et al., 2012). The current study was narrow in focus. The study was limited to the analysis of data collected within a single university (SEU) and the five regional campuses that are located at ARCs in Florida. Gay et al. (2012) noted that the more a research study is narrowed and controlled, the less generalizable it becomes, yet the more natural the setting, the more challenging it becomes to control extraneous variables. Although the study does not promote a high level of generalizability, the results represent valuable diagnostic information for ARCs.

Participants

The population for this study were ministry students attending one of five ARC regional campuses located in Florida. The sample consisted of male and female students representing a variety of ages, ethnicities, year classification, and campus location. Each campus is located at a megachurch, which is a church of over 2,000 people in weekly attendance. Table 13 contains the total ministry student population (Lloyd, personal communication, July 19, 2018) and the response sample for these five regional campuses.

Table 13

Ministry Student Population and Sample

Location	Ministry Students Population	Response Sample
Christ Fellowship Church	41	17
Grace Family Church	35	19
Celebration Church	28	18
Bayside Community Church	77	35
Meadowbrook Church	41	36
Total	222	125

The regional campuses in this study were selected because they are a part of the same church network. Currently there are more than 700 national and international churches who are a part of the ARC (“Annual Report,” 2017). The similarities between the sites allowed for accurate comparisons among variables to be made. Table 13 contains the total ministry student population (Lloyd, personal communication, July 19, 2018) and the response sample for these five regional campuses.

Sampling

A convenient, purposive sampling method was chosen for this study. Because of the researcher’s oversight of one of the campuses and frequent visits to the other campuses in the study, the method allowed the researcher to gather a sample that is believed to represent the population. The prior knowledge enabled the researcher to select five exceptional regional campuses of SEU. A weakness of this approach was the potential for inaccuracy in the researcher’s criteria, which could limit the generalizability of the study (Gay et al., 2012).

Data Collection

Data were collected by administering the survey instrument directly to study participants. The researcher hosted field meetings at each of the five campus locations in September-October 2018. During the field meetings, the researcher presented the basic tenets of the Full Range of Leadership (FRL) model to all ministry students. The presentation was approximately 15 minutes. At the end of the presentation, ministry students had the opportunity to take the survey. The students in this study volunteered to participate. Students each signed a consent form letting them know they could withdraw from taking the survey at any time without consequence.

Once a participant agreed to the terms of the study, as stated in the informed consent form, the participant was sent a link to the survey. The survey data were gathered through the

online platform CheckMarket. Each participant who completed the survey was assigned a number, to ensure privacy. The researcher communicated through the consent form and in person that all personal information will be kept confidential. The survey took on average nine-minutes to complete. Although a nine-minute average is quicker than the normal 15 minutes to take the MLQ, the 15-minute completion time reflects multi-rater, rater-only, and self-forms averaged together, whereas the current study only used the self-form. Once the survey was completed, nothing else was expected from study participants.

Based upon findings in the professional literature on the topic of survey research, researchers are concerned with decreasing response rates (Brick & Williams, 2013; Pforr et al., 2015). To address the issue of decreasing response rates, a variety of methods exist to increase survey response; the incentive for this study was monetary. When a participant finished the survey, they received a \$5.00 Starbucks gift card. The participants were told about the incentive before they took the survey. For this study, 56% of the population participated. The percentage was lower than expected because of the small number of evening students who participated in the study.

The consent forms are stored properly and accessible to only the researcher. Forms will be kept for three years, after which they will be destroyed. By following this procedure, the confidentiality of each participant will be maintained through this study.

Instrumentation

The MLQ was the research instrument utilized in this study. The MLQ was created to measure perceived or rated transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire qualities within individuals. The advantage of using the MLQ, compared to other popular transformational leadership instruments, is that it is designed to recognize transactional leadership as needed to

supplement transformational leadership for an individual and organization to flourish (Antonakis & House, 2008). The MLQ was designed to measure the Full Range Leadership Theory (FRL) (Antonakis & House, 2008). Fundamental to the philosophy of the FRL is that a leader will display each style to some degree (Bass & Avolio, 1994). The FRL allows for individuals to display a variety of leadership styles depending on the situation. As demonstrated in the literature review, in an optimal profile, a leader would exhibit transformational leadership characteristics more frequently than he or she would transactional or laissez-faire characteristics.

The MLQ has three distinct forms: the multi-rater, rater-only, and self-only. The average completion time to take the MLQ is 15 minutes (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Within the parameters of this study, the self-only form is used. The self-only form is a 45-item survey represented in a Likert-scale format. Participants assess the frequency of the behavior described by each item on a scale, which includes the following phrases “not at all,” “once in a while,” “fairly often,” and “frequently, if not always” (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 16). When a participant completes the MLQ, the instrument’s data will provide the framework for the creation of an FRL profile. The profile is comprised of three classes of leadership preference: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire (Antonakis & House, 2008). Moreover, there are nine dimensions in the MLQ: idealized influence–attributes, idealized influence–behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception–active, management-by-exception–passive, and laissez-faire. The dimensions are described in detail in the literature review.

The MLQ was developed by exploratory methods and then tested in the field through the use of formal confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Antonakis, 2001). Since its conception in the 1980s, the MLQ has experienced a number of changes to more efficiently measure the FRL.

Early criticisms of the MLQ, such as lacking construct validity, were considered in the latest modifications of the MLQ (Avolio et al., 1995). Avolio et al. (1995) demonstrated through structural equation modeling that the latest MLQ, often referred to as MLQ 5X, has shown evidence for its improved reliability and validity coefficients.

Through structural-equation modeling, Antonakis (2001) affirmed that the nine-factor model has been found to be invariant. Measuring invariance involves testing the measured constructs to assure the same constructs are being assessed in a variety of groups (Chen, Sousa, & West, 2005). The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the MLQ dimensions are: idealized influence–attributed (0.86), idealized influence–behavior (0.87), inspirational motivation (0.91), intellectual stimulation (0.90), individualized consideration (0.90), contingent reward (0.87), management-by-exception–active (0.74), management-by-exception–passive (0.82), laissez-faire (0.83) (Antonakis, 2001). With no alpha score lower than $\alpha = 0.74$, the MLQ represents a reliable means by which FRL may be measured. Antonakis (2001) found the average variance extracted from each factor was mostly satisfactory.

A weakness of the MLQ is related to the discriminant validity of the transformational dimensions. Antonakis (2001) recognized a high inter-correlation between these particular dimensions. Some researchers see the transformational leadership behaviors as not representing individual dimensions, but a single construct of transformational leadership (Carless, 1998; Tracey & Hinkin, 1998). However, Antonakis (2001) noted that on a number of occasions Bass and Avolio (1994, 1997) argue that the interrelation of the transformational dimensions is due to their mutually reinforcing relationship.

Research Questions

Six research questions were used in this study. The first question focused on student self-perception. Questions two through six assessed the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

Research Question 1: To what degree do participants in the study perceive themselves as transformational leaders?

H₀: Participants in the study do not perceive themselves as transformational leaders to a statistically significant degree.

Research Question 2: Of the five transformational leadership dimensions, which one best predicts the likelihood of a leader being transformational?

H₂: The dimension of idealized influence will represent the most robust correlate of transformational leadership.

Research Question 3: Considering the independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities associated with the campus model, which variables represent the most robust correlate of transformational leadership?

H₀: The independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities do not correlate with transformational leadership.

Research Question 4: Considering the independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities associated with the campus model, which variables represent the most robust correlate of transactional leadership?

H₀: The independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities do not correlate with transactional leadership.

Research Question 5: Considering the independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities associated with the campus model, which of variables represent the most robust correlate of laissez-faire leadership?

H₀: The independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities do not correlate with laissez-faire leadership.

Research Question 6: Considering study participant scores on the domains of transactional and laissez-faire leadership, which represented the most robust correlate and predictor of transformational leadership?

H₀: Neither of the two domains represented as covariates in the predictive model will be statistically significant correlates or predictors of participant transformational leadership score.

Data Analysis

Preliminary Analyses

Prior to addressing the stated research questions of this study, three preliminary analyses were conducted. The analyses included missing data, internal consistency (reliability) of participant response to the survey instrument, and essential demographic information. Missing data were assessed using both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques. Frequency counts (*n*) and percentages (%) represented the primary descriptive statistical techniques used to assess missing data. Little's missing completely at random (MCAR) test statistic was foreseen to be utilized to assess the randomness of missing data. An MCAR value of $p > .05$ was to be considered indicative of missing data that are sufficiently random in nature. A statistically significant MCAR and a noteworthy frequency and percentage of missing data may prompt the use of the multiple imputation technique; in the case of this study, the technique was not needed.

The internal consistency (reliability) of participant response to the study's research instrument (survey) was evaluated using the Cronbach's alpha test statistic. Statistical significance ($p < .05$) for internal consistency of participant responses was evaluated using the F test. Essential study participant demographic information was assessed using descriptive statistical techniques. Frequency counts (n), percentages (%), measures of central tendency (mean) and variability (standard deviation) represented the primary descriptive statistical techniques used to analyze and report the study's essential demographic information.

Analysis by Research Question

Research Question 1 addressed the degree to which participants perceive themselves as transformational leaders. The broader benchmark for displaying transformational leadership behaviors is a rating between 3 and 4. The established test score for this research question was 3.50. The test score was chosen because a score of 3.50 averaged across all transformational dimensions represents a score that is in the 75th percentile for individual self-rating scores in the US (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The responses were analyzed on a group and campus level, using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The group level analysis of the first research question focused on the degree to which ministry students at ARC regional campuses, as a whole, perceived themselves as transformational leaders. As such, the single sample t test was used to evaluate the statistical significance of participant response at the group level. The Cohen's d test statistic was used to assess the magnitude of effect (effect size) of the finding. Cohen's conventions were utilized in the interpretation of measures of effect size.

Research Questions 2 through 6 were predictive in nature involving multiple independent predictor variables. As such, the multiple linear regression test statistic was used to assess the predictive robustness of respective independent variables within the predictive models. The

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) was used to assess the mathematical relationship of the independent variables with regard to the dependent variable in each predictive model. Statistical significance was indicated with a p value of .05 or less. Predictive model fitness was assessed through ANOVA Table F values. ANOVA F values of $p < .05$ were indicative of predictive model fitness. Additionally, R^2 values represented the basis for the evaluation of predictive effect. The formula $R^2 / 1 - R^2 (f^2)$ was used to calculate the effect size of the predictive model. The statistical significance of predictive effect was interpreted through the respective slope (t) values of independent predictor variables. Predictive slope values of $p < .05$ were considered as statistically significant. Predictive effect sizes were converted to Cohen's d values for interpretative purposes. Cohen's conventions were utilized in the interpretation of all effect size values. Study data was exclusively analyzed, interpreted, and reported using IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 25.

Conclusion

Chapter three contained a presentation of the essential methodological components of the study. The chapter presented six research questions and how they were analyzed through SPSS. The independent variables addressed in the introduction have influenced the transformational leadership scores of ministry students. The results of this study revealed what factors represented the strongest correlate of transformational leadership development in ministry students.

IV. RESULTS

Association of Related Churches (ARC) regional campuses do not currently have any systems in place to measure transformational leadership development amongst their ministry students. The ministry program represents the largest population of students within the regional campuses. The primary degrees pursued are the associate and bachelor of ministerial leadership. Because of the emphasis placed on leadership development within the degrees, there was a need to assess what variables displayed the most robust correlation to higher transformational leadership scores.

The study consisted of five field meetings with a total of 125 students fully completing the survey. At each field meeting, the researcher presented the basic tenets of transformational leadership; the presentation took on average 15 minutes. After the presentation, students had the opportunity to ask questions about transformational leadership. Following the Q & A, students had the opportunity to take the transformational leadership survey. All the students who were present for the presentation took the survey. A total of 222 students had the opportunity to attend the field meetings and take the survey. Field meetings were held at the following locations: Bayside Community Church (Bradenton, FL), Celebration Church (Jacksonville, FL), Christ Fellowship Church (Palm Beach Gardens, FL), Grace Family Church (Lutz, FL), and Meadowbrook Church (Ocala, FL).

The survey contained 65 questions and was administered online using CheckMarket. The survey contained 20 demographic and programmatic questions and included the 45-item Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The demographic and programmatic questions served as the independent variables for this study: they were campus location, class level, campus church attendance, GPA, years in practicum, leadership team, leadership courses, mission trips, monthly chapels, and leading volunteer teams. The way these variables were used in this study was to examine whether there was a change in the Full Range Leadership (FRL) scores as the variables increased. Because most of the variables related to either time or number, such as number of leadership related courses taken, the study looked at whether more time or a higher number in a set variable equated to a more optimal FRL score. As an example, were senior students likelier to have a more optimal FRL score than freshman, sophomore, and junior students? The independent variables were chosen for this study because they represent a wide range of activities in a student's experience at his or her regional campus. Looking across a wide spectrum of variables has the potential to allow unexpected transformational leadership influences to emerge. As shown in the literature review, transformational leadership is the amalgamation of different attributes, strengths, and characteristics that lead to both internal and external behaviors (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The expectation of this study was that the leadership-focused variables, such as overseeing teams, taking leadership courses, and being a part of the student leadership team, would represent the most robust correlation to an optimal FRL rating.

The current chapter displays the results of the data analysis related to transformational leadership and ARC regional campuses. After presenting preliminary analyses, the analyses of the single sample *t* test and multiple linear regression are presented. The results of the study

show the relationship between demographic and programmatic variables and ministry students' transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire scores as determined by the MLQ.

Preliminary Analyses

In advance of the formal address of the study's research questions, preliminary analyses were conducted. Specifically, assessments of missing data, internal consistency of participant response (reliability), and essential demographic information were addressed using a variety of statistical approaches. The study's missing data were minimal at .80% ($n = 45$). The study's percentage of missing data is well below the generally established threshold range 5% to 10% (Bennett, 2001), and as such, statistical imputation methods were not considered for application with the study's data set. The internal consistency of participant response to the study's research instrument items was very high for the transformational domain ($\alpha = 0.83$; $p < .001$). Moreover, the internal consistency of participant response to the study's research instrument items for all three domains combined (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) was manifested at a similarly high degree ($\alpha = 0.84$; $p < .001$). Table 14 represents the sample demographic of the survey.

Table 14

Sample Demographic

Demographic	<i>n</i>	%
<u>Gender</u>		
Male	64	51.2
Female	61	48.8
<u>Campus Location</u>		
Meadowbrook	36	28.8
Bayside	35	28.0
Grace Family	19	15.2

Celebration	18	14.4
Christ Fellowship	17	13.6

Class Level

Freshman	34	27.2
Sophomore	35	28.0
Junior	36	28.8
Senior	20	16

Ethnicity

Caucasian	68	54.4
Hispanic	31	24.8
African American	18	14.4
Asian/Pacific Islander	5	4.2
Other	3	2.2

GPA

4.00-3.50	44	35.2
3.49-3.00	49	39.2
2.99-2.00	28	22.4
1.99-1.00	4	3.2

Years in Practicum

4 years	6	4.8
3 years	19	15.2
2 years	31	24.8
1 year	64	51.2
None	5	4.0

Leadership Team

Yes	66	52.8
No	59	47.2

Leadership Courses

5 Courses	6	4.8
4 Courses	12	9.6
3 Courses	12	9.6

2 Courses	20	16.0
1 Courses	30	23.6
None	45	35.4
<u>Mission Trips</u>		
4 or More	4	3.2
3	3	2.4
2	8	6.4
1	40	32
0	70	56
<u>Monthly Chapels</u>		
4 or More	48	74.4
3	4	3.2
2	1	0.8
1	19	15.2
0	8	6.4
<u>Attend Church at Their Campus</u>		
Yes	107	85.6
No	18	14.4
<u>Leading a Volunteer Team</u>		
Yes	57	45.6
No	68	54.4

Findings by Research Question

Research Question 1: To what degree do participants in the study perceive themselves as transformational leaders?

Using the single sample *t* test to assess the statistical significance of difference in the mean score of the study's sample and the established test mean for transformational leadership, the sample's transformational leadership mean score of 2.92 (SD = 0.46) was statistically significantly lower than the established test mean of 3.50 ($p < 0.001$). Moreover, the magnitude

of effect in the comparison was large ($d \geq .80$). In light of the statistically significant finding favoring the test value for transformational leadership, the null hypothesis ($H_0 1$) for Research Question 1 is retained: Participants in the study do not perceive themselves as transformational leaders to a statistically significant degree. The mean score for transactional was 2.30 and for laissez-faire was 1.00; these averages were consistent with the validated benchmark within the FRL. Table 15 contains a summary of finding for the comparison of the study sample's transformational leadership with the established test value for transformational leadership.

Table 15

Evaluating Study Participant Transformational Leadership Level

Groups	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>d</i>
Study Sample	2.92	0.46	-14.03***	-1.26 ^a
Test Value	3.50			

*** $p < .001$ ^a Large Effect Size

Research Question 2: Of the five transformational leadership dimensions, which one contributed the most significant predictive effect in overall transformational leadership?

Using multiple linear regression to assess the associative relationships between the five covariates and the dependent variable (transformational leadership), the domain of idealized influence (attribution) was the only covariate to exert a statistically significant predictive effect ($p = 0.001$). The confluence of covariates accounted for 27.8% ($R^2 = .278$) of the variance found in the predictive model's dependent variable transformational leadership. The predictive effect for the domain of idealized influence (attributed) was considered approximating a large effect ($d = .75$). The predictive model utilized in Research Question 2 was viable ($F_{(5, 119)} = 9.16; p < 0.001$). All assumptions for multiple linear regression were satisfied in the predictive modeling assessment process. In light of the statistically significant finding for the domain of idealized

influence (attributed), the alternative research hypothesis ($H_a 2$) is retained: The dimension of idealized influence (attributed) represents the robust correlate of transformational leadership.

Table 16 contains a summary of finding for Research Question 2.

Table 16

Predicting Overall Transformational Leadership from Individual Domains

Model	β	SE	Standardized β
Intercept	0.94	0.24	
Idealized Influence–Attributes (IA)	0.27	0.28	0.35***
Idealized Influence–Behaviors (IB)	0.11	0.10	0.13
Inspirational Motivation (IM)	-0.12	0.09	-0.14
Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	0.12	0.08	0.14
Individualized Consideration (IC)	0.11	0.09	0.13

*** $p = .001$

Research Question 3: Considering the independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities associated with the campus model, which represent the most robust correlates to *transformational* leadership?

Using multiple linear regression to assess the associative relationships between the demographic and programmatic covariates and the dependent variable (transformational leadership), participant grade point average (GPA) was the only covariate in the predictive model to exert a statistically significant predictive effect ($p = 0.02$). The confluence of covariates accounted for 13.7% ($R^2 = .137$) of the variance found in the predictive model’s dependent variable transformational leadership.

The predictive effect for the covariate GPA was considered approximating a moderate effect ($d = .45$). The predictive model utilized in Research Question #3 was viable ($F_{(10, 114)} = 1.82; p < 0.10$). All assumptions for multiple linear regression were satisfied in the predictive

modeling assessment process. In light of the statistically significant finding for the covariate GPA, the null hypothesis (H_0 3) for Research Question #3 is rejected: None of the independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities will represent statistically significant correlates with and predictors of transformational leadership. Table 17 contains a summary of finding for Research Question 3.

Table 17

Predicting Transformational leadership from Demographic and Programmatic Variables

Model	β	SE	Standardized β
Intercept	2.80	0.27	
Campus Location	-0.03	0.03	-0.09
Class Level	-0.03	0.05	-0.06
Campus Church Attendance	-0.06	0.12	-0.04
GPA	0.12	0.05	0.22*
Years in Practicum	0.06	0.05	0.12
Leadership Team	-0.01	0.09	-0.01
Leadership Courses	-0.03	0.03	-0.10
Mission Trips	-0.05	0.05	-0.11
Monthly Chapels	-0.03	0.03	-0.12
Leading Volunteer Team	0.11	0.09	0.11

* $p = 0.02$

Research Question 4: Considering the independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities associated with the campus model, which of the following represent the most robust correlates to *transactional* leadership?

Using multiple linear regression to assess the associative relationships between the demographic and programmatic covariates and the dependent variable (transactional leadership), participant enrollment in leadership courses was the only covariate to exert a statistically

significant, inverse predictive effect ($p = 0.02$). The confluence of covariates accounted for 15.5% ($R^2 = .155$) of the variance found in the predictive model's dependent variable transactional leadership.

The predictive effect for the covariate of enrollment in leadership courses was considered moderate ($d = .56$). The predictive model utilized in Research Question 4 was viable ($F_{(10, 114)} = 2.09$; $p = 0.03$). All assumptions for multiple linear regression were satisfied in the predictive modeling assessment process. In light of the statistically significant finding for the covariate of leadership course enrollment, the null hypothesis ($H_0 4$) for Research Question 4 is rejected: None of independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities will represent statistically significant correlates with and predictors of transactional leadership. Table 18 contains a summary of finding for Research Question 4.

Table 18

Predicting Transactional Leadership from Demographic and Programmatic Variables

Model	β	SE	Standardized β
Intercept	2.36	0.27	
Campus Location	-0.03	0.03	-0.10
Class Level	0.02	0.05	0.03
Campus Church Attendance	-0.06	0.12	-0.04
GPA	0.07	0.05	0.13
Years in Practicum	0.04	0.06	0.08
Leadership Team	-0.05	0.10	-0.05
Leadership Courses	-0.09	0.04	-0.27*
Mission Trips	-0.01	0.05	-0.03
Monthly Chapels	-0.04	0.03	-0.15
Leading Volunteer Team	0.14	0.09	0.14

* $p = .02$

Research Question 5: Considering the independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities associated with the campus model, which of the following represent the most robust correlates to *laissez-faire* leadership?

Using multiple linear regression to assess the associative relationships between the demographic and programmatic covariates and the dependent variable (*laissez-faire* leadership), none of the 10 covariates exerted a statistically significant predictive effect upon the dependent variable *laissez-faire* leadership. The confluence of covariates accounted for 4.2% ($R^2 = .042$) of the variance found in the predictive model's dependent variable *laissez-faire* leadership. Mathematical relationships between the 10 covariates and the dependent variable are described as trivial to weak.

The predictive model utilized in Research Question 5 was not viable ($F_{(10, 114)} = 0.51; p = 0.88$). All assumptions for multiple linear regression were satisfied in the predictive modeling assessment process. In light of the non-statistically significant finding for the covariates, the null hypothesis ($H_0 5$) for Research Question 5 is retained: None of independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities will represent statistically significant correlates with and predictors of *laissez-faire* leadership. Table 19 contains a summary of finding for Research Question 5.

Table 19

Predicting Laissez-Faire leadership from Demographic and Programmatic Variables

Model	β	SE	Standardized β
Intercept	1.47	0.37	
Campus Location	-0.04	0.05	-0.09
Class Level	-0.04	0.07	-0.07
Campus Church Attendance	-0.19	0.16	-0.11

GPA	0.01	0.07	0.01
Years in Practicum	-0.02	0.08	-0.03
Leadership Team	0.09	0.13	0.07
Leadership Courses	-0.02	0.05	-0.05
Mission Trips	-0.04	0.07	-0.07
Monthly Chapels	-0.02	0.04	-0.07
Leading Volunteer Team	-0.02	0.12	-0.02

Research Question 6: Considering study participant scores on the domains of transactional and laissez-faire leadership, which represents the most robust correlate of transformational leadership?

Using multiple linear regression to assess the associative relationships between the two domain covariates and the dependent variable (transformational leadership), both covariates exerted a statistically significant predictive effect ($p < .001$) upon the dependent variable transformational leadership. Participant scores on the transactional leadership domain exerted a large (approaching very large), direct predictive effect in the research question’s comparison ($d = 1.12$). Considering the two elements of transactional leadership, the element of contingent reward (CR) represented the most robust, statistically significant predictor of transformational leadership ($p < .001$). The predictive effect of $d = 1.25$ for CR is considered approximately a very large effect size ($d \geq 1.30$). The non-statistically significant predictive effect of $d = .20$ for management by exception (MBE) is considered small. Participant score on the laissez-faire domain exerted an inverse predictive effect upon transformational leadership considered to be approaching a large effect ($d = .70$). The confluence of the two covariates accounted for 32.6% ($R^2 = .326$) of the variance found in the predictive model’s dependent variable transformational leadership.

The predictive model utilized in Research Question 6 was viable ($F_{(2, 122)} = 29.57; p < .001$). All assumptions for multiple linear regression were satisfied in the predictive modeling assessment process. In light of the statistically significant predictive effect exerted by both transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership scores, the null hypothesis (H_0 6) for Research Question 6 is rejected: Neither of the two domains represented as covariates in the predictive model will be statistically significant correlates or predictors of participant transformational leadership score. Table 20 contains a summary of finding for Research Question 6.

Table 20

Predicting Transformational Leadership from Transactional and Laissez-Faire Leadership

Model	β	SE	Standardized β
Intercept	2.09	0.17	
Transactional	0.47	0.07	0.49***
Laissez-Faire	-0.25	0.06	-0.33***

*** $p < .001$

Conclusion

Students in this study did not perceive themselves as transformational leaders to a statistically significant degree. Idealized influence–attributed represents the most robust correlate of transformational leadership, GPA had a moderate effect on increased transformational scores, and enrolled in leadership courses had a moderate inverse effect on transactional scores. Nothing significant was discovered relating to laissez-faire. The discussion in Chapter V presents the implications of these results.

V. DISCUSSION

The current study evaluated what elements of a ministry student's experience in the regional campus model at Southeastern University (SEU) most effectively correlated to higher transformational leadership scores. The study was quantitative, non-experimental, survey research measuring ministry students' self-perception of transformational leadership. The study also investigated which variables had the strongest correlation to higher or lower transactional and laissez-faire scores. While many studies have focused on the correlation between thriving churches and transformational leadership (Adams, 2010; Bae, 2001; Fogarty, 2013; Onnen, 1987; Rumley, 2011; White, 2012), little has been said on the relationship between transformational leadership and ministry students. The goal of this research was to fill in the gap.

Leading in a church is a unique context; unlike for-profit organizations, churches are primarily led by volunteers. To thrive in a church context, pastors need to understand how to lead volunteers. Transformational leaders inspire followers to look beyond their own interests, show concern for others, and help to inspire greater commitment to the vision of the organization (Bass & Avolio, 1994). These are vital characteristics to have in leading teams of volunteers. By focusing on transformational leadership at the ministry student level, the results of this research should help regional campus and church leaders better understand how to develop young pastors early in their ministry careers into becoming transformational leaders. The following chapter is a summary of the research findings and a discussion on the implications of

what was discovered. Included in the chapter are practical implications based on the findings, limitations of the study, and suggestions for further research.

Preliminary Analysis

To ensure accuracy, preliminary analyses were conducted on the data set. The study's missing data were minimal at .80% ($n = 45$). The percent of missing data were well below the threshold, and thus no statistical imputation methods were needed for the data set. Internal consistency of student responses were high across all three domains (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire). No issues with the data set were found from the preliminary analysis.

Discussion of Findings

Research Question 1: To what degree do participants in the study perceive themselves as transformational leaders?

The mean score for ministry students of 2.92 (SD = 0.46) was statistically significantly lower than the established test mean of 3.50 ($p < .001$). In light of this, the hypothesis for Research Question 1, which stated that participants in the study would not perceive themselves as transformational leaders to a statistically significant degree, is retained. Although the mean score for ministry students was below the established mean, a score of 2.92 is just outside of the broader benchmark for transformational leadership, which is a score between 3.0 and 4.0. Therefore, the scores should not be over-evaluated in comparison to the established mean. Because the population was comprised of students, the researcher expected that the scores would be lower than the established mean of seasoned leaders. The researcher theorized this because becoming a leader takes time; ministry students are still early in the leadership development process. The lower score helps to establish the validity of the dataset; had the mean been higher,

the assumption would be that the self-perception scores were inflated. The implications of the finding confirm the need to evaluate the leadership development process within regional campuses. The overall mean reveals transformational leadership scores in ministry students can increase. One potential solution relates to identity theory.

Ibarra, Wittman, Petriglieri, and Day (2014) have recognized that “identity has emerged as a potent force in understanding leadership” (p. 1). Ibarra et al. (2014) noted that the notion of identity has received little attention until recently, with the previous focus being on the formal position or roles an individual occupies. Recent perspectives have revealed a close connection between leadership and identity processes (Carroll & Levy, 2010; Ibarra et al., 2014; Lord & Hall, 2005; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2005). A leader’s identity greatly plays into his or her effectiveness and development (Ibarra et al., 2014). Identity is the self-conception based on social roles and group memberships that a person holds (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001). The sense of identity shape questions such as “Who am I?” “Who do other people think I am?” and, in a ministry context, “What kind of pastor am I?” Questions like these begin to form thinking which leads to behavior. The identity of *leader* combines individual, relational, and collective identities, which are shaped by what the individual does and does not know and the experiences the individual has (Ibarra et al., 2014).

Because ministry students do not take any leadership courses until their third year, they have not been introduced to foundational leadership theories. Their leadership construct is based on their experiences in and out of the program and by what is modeled from faculty, staff, and pastors. To supplement these experiences, students could benefit by being taught the different leadership theories of trait, contingency, servant, authentic, transformational, and other various theories, from the start of their academic career. Adding Northouse’s (2018) *Leadership: Theory*

and Practice to one of the leadership courses in the degree could accomplish this. The theories along with their previous experiences would allow students to create a mental model for leadership that is grounded in both experience and theory. From this cognitive base, students would be able to develop a framework to evaluate their own leadership identity. Exposing students to these theories early in their academic career would help them be able to assess areas of growth and weaknesses in their leadership identity.

Students are told from when they begin at these regional campuses that they are leaders, but they are not given a mental construct of leadership until their final two years of coursework. The focus of the practicum at these campuses is on training the students for certain ministry positions, such as a worship or student pastor, but when students understand their leadership identity, they have the capacity to see themselves beyond the formal position they will someday occupy (Ibarra et al., 2014). Leadership identities become more salient through use and necessity (Ibarra et al., 2014). If ministry students are able to identify certain transformational leadership behaviors in themselves freshman year, there is the potential for increased transformational leadership behaviors and attributes to develop over their academic career.

The broader implication of this result is the need for churches to evaluate how they are developing young pastors in their first ministry role. If students are graduating with transformational leadership scores that are below the benchmark standard, then there is a need for church leaders to evaluate their leadership development process for young pastors. Higher scores are of particular importance for when the churches in this study hire students from their own campus. Because these are larger churches, the demand is present for more leaders.

Research Question 2: Of the five transformational leadership dimensions which one contributed the most significant predictive effect in overall transformational leadership?

The only domain to have a statistically significant predictive effect was idealized influence–attributes. In light of this, the alternative research hypothesis that idealized influence–attributes would be the most robust correlate is retained. In the FRL, leaders who scored high in idealized influence are admired, respected, and trusted (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Bass and Avolio (2004) have split the construct into two categories: idealized influence–attributes and idealized influence–behaviors. Attributes emphasize the ideals of displaying a sense of power and confidence; followers identify with the leaders and want to emulate them, and leaders are endowed by their followers as having extraordinary capabilities, persistence, and determination (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p. 2).

A culture of notoriety exists within megachurches. Pastors who lead these churches are preaching to thousands of people each week. As noted in this study, the average congregation size at these campuses was 13,127, and these numbers do not include those who listen and watch online. Modern globalization allows ministry students to have access to pastors, with whom, 30 years ago, they would have had no association, but websites like YouTube and Vimeo enable them to view the weekly sermons of the most influential churches in the US. Through social media platforms like Twitter and Instagram, students have access into the lives of these pastors. Platforms like these give students snapshots into the public life of these leaders, but not their private life, because most of these platforms are curated and run by church staff.

A core dimension in Kouzes and Posner’s (2012) transformational leadership instrument is the concept of “modeling the way.” In this construct, leaders set the example by creating standards of excellence for others to follow (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Modeling the way is done on both explicit and implicit levels. Students see their lead pastors passionately preaching to large crowds on the weekends, and they see them casting a compelling vision in weekly staff

meetings. Normally this is the only interaction they have with senior leadership. Though it may not be intentional, what many young ministry students see exemplified in their lead pastors seems to be an emphasis on idealized influence—attributes and inspirational motivation; their behavior is adapted to follow what they see modeled.

As noted through the critiques of Conger (1989, 1990), Kellerman (2000, 2004), and Tourish (2013), when one aspect of transformational leadership is elevated at the expense of the other dimensions, the potential exists for a pseudo-transformational leadership to develop. One potential solution to addressing the imbalance is to build a mentoring program through the ministry practicum that focuses on the other dimensions found within transformational leadership. Creating an intentional mentoring structure could possibly model a new way for students to understand what it looks like to become a transformational leader.

Research Question 3: Considering the independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities associated with the campus model, which represents the most robust correlate and predictor of *transformational* leadership?

The most robust correlate of transformational leadership was the covariate GPA, having a moderate predictive effect. GPA represents the only independent variable to have any significant correlation to transformational leadership scores. In view of this, the null hypothesis was rejected. GPA was shown to be positively correlated to transformational leadership. The researcher's assumptions were that years in the practicum and leading volunteer teams would represent the strongest correlation, neither of which were statistically significant. The results are not consistent with the findings of Gannouni and Ramboarison-Lalao (2018), who, using the Leadership Practice Inventory (LPI), did not find a predictive effect between transformational leadership and GPA. Contributing factors could be the difference between the MLQ and LPI,

differences between extension site students and traditional students, or that Gannouni and Ramboarison-Lalao used international students as their population.

Although the effect is only moderate, the result has some implications. If campus leaders want to develop transformational leaders, they may want to evaluate what practices they have in place to foster a strong academic culture. Regional campus leaders may consider using Schreiner, McIntosh, Nelson, and Pothoven's (2009) Thriving Quotient as a baseline assessment on their students to establish what academic processes and procedures would allow for a greater percentage of students to succeed academically.

Research Question 4: Considering the independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities associated with the campus model, which of the following represents the most robust correlate and predictor of *transactional* leadership?

The most robust correlate and predictor of transactional leadership was the covariate enrollment in leadership courses, which had an inverse effect. The more leadership courses students had taken, the less transactional they became. The predictive effect was moderate. In light of this, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Although taking more leadership courses is correlated to being less transactional, no statistically significant correlation was found between students taking leadership courses and becoming more transformational. The possibility exists that taking more leadership courses does not lead to becoming more transformational in general, but the more likely disconnect is that the current leadership courses offered in the ministry degree do not emphasize the different dimensions of transformational leadership. With the practical nature of the ministry degree, the leadership courses offered such as church business administration, multi-staff ministry, and practical theology of the laity are more focused on ministry practice than on leadership theory.

Research Question 5: Considering the independent demographic and programmatic leadership activities associated with the campus model, which of the following represent the most robust correlate and predictor of *laissez-faire* leadership?

No robust correlates were found for *laissez-faire* leadership. In light of this, the null hypothesis is retained. *Laissez-faire* represents the avoidance of leadership; therefore, it is encouraging to find that none of the demographic or programmatic elements contributed to the development of this dimension.

Research Question 6: Considering study participant scores on the domains of transactional and *laissez-faire* leadership, which represented the most robust correlate and predictor of transformational leadership?

Transactional leadership (contingent reward) represented a significant correlation to transformational leadership. *Laissez-faire* represented a significant correlated inverse effect on transformational leadership. As contingent reward increases, so does transformational; as *laissez-faire* shrinks, transformational grows; and the converse was also found for each. In light of this, the null hypothesis was rejected. The results confirm Bass' (1999) notion that transformational leadership and transactional leadership (contingent reward) work effectively together. The best leaders exhibit both transformational and transactional traits (Bass, 1985, 1999; Waldman, Bass, & Yammarino, 1990).

Study Limitations

Five major limitations exist within this study: generalizability, response size, response bias, researcher bias, and study design. Generalizability is a weakness of this study because of the narrow focus. All students surveyed were from five regional campuses that are a part of SEU, a single, private, Christian university in the southern part of the United States. Gay et al.

(2012) noted that although the more narrowed the study, the less generalizable it becomes, in a natural setting it is difficult to control extraneous variables. Though lacking broad generalizability, the research should be found valuable for extension sites and regional campuses working with SEU and extension sites that are working with similar Christian colleges and universities.

Regarding response size, the population of this study was only 222 students, with 125 students participating in the study. The sample was small in comparison to the total SEU student population of over 7,000. Although the response rate was strong with acceptable levels, the rate was below the desired amount of 200 students.

The study utilized self-reported data gathered on ministry students. Self-reported surveys can lead to response bias, where participants will respond in a way that is socially desirable (Nederhof, 1985). The bias can lead to over-reporting good traits and under-reporting bad traits (Nederhof, 1985). Had the study utilized the 360-degree MLQ, the biases could have been addressed. Having used only a self-reporting instrument, social desirability was limited by guaranteeing response confidentiality and anonymity. The confidentiality was confirmed in the consent form and at the field studies conducted by the researcher.

A researcher bias existed in this study because the researcher was previously employed by SEU and currently oversees one of the regional campuses that were evaluated. Because of the close connection between the researcher and the university, the researcher tried to maintain objectivity by remaining unbiased during the field studies. Using an established instrument rather than an instrument created by the researcher addressed the issue of leading questions and wording bias that can arise when a researcher overestimates his or her understanding of participant response (Malhorta, Hall, Shaw, & Oppenheim, 2007). Using the MLQ also allowed

the researcher to avoid question-order bias, where one question influences the questions that follow.

Another weakness present in the study was the quantitative and cross-sectional design of the survey. As a quantitative study, the research was limited in scope, with data collected from only one survey. Had the design been a mixed-methods approach, a richer depth of analysis could have been uncovered through the use of interviews and observations. The cross-sectional design did not allow for variables to be evaluated over any length of time.

Implications for Future Practice

Churches depend on leaders who can motivate, inspire, stimulate, and care for the volunteers who move forward the shared vision of the organization (Fogarty, 2013; Riggio, Bass, & Orr, 2004). If colleges, seminaries, and ministry training programs are going to prepare students for leading in a church environment, time should be spent on evaluating what measures are put in place to foster transformational leadership within their students. The study identified six of the most common transformational instruments and utilized the MLQ directly to measure self-perception of transformational leadership in ministry students.

Socrates said, “The unexamined life is not worth living” (West, 1979). If students can become more aware of the dimensions of transformational leadership, then they can begin to process how to develop these behaviors and attributes in their own leadership. Having the opportunity to take the MLQ or another transformational leadership instrument earlier in their academic career would aid them in identifying areas of growth and weakness. In addition, having access to this data for campus directors could help directors understand how to best coach and train their students into becoming transformational leaders. Leadership is developed over a long span of time through continuous learning, experience, development, and reflection.

Although a student's awareness of transformation leadership is not the end-all, the awareness does help aid in his or her development as a leader.

Related to this concept would be for the university to provide transformational leadership training for the campus directors and practicum coaches. Some of the campus leaders may not be aware of the nuances found in transformational leadership. The training could also help to correct the overemphasis that seems to be placed on developing idealized influence within students.

Recognizing the correlation between GPA and higher transformational leadership scores, regional campus leaders would do well to evaluate what modalities they have in place to foster a strong academic culture. As previously addressed, campus leaders could consider using the Thriving Quotient as an assessment to evaluate the current student success measurements taking place at their location. Campus leaders should be deliberate in helping their students recognize that excelling in their courses will help them become better leaders. Ministry college professors could also instill transformational leadership by evaluating the leadership courses that they offer. At SEU, PMIN 4023 Leadership Development was recently revised to include two books by Kouzes and Posner (2012, 2016) that emphasize transformational leadership.

Recommendations for Future Research

The results of this study show that future research should be focused on implicit biases that may be held by students or campus staff regarding certain aspects of transformational leadership. A phenomenological study could be done to uncover what the essence of transformational leadership is to ministry students and campus staff. Understanding the biases and perceptions that exist would provide greater clarity related to regional campuses and transformational leadership development.

Future studies incorporating students' self-ratings with the 360-degree ratings of their campus leadership, practicum coaches, and professors would likely yield a more accurate description of the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire ratings of ministry students. Related to this, value would come from campus leadership, practicum coaches, and professors rating themselves, alongside student ratings of their leadership. The results could create awareness of the current leadership development culture being fostered at these regional campuses.

Beyond transformational leadership, future researchers should evaluate larger leadership questions such as "What kind of leaders are ministry schools are developing?" "Is it the role of ministry schools to develop leaders?" "Do regional campuses serve a different function than the traditional campus in developing leaders?" Regional campus leaders have a lot of processes related to leadership development, but are the campus leaders effectively developing leaders?

Lastly, researchers should consider a mixed-methods longitudinal study that examines the relationship between transformational leadership in ministry students over time. Are students who graduate with high transformational leadership scores thriving in ministry five to 10 years later? A related longitudinal study could be done to evaluate whether continual training in transformational leadership post-college leads to a more thriving ministry for the student.

Conclusion

The current study evaluated the relationship between transformational leadership and SEU regional campuses and revealed the current state of transformational leadership at these locations. Churches have a vital role in the community; they are meant to be beacons of hope and life that point to the freedom found in following Jesus. Transformational leadership can serve as a helpful tool for ministry students to use within the pastorate. The desire of this

research is that it goes beyond SEU and helps other colleges, seminaries, and ministry training programs evaluate what kind of leaders they are developing. If the local church is the hope of the world, then that hope needs to be in the hands of able leaders.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Sample Items the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X Short

The following document is from MLQ Plus (“Sample Report”, n.d.). These questions provide example of the items that are used to evaluate the full range of leadership. The MLQ is provided in both self and rater forms. These questions are provided from Northouse’s text *Leadership Theory and Practice* (2015).

Key:	0 = Not at all	2 = Once in a while	3 = Fairly often	4 = Frequently, if not always
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Transformational Leadership Styles

Idealized Influence (Attributes)	I go beyond self- interest for the good of the group.	0	1	2	3	4
Idealized Influence (Behaviors)	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
Inspirational Motivation	I talk optimistically about the future.	0	1	2	3	4
Intellectual Stimulation	I reexamine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
Individualized Consideration	I help others to develop their strengths.	0	1	2	3	4

Transactional Leadership Styles

Contingent Reward	I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.	0	1	2	3	4
Management by Exception: Active	I keep track of all mistakes	0	1	2	3	4

Passive/Avoidant Leadership Styles

Management by Exception: Passive	I wait for things to go wrong before taking action.	0	1	2	3	4
Laissez-Faire	I avoid making decisions.	0	1	2	3	4

Appendix B

CONSENT FORM SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY

PROJECT TITLE:

Transformational Leadership in the Association of Related Churches: A Cross-Sectional Examination of Ministry Students at Southeastern University Regional Campuses

INVESTIGATORS:

Doctoral Chair: Dr. Ric Rohm, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Business & Leadership

Methodologist: Dr. Tom Gollery, Ed.D., Professor of Education

Third Reader: Dr. Leroy VanWhy, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Business & Leadership

Researcher: Jordan Vale, Doctoral Student

PURPOSE:

The purpose of the proposed study is to assess the degree to which Association of Related Churches (ARC) regional campuses are developing transformational leaders. Ministry students at regional campuses are being asked to participate in this study. The hope of this research is that by taking the survey, participants will be helping their specific regional campus staff lead more effectively.

PROCEDURES:

You will complete one survey. The survey will contain demographic and programmatic questions and will include the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ). The MLQ is an instrument that measures transformational leadership. The survey will take approximately 20 minutes to take.

RISKS OF PARTICIPATION:

There are no known risks associated with this project which are greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life.

BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATION:

By taking the survey, participants will have a better understanding of their leadership preferences as measured by the MLQ and will help their specific regional campus staff lead more effectively.

CONFIDENTIALITY:

The records of this study will be kept private. Any written results will discuss group findings and will not include information that will identify you. Research records will be stored on a password protected computer in a locked office and only researchers and individuals responsible for research oversight will have access to the records.

COMPENSATION:

Each student who takes the survey will receive a \$5-dollar Starbucks gift card.

CONTACTS:

You may contact any of the researchers at the following emails should you desire to discuss your participation in the study and/or request information about the results of the study:

Doctoral Chair: Dr. Ric Rohm, Ph.D., fwroh@seu.edu

Methodologist: Dr. Tom Gollery, Ed.D., tjgollery@seu.edu

Third Reader: Dr. Leroy VanWhy, Ph.D., lpvanwhy@seu.edu

Researcher: Jordan Vale, jvale@seu.edu

PARTICIPANT RIGHTS:

I understand that my participation is voluntary, that there is no penalty for refusal to participate, and that I am free to withdraw my consent and participation in this project at any time, without penalty.

CONSENT DOCUMENTATION:

I have been fully informed about the procedures listed here. I am aware of what I will be asked to do and of the benefits of my participation. I also understand the following statement:

I affirm that I am 18 years of age or older.

I have read and fully understand this consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy of this form will be given to me. I hereby give permission for my participation in this study.

Signature of Participant

Date

I certify that I have personally explained this document before requesting that the participant sign it.

Signature of Researcher

Date

Appendix C

Transformational Leadership Survey

1. What is your name?

* 2. What is your age?

- 18
- 19
- 20
- 21
- 22
- 23-25
- 26-29
- 30-39
- 40-49
- 50-75

* 3. What is your gender?

- Female
- Male

* 4. Ethnicity origin (or Race): Please specify your ethnicity.

- White
- Black or African American
- Hispanic or Latino
- Native American or American Indian
- Asian / Pacific Islander
- Other

* 5. Marital status: What is your marital status?

- Single, never married
- Married
- Divorced
- Widowed
- Separated
- Prefer not to answer

* 6. Family Status: Do you have children?

- Yes
- No

* 7. Location: What campus do you attend?

- SEU at Bayside Community Church
- SEU at Celebration Church
- SEU at Christ Fellowship Church
- SEU at Grace Family Church
- SEU at Meadowbrook Church

* 8. Employment Status: Are you currently...?

- Employed full time (over 40 hours a week)
- Employed part time (up to 39 hours a week)
- Self-employed
- A homemaker
- A student
- Retired
- Unable to work

* 9. Household Income?

- Less than \$20,000
- \$20,000 to \$34,999
- \$35,000 to \$49,999
- \$50,000 to \$74,999
- \$75,000 to \$99,999
- Over \$100,000
- Prefer not to answer

* 10. What is your classification in college?

- Freshman/first-year
- Sophomore
- Junior
- Senior
- Unclassified

* 11. What degree are you enrolled in?

- Bachelor of Science in Ministerial Leadership
- Associate of Ministerial Leadership
- Associate of Worship Ministries
- Bachelor of Science in Worship Ministries

* 12. What is your current G.P.A.?

- 0.0-0.9
- 1.0-1.9
- 2.0-2.9
- 3.0-3.49
- 3.5-4.0

* 13. Do you attend the church where your campus is located?

- Yes
- No

* 14. How long have you been attending your campus?

- 1 year
- 2 years
- 3 years
- 4 years
- 5 or more years

* 15. How many years have you participated in the practicum (your site may call this your track)?

- I have not participated in the practicum
- 1 year
- 2 years
- 3 years
- 4 years

* 16. Do you currently lead a volunteer team at the church?

- Yes
- No

* 17. When school is in session, how often do you attend chapels at your campus?

- Once a month
- Twice a month
- Three times a month
- Four times a month
- More than four times a month
- My campus does not offer chapels, or I do not attend

* 18. How many mission trips have you gone on since becoming a student at your campus?

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5 or more

* 19. Have you been a part of a student leadership team within the regional campus?

- Yes
- No

* 20. How many leadership courses have you taken through SEU? The courses offered in the BSML and AML are: Leadership Development, Organizational Leadership, Multiple-Staff Ministry, Church Business Administration, and Practical Theology of the Laity.

0

1

2

3

4

5

Appendix D

Bachelor of Ministerial Leadership Course Descriptions

Course	Course Description
PMIN 3833 Organizational Leadership	A theology of leadership is developed upon which current trends in church organizations and leadership techniques are assessed. The history of organizational and management theory is developed, as well as organization, leadership, and group process theories. Planning, programming, budget, and evaluation are considered in relation to congregational programs. Other areas of management are presented on an introductory basis, such as planning and managing change in an organization, systems analysis, conflict management, and a review of leadership traits. This course requires careful study of and reflection upon the appropriate biblical texts.
PMIN 4023 Leadership Development	A theological rationale based upon the doctrine of the priesthood of the believer and the gifts of the Holy Spirit is developed with practical application for the recruitment and development of lay persons for ministry within the congregation and to the community. The course focuses on the identification of individual gifts and talents that persons may possess and the training of those individuals for various ministries. Styles of leadership are considered, administrative functions and multi-staff relationships.
PMIN 4163 Practical Theology of the Laity	This course is designed to help prepare pastors to train lay people to do the work of ministry in their work places, neighborhoods, and extended families.
PMIN 4323 Church Business Administration	A study of the various areas of pastoral responsibilities including board administrations and organizations, committee organization, leadership training, budgeting, financing, planning, auxiliary organizations and their relationship to total church program. This course requires careful study of and reflection upon the appropriate biblical texts.
PMIN 4423 Multiple-Staff Ministry	The meaning and forms of a multiple staff ministry will be developed on biblical values with the objectives of creating effective multiple-staff ministries and staff collegiality. The course assists the participant in the development of concepts and values that leads to commitments of shared ministry. Ways of dealing with

concerns and issues which created conflict and interfere with staff collegiality are examined.
