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Sports, Family, and Leadership in Youth: Impacts of Family Environments and Sport Participation on Youth Leadership Development

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Dedications and Acknowledgements

I want to dedicate this research project to the unwavering support and love of my wife, Amanda. Throughout the arduous journey of this endeavor, she has been an inexhaustible source of strength, providing constant encouragement, understanding, love, patience, and devoted belief in my abilities despite significant hardships. Her love for our family and her sacrifices have made this accomplishment possible. Her presence in my life has made my own much richer. Thank you for standing by my side and for being a constant source of light, love, and faith when my own heart faltered.

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Abstract

This study investigated the effects of family relationships/environment and sport participation on youth leadership development using the 2016 Minnesota Student Survey (MSS) questionnaire. Responses from 9th and 11th graders were used, resulting in 81,885 total participants between the ages of 13 and 19 for this archival, cross-sectional study. This study had two aims: One, to investigate the relationship between family relationships/environment and sport participation, and their impact on youth leadership skills and development; and two, to investigate whether participation in youth sports provides enough scaffolding to foster the development of youth leadership skills despite poor family relationships/environments. Scales were created for this study using questions from the MSS questionnaire. Linear regression was used to test three hypotheses: (1) Both positive family relationships and a positive family environment, as well as greater participation in sports, will each be associated with youth leadership ability; (2) Sport participation will be more strongly related to leadership ability than family relationships and environment; and (3) Adolescents that have non-supportive family relationships/environment and participate in sports will endorse better leadership skills than adolescents that do not participate in sports but have positive family relationships/environments. Results found hypotheses two and three were not supported, while hypothesis one was supported. Implications for findings are discussed including possible clinical application and future research directions.

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Sports are deeply ingrained in American culture. Youth programs for nearly every sport imaginable are readily available for almost every age group. Many children involved in sports dream of becoming the next major sports star and look to the day's professionals as heroes and icons; people, after which they should model themselves. However, the harsh reality is that only roughly 3 percent of NCAA athletes go on to a professional career (NCAA, 2020). For perspective, it has been estimated that 45 million children under the age of 18 participate in sports in the United States (Bean, Whitley, & Gould, 2014). Of those 45 million, only 492,000 will play collegiate sports, and only 9,840 of those collegiate athletes will play professionally. The dream of becoming a professional sports star is compelling but statistically unlikely. Randy Pausch, a now deceased Carnegie Melon professor famous for the "Last Lecture" he crafted for his children and gave at Carnegie Mellon as a long-standing tradition, is quoted saying, "Experience is what you get when you didn't get what you wanted; experience is often the most valuable thing you have to offer" (2007). Therefore, the experiences that occur during their sport participation may be the most vital piece of their sport experience. That is why this research endeavor is specifically interested in the experience that youth sport participation offers and what essential lessons can be gleaned from those experiences.

When asking parents what they believe the benefits of sport participation are, physical fitness, overcoming adversity, and developing life skills are common answers (Gould & Voelker, 2012). Out of the broad category of "life skills," leadership, to some degree, is also noted. Gould and Voelker argued that leadership development in youth in today's world is paramount. The sports arena is often underutilized as a developmental conduit for youth leadership development despite becoming a top tier attribute that parents desire their children to develop. However, there are likely

many sports factors that lead to leadership development and potentially detract from it. Indeed, the research is awash with empirically supported assertions that suggest that simple participation in sports both does and does not lead to leadership development (Gould & Voelker, 2010; McMillan et al., 2016). These conclusions, falling on opposites ends of the spectrum, call on researchers to investigate whether sport participation, on its own, can lead to improved youth leadership development.

In relationship to such questions, the United States Olympic Committee (USOC) has been tasked, through its national governing bodies, with studying how to develop a youth sport model, to reach more athletes at various competitions (Conant-Norville, 2016). Conant-Norville, in explaining the need for restructuring youth sports to ensure that more youth athletes are afforded the ability to compete, expressed the idea that the current model of youth sports, with a focus on competition, robs children of the ability to gain the potential benefits of sport competition (e.g., life skills, friendships, etc.). Conant-Norville's expression is echoed by Ginsburg (2019), who posited that play is a vital component of childhood development; play affords the child multiple opportunities to engage with parents and peers leading to social and leadership development at early developmental ages.

The focus of this introduction has been on the sports arena and potential benefits that children can enjoy from participation and engagement with sport activities. Overall, the general idea is that sport participation can lead to leadership development, among other developmental benefits. However, in exploring that assertion regarding youth development, it is essential to consider the familial environment. Lerner (2017), summarizing decades of research on youth and adolescent development, stated that "Across the first three decades of life mentors and models, skill-building, and opportunities to not only participate in, but to take a leadership role in valued

family, school, and community activities are the three key features of successful character-building initiatives" (p. 274). This quote describes youth leadership development's complicated nature and the need for further investigation. First, three decades of life is an extended period over which to develop character. Second, tied to character development are the conditions that leadership roles in valued family, school, and community activities directly lead to character development. Therefore, since families, schools, and communities can value sport participation and excellence, the athletic domain can be maximized as a character and leadership development channel.

This perspective is especially useful given that nearly 90% of youth between the ages of five and eighteen will participate in some type of sporting activity throughout the United States (Dunn et al., 2016). If that many youths are going to participate, with so few making professional careers as professional athletes, sports should provide youth with experiences and useful skills that can be used beyond the playing arenas. Youth athletes should be coached to think about how their sport participation and experiences directly translate to development as a leader. Without awareness of what their sport participation could potentially provide them regarding leadership development, many youth athletes may lose the long-term benefits of sport participation.

The idea that the long-term benefits of sport participation can potentially be lost may be reflected in data suggesting that youth leadership is in sharp decline (Mortensen et al., 2014). This decline in youth leadership has been attributed to the idea that society (e.g., parents, schools, coaches, community members) does not explicitly strive to develop leadership abilities directly, but rather through the lived experience of children through adolescence and beyond. Yet other research indicates that leadership ability in youth or younger generations is not in decline, but rather, younger generations define leadership differently than older generations. For instance, Sessa, Kabacoff, Deal, and Brown (2007) concluded that younger generations are likely to value

independence and autonomy more than older generations, that value trustworthiness and loyalty above all else. Therefore, since leadership's definition can change throughout generations, studies need to be careful when seeking specific leadership (e.g., looking for autonomy versus trustworthiness).

Campbell (2013), a former US Marine Corp Captain, outlines in his book that a worthy mission needs to have clear goals, high ethical standards, and involve service to something beyond selfish interests. A "mission," in this context, is meant to encompass anything from an actual military operation to a personal goal. Campbell's main point is that leadership needs to invoke the powerful emotional connection between leader and follower. This feeling, he sums, is "Follow me" (p. 192). The phrase resonates with emotional attachment; trust. Campbell's point is that servant leadership is the only kind of leadership that works. However, Mortensen et al. (2014) suggest that this "Follow me" leadership invocation is generally lacking; servant leadership needs to be adequately trained and grown, the emotional connection between leader and follower and the development of trust takes dedication and effort (Cornum et al., 2011).

A developmental psychologist, Dr. Carol Dweck (2006), suggests that substantive learning relies first and foremost upon the mentality of the learner. Essentially there are two choices for the learner: adopt a fixed or growth mindset. A fixed mindset leads to stagnation, a belief that skills are capped based upon innate abilities. However, a growth mindset leads to uncapped growth potential based on the idea that individuals do not know how proficient they can become at any given skill When it comes to leadership, not only can a growth mindset lead to leadership skill growth, it can also influence those whom the leader oversees. Dweck suggested that, "When bosses become controlling and abusive, they put everyone into a fixed mindset" (p. 124).

Growth, leadership, and success are valued across disciplines, from the classroom to the battlefield (Campbell, 2013; Dweck, 2006). Developing a deeper understanding of leadership development and the avenues through which leadership may be formed is vital to the field of psychology, among others (Mortensen et al., 2014). Taking the time to explore further how we, as individuals, can help youth develop the leadership abilities that our society deems necessary should be a much more significant focus of American society.

For this study, understanding if sport is the best vehicle for youth leadership development is primary. Sport is one of the few arenas where children's success is subjectively and objectively measured; the development of their sport-specific skills potentially bringing both themselves and their families large amounts of positive or negative attention (Coakley, 2006).

The ideas of success in sports have inspired works in popular media in the form of various American films, poetry, and sport drama Sports can often be viewed through magical glasses; sports can mystify those who watch. However, it is vital to understand that with all the power to inspire that sports activities have, it makes sense to harness sport, as best we can, to help youth sport participants develop lifelong character skills that will benefit them for years to come. Leadership is one of those skills. As the research discussed below will highlight, sport can be fertile ground for youth leadership development (Hellison & Walsh, 2002).

In summary, two central veins flow through the research regarding childhood leadership development. One, sports provide fertilizer for leadership development in youth, and two, family environment can also provide fertile ground upon which youth can develop leadership qualities and capabilities (Conant-Norville, 2016; Hermens et al., 2017; Lerner, 2017; van Loon & Frank, 2011). However, the belief that mere participation in sports leads to positive youth development appears to be split; there is no clear indication of whether participating leads to youth development,

specifically leadership development. Therefore, the first purpose of this research project is to investigate whether sports participation can lead to the development of leadership qualities in youth participants in late middle school and high school. The second purpose of this research study is to explore if sport participation can scaffold leadership development abilities despite an unsupportive family environment. Since Lerner (2017) expressed family involvement as one of the critical ingredients to character development (including leadership development) over multiple decades, sport participation may fill in the gap left behind by a less nurturing family environment.

Explicitly, this study will have two primary aims. The first aim is to investigate the impact of positive family relationships/environments and youth sport participation on adolescents' youth leadership development. The second aim is to examine whether participation in youth sports provides enough scaffolding to foster the development of youth leadership skills despite unsupportive family environments, which typically harm youth leadership development. In considering current literature, there appears to be enough evidence to expect participation in the crucible of sport to lead to leadership development in youth, regardless of family circumstances. The following literature review explores the recent research that has explored youth leadership development and the impacts that family environments, family relationships, parenting styles, and various sport participation have on developing leadership ability and skills.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Roughly 45 million children under the age of 18 participate in sports in the United States; culturally speaking, sports are highly valued in America (Bean et al., 2014). It is also estimated that 84% of adolescents in the United States, between the ages of twelve and seventeen, participate in at least one extracurricular activity (ECA), sports being the most popular (Hancock, Dyk, & Jones, 2012). Overall, studies have shown that youth sports participation leads to improvements in self-confidence, teamwork skills, communication and relationship skills, and general sportsmanship among its participants (Hellison & Walsh, 2002). Both private and public community members fund policies and youth programs based on the developmental benefits of sport; the challenges associated with playing sports are widely believed to create better character and lead to improved interpersonal relations for participants (Coakley, 2011). People have romanced the idea that sports participation in youth directly leads to the development of leadership ability; youth can become like their heroes if they try hard enough. Americans place significant emphasis on sports participation for youth because, culturally, Americans strongly believe that sports provide a fertile training ground for leadership and social skills that will serve youth long into adulthood (Coakley, 2006).

Other influences also impact the development of youth leadership skills. Family relationships can nurture leadership skills in youth, which have long-lasting implications in adulthood. Bass (1960) theorized that leadership skill development in youth is highest when parents provide nurturing home environments that include opportunities for decision-making at an early age, as well as high levels of reception and parental support; a theoretical paper by Popper and Mayseless (2007) supports this theory. Their paper concluded that how a child is raised leads

to the development or underdevelopment of leadership skills and partially determines his or her leadership ability as an adult. While a theory paper, Popper and Mayseless substantially cite their claims, invite empirical challenge, and highlight how previous research supports their theory. Overall, a supportive home and family life can provide the fertile ground upon which youth leadership, and later adult leadership, can grow. Popper and Amit (2009), utilized the biographies and memoirs of past successful leaders in history to determine if like-characteristics existed between leaders. These researchers discovered a similar conclusion that Popper and Mayseless (2007) put forth a few years earlier; family environment (how one is raised) secure attachment, and existence of leadership qualities in the household were found among historical participants.

Given that leadership skills are positively influenced by youth sports participation and supportive home environments, it is helpful to look at how leadership is defined as a construct. For this research project, a broad definition of leadership will be used: leadership consists of skills that can be taught, trained, and rehearsed over time based on the individual's interpersonal communication style (Elwell & Elikofer, 2015; Hancock et al., 2012). Two types of leadership, transformational leadership and chameleon leadership, will be used as a collective construct for both defining and understanding leadership at a deeper level for the current study. First, transformational leadership is a leadership approach that promotes instilling change in the individuals being led; showing fearlessness when faced with adversities. A transformational leader is a motivator that inspires those they lead to improve, leading by example (Oliver et al., 2011). Second, chameleon leadership refers to the ability to incorporate multiple leadership styles and traits to match the individual or group. Chameleon leaders can adapt their leadership approach to best help the group while remaining true to their developed leadership traits (Williams, Roberts, & Bosselman, 2011). These two leadership styles are not mutually exclusive and emphasize

different aspects of the leadership process. For this study, both transformation and chameleon leadership are combined to form the foundation of required skills that need to be taught, trained, and rehearsed over time to develop into an effective leader. Combining chameleon and transformation leadership allows for a holistic approach to both defining and understanding youth leadership and youth leadership development for both this literature review and current study.

The research on youth sport participation, family relationships, and their impact on leadership development has concluded that both participation in sports and a positive home environment (including parental relationships) lead to more significant leadership development in children (Bean et al., 2014; Popper & Mayseless, 2007). The research has mostly looked at the individual influences of sport or positive family relationships. However, not much research has drawn conclusions about the interaction of sports and family influences and their combined impact on leadership development. Instead, a small percentage of studies only speculate about a positive connection between sports and supportive family relationships (Bower & Carroll, 2015). It is the goal of this literature review to provide a glimpse into the research conducted on sport and family relationships' separate impacts on youth leadership development, concluding with empirical speculation regarding the possible combined influence of sport participation and family relationships on youth leadership development.

Sports and Impact on Youth Leadership Development

As previously mentioned, Americans place a heavy emphasis on youth sports participation because they firmly believe in the benefits of sports competition (Coakley, 2006). However, the effects of sports participation are much more complicated than attributing them to participation alone. Indeed, if simply participating in sport contributed to profound leadership development, inevitably, every child would be pushed towards sport. However, the operational definition of

participation in sport includes a host of secondary variables embedded in the act of sport competition. These secondary variables include the type of coach and coaching experience level (Kavussanu et al., 2008); whether the athlete is male or female and engages in vicarious learning (Rintaugu, Mwangi, & Toriola, 2018); social relationships formed during sports participation and competition (Fry & Gano-Overway, 2010); and dedication of the youth athlete to improve their abilities (Duckworth, 2016).

Although the studies conducted by Kavussanu et al. (2008), Rintaugu et al. (2018), and Fry and Gano-Overway (2010) relied on self-report questionnaires to gather data, their combined findings are summarized in Duckworth's (2016) book on resilience, performance, and perseverance. Duckworth argued that youths' abilities to persevere and engage in deliberate practice under the guidance of beneficial coaching can lead to the development of resilience and grit, opening the doors to leadership development and the likelihood of being viewed as a leader by peers. This conclusion was echoed by Rintaugu et al. (2018), who concluded that confidence is gained both through utilizing failure effectively, and vicarious learning in both male and female athletes; by Kavussanu et al. (2008), who found that coaching ability was directly related to youth athletes' reports of confidence; and by Fry and Gano-Overway (2010), who posited that a caring team atmosphere has a tremendous impact on athlete performance, commitment, and enjoyment of sport participation. Overall, a youth athlete cannot merely hold a roster position on a sports team and expect leadership development to occur passively. The athlete must be willing to have an active, participative role in sport for sport participation benefits to be earned.

As such, it is not merely teaching youth how to perform sports acts that develop leadership qualities, but rather it is sport as a whole, including the team dynamics, relationships among participants, athlete dedication, and opportunity for challenge that advance leadership growth.

Since it is culturally significant for Americans to have their children engage in sports, Coakley (2011) argues that Americans have developed a "Sports Plus" approach. This approach essentially means that through sport, youth learn relational skills and tactics that help them better handle adversity and stressful life situations outside of the sports field. Bean et al. (2014) gave some support to this "Sports Plus" concept by conducting semi-structured interviews with 23 adolescent athletes. The interviews revealed that sports provide student-athletes with substantial opportunities to develop teamwork, emotional control, and relationship skills. The logic follows that the more opportunities youth have to develop leadership skills, the better leaders they will eventually become.

When research on leadership development is conducted, however, leadership theories tend to be defined from an adult perspective. Thankfully, transformational leadership, the primary leadership definition utilized for this study, aligns well with leadership from a youth perspective. Mortensen et al. (2014) found that although youth tend to share similar views with adults on what constitutes leadership, they also offer unique perspectives. To empower this, Mortensen et al. relied on Photovoice as an online, qualitative data collection method. All 130 youth participants who were engaged in the year-long National Youth Leadership Initiative (NYLI) were asked to blog about their experiences utilizing photos and written narratives in response to the researcher crafted questions about what makes someone a leader. Overall, the participant blogs revealed that youth define leaders as (1) able and willing to create meaningful change, (2) possessing strong character, (3) models for those they lead through mentoring, and (4) able to promote cohesion.

Transformational leadership, defined by Oliver et al. (2011), fits well with the leadership characteristics identified by youth in the Mortensen et al. (2014) study. Indeed, the ability to instill change in individuals, promote betterment, and foster motivation are shared beliefs between youth

and adult perspectives (Mortensen et al., 2014; Oliver et al., 2011). One of the main ways that youth defined leadership differently than adults was that youth tended to believe that anyone can become a leader regardless of background and circumstances. Relatedly, Coakley (2006) found that parents of children believe that sports can provide their children with opportunities to develop leadership ability. Importantly, these findings indicate that both parents and children agree that any youth athlete can fully develop into a leader regardless of background.

Recent studies validate the claims of these researchers in more than a few ways. First, in a qualitative case study of a single boys' youth soccer team, Holt et al. (2008) sought to measure athletes' drive, respect, team cohesion, and leadership development throughout a single season. The previously listed constructs were measured using two observational researchers, one that served as an assistant coach with ample soccer experience and the other as a general observer that was not involved with the team (e.g., observing from the stands). In addition, post-season semi-structured interviews were administered to the players. The study revealed that each athlete showed growth in each domain from the beginning of the season to the end. Of perhaps greater interest was that the head coach's coaching philosophy was found mainly responsible for these changes; this aligns with the prior research of Horn (2008), who found that leadership development in sport is dependent on the relationships between coaches and athletes. Holt et al. (2008) found that because of the coach's philosophy and approach, youth athletes engaged in interactions that helped them develop drive, respect, and leadership skills. Without this guiding philosophy, the sport experience may have been just a game instead of an opportunity for adolescents to develop leadership qualities and abilities.

Unfortunately, when it comes to fostering change in others using a transformational leadership style, the Holt et al. (2008) study offers few answers regarding how a coach's use of

transformational leadership directly contributes to youth leadership development. To investigate specific transformational leadership skill development in youth, Bower and Carroll (2015) conducted a different study using the Contextualized Assessment Tool for Risk and Protection Management (CATRPM), a 59-item online interactive questionnaire, to look at the influence of extracurricular activities (ECAs) on self-awareness, social skills, and empathy in youth (Bower, Carroll, & Ashman, 2014). They reported that youth that participated in sport had more self-awareness and an increased capacity for empathy than those that did not participate in ECAs and those that participated in ECAs that were not sports teams (e.g., fine arts). In particular, athletes that held leadership positions on their respective teams, such as captains, were even more self-aware and demonstrated greater social competence than other athletes. Having higher levels of social expertise, a greater capacity for empathy and more self-awareness is directly related to leadership ability since leaders are often involved in group decision-making processes, positive reinforcement of team members, and understanding how their leadership decisions impact those they lead (Gould & Voelker, 2010).

In particular, transformational leaders need to excel at individualized consideration, such as understanding the individual needs of those they lead, so that they may create and maintain a positive environment for all of their team members (Zacharatos et al., 2000). Therefore, further developing skills, such as empathy, can directly lead to transformational leadership growth. This study's use of the CATRPM is helpful because it provides a type of objective measure to gauge leadership qualities such as self-awareness and empathy (Holt et al., 2008). However, the link between high self-awareness and empathy scores and extracurricular athletic participation is only correlational.

A study conducted by Bean et al. (2014) took a different approach and sought to qualitatively gauge, via semi-structured interviews, whether their 23 youth sport athlete participants, ages 10 to 18, believed that their sport participation was linked to learning life lessons and motivation. Overall, the participants reported that they benefitted immensely from sport participation, explicitly naming that sport had taught them emotional control, leadership, communication, and resilience skills. They secondarily endorsed that they learned the value of hard work due to their participation in (sport) practices. It is important to note that Neely and Holt (2014) conducted a similar qualitative study with parents and their perceptions of the benefits that youth sport participation can provide. The parents in Neely and Holt's study strongly believed that sport participation led to their children gaining a wide range of personal and social skills that would benefit them later in life. The studies of Bean et al. (2014) and Neely and Holt (2014) are important to consider in tandem as they demonstrate that not only do youth sport participants believe that their participation in sport leads to leadership skill development, their parents tend to think similarly.

The result of this harmony in beliefs about the benefits of sport between parent and youth-athlete can lead to the development of deeper relationships between the athlete and their parents. Fraser-Thomas and Côtè (2009) found in their qualitative study of 22 adolescent swimmers that the athletes endorsed developing unique relationships with their parents because of their sport participation and dedication to improving their sport skills. When both youth athletes and parents view sport participation as positive, it provides the necessary foundation from which youth athletes can begin to develop sport-specific skills and leadership and relationship skills.

Evaluating research that specifically investigates the impact of youth sports on the development of leadership skills is important. Still, it is equally important to explore whether

improved leadership skills transfer from the youth sport field to adulthood. Williams et al. (2011) recruited a sample of North Carolina workplace managers that had participated in youth sports for three to five years. Their goal was to assess the participants' managerial experiences to see how youth sport participation helped the participants perform in their management jobs as adults. Results from semi-structured interviews suggested that participants greatly benefitted from youth sport participation.

Additionally, Williams et al. (2011) created the principle of chameleon leadership from interpreting the results; showing an absence of fear when faced with challenges and adversity often inspires others to do the same. Referencing chameleon leadership, the participants endorsed that they could adapt to changes quickly, help others adapt in kind, and were relatively unphased by workplace challenges. Further, the participants reported that they felt their youth sport experiences helped them develop willpower, flexibility, decision-making, and communication skills, which are hallmarks of transformational leadership (Williams et al., 2011; Zacharatos et al., 2000). Similar findings were noted by Hinckley (2009), who reported that because adolescent athletes consistently face challenges, they are provided more significant opportunities to develop skills for managing adversity. These adversity skills can then lead to significant leadership success in future aspects of their adult lives, such as in their workplaces.

Overall, the development of both chameleon and transformational leadership qualities in youth athletes provides evidence that a wide range of interpersonal leadership skills can be learned, taught, and developed over time (Hancock et al., 2012; Williams et al., 2011). The studies examined above provide data that has led to the development of sport-based leadership programs that seek to use sport as the medium to teach leadership skills to youth. If leadership can be taught, and sport provides leadership learning opportunities, then teaching leadership through sport makes

sense. One program that built on this paradigm was the Sports United to Promote Education and Recreation (SUPER), created by Danish et al. (2002). The SUPER program uses sports to teach leadership and life skills such as performing under pressure, meeting challenges, handling success and failure, setting goals, and incorporating constructive criticism (Danish et al., 2002). The program has been successful in the United States, showing that it improves problem-solving skills (e.g., effective decision making), self-confidence, and positive self-talk (e.g., "I can do it!"). Similar results have been reported with Greek samples (Papacharisis et al., 2005). Therefore, sports can be an effective medium through which youth can develop leadership skills that have the potential to later lead to effective adult leadership, confidence, self-awareness, social skills, and empathy (Bean et al., 2014; Bower & Carroll, 2015; Danish et al., 2002; Williams et al., 2011).

Although not every participant is likely to gain leadership skills from sport participation, they can achieve other benefits that enhance well-being. Appelqvist-Schmidlechner et al. (2018) found that participating in competitive sports at age 12 was associated with lower instances of mental health and physical health issues in adults. Pausch (2007) suggests that resilience is something youth participants can get from sport when they indeed do not receive leadership skills. While choosing to participate in sports as a child is likely more motivated by a "fun factor," it should be understood that participation in sports, while fun, can also provide long-lasting mental health benefits.

It seems reasonable to suggest that youth participation can lead to leadership development in more than one way. The first way has been commented on in much of the research covered in this review, namely that youth leadership development is fostered through sport participation in various ways. However, improved well-being, relatively free from mental pathology, also leaves the door open for leadership development and adult role fulfillment through other avenues. Parallel

to this theory, leadership development has become one of the many interventions utilized for combating mental health issues in adults (Kelloway & Barling, 2010).

The idea of linking psychological needs and well-being to leadership development in place of direct leadership skill training through sport is much more likely than initially thought. Researchers have claimed that explicitly targeting youths' psychological needs can lead to organic leadership development opportunities (Taylor & Bruner, 2012). Thus far, much of the research has focused on developing leaders through either sport participation or targeted leadership development programs that utilize sport as a catalyst. Research such as that conducted by Taylor and Bruner (2012) shows that there may be multiple paths in sport that lead to improved leadership skills in youth participants. Bean et al. (2014) provided some backbone to the "Sport Plus" approach by showing that sport participation can lead to teamwork skills, emotional control, and social skills for participants. The research conducted by Taylor and Bruner (2012) fleshes out what Bean et al. 's (2014) research conclusions can mean; a "Sports Plus" approach may include how sport participation can lead to lower instances of mental health issues by satisfying the psychological needs of participants. Therefore, sport participation provides youth with multiple paths to leadership.

Despite the strong presence of evidence signaling that youth participation can lead to leadership development, it should be recognized that most of the research in this area is qualitative, reliant on semi-structured interviews and self-reporting (Bean et al., 2014; Fraser-Thomas & Côtè, 2009; Holt et al., 2008; Holt & Neely, 2011; Williams et al., 2011). Therefore, although the evidence can appear to correlate youth sport participation with leadership skill development, there needs to be some caution in interpretation. First, a large percentage of the studies reviewed in this section, due to their qualitative nature, allow for multiple confounding variables regarding

interpretation. Unfortunately, causation is somewhat tricky to conclude. However, although causation may be difficult to ascertain, the wealth of studies reviewed here suggests a correlative relationship between youth sport participation and the development of leadership skills. The empirical authors cited in this section all came to similar conclusions about the relationship between sport participation and leadership development in youth. Therefore, it is relatively safe to conclude that sport participation can lead to youth leadership development.

Most studies included in this review thus far have contained both male and female athletes; however, the two gender groups were typically not compared regarding leadership development. As understanding of effective or nurturing leadership deepens, transformational leadership has slowly started to become the new "status quo" of quality leadership versus a more "classic" warrior leadership mentality; the idea of a more ruthless, "go get em," attitude (Kelly & Findelman, 2011). Based on the research reviewed for this study, it would be fair to conclude that both men and women, girls and boys, are equally capable of embodying transformational/chameleon style leadership with equal levels of expertise. However, it is noted that the relative lack of focus on gender differences in leadership-style and development reveals a limitation of the current research available regarding leadership development through sport. This limitation impacts the current study and will be discussed fully in the limitations section.

Family Relationships and Leadership

Although there is ample evidence of sport's impact on leadership development, a supportive family environment is another crucial aspect of youth and adult leadership development. Classically, leadership research has involved retrospectively analyzing famous leaders and extrapolating what possibly contributed to their leadership ability (Popper & Amit, 2009). In their meta-analysis of older leadership research, Popper and Mayseless (2007) conclude

that empathy, optimism, self-confidence, curiosity, compassion, and flexibility are the best ingredients for creating an effective leader. More importantly, however, parents need to model all of those qualities for their children to develop leadership skills; they do not develop spontaneously. Steinberg (2001), in a review of research, found that authoritative parents (e.g., parents that discipline fairly and show love and attentiveness) had children that showed greater self-regulation, self-esteem, social skills, and intellectual ability than did those children that were raised with other parenting styles. These skills are directly transferrable to the development of successful transformational leaders.

Democratic parenting styles have also been posited to assist in the development of leadership skills. Liu et al. (2018) noted that a democratic parenting style helped adolescents develop social trust and self-esteem. Democratic parenting, a form of parenting in which parents allow children to develop autonomy and independence through decision-making and mutual respect, directly influences socialization abilities (Liu et al., .2018; Schofield & Weaver, 2016). Specifically, an adolescent's ability to trust others is learned through parental interaction in which a message of compassion for others and resistance to taking advantage of others is consistently taught. The democratic parenting style and a few other methods to be discussed can directly lead to individual social and leadership skills that can translate into leadership development and ability as defined by Popper and Mayseless (2007). Overall, research has been making its way towards concluding that family relationships and the family environment are crucially responsible for the development of leadership qualities in youth, which then contribute to mastery of leadership skills in adulthood.

To investigate the impact of family environment and relationships on transformational leadership development, Oliver et al. (2011) utilized the data set of the Fullerton Longitudinal

Study (FLS), which began in 1979, as a database from which to measure the impact of family quality of life, family atmosphere, and child's self-concept on transformational leadership ability. The FLS is ongoing and began with the families of 130 one-year-olds from a wide range of socioeconomic statuses. As part of this study, participants were assessed semi-annually up to age four, after which they were assessed annually from age five to age 17. Oliver et al. (2011) were interested in family functioning, which they measured using the Inventory of Family Functioning (IFF); family atmosphere, which was measured using the Family Environment Scale (FES); and self-concept, which they measured by the Self-Description Questionnaire-II (SDQ-II; FLS, 1988; Marsh, 1990; Moos & Moos, 1994). In addition to the FLS data, Oliver et al. additionally gathered data from when participants were 29 years old, at which point they were asked to fill out a 40-item Transformational Leadership self-report questionnaire. Oliver and colleagues found that youth family atmosphere and functioning were significantly related to transformational leadership potential in the 29-year-old participants. In addition, those with more positive self-concepts, as measured in adolescence, came from family environments that made the adolescents feel valued. These results suggest that if a youth grows up in a home with a positive environment (atmosphere x positive family functioning), they are likely to develop positive self-regard, which then translates into the development of leadership qualities. It was also found that youth that had nurturing parents were substantially more likely to generate transformational leadership qualities; they are nurturing to those they lead.

The Oliver et al. (2011) study is significant in that it utilizes a lengthy, longitudinal sample with a rich dataset that measured participants annually and semi-annually over multiple decades. Because the family environment, family atmosphere, and the child's self-concept were measured annually, the data provide an incremental representation for each of the measured qualities as they

were developed through the years. The conclusions of the Oliver et al. study are supported by more recent research regarding family environment and transformational leadership development. Duong and Bradshaw (2017), in their study on links between childhood socio-emotional development and family contexts, reported that socio-emotional learning, measured via altruism, empathy, self-efficacy, and beliefs about aggression, is linked to parenting style and family environment context. Altruism, an integral piece of effective leadership, was found to decrease over time in children that received inadequate parental supervision; essentially, children who received less positive attention from their parents began to display less altruistic behaviors. Duong and Bradshaw also found that empathy decreased over time in children who resided in households with more familial chaos (e.g., fighting, high stress) and community risk (e.g., dangerous area). Indeed, positive parenting, roughly defined as providing the child with positive interaction, praise, and soft-handed guidance, led to not only sustained altruism and empathy but moderate increases in self-efficacy. When interpreting their findings, Duong and Bradshaw suggested that positive parenting practices promote altruism, empathy, and self-efficacy development throughout childhood. Oliver et al. 's (2011) conclusion that a positive family environment increases the ability of children to develop transformational leadership is compatible with the more recent findings of Duong and Bradshaw (2017); after all, a transformation leader needs to be confident, motivating, and caring (Popper & Mayseless, 2007).

Indeed, the importance of parenting style and youth transformational leadership development appeared to be tightly linked. Kudo, Longhofer, and Floersch (2012) found authoritative parenting directly led to high emotional autonomy, competence, and transformational leadership ability in adolescent males. The authoritative parents in the study were able to help their adolescent children slowly develop mastery, which allowed them to establish non-dependency and

establish their own identity apart from family. Kudo et al. tied this result to the development of transformational leadership qualities. Specifically, they found that adolescents raised by authoritative parents were much more likely to develop mastery, and therefore confidence, in their abilities. The development of competence and confidence allows the individual to believe that they are in control and determine outcomes instead of luck or others' efforts. Further, youth raised in an authoritative household are likely to become authoritative parents themselves.

The idea of parenting styles impacting youth leadership development is further bolstered by Galbraith and Schvaneveldt's (2005) earlier work that investigated the influence that family leadership style has on overall family well-being. Somewhat of a departure from research focusing on parenting style, Galbraith and Schvaneveldt were more interested in understanding how leadership operates in the home versus specific parenting approaches. These authors sought to investigate how leadership at home impacted family relational health and the potential development and perpetuation of the leadership style expressed in the home. Using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), 231 two-parent families were utilized. Results showed that similar to businesses and companies, transformational leadership in the home led to a substantial increase in family members' well-being (Bass & Avolio, 1995). This impact on well-being was linked to the authoritative parenting style in which parents are typically kind, supportive, and in-tune with their child's needs. As Kudo et al. (2012) found that children raised by authoritative parents are likely to become authoritative parents themselves, Galbraith and Schvaneveldt (2005) also found that children raised in a home with proactive parents that displayed transformational leadership are expected to develop transformational leadership qualities themselves.

Much of the recent research has focused on the idea of transformational leadership in both youth and adult populations. Overall, as thus far shown, transformational leadership qualities are

mostly tied to warm family environments, directly comparable and relatable to an authoritative parenting style. Morton et al. (2011), however, sought to explore the idea of transformational parenting instead of the traditionally researched authoritative parenting style. Morton et al. created a questionnaire to measure transformational parenting qualities based on previously utilized questionnaires designed to measure transformational leadership. Since a transformational leader's focuses are on empowering those they lead to become more autonomous and confident; then, transformational parenting would primarily operate under a similar principle. As such, transformational parenting's overall goal is to empower children to become more autonomous and confident in their developing abilities. The study results showed that adolescents (N= 857, Mean Age= 14.7) that perceived their parents as utilizing transformational parenting had improved self-regulatory efficacy and increased life satisfaction. The high life satisfaction among adolescent participants led to demonstrations of more considerable social skills and overall physical health. Additionally, considering the results of Kudo et al. (2012) and their conclusions regarding authoritative parenting, it would logically follow that children raised by transformational parents are likely not only to develop into transformational leaders but also potentially transformational parents themselves (Morton et al., 2011).

In the literature review thus far, a theme of authoritative, transformative, and warm family environments leading to youth leadership has been considered. However, there has been little discussion regarding whether these leadership qualities developed in youth continue to grow throughout adulthood. Developmentally, children become adults, and those adults can be placed in leadership positions during their careers. Eldad and Benatov (2018), in their study on perceived parenting style and leadership behaviors in adults, took the time to uncover whether adults in leadership positions at work had their parents to thank for their transformational leadership style

that had afforded them success. The results showed that a statistically significant number of the 90 managers surveyed had positive perceptions of their parents' parenting style. Specifically, the participants highlighted their parents' affordance of autonomy, which allowed them as children to develop the self-efficacy and competence required to hone their leadership style. Further, results hinted at the idea that attachment avoidance (e.g., avoiding relationship development at work) leads to a more transactional leadership style. Transactional leaders view leadership as operating in the context of a reward-cost relationship with subordinates; they are likely to delegate well, but often fail to engage those they work with relationally (e.g., deeper relationships or work friendships).

Research on this topic has explored other factors that can lead to leadership development. Zacharatos et al. (2000) examined the role of parental modeling. Their study utilized the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to examine whether youth athletes' perceptions of their parents' transformational leadership qualities would lead to youth athletes modeling their parents' transformational leadership behavior (Bass & Avolio, 1995). They accomplished this by measuring the athletes' perceptions of their parents' leadership abilities as well as the parents' perceptions of the athletes' leadership abilities. It should be importantly noted that even though the sample used athletes in a leadership study, the type of sport (e.g., team versus individual) unfortunately was not a variable that was assessed. The study showed that athletes that perceived their parents as acting like transformational leaders were extremely likely to model these behaviors and adopt a transformational leadership style when interacting with their peers. These findings support and amplify those of the Oliver et al. (2011) study, because it operationalizes the family environment that is responsible for developing transformational leadership qualities. Taken

together, these studies strongly suggest that youth look to their parents as models of leadership behavior and then internalize those behaviors as they continue to develop.

Hancock et al. (2012) further this line of investigation with their study on the impact of adult involvement with their children on the children's perceptions of their leadership skill development. This study hypothesized that increased adult support and involvement would lead to enhanced leadership skill development in the youth participants. The researchers used three surveys to measure adult involvement and support: The Interaction Rating Scale (IRS), the 4-H Elements Survey, and the Search Institute's Profiles of Student Life: Attitudes and Behavior Survey (SLABS; Jones & Perkins, 2005; Kress, 2004; Search Institute, 1996). Results from this study indicated that parental involvement significantly influenced youth perceptions of their leadership abilities across multiple domains (namely, sport, school, and community). Parents in the home were found to be able to dramatically affect how their children view their leadership abilities; simple parental support can be very impactful for youth that are developing leadership skills. Indeed, Zhang, Ilies, and Arvey (2009) conducted a study using 54 pairs of fraternal and 89 pairs of identical adolescent twins to investigate the social environment, including parental support, concerning genetic influences on leadership. Their results revealed that having a supportive family environment, relatively free of parent-child conflict, led to the development of leadership qualities regardless of genetic predisposition. Zhang et al. (2009) conclude that positive family environments "level the playing field," making whether a child was born with ideal leadership genetics less critical (p. 126). Both the studies of Hancock et al. (2012) and Zhang et al. (2009) promote that a positive family environment and positive family relationships provide a more significant opportunity to develop youth leadership ability; the positive family environment provides a fertile training ground for leadership ability.

It may also be the case that youth also develop leadership abilities based on their development of an extroverted personality style (Guerin et al., 2011). Young children begin to interact with their families in specific ways to test the boundaries of behavior (e.g., what is and is not allowed or encouraged). Guerin et al. concluded that youth that can display an extroverted personality set and be reinforced for it subsequently develop into extroverted adolescents that become much more likely to develop leadership skills that continue to grow in adulthood. This development phenomenon, studied over 29 years in their study, has also been identified by other researchers utilizing much shorter observation periods.

The Guerin et al. (2011) study additionally revealed that the leadership development of extroverted youth occurred regardless of gender. Other studies have noted the remarkable resilience that youth show in the face of adversity if they have a warm family environment and family cohesion (Daniels & Bryan, 2021). Throughout this literature review, both young boys and girls have been included in each study, with some studies having a preponderance of boys and others with girls. The conclusion that can be gleaned from the results of studies cited thus far is that regardless of gender, being more extroverted, having positive family environments, and witnessing beneficial parental models leads to the development of youth leadership abilities that can be best summarized as transformational (Daniels & Bryan, 2021; Guerin et al., 2011; Hancock et al., 2012; Oliver et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2009).

It should be noted that although there is a wealth of research examining the effects of family environment or climate on youth leadership development, many of the studies do not include diverse factors such as socioeconomic status. It is noteworthy that a family's socioeconomic status can impact the leadership development of family members directly; high socioeconomic status is linked with robust leadership development for men (Li, Arvey, & Song, 2011). For women, Li et

al. found that they are more likely to fall off the "leadership track" if they came from higher-income families (p. 530). A possible reason for this is based on findings from other research, which has concluded that adolescents that come from more privileged, higher-income families tend to be put under tremendous pressure to succeed by their parents (Luthar & Becker, 2002). In this case, socioeconomic status is both predictive of leadership development in youth but also can be destructive to youth leadership development (Judge & Hurst, 2007; Li et al., 2011). Exceedingly high expectations set by high-income families may degrade the family environment into a more hostile atmosphere, which impedes leadership development (Daniels & Bryan, 2021). The research thus far suggests that the key aspect of leadership development is the family environment and how beneficial it is to foster and cultivate leadership skills. Therefore, what constitutes the family environment (e.g., support, child needs are met, parenting style, familial warmth) may be more integral to leadership development than simple wealth metrics.

When it comes to familial wealth, researchers have begun to take a specific look at family-owned and operated businesses and if involvement in family business operations, along with familial climate, impact leadership development among family members. Miller (2014) took a more in-depth look into how family businesses impact leadership development not only for the family members involved in the business but also for next-generation family leaders (e.g., adolescents and young adults). In his sample of 347 male and females, Miller found that having a shared vision for the future of the family business, along with a positive family climate, was directly related to improvements in leadership capacity and abilities among the next-generation family members. The younger family members developed their leadership skills parallel to the family's business vision.

One major weakness of the research on family environment/climate and leadership in youth is that each study, perhaps unintentionally, paints an image of the "classic," nuclear American family: a father, mother, and children. There is minimal research that includes same-sex parents, single-family households, and multi-generational family layers (e.g., parents, grandparents, and children involved in family environment). Indeed, multi-generational impacts are seldom researched or explained in general. This shortcoming makes it impossible to gain insight into the development of family culture in combination with societal zeitgeist across multiple decades, and their subsequent impact on leadership development. Overall, a lack of focus on cultural impact on youth leadership development is a weakness of the current research.

This lack of consideration for cultural factors is also found when investigating leadership development among youth athletes. Few studies attempt to compare, contrast, and posit how specific cultural factors may or may not contribute to youth leadership development through sport participation. A few studies, such as Li et al. (2011), make a reasonable faith effort to incorporate factors with cultural implications such as socioeconomic status, ethnicity and gender. However, the bulk of the research seems to only identify the number of participants with varying cultural identity factors such as race and ethnicity instead of investigating them as independent or dependent variables that might significantly influence leadership development in different ways.

Despite these shortcomings, the overall body of research reviewed supports the notion that the development of leadership qualities in youth, and later adults, benefit from a home with supportive, interactive families that provide a stable place to learn, fail, adapt, and model leadership qualities. These factors allow youth to develop transformational leadership qualities such as empathy, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration for those they lead. The studies that specifically investigate the impact of family dynamics and environment in

conjunction with parenting style and behavior are consistent with the data supporting social learning theory, developed by Bandura (1977), which assert that home life and home relationships significantly impact the developmental process. Popper and Amit (2009) concluded from an earlier review of the literature that parents need to model leadership qualities if youth are going to develop them, largely ascribing to the mentality that leaders are grown, not born. This conclusion has been supported by this literature review as well, which found that parental modeling, positive family atmosphere and environment, shared family vision, and supportive parenting (i.e., both transformational and authoritative parenting) all combine to create an environment where the development of leadership qualities are fostered well into adulthood (Hancock et al., 2012; Miller, 2014; Oliver et al., 2011; Zacharatos et al., 2000).

Interaction of Sports and Family Relationships and Impact on Leadership

Leadership training opportunities and education are crucial to the development of youth leaders (Jackson, Sakuma, & DeVol, 2015). Given the amount of research investigating the independent contribution of youth sport participation, family relationships, and family atmosphere to youth and adult leadership development, it is surprising to find a lack of research that considers both constructs together. There has been some speculation as to whether leadership qualities are increased to a greater degree by having both a positive home life and positive sport experience. Coakley (2006), for example, reports that for youth to get the most out of sport, parents have to believe in the power of sport to promote leadership development. Recent research argues that adolescents that participate in sport obtain more chances to develop leadership skills and characteristics due to consistent support from adult mentors such as parents and active coaches (Hancock et al., 2012; Holt et al., 2008). Other studies assert that leadership training focused on

behavioral changes, which sports teams can provide, leads to more effective leadership skill development (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2009).

Interestingly, some studies that look at family and sport interaction choose to focus on how family influence can impact sport talent development. One study conducted by Côtè (1999) specifically looked at family environment and how it shaped adolescent sport ability or excellence. Côtè, like many others in sport psychology, was primarily concerned with familial impact on the development of sports stars.

However, it is unfortunate that some studies only report the potential multiplicative benefits of sport participation and supportive family environments anecdotally. Specifically, Bower and Carroll's (2015) study, using the CATRPM to measure involvement in extracurricular activities (ECAs) and their impact on transformational leadership ability, mentions that participants that had the opportunity to hold leadership positions at a young age tended to score higher on measures of family belonging and connectedness (Bower, Carroll, & Ashman, 2013). They conclude that feeling connected and supported at home directly contributes to the development of youth leadership. Unfortunately, they fail to look at ECAs (sports specifically) and family belonging to see if participants that were involved in sports and scored higher in family belonging showed even more significant signs of transformational leadership compared to others. Another study in this review conducted by Zacharatos et al. (2000) used athletes as their participant sample but only looked at parental modeling of transformational leadership skills; sport involvement was not considered, the athletic teams merely a convenient sample. Again, despite the study authors' intentions to look at parent modeling specifically, it still represents a missed opportunity to look at the multiplicative effects of sport and family relationships.

Additionally, other studies, when looking at the sport, family, and leadership interaction, focus on the potential negative impacts of family influence on the self-efficacy of children and their desire to be physically active. Shields et al. (2008) specifically investigated whether negative family social influence would decrease physical activity levels. Unsurprisingly, the families that exerted negative influence over their children (e.g., parenting behavior that impacts the self-efficacy of the child) tended to have children that were less active physically. While not specifically dealing with sport involvement, it is relevant given the active physical component that sport requires.

Voskuild and Robbins (2015), in response to studies such as Shields et al. (2008), found that the negative family influence found at home could be mitigated or eliminated by specific interventions directed at increasing youth physical activity. Voskuild and Robbins postulated that increasing youth self-efficacy could lead to adaptation of a healthy, active lifestyle, which can later lead to confidence and leadership development. The idea of promoting a "health lifestyle" and improving youth self-efficacy is correlated with youth sport participation (Brown et al., 2014). However, other barriers exist in the home when it comes to youth sport participation.

Over the last decade, the cost of participating in organized youth sport has increased drastically (Picchi, 2019). According to Picchi's investigative reporting, some parents pay upwards of $35,000 per year for their child(ren) to participate in sport(s). It comes as little surprise then that Dunn et al. (2016) crafted a study that specifically looked to investigate parental pressure and child enjoyment with financial investment as a moderator. Parental support, a key component of leadership development and well-being among youth, can waver in youth sport participation based on the relationship between financial investment, family income levels, and the outcomes of sport competition (Avolio et al., 2009; Dunn et al., 2016). Mostly, when parents choose to invest sums

of money into sports for their children, they expect some type of return on investment, much like a traditional stockbroker. This return on investment can come in the form of enjoyment their child is having, winning, or believing that their child is developing life skills (e.g., leadership abilities) through their sport participation and peer interactions. Dunn et al. (2016) discovered that the more a family invested into youth sport, the more expectations they had of their investment, which indirectly led to their child perceiving more parental pressure to perform, subsequently lowering their enjoyment of sport participation. As stated earlier, one of the main reasons that parents choose to involve their children in sports is for the multiple perceived benefits of sports participation (Coakley, 2006). However, it appears once the child understands that parental support is tied to their ability to deliver some type of return (e.g., performing well, earning a scholastic scholarship, life skill development), both child enjoyment and child commitment suffer.

It is important to understand that while the research does support the idea that youth sports can provide fertile soil for leadership development, they also offer opportunities to tarnish that very soil. Therefore, it becomes more important to investigate further the family/sport participation interaction and its impact on leadership development. With the evidence discussed earlier highlighting the beneficial effect of sport participation and family environment on youth leadership development, investigating the multiplicative effect of both factors is in dire need of additional inquiry. Can a link be discovered between confidence, sports, family, and leadership development, despite the possibility that parental pressure can compromise sport participation benefits?

Lee, Hwang, and Choi (2017) may have provided the beginnings of an answer to that question in their study focused on exploring coaching and leadership style impact on youth athletes' feelings of social responsibility (e.g., volunteering in the community). Although their research found that female youth athletes tend to feel more social responsibility compared to their

male counterparts, the finding regarding coaching behavior proved interesting. A coach that employed a democratic coaching style had athletes that tended to show higher social responsibility that players that had an autocratic coach. Lee et al. argued that a link between democratic coaching and authoritative parenting exists; creating a warm, supportive environment, either on the sports field or in the home, is what can lead to an increase in social responsibility and leadership potential. However, despite the authors' intriguing takeaway, the conclusion is based on speculation, a theme that will persist throughout the research in this section.

To capture the multiplicative effects of sport and family specifically, another study looked at how athletes develop skills through sport and how coaches, parents, and peers play a role along the way (Wright & Côtè, 2003). This retrospective case study involved six university athletes and relied on three semi-structured interviews lasting between four and five hours. The goal of the three interviews was to solicit information about both how athletes engage with their parents, coaches, and teammates and what activities they engaged in with those same individuals. Among many findings relating to athletic skill development, it was found that athletes that had parents who provided encouragement and financial support tended to endorse a greater motivation to perform well and greater feelings of competence during competition. From this finding, Wright and Côtè (2003) extrapolate that parental support may be critical to athletes' leadership development. Given the study's relatively small size in the context of its original purpose to investigate the development of various skills, its conclusions in regard to leadership development must be regarded as only suggestive.

A study that more effectively examines the potential multiplicative effects of sports and family relationships on leadership development was orchestrated by Hodge et al. (2017). These researchers utilized the official youth development program of the National Hockey League

(NHL), the Hockey is For Everyone (HIFE) program. The 42 youth participants that the researchers recruited from lower socioeconomic households enrolled in HIFE for the study. In so doing, they received a modification of the SUPER program created by Danish et al. (2002) specifically for hockey players. The SUPER program was formatted to teach athletes subjects such as goal setting, managing emotions, seeking help from others, courage, and appreciating differences. Hodge et al. (2017) engaged the youth participants in two semi-structured interviews, one during the HIFE and SUPER program, and one three months after the program was completed. Parents were interviewed once after the HIFE and SUPER program was completed. These interviews aimed to measure if the HIFE and SUPER combined program improved life skills and if those skills transferred to different domains such as school and home life. Interviews were investigated for common themes and coded using inductive analysis and open coding.

The results of the Hodge et al. study (2017) indicated that not only did the youth participants believe they develop leadership skills, but they also believed these leadership skills to be useful outside of the sports arena. The parents also reported witnessing their child improve life and leadership skills. However, what was unique to this study's findings was that participants noted that the HIFE program, when combined with SUPER, began changing the family and home environment. Some parents reported intentionally changing dinner-time conversations to topics of leadership; they were creating additional opportunities in the home where the youth participants could further develop their life and leadership skills in a context outside of sport. Hodge et al. conclude that the HIFE program, combined with SUPER, created change in the family system that promoted life and leadership skills; a sport leadership program and the family environment were working in concert to create meaningful change in youth athletes. These results are supported by Smoll et al. (2011), who concluded from their research that a productive parent, child, coach

relationship leads to an overall improved experience in sport, which can include building character and other leadership qualities.

It is vital to understand not only how sports and families can foster leadership qualities in youth independently, but also the positive interaction of the two factors, as shown in the Hodge et al. (2017) study. The reviewed research suggests that if someone does not have a positive home environment or the opportunity to participate in youth sports, they miss opportunities to develop leadership qualities. Future research should investigate whether sport participation is enough to nullify a negative family environment from a leadership development perspective and vice-versa. Can participation in sports, or a program like SUPER, promote leadership development in youth that have negative or challenging family relationships? A potentially positive direction for future research in this area is seeking to understand if sport participation, as well as family relationships and environments, have a multiplicative effect; experiencing both further increases leadership skill development compared to only experiencing one. Given the research summarized in this literature review, a productive area of inquiry would be to investigate if a low-income family environment can be mitigated by a positive sport environment from a youth leadership development perspective. If positive sport participation was found to be build positive qualities even in the absence of a nurturing family environment, leadership programs using sport could be developed and targeted towards at risk youth living in less-than-ideal family environments. As such, these youths could still be given ample opportunity to develop their leadership ability, which could serve them well during adulthood and in their future careers.

Rationale

Both sport involvement and supportive families facilitate the development of various life skills including youth leadership development. However, what remains unclear is whether youth

sport participation can foster leadership developed concurrently with or without supportive family relationships. Few studies shed light on sport participation's ability to scaffold leadership development in youth that come from unsupportive family environments. Overall, with researchers noting that youth leadership is in decline, learning how to harness youth leadership development even in challenging home environments is a worthwhile goal.

Research Design and Aims

This study used a use a cross-sectional, archival, quantitative research design to investigate the impacts of sport participation and family environments on youth leadership ability. Specifically, there are two aims of this study: One, to investigate the relationship between family relationships/environment and sport participation, and their impact on youth leadership skills and development; and two, to investigate whether participation in youth sports provides enough scaffolding to foster the development of youth leadership skills despite poor family relationships/environments. These two aims give rise to three hypotheses. Aim one will be investigated with two hypotheses: (1) Both positive family relationships and a positive family environment, as well as greater participation in sports, will each be associated with youth leadership ability; and (2) Sport participation will be more strongly related to leadership ability than family relationships and environment. The second aim will be tested with the third hypothesis: youth that have non-supportive family relationships/environment and participate in sports will endorse better leadership skills than youth that do not participate in sports but have positive family relationships/environments. These three hypotheses have provided additional insight into the potential for sport participation to provide opportunities of leadership development for youth either alongside, or despite, the type of family environment (e.g., supportive and non-supportive environments). If the third hypothesis is confirmed, it would be a powerful endorsement of

strongly encouraging sports participation in all students. This, in turn, may provide an impetus for

developing more targeted curriculum and youth leadership program development pathways.

CHAPTER III: METHODS

Procedures

The 2016 Minnesota Student Survey (MSS) was sought as the database for the current study. The MSS was administered in the first half of 2016 to Minnesota students in 5th, 8th, 9th, 10th, and 11th grades. Out of the 330 public school districts in Minnesota, 282 participated in the 2016 MSS accounting for 85% of the public-school districts in the state. Appropriate consent and assent by the MSS were obtained in compliance with federal laws as stated in the Protection of Pupil Rights Amendment (PPRA). Parents were provided the opportunity to review the MSS and its contents, if desired, before their child's participation. Administration of the MSS occurred via online survey only for 5th and 8th-grade students; 9th and 11th-grade students had the option to take the MSS online or with traditional paper and pencil (Burton & Kinney, 2016). The MSS ensures the validity of answers on the questionnaire since time is taken to identify invalid responses, such as highly inconsistent answers or an obvious pattern of exaggeration in survey responders.

Participants

The total number of students in 9th and 11th grade that completed the MSS in 2016 was 168,773. Of this sample 45,309 in 9th grade, and 36,576 in 11th grade. Total participants were roughly 51% male and 49% female and approximately 76% White, but American Indian, Black, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, and a Multiple Race selection make up the remaining 24% of the sample. The MSS also collected data on sexual orientation for 9th and 11th-grade students which revealed roughly 90% of the sample to identify as heterosexual, 5% to identify as bisexual, 1% to identify as Gay or Lesbian, and 4% unsure or questioning.

Measures

In order to measure the constructs of family environment, sport participation, and perceived leadership abilities, specific questions have been selected from the MSS. Therefore, these scales have been created specifically for this study and heavily lean on the reliability and validity of the MSS to merit their usage.

First, the family environment scale for this study is constructed from three specific questions taken from the MSS: "Can you talk to your father about problems you are having," "Can you talk to your mother about problems you are having," and "how much do you feel your parents care about you?" Each of these questions' answers were arranged on five-point Likert scale ranging from, "not at all" to "very much." For this study, a numerical value was assigned to each answer such that "not at all" = 1 and "very much" = 5, along with all possible scores in-between (e.g., 2, 3, 4). A scale was created based on the mean score of the above items, this approach allows for single-parent and same sex-parent households to be included in the study and allows for some scale reliability. Reliability of the scale of family environment were assessed through internal consistency reliability; answers to the questions should be relatively similar. The above questions were chosen to measure parental relationships based upon prior research that stressed the importance of parental caring, and parental involvement as measured by the Inventory of Family Functioning (IFF) and Family Environment Scale (FES) (Oliver et al., 2011). Additionally, the above questions have been used in other studies measuring parenting style and were found to be reliable and valid (Clark et al., 2015).

Second, the sport participation scale was comprised of two questions taken from the MSS, "During a typical week, how often do you participate in sports teams, such as park and rec teams, school teams, in-house teams or traveling teams," and "During a typical week, how often do you

participate in physical activity lessons, such as tennis or karate?" Answers to these questions were arranged on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from, "0 days" to "5 or more days." A scale was created from the above questions and each participants' score will consist of their mean response across the two items. Students that did not answer either of the physical activity participation questions were excluded from the sample because it was impossible to determine if they did or did not participate in sports or other related activities (e.g., karate is not a "sport" as defined in the MSS but is widely considered to be one). Reliability of the scale of family environment was assessed through internal consistency reliability; answers to the questions should be relatively similar.

Finally, for the dependent measure of perceived leadership ability, four questions were utilized from the MSS. These questions are, "When you spend time doing activities outside of school how often do you learn skills like teamwork and leadership," "When you spend time doing things outside of school how often do you develop trusting relationships with adults," "When you spend time doing activities outside of school how often do you help make decisions," and "When you spend time doing activities outside of school how often do you learn skills that you can use in a future job?" Answers to these questions were arranged on a five-point Likert-scale ranging from "rarely or never" to "very often." For this study, a numerical value will be assigned to each answer such that "rarely or never" = 1 and "very often" = 5, along with all the possible scores in-between. The mean score from all questions served as the individual's perceived leadership ability score; the higher the score, the higher the perceived leadership ability. There was no inclusion/exclusion data for the leadership section outside of missing data. Reliability of the scale of family environment was assessed through internal consistency reliability; answers to the questions should be relatively similar. Additionally, the above questions were chosen from the MSS to measure

leadership ability based upon prior research that defined leadership as involving teamwork, decision-making, and relationship building (Zacharatos et al., 2000).

Data Analytic Plan

Regarding the data analysis, each proposed hypothesis used similar analytical approaches. Hypothesis 1 was tested using linear regression to determine the predictive relationship between two predictor variables on leadership ability. Hierarchical entry was used for the creation of the regression model. Previous research suggests that family environment should be placed first in the model, with sport participation coming afterwards. This is not because previous research has determined that family environment is a better predictor of leadership ability, there is simply more research done on how family environment fosters youth leadership development (Holt et al., 2008). Hypothesis 2 was tested using linear regression with the hierarchical entry used with Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 3 was tested using linear regression with hierarchical entry and the PROCESS macro in SPSS 26 to accurately measure the moderation interaction between dependent variables (Hayes, 2022).

Software

SPSS was used to conduct all quantitative statistical analyses of the data received from the archival study. This study was entirely quantitative in nature and included no qualitative data or qualitative data analysis.

Ethical Issues

Informed consent

Consent and assent were obtained through the various schools that participated in the survey. Permission slips containing information regarding consent and assent were either sent home with students, emailed directly to parents, or both sent home with students and emailed to parents. Survey participation followed federal laws regarding parental notification as required by the Protection of Pupil Rights Amendment (PPRA). PPRA requires that schools that participate in the survey notify parents of the survey administration, provide parents the opportunity to review the survey instrument, and allow parents to opt their child out of participating. The researchers clarified that Juvenile Correctional Facilities are exempt from PPRA requirements. Participants and their families were informed that the data collected via the MSS could be used in future research after researchers qualify for data access, with individual answers remaining anonymous. There were no penalties for opting out of the survey. The Minnesota Department of Education provides a model "Notice and Consent/Opt-Out" form on their website for school districts to use that follows PPRA guidelines. A copy of this form has been included in Appendix A and can be found online at the Minnesota Department of Education's website (https://education.mn.gov/MDE/DSE/health/mss/MDE074701).

Risks

Participants may have experienced distress associated with filling out the MSS since the questions potentially probed into painful areas for some participants (e.g., bullying questions). Additionally, there is a risk of loss of anonymity to participants, as some of the MSS questions ask about risk behaviors including alcohol, tobacco, and other drug use, as well as violence and sexual

activity; participants may have feared legal consequences for their answers. However according to the researchers that created the MSS, all survey takers remain anonymous, with no identifying data ever collected about any participant, either in the parent or the proposed study, eliminating the ability for others to match individuals with their survey answers. Additionally, participants could skip any question at any point at their leisure. This study utilized archival data collected by the state of Minnesota from the MSS, the researchers for this study had no access to personal identifying information for any past or current survey participants as their anonymity remains intact from when they originally answered the MSS survey questions. Therefore, the current study adds no additional risks to participants beyond those posed by the parent study.

Deception

There was no deception in the administration of the MSS throughout Minnesota.

Confidentiality

Data collected from participants in the MSS is anonymous. Neither the original or current researchers have any way of identifying any individual participant or linking data to participants. Data from the MSS was stored on one password protected computer inside a password protected folder on said computer. The primary researcher was the only individual that had access to the passwords. Software used for locking the computer folders comes standard on Microsoft Windows 10 Professional Edition.

Information and Debriefing

The Minnesota Student Survey Interagency Team will be informed about the findings from this study, as requested on the Data User Agreement form. The researchers have agreed to send copies of articles, reports, and other publications upon their release to the Student Survey

Interagency Team. Participants cannot be contacted and will not receive any debriefing information about their participation in this study.

Retention of Data

Data will be kept for five years after the study has been completed. The data will then either be destroyed or stored for as long as necessary to complete optional, additional publication.

Permissions

The MSS creators required IRB approval before reviewing a request for data access. IRB approval was obtained, and an official request for the MSS data using the official Minnesota Student Survey Data User Agreement and Data Request form was completed (https://www.surveygizmo.com/s3/5250891/MSS-Data-Request-Form-2019).

CHAPTER IV RESULTS

The aims of this study were to investigate the relationship between family relationships/environment and sport participation, and their impact on youth leadership skills and development; and two, to investigate whether participation in youth sports provides enough scaffolding to foster the development of youth leadership skills despite poor family relationships/environments. The exploratory hypotheses stated that (1) positive family relationships/environment and sport participation will each be associated with youth leadership ability, (2) sport participation will be more strongly related to leadership ability than family relationships and environment, and (3) youth who have non-supportive family relationships/environment and participate in sports will endorse better leadership skills than youth who do not participate in sports but have positive family relationships/environments.

Sample

Descriptive statistics revealed that sample to total 81,885 participants, accounting for invalid participants (e.g., some participants were missing over half of their answers to MSS) and missing data from original MSS tables. Participants ranged from 13 to 19 years old, with an average age of 15 years (M = 15.5). Participants were in either 9th or 11th grade for participation in study, with roughly equal representation between the two grades (9th = 55.3%, 11th = 44.7%). Total participants were 50.3% male and 49.4% female. The MSS also collected data on sexual orientation for 9th and 11th-grade students which revealed 88.3% of the sample to identify as heterosexual, 4.9% to identify as bisexual, 1.3% to identify as Gay or Lesbian, and 4% unsure or questioning. The participants in this study provide a generalizable sample given the age range, biological sex, and sexuality of the sample compared to the general population of adolescents attending high school in the United States (Bouchrika, 2022).

Normality

Normality of the data was examined. Histograms, Q-Q, and P-P plots confirmed the normality of the data. Further, the Central Limit Theory allows for the assumption of normality in this study given participation larger than 30 participants. Data was also examined for collinearity, with no significant collinearity found between measures and scales created for this study, with no VIF scores in the regression greater than 10, and no tolerance scores that exceeded 2. Additionally, casewise diagnostics revealed that there was no presence of outliers, unsurprising given the limits of answers possible in the MSS (e.g., Likert-scales). Standardized residuals revealed a linear relationship additionally indicating that homoscedasticity and linearity are present. Therefore, the assumptions for linear regression have been considered met.

Scale Creation and Reliability

Three scales were created for use in this study from the MSS questionnaire. Scales were created and then measured for reliability. Reliability scores for family environment ($\alpha = .67$) and leadership ($\alpha = .75$) were round to have strong reliability as a measure for the purposes of this study. However, sport participation was found to have weaker reliability as a measure ($\alpha = .49$), which is a limitation of this study. Some questions from the MSS were reverse coded by researcher, so that they would align with the nature of other questions. The questions: "Can you talk to your father about problems you are having," and "Can you talk to your mother about problems you are having," were written with higher scores indicating weaker alliance with parent. Researcher switched coding to align with other questions selected for scale creation without transforming data (e.g., high scores related to better relationship with parent).

Data Analysis

Hypotheses One and Two

A linear regression analysis indicated that sport participation and home environment have a statistically significant correlation with youth leadership abilities; the linear model was found to be consistent with predicting youth leadership ability. Step 1, consisting of analysis of the home environment scale, was found to be significant ($F = 7714.24$, $p < .000$), as was Step 2 consisting of the sport participation scale ($F = 5650.65$, $p < .000$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 has been found to be supported by the analysis.

Additionally, sport participation ($R^2 = .04$) was found to explain less of the variance than home environment ($R^2 = .09$) as pertaining to youth leadership ability. Model parameters for this study's regression analysis indicated that as home environment increases by one unit, youth leadership ability increases by .26 units ($b = .26$), and as sport participation increased by one unit, youth leadership increases by .20 units ($b = .20$). Therefore, hypothesis two was not supported, as home environment provides for larger increases in youth leadership ability per unit, based on the linear model.

Table 1. Linear model of predictors youth leadership ability.

Entry	Beta	Standard Error of Beta	Coefficient Beta	Confidence Intervals	Significance Level (p)
Step 1					
Constant	3.74	.031		3.69, 3.80	$< .001$
Home	0.28	.003	.304	3.42, 3.54	$< .001$
Step 2					
Constant	3.48	.031		3.42, 3.54	$< .001$

Home	0.29	.003	0.26	0.23, 0.25	< .001
Sports	0.17	.003	0.20	0.17, 0.18	< .001

Hypothesis Three

A PROCESS (v. 4.1) analysis was conducted to distinguish the moderative impact sport participation has on leadership ability and home environment/relationships. PROCESS analysis revealed the model produced was statistically significant ($F = 3767.07$, $p < .001$). However, the interaction between home environment and sport participation did not produce a significant result ($F = .078$, p = .78). Sport participation was found to have a statistically insignificant moderation effect on the home environment variable as it pertains to influencing or determining leadership ability. Therefore, the interaction posited for this hypothesis is not significant and this hypothesis is not supported.

Table 2. PROCESS model of mediation for home environment and sport participation.

Model	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-score	Confidence Intervals	Significance Level (p)
Constant	3.47	.058	60.20	3.36, 3.58	< .001
Home	0.24	.005	40.34	0.23, 0.25	< .001
Sport	0.18	.031	11.36	0.15, 0.20	< .001
Sport x Home	-0.004	.002	-0.28	-.003, .003	< .001

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

Overall, only one hypothesis put forward by this research project was supported, Hypothesis 1, which stated that both sport participation and positive family relationships/environment would each be associated with leadership ability in Minnesota youth. However, Hypotheses 2 and 3 were not supported by the data. Hypothesis 2 stated that sports participation would be a stronger predictor of youth leadership ability compared to positive family environment/relationships, while Hypothesis 3 stated that youth with non-supportive family environments and sport participation would endorse better leadership skills than youth that do not participate in sports but have positive family relationships. While Hypothesis 1 was supported, the impact of the significant relationship is relatively minor for both sport participation and family environment/relationship. It is important to understand that while the results for Hypothesis 1 were statistically significant, they had little clinical significance. Essentially, with the sample used for this study being so large, small changes are going to be considered significant using statistical measures. However, due to how slight the differences are, the real-world implications of the significant values are quite minor. Therefore, the results of this study are best used as impetus for further study utilizing different types of data collection and data analysis.

Methodology and Possible Improvements

The methodology used for this study, while appropriate for the current research project, could be significantly improved upon in future research. Possible improvements to this study could include using different data sets more specifically tooled to sport participation measurement, creation of alternate scales for measurement, and using transformational leadership as a target of interest regarding youth leadership and its relations to family and sport. First, utilizing archival data meant to capture a broad range of information across a state was likely a poor target for asking

specific research questions regarding sports, especially since only participation is gathered as a quantitative variable. While the MSS does an excellent job providing specific information regarding the home life of participants, it asks for much less information about their sport involvement. Further, the MSS spends much more time collecting demographic information and data regarding substance use, bullying, and academic involvement than other variables, which makes sense for a state-wide academic survey. Due to the nature of the MSS survey, the creation of scales for this study was a challenge in regard to validity and reliability.

The scale creation for analysis in this study was quite limited regarding the operational definition of transformational leadership, defined as a motivator that inspires people they lead to improve, leading by example (Oliver et al., 2011). Unfortunately, the MSS does not ask many questions to participants that align with the definition used in research for transformational leadership. The MSS focuses on relational variables and decision-making abilities that participants may have at home or at their occupations. Further, while sport participation is important and captured by the MSS, the participant's view of their sport participation is not captured. Neely and Holt (2014) outlined the importance of youth enjoying their sport involvement if the participation itself is to have any positive impact on them. Indeed, the current methodology was limited in its ability to measure participants' passions for sport, which are vital to sport enjoyment and facilitation of character development through sport (Papacharisis et al., 2005). Further, though family relationships and environments are important to the development of leadership ability and secure attachment, there were not enough relevant questions to create a robust scale for measuring the impact of these relationships on the youth that took the MSS survey (Galbraith & Schvaneveldt, 2005; Liu et al., 2018; Oliver et al., 2011). Unfortunately, the scales created to measure the impacts

of sport participation and family environments were likely underpowered. Especially given the strength of findings found in the beforementioned studies.

Finally, the third suggestion for improvement to this study's methodology involves considering attachment style in relation to transformational leadership ability. It is relatively clear from this study that mere participation in sport is not important enough to moderate change in leadership ability among youth participants, there is something more intimate about the participation itself that provides the catalyst for developing leadership ability. A strong argument can be made that experiencing a secure attachment style while participating in sport may facilitate the relational learning process, where sport becomes an attachment medium through which relationships can be made to both peer and coach alike. A child participating in sports tends to expand the family system they are a part of, introducing family members (parents) to their culture of sport, which brings new relationships for all involved with the student-athlete. In this fashion, not only does sport impact the relationships of the child, but of the family as well. Additionally, having a positive sport experience tends to be a net-gain for the family as well, with parents reporting higher well-being when their child enjoys the sport they play (McGrath et al., 2009). While the current study sought to capture the impact of play in sport on leadership development, a stronger target of investigation may have focused on the relationships gained through sport and their impact on leadership ability.

All this being said, the methodology chosen for this research project was valid in regard to selecting appropriate measures, scales, and interpretations for the hypotheses explored. Overall, the suggestions for methodological improvements hinge on the selection of the MSS for the current study. An archival study is likely not suited to such a complex research question involving human attachment, relationships, interests, passions, and complexities of humans in relation to one

another, and relation to sport, especially in the sport-minded country of the United States, where professional sporting arenas are lovingly referred to as Cathedrals, Colosseums, and Fields of Dreams (Kibin, 2023). Additionally, the research questions for this study were likely too general for a general questionnaire like the MSS.

Relevance of Results and Literature

The importance of the results for this study lies in what it did not discover as much as what it did discover. Overall, family relationships/environments were found to have greater influence on leadership development in youth compared to sport participation. This result is unsurprising given the surplus of research indicating the power of positive familial relations and their positive benefits for children, even in the event of trauma(s) (Daniels & Bryan, 2021). While sport participation is important for youth and leadership development, multiple studies highlighted that sport needs to be more than simply played if developmental boons are sought (Appelqvist-Schmidlechner et al., 2018; Bower & Carroll, 2015; Coakley, 2011). While the found impact of sport participation on youth leadership development in this study is slight, it is nonetheless a positive impact, indicating that merely participating in sport can lead to some positive, developmental changes in youths' leadership development. The same can be said for positive family relationships, while the impact is relatively slight in this study, the impact is positive, indicating merely existing in a positive family relationship/environment can lead to leadership development to some degree. These results provide good news to parents and youth, simply play sports and be around family members you enjoy, and you can reasonably expect some benefit to leadership ability. However, this result begs a more important question that may likely sit on the minds of parents and future researchers; beyond simply being in sport and positive families, what specifically leads to greater youth leadership development?

Research reviewed for this study revealed that having early opportunities for decision-making, high levels of reception and parental support, authoritative parenting, democratic parenting, and child self-concept all contribute to developing transformational leadership ability within the family environment (Liu et al., 2018; Popper & Mayseless, 2007; Steinberg, 2001). Within sport, research has indicated that the development of resilience, utilizing failure effectively, and opportunities to develop teamwork/relational skills are all important regarding the development of leadership abilities (Duckworth, 2016; Kavussanu et al., 2008; Rintaugu et al., 2018). The current study sought to determine if simple participation in sport and/or simply existing within a positive family environment is enough to garnish improved leadership abilities. The general answer is, "No." Both the current study and prior research indicate there is much more to developing leadership ability as a child than simply being in sport and being supported by family. Coakley (2011) argues that a "Sport Plus" approach is necessary to developing youth leadership abilities; meshing relational and competitive factors to foster development of relational skills and resilience for adversities. Coakley's argument, combined with the results of this study, provide a foundation from which to understand the impacts of families and sports at a deeper level.

Attachment and Moving Research Forward

Throughout the literature review and discussion of results, a general theme developed regarding the relationship between sport participation and family support. While positive environments are beneficial and welcomed, and while sport provides the general framework for handling success, failure, and adversity, the attachment style of the child is likely paramount to the development of leadership qualities with families and athletic teams (Holt et al., 2008; Kudo et al., 2012). Transformational leadership and attachment style have become more recent topics of research, with earlier research providing theoretical groundwork for empirical study. Popper,

Maysless, and Castelnovo (2000) argued that transformational leadership and providing secure-like attachment with those who are lead would be pivotal to a transformational leader being effective. Popper et al. argue that simply understanding the definition of transformational leadership is not enough, as it is easy to take on a managerial role versus leadership role, the hallmark of transactional leadership (e.g., identifying expectations of followers and then responding accordingly). More importantly, transformational leadership incorporates the response style of a transactional leader, while creating a special effect of a transformational leader which includes intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and charisma. In short, being a transformational leader is hard.

McClean et al. (2021) affirm the difficulties of transformational leadership, succinctly stating that transformational leaders need daily family support to maintain their leadership abilities. Through their study, McClean et al. developed the Family-Work Enrichment protocol, which promotes the engagement of transformational leadership in the family context, wherein the individual can both develop skills as a leader, but also receive the benefits of being around transformational leaders in the family. Therefore, simply learning what transformational leadership is, via study or vicarious experience, is not enough to maintain effective transformational leadership; transformational leaders themselves need replenishing relationships. This idea is based on the idea of "security priming," a method in which people are made to think about those they enjoy secure attachments with, resulting in a host of benefits including increased well-being, reduced depression and trauma symptoms, and increases in felt security (Ai, Gillath, & Karantzas, 2020). Specifically, security priming in attachment provides its benefits through safe havening and establishing a secure base. Safe haven refers to a relationship that provides safety and comfort while reducing stress, while a secure base refers to a relationship that also provides

resources from which individuals can take action. The impacts that secure attachment has on relationships via safe havening and secure base creation are robust, including reducing severe PTSD symptoms in Vietnam veterans (Levin, Mikulincer, & Solomon, 2021), reducing relational rupture between individuals in close relationships (Gillath et al., 2010), preventing depression symptoms due to online bullying via social media (Forchuk, Plouffe, & Saklofske, 2021), and improving therapeutic intervention and client rapport (Miller-Bottome et al., 2019).

According to research discussed in this study, a transformational leader puts the needs of others before their own, but this endeavor is not sustainable without relational replenishing. Further, a transformational leader needs a secure base from which to endeavor to lead; a place to anchor themselves that is emotionally nurturing (Ai et al., 2020). There are various places that individuals can have secure bases and safe havens, from family and friends, to religious figures and God (Foulkes-Bert et al., 2019).

Overall, it appears to matter less where a secure base and safe haven reside, and more so that relationships that foster their existence in the first place. Therefore, a sports team, coaches, trainers, and other staff involved with athletics could all be considered potential sources of secure relationships involving safe havening and securing bases. The potential research questions regarding family versus sport fostering youth leadership reside within the framework of attachment and whether relationships forged through sport or family have any superiority when compared. As well, it would be important to understand whether relationships that provide a secure base and safe haven are robust enough to overcome insecure (anxious, avoidant, disorganized) attachment relationships in regard to the development of leadership skills and personal well-being.

While exploring leadership development in individuals with insecure attachment is important, such research also carries with it some challenges. For example, insecure attachments

can often be caused by abusive relationships, which would complicate the study of it given the possible ethical concerns such a study might raise. Additionally, though attachment research has investigated the impacts of security priming (secure relationships) on reducing trauma symptoms, exploring if sport could be used as a vehicle for secure attachments may be beneficial for treatment of disorders in which relational injury has occurred (Mikulincer et al., 2001).

Through this study, it has become apparent that transformational leadership, general well-being, and attachment are more closely related than first assumed, both by the researcher of this study and prior research reviewed for rationale. The current study's findings provide support for the idea that participation in sport can provide improvements to leadership ability in youth, and that positive family environments also increase leadership ability in youth, simply by having a positive family. That said, simply participating in sport is not enough to counter the negative effects of a relationally poor family environment, as evident in the third hypothesis of this study. Therefore, new research would do well to explore the specificity of relationships young people experience at home and in sport; is a secure relationship that provides safe haven and secure base on an athletic team more important than family relationships? Are familial relationships the gold standard for security? Can children forge secure relationships on an athletic team that affords them the ability to develop leadership ability despite a relationally poor home environment, or is the positive impact of sport relationships eroded? All these research questions could be considered next steps to take from the current completed study.

Study Limitations

This study's largest limitation was that the research questions and hypotheses were ill fit for the MSS data. Specifically, the creation of scales for this study was difficult regarding reliability and validity, as there simply were not enough questions related to the variables being

measured. While the scales created to measure family environment and sport participation were reliable and valid enough for an exploratory study, the scale for leadership had the weakest reliability/validity, which may have had a large impact on study results as leadership was the dependent variable. While the MSS is a robust measure of many variables for Minnesota youth, it largely does not ask about leadership, athletics, and family relationships.

Second, this study was limited by the use of archival data and may have benefitted from a quasi-experimental design complete with a combination of quantitative and qualitative data. First, a quasi-experimental design would have allowed for recruitment of athletes and non-athletes more specifically. Those that participate in athletics could have been asked how much they enjoy their chosen sport, teammates, coaches, and how much their parents support their athletic endeavors. This approach would have allowed for more specific measurement of the participants' athletic endeavors. Further, the quasi-experimental design would also allow for researchers to design their own measures to collect data more specific to leadership, sport involvement, and family relationships informed by prior research. Second, combining qualitative and quantitative data could greatly enhance the information gleaned from participants about their athletic endeavors and family relationships. Creating structured interviews with participants would allow for the participants to provide specific details about their relationships with athletics, family members, and how they view themselves as a leader. This information would be largely beneficial to the researchers as relationship quality is important regarding fostering development in youth.

Clinical Implications

This study found that both sport participation and positive family relationships/ environment will each be associated with leadership ability in Minnesota youth. While the

statistical impact of the results gleaned is relatively small, the results can still be used to inform clinical and parental judgement, when appropriate.

The results of this study should be considered when parents or clinicians are seeking opportunities to help a youth develop leadership ability and ,by extension, well-being. Since sport participation and family relationships are important to the scaffolding of both leadership and well-being, enhancing the family relationships and choosing a sport to participate in are both appropriate recommendations. Family relationships can be harnessed to enhance well-being, as quality of family relationships and environment has been found in this research project to be directly related to emotional health in youth (Daniels & Bryan, 2021; Duong & Bradshaw, 2017; Eldad & Benatov, 2018). While the current study's effect sizes were relatively small, they still indicated the benefits of secure family relationships and the positive impact of sport participation. Therefore, working on improving or utilizing the existing family system while playing sports is an easily recommended strategy for improving leadership abilities and fostering improved well-being in youth. For example, while the child is the primary participant, family system support through attendance or participation in practice away from the playing field could serve to strengthen relationships or create new ones among family members.

Second, this study's results suggest that there are likely more factors involved when it comes to developing leadership in youth than simply family environment and sport participation. This conclusion is a by-product of the relatively weak effect sizes the current study produced. Therefore, though working to enhance family relationships or participating in sports appears to be a productive choice for leadership development, there are likely other factors that have large amounts of influence on leadership development within families and sport participation that was not directly measure by the current study. It may be that specific discussions of leadership more

broadly may be necessary to produce gains in that area. Based on the current study's merits, caution should be used by clinicians when prescribing interventions or behavioral changes included in this study without referencing other research with more robust generalization ability

Finally, while the recommendations above are relatively low-risk clinical suggestions, sport participation does carry the risk of sport injury, which can lower well-being based on severity of injury (McKay, Cumming, & Blake, 2019). While the current study has largely focused on the positive impact of sport participation, including multiple sources supporting this fact, the benefits need to be balanced against potential harm in a clinical context, which calls on good clinical decision-making with clients. With youth sport injury rising over the past decade due to factors such as over-training, lack of rest/recuperation, and increasingly rigorous youth sport schedules, a measured approach to sport participation is likely best practice (Merkel, 2013).

Conclusion

Overall, this study found that both positive family environment and sport participation can lead to increases in youth leadership development. While the effect size for this significant finding is not particularly large, this study provides foundation for further research into the complicated relationships between family, athletics, and leadership development. While this study did not find sport participation to be a better predictor of leadership development in youth compared to family environment, more specific studies are needed to better target the impact of sport on leadership development, beyond simple participation. Further, the study also did not find sport participation powerful enough to outweigh the negative impacts of unsupportive family environments on leadership development in youth. It is the hope of the researcher that more specific investigation of sport and family's impact on youth leadership development is conducted, as increasing the

number of positive relationships in a youth's life often lead to more secure developmental patterns

and increased well-being (Bower & Carroll, 2015).

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APPENDIX A

PPRA Model Notice and Consent/Opt-Out for Specific Activities

[LEAs should adopt the following model form as appropriate]

The Protection of Pupil Rights Amendment (PPRA), 20 U.S.C. § 1232h, requires **[School District]** to notify you and obtain consent or allow you to opt your child out of participating in certain school activities. These activities include a student survey, analysis, or evaluation that concerns one or more of the following eight areas ("protected information surveys"):

1. Political affiliations or beliefs of the student or student's parent;
2. Mental or psychological problems of the student or student's family;
3. Sex behavior or attitudes;
4. Illegal, anti-social, self-incriminating, or demeaning behavior;
5. Critical appraisals of others with whom respondents have close family relationships;
6. Legally recognized privileged relationships, such as with lawyers, doctors, or ministers;
7. Religious practices, affiliations, or beliefs of the student or the student's parent; or
8. Income, other than as required by law to determine program eligibility.

This parental notification requirement and opt-out opportunity also apply to the collection, disclosure or use of personal information collected from students for marketing purposes ("marketing surveys"). Please note that parents are not required by PPRA to be notified about the collection, disclosure, or use of personal information collected from students for the exclusive purpose of developing, evaluating, or providing educational products or services for, or to, students or educational institutions. Additionally, the notice requirement applies to the conduct of certain physical exams and screenings. This includes any non-emergency, invasive physical exam or screening required as a condition of attendance, administered by the school or its agent, and not necessary to protect the immediate health and safety of a student. This does not include hearing, vision, or scoliosis screenings, or any physical exam or screening permitted or required by State law.

Following is a schedule of activities requiring parental notice and consent or opt-out for the upcoming school year. This list is not exhaustive and, for surveys and activities scheduled after the school year starts, the [**School District**] will provide parents, within a reasonable period of time prior to the administration of the surveys and activities, notification of the surveys and activities, an opportunity to opt their child out, as well as an opportunity to review the surveys. (Please note that this notice and consent/opt-out transfers from parents to any student who is 18 years old or an emancipated minor under State law.)

[The following are only examples of PPRA notices and consent/opt-outs that may be used by school districts for protected information surveys or marketing surveys. School districts will need to tailor their notices and consent/opt outs depending on their specific activities, as required by PPRA.]

[For surveys that contain questions from one or more of the eight protected areas noted above:]

Date: On or about [**Add date.**]

Grades: Eight and Nine

Activity: ABC Survey of At-Risk Behaviors.

Summary: This is an anonymous survey that asks students questions about behaviors such as drug and alcohol use, sexual conduct, violence, and other at-risk behaviors. The survey also asks questions of a demographic nature concerning family make-up, the relationship between parents and children, and use of alcohol and drugs at home.

[**Note to schools**: We recommend that the notice inform parents that they may submit a request to a specified school official or office in order to review the protected information survey and that the school official or office will notify the parent of the time and place where the parent may review this. A parent has the right, upon request, to review this protected information survey.]

[Note to schools: If the survey in question is administered as part of an applicable program of the U.S. Department of Education (ED program), such as through an ED-administered grant program and the student is required to submit to the survey, prior "active" consent is required, as in the first example. If the survey is not administered as part of an ED program or the student is not required to submit to the survey, then the school should use the second example of an opt-out notice.**]**

Consent **[only for protected information surveys that are administered as part of an ED program and to which the student is required to submit]**: A parent must sign and return the consent below no later than [insert return date] so that your child may participate in this survey.

[Sample consent:

I [parent's name] give my consent for [child's name] to take the ABC Survey of At-Risk Behaviors on or about [Add date].

_____
          Parent's signature

Please return this form no later than [insert date] to the following school official: [Provide name and mailing address.]

Opt-out **[for any protected information survey that is not administered as part of an ED program or to which the student is not required to submit]**: A parent must sign and return this opt-out form no later than [insert return date] [OR] Contact **[school official]** at **[telephone number, email, address, etc.]** no later than **[date]** if you do not want your child to take the ABC Survey of At-Risk Behaviors on or about [**Add date**].

_____
Parent's signature

Please return this form no later than [insert date] to the following school official: [Provide name and mailing address.]

[**Note to schools:** While some of the information – names, addresses, and telephone listings – may be designated and disclosed as "directory information" under the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA), schools that permit marketing activities that involve the disclosure of students' Social Security numbers may not use an opt-out procedure and must obtain prior written consent in accordance with § 99.30 of the FERPA regulations.**]**