

SELF-LEADERSHIP AND SUPERLEADERSHIP: EXAMINING THE LEADERSHIP
DEVELOPMENT OF UNIVERSITY UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS USING THE
ABBREVIATED SELF-LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (ASLQ)

Isabell Wong Flores
B.S., Saint Mary's College of California, Moraga, 1999
Qualified for Admission to Practice Law in California,
The State Bar of California Law Office Study Program, Los Angeles, 2004
Certificate to Practice Law in California, 2007

DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

at

CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, SACRAMENTO

SPRING
2020

Copyright © 2020
Isabell Wong Flores
All rights reserved

SELF-LEADERSHIP AND SUPERLEADERSHIP: EXAMINING THE LEADERSHIP
DEVELOPMENT OF UNIVERSITY UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS USING THE
ABBREVIATED SELF-LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (ASLQ)

A Dissertation

by

Isabell Wong Flores

Approved by Dissertation Committee:

Dr. Alexander Gonzalez, Chair

Dr. Porfirio Loeza, Committee Member

Dr. Ed Mills, Committee Member

SPRING 2020

SELF-LEADERSHIP AND SUPERLEADERSHIP: EXAMINING THE LEADERSHIP
DEVELOPMENT OF UNIVERSITY UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS USING THE
ABBREVIATED SELF-LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (ASLQ)

Student: Isabell Wong Flores

I certify that this student has met the requirements for format contained in the University
format manual, and this dissertation is suitable for electronic submission to the library
and credit is to be awarded for the dissertation.

_____, Graduate Coordinator _____
Dr. Rose Borunda Date

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my parents who have always worked so hard to support me and assist me in following all of my goals and dreams. They are truly amazing individuals and I will never forget everything they taught me through their own self-leadership and guidance. I would also like to dedicate this dissertation to my ancestors, those that came before me, who inspired me to always seek to improve myself and to seek out a better life. These individuals have paved the way for me to be able to pursue my goals and dreams. Without any of them, none of this would be possible. I also would like to thank all the family members and friends who were supportive and caring throughout this process. I also dedicate this dissertation to the people who helped to make me who I am today, who were there for me, supported me, and loved me through it all. I also dedicate this dissertation to the millions of individuals, as well as students, who are working hard out there, struggling in the world to make it, living their lives as best they can, striving their hardest to reach their goals and to achieve their dreams. Just know you can set your mind to something and achieve all that what you want to achieve.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I would like to acknowledge my Dissertation Chair Dr. Alexander Gonzalez along with his wife Gloria Gonzalez. I am so amazed and thankful for Dr. Gonzalez. Dr. Gonzalez was an amazing and talented leader. He has been a shining white light through my entire dissertation process. I have learned so much about being a leader, a self-leader, and a SuperLeader just by working with him during the dissertation process. What an amazing experience to have such an individual as a mentor and teacher. I will forever be grateful for him teaching me and showing me in so many ways through his everyday actions to be a better person, and to see within myself and in others, their abilities to be a leader. I am thankful for his positive support, patience, and guidance, and I will forever be grateful. I cannot thank Dr. Gonzalez, enough for his leadership and support, which has amazed me and inspired me in so many ways. It was such a blessing to have him as a chair. I truly consider you family and so thankful for you always believing in me always, and your constant steady support and knowingness that I could do it. It truly was a blessing and a gift from the universe to have you as my dissertation chair.

To my committee members Dr. Porifio Loeza and Dr. Ed Mills, I was truly blessed to have been able to work with these two amazing and talented individuals, who I am so thankful to know. I acknowledge and thank them, for all of their positive leadership and support. They are both amazing leaders, and mentors, each in their own unique and talented ways. Thank you again for all the support and guidance. I would also like to acknowledge Dr. Katrina Pimentel for her positive support and guidance through the dissertation process.

To my parents, my two other silent committee members, I want to acknowledge all the hard work, dedication, and support they have done for me. I want to thank them so much. Without them, none of this would even be possible.

To Dr. Fred Evangelisti, and his wife Molly, who offered amazing support, guidance and positivity throughout the completion of this dissertation. I was so blessed to have your positive support.

To Dr. Timothy Fong, I can't thank you enough for all of your positive support and encouragement. You came into my life like an angel giving me hope and inspiration for my dissertation and in so many other areas of my life.

To Dr. Jeffery Houghton, thank you for giving me permission to utilize the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire and learn more about your important work, as well as the self-leadership of students.

To Dr. Julian Vasquez Heilig, thank you for always believing in me and encouraging me to be my best.

To Dr. Nathan Conkle, Dr. Malika Hollinside, and Dr. Frank Lilly, for the positive encouragement and support as we went through our last year through the dissertation journey.

To Dr. Rose Borunda, thank you for being a positive support, mentor, and great example of a female leader. To Dr. Ted Lascher, thank you for all your support and encouragement. To EDD staff and all of our amazing faculty, thank you for being a joy and pleasure to work and to learn from.

To my dear friends and library staff who were always there for me, to cheer me up during the late nights in the library. I can't thank you enough for being there for me always being positive and supportive, encouraging, and just great to be around. You truly made my experience so much more positive and more enjoyable. Thank you so much.

To all of my friends, and to anyone who has helped me during this time of my life, you know who you are! I thank you for all your love and support.

To all the great thinkers, authors, speakers, inspirational speakers, social media influencers, researchers, mentors, teachers, those living and who have passed, those who I know and others I may have known in a another lifetime, that have inspired me, and were there for me, thank you!

CURRICULUM VITAE

EDUCATION

Doctorate in Educational Leadership and Policy Studies, Ed.D., 2020
California State University, Sacramento

Certificate to Practice Law in California, 2007
Qualified for admission to practice law in California, 2004
The State Bar of California Law Office Study Program, Los Angeles

B.S. in Economics and Business Administration, Media Law emphasis, 1999
Minor in Communications
Saint Mary's College of California, Moraga

PROFESSIONAL EMPLOYMENT

Graduate Research Assistant, Doctorate in Educational Leadership Program, California State University, Sacramento, 2018 -Present
Principal Attorney, Law Offices of Isabell W. Flores, 2009 – Present
Professional Speaker, Consultant, Coach, Isabell Flores Speaks, 2011 – Present

BAR/COURT ADMISSIONS

Admitted to California Bar, 2007
Admitted to Eastern District, U.S. District Court, 2007

ACADEMIC PUBLICATIONS

Heilig, J.V., Flores, I.W., Souza, A.E., Barry, J.C., Monroy, S.B. (2019). Considering the Ethnoracial and Gender Diversity of Faculty in US College and University Intellectual Communities. *Hispanic Journal of Law and Policy*, 2(1), 1-31.

FIELDS OF STUDY

Higher Education / Postsecondary Educational Leadership
Community College

Abstract

of

SELF-LEADERSHIP AND SUPERLEADERSHIP: EXAMINING THE LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT OF UNIVERSITY UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS USING THE ABBREVIATED SELF-LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (ASLQ)

by

Isabell Wong Flores

The study examined the role self-leadership plays in the leadership development of undergraduate students engaged in student and leadership organizations on a university campus. The author utilized the quantitative method of research to demonstrate that by promoting self-leadership and self-leadership strategies in the leadership development of students, positive personal, professional, and academic outcomes are produced. The study examined the theoretical frameworks and concepts of SuperLeadership, self-leadership, leadership, leadership development, self-leadership development, and leadership training and programs. The study utilized the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) developed by Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) which is a self-leadership measurement and survey instrument. The ASLQ consists of a 9-item, three-factor questionnaire with a 5-point Likert-type scale, that has been found to be a valid and reliable global measurement of self-leadership. The study also sought to determine whether there was a difference in the self-leadership strategies between students who engage in student and leadership organizations on campus and those who do not. Findings provided unique insights relative to both the self-leadership and leadership

development of undergraduate students. Additionally, because the ASLQ has been recently added to the self-leadership literature, there has been little empirical research applying the ASLQ measurement. This study aims to add to this unique body of literature. Recommendations for policy and research are identified.

Keywords: self-leadership, SuperLeadership, leadership, leadership development, self-leadership development, leadership training, leadership programs, undergraduate students, student organizations, higher education, Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Dedication.....	v
Acknowledgements.....	vi
Curriculum Vitae.....	ix
List of Tables.....	xvii
List of Figures.....	xviii
Chapter	
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Introduction.....	1
Problem Statement.....	3
Purpose of the Study.....	4
Theoretical Frameworks.....	4
SuperLeadership.....	5
Self-Leadership.....	7
Leadership Development.....	8
Self-Leadership Development.....	9
Nature of the Study.....	9
Research Questions.....	9
Research Design.....	10
Data Collection & Instrumentation.....	10
Operational Definitions.....	13

Assumptions, Limitations, Delimitations.....	13
Significance of the Study.....	15
Conclusion.....	17
2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	18
Introduction.....	18
SuperLeadership.....	19
Self-Leadership.....	22
Self-Leadership Defined.....	22
Brief History of Self-Leadership.....	24
Self-Leadership Strategies.....	27
Self-Leadership Benefits.....	29
Leadership Development.....	32
Self-Leadership Development.....	34
Self-Leadership Measurement.....	37
Self-Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ).....	38
Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ).....	40
Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ).....	43
Conclusion.....	48
3. METHODOLOGY.....	50
Introduction.....	50
Research Design.....	50
Quantitative Method.....	50

Role of Researcher.....	51
Research Questions.....	52
Setting, Population, & Sample.....	52
Setting.....	52
Population & Sample (Participants).....	53
Data Collection & Instrumentation.....	54
Measuring Instruments.....	54
Procedures.....	56
Data Analysis.....	57
Data Analysis of Research Question #1.....	57
Data Analysis of Research Question #2.....	58
Protection of Participants.....	58
4. ANALYSIS OF THE DATA.....	60
Introduction.....	60
Research Questions.....	61
Demographics.....	62
Age.....	62
Gender.....	64
School-Level Status.....	65
Race/Ethnicity.....	67
First-Generation College Student Status.....	69
Socio-Economic Status.....	70

Student Leader Status.....	71
Self-Leadership.....	73
Total Self-Leadership/ASLQ Scores of Participants.....	75
Total Self-Leadership/ASLQ Subscale Scores of Participants.....	78
Self-Leadership Results.....	79
Null Hypothesis and Hypothesis #1 and #2.....	80
Null Hypothesis (H ₀).....	80
Hypothesis #1 (H ₁).....	80
Hypothesis #2 (H ₂)	80
Research Question #1.....	80
Results of Data Analysis for Research Question 1.....	81
Research Question #2.....	82
Results of Data Analysis for Research Question 2.....	83
Conclusion.....	85
5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS.....	87
Introduction.....	87
Problem Statement.....	87
Summary of the Study.....	88
Research Questions.....	89
Null Hypothesis and Hypothesis #1 and #2.....	90
Null Hypothesis (H ₀).....	90
Hypothesis #1 (H ₁).....	90

Hypothesis #2 (H ₂).....	90
Discussion of the Findings.....	90
Demographics.....	91
Self-Leadership Results.....	92
Theoretical Frameworks.....	94
Assumptions, Limitations, Delimitations.....	94
Significance of the Study.....	96
Recommendations for Future Research.....	98
Conclusion.....	99
6. APPENDICES.....	101
Appendix A. Operational Definitions.....	101
Appendix B. Survey Informed Consent Letter.....	104
Appendix C. Demographics Questionnaire.....	106
Appendix D. Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ).....	108
Appendix E. Survey Instrument.....	109
REFERENCES.....	112

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Comparison of Summary of RSLQ and ASLQ Dimensions, Subscales, and Scale Items.....	45
2. Age of Participants.....	64
3. Gender of Participants.....	65
4. School-Level Status of Participants.....	67
5. Race/Ethnicity of Participants.....	69
6. First-Generation College Student Status of Participants.....	70
7. Socio-Economic/Pell Grant Status of Participants.....	71
8. Student-Leader Status of Participants.....	72
9. 9 Questions of the ASLQ.....	74
10. Measures of Central Tendency and Dispersion, Total Self-Leadership/ASLQ Scores.....	76
11. Measures of Central Tendency and Dispersion, Total Self-Leadership/ASLQ Subscale Scores.....	79
12. Independent Samples T-Test Results According to ASLQ Total Scores of Students.....	81
13. Independent Samples T-Test Results for ASLQ Subscale Scores of Students.....	83
14. Questions in Third Subscale of ASLQ, Constructive Cognition.....	84

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Literature Review Overview.....	5
2. Theoretical Model.....	13
3. A Model of Self-Leadership Theoretical Contexts and Performance Mechanisms.....	26
4. Age of Participants.....	63
5. Gender of Participants.....	65
6. School-Level Status of Participants.....	66
7. Race/Ethnicity of Participants.....	68
8. First-Generation College Student Status of Participants.....	70
9. Socio-Economic Status of Participants.....	71
10. Student-Leader Status of Participants.....	72
11. Grouping of 5-Point Likert-type ASLQ scale responses.....	75
12. Total Self-Leadership/ASLQ Scores of Participants.....	77
13. Total Self-Leadership Scores of Participants, by Student Leader Status.....	78

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The problem this study addresses in its examination of self-leadership and SuperLeadership (one who leads others to lead themselves) is the challenge of leading and developing leaders in higher education in the 21st Century (Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Neck & Manz, 2010). The context for higher education includes facing the advancement of knowledge and continued development of the information era, data that is growing at an exponential rate, and rapidly changing environments (Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Neck & Manz, 2010; Zapalska, Zieser, & Kelley, 2016). Thus, individuals, such as students, educational and organizational leaders will need to shift, mold, and adapt to new ways of leading themselves and building the self-leadership development of others (Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Neck & Manz, 2010, Nevarez, 2017). Since there have been rapid shifts and changes in the global economy and employment market, it is imperative that students are equipped and have the tools to assist them to adapt to changing and unforeseeable events and adjusting to the fast-changing employer-employee and organizational environments (Boyce, Zaccaro, & Wisecarver, 2010; Marcketti, Arendt, & Shelley, 2011; Zapalska, Zieser, & Kelley, 2016). In addition to human resource development, the development of self-leadership for employees and self-development for leaders is on the rise as more companies expand this area of leadership development (Anderson & Prussia, 1997; Marcketti, Arendt, &

Shelley, 2011; Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Neck & Manz, 2010; Zapalska, Zieser, & Kelley, 2016).

In the current era, leaders are much more likely to move from organization to organization at a more rapid pace throughout their careers (Boyce, Zaccaro, & Wisecarver, 2010). Thus, in order to maintain a competitive edge, they must ensure they are up to speed regarding their professional leadership abilities (Boyce, Zaccaro, & Wisecarver, 2010; Zapalska, Zieser, & Kelley, 2016). Technological advances in connection with teaching and learning, and the need to assist individuals to adapt to new or existing technology, cannot be understated (Bassendowski & Petrucka, 2013; Bozyigit, 2019; Manz, 1983; Manz & Sims, 2001, Wood & Nevarez, 2014). More specifically, self-leadership skills will be necessary for students as they confront this rapidly changing era (Bozyigit, 2018, 2019; Marcketti, Arendt, & Shelley, 2009; Zapalska, Zieser, & Kelley, 2016). For this reason, leadership education and leadership development of students is a pressing issue that must be continuously addressed (Bozyigit, 2018, 2019; Marcketti, Arendt, & Shelley, 2009; Zapalska, Zieser, & Kelley, 2016).

The proposed research is significant because the study benefits and encourages students to develop their own self-leadership strategies. But it also benefits others as well, including educational leaders, organizational and corporate executives, other leadership staff, and key human resource personnel. This study encourages these individuals and groups to work on becoming not only a SuperLeader, but more importantly, a self-leader, in their own personal, professional, and educational lives. This research also addresses gaps in the literature by developing the research literature on self-leadership utilizing the

ASLQ (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). Particular attention is focused on the leadership development and self-leadership development of undergraduate students engaged in student and leadership organizations on a university campus. To date, there has been no other research that has been conducted regarding self-leadership within this specific higher education context. This fact has been confirmed by one of the ASLQ's creators and researchers in the field, Jeffery D. Houghton (J. D. Houghton, personal communication, July 2, 2019).

The broad social context for this problem includes the social and/or organizational change that has an impact on organizations such as corporations, governments, non-profits, institutions of higher education, and educational institutions. To meet this change, these organizations can seek to add to, or modify, existing leadership and professional development programs or curriculum to include self-leadership strategies and self-leadership development for the benefit of all participants, including students.

Problem Statement

The problem this study addresses in its examination of self-leadership and SuperLeadership (one who leads others to lead themselves) is the challenge of leading and developing leaders in higher education within the context of a continually changing 21st Century environment (Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Neck & Manz, 2010). While furthering the advancement of knowledge in rapidly changing environments in the era of information and data that is growing at an exponential rate, individuals, such as students, educational and organizational leaders, will need to shift, mold, and adapt to new ways of leading themselves and building the self-leadership development of others

(Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Neck & Manz, 2010, Nevarez, 2017). Self-leadership strategies can be utilized as tools to assist individuals, educational leaders and other organizational leaders in providing training, curriculum, and instruction that can assist them in performing more effectively (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Andressen, Konradt, & Neck, 2012).

The study encourages students as well as other individuals, including educational leaders, organizational and corporate executives, other leadership staff, and key human resource personnel, to develop their own self-leadership strategies, and to work on becoming not only SuperLeaders, but more importantly, self-leaders, in their own personal, professional, and educational lives.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the role self-leadership plays in the leadership development of undergraduate students engaged in student and leadership organizations on a university campus.

Theoretical Frameworks

The theoretical concepts and frameworks used to frame this research are SuperLeadership, Self-Leadership, Leadership Development, and Self-Leadership Development. Figure 1 provides an overview of the concepts from the literature that were utilized in this research. Moreover, the theoretical frameworks are presented and discussed in Chapter 2.

The most important aspect of these theoretical concepts is that they encourage educational leaders, organizational and corporate executives, other leadership staff, and

key human resource personnel, and more importantly, students, to become SuperLeaders; one who leads others to lead themselves (Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001). More important, it encourages each of them to become a self-leader and to develop their own self-leadership skills that are essential for success in their personal, professional, and educational lives.

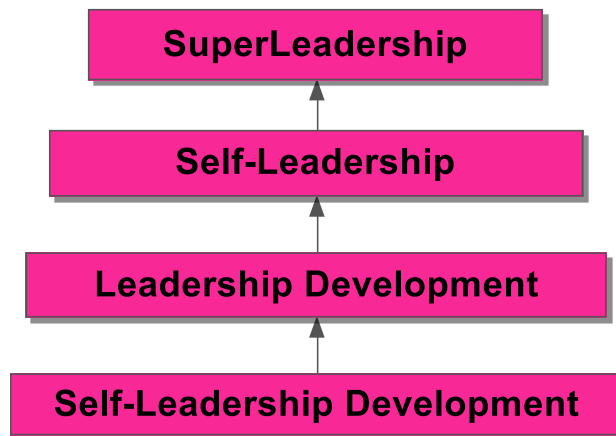


Figure 1. Literature review overview.

SuperLeadership

“SuperLeaders lead others to lead themselves” (Manz & Sims, 2001, p. 7). In order for one to become a SuperLeader, an individual must master his/her own self-leadership, which is at the heart of SuperLeadership (Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Manz, 1991). In 1991, Manz and Sims (1991) set forth a new form of leadership style called SuperLeadership, that contained the concept of self-leadership at its core. The authors explained that this form of leadership style was created to assist business organizations, as well as individuals to face the challenges of the 21st Century (Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001). Challenges such as increases in advances of information and technology, large amounts of data, global integration, and rapidly changing environments, presented the

need for a new form of leadership. It was believed that SuperLeadership and self-leadership filled this critical void (Manz & Sims, 1991; 2001). These same challenges exist today; even more so as educational institutions seek to adjust and become current with rapidly changing environments.

Manz and Sims (1991; 2001), posit that the main role for leaders under this concept, is to help followers develop their own individual self-leadership skills that are essential for their work and for their organizations. The authors contend that SuperLeadership as well as self-leadership, are processes that can be learned (Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001). Manz and Sims (2001) found the acceptance of SuperLeadership in the managerial and executive community to be well received. For example, fortune 500 companies have utilized this concept and it has had a positive effect on organizational training and development in organizations of all sizes.

Manz and Sims (1991) developed a SuperLeadership Framework that consists of a seven-step process of SuperLeadership development that contains self-leadership at its core. The current study focuses on step one of this seven (7) step process, becoming a self-leader. The Seven-Step Process of the SuperLeadership Framework includes the following seven steps: Step One (1) Become a Self-Leader, Step Two (2) Model Self-Leadership, Step Three (3) Encourage Self-Set Goals, Step Four (4) Create Positive Thought Patterns, Step Five (5) Facilitate Self-Leadership Through Reward and Constructive Reprimand, Step (6) Promote Self-Leadership Through Teamwork, and Step (7) Facilitate Self-Leadership Culture (Manz & Sims, 1991, p. 33; Manz, 1991).

Self-Leadership

Self-leadership can be defined as the “process of influencing oneself” (Manz, 1983b, p. 5). Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello (2012) assert that self-leadership is “...the process of influencing oneself to perform more effectively” (p. 217). Self-leadership can also be described as a certain process or way that an individual uses to guide, motivate, influence, and lead his or herself to perform and achieve his or her goals in desirable ways (Houghton & Neck, 2002; Manz, 1986; Neck & Manz, 2010; Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Derks, 2016; Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018; Bozyigit, 2019). Stewart, Courtright, and Manz (2019) explain that the concept of self-leadership “challenges many traditional assumptions in organizational psychology and organizational behavior” (p. 47).

Napiersky and Woods (2018) state that, “Self-leadership is a concept from the organizational and management literature broadly combining processes of self-goal setting, self-regulation and self-motivation” (p. 441). Self-leadership consists of behavioral and cognitive strategies that are broken down into three main categories of self-leadership strategies: (1) Behavior-Focused Strategies, (2) Natural Reward Strategies, and (3) Constructive Thought Pattern Strategies. Each is designed to assist individuals in advancing their individual performance (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012; Neck & Houghton, 2006). Bozyigit (2019) found that while exploring, leadership styles from the 1970s, cultural leadership, visionary leadership, teaching leadership, ethics leadership, self-leadership and SuperLeadership began to grow and rise up to the surface of the leadership research landscape (p. 1). There have been several major

literature reviews analyzing self-leadership and its development including: Neck and Houghton's (2006) research article, "Two Decades of Self-Leadership Theory and Research: Past Developments, Present Trends, and Future Possibilities"; Stewart, Courtright, and Manz (2011) "Self-Leadership: A Multilevel Review"; and Stewart, Courtright, and Manz (2019) "Self-Leadership: A Paradoxical Core of Organizational Behavior".

Self-leadership has been shown to be associated with improved performance, improved effectiveness, increased organizational contributions and to assist individuals in a positive way in terms of their personal effectiveness (Sahin, 2015). Self-leadership has also been shown to have increased individual mental states and improved their work performance (Stewart, Courtright, & Manz, 2011). Parts of self-leadership have also been shown to predict academic achievement and success in higher education (Napiersky & Woods, 2018).

Leadership Development

Leadership development is an important theoretical construct underlying this study. Leadership has been defined as a "process of influence" (Manz, 1983b, p. 2; Bess & Dee, 2012). Neck and Manz (2010) and Manz and Sims (1991, 2001) explain that the leadership process can include not only an external leadership view of leaders influencing others, but also the process of influencing oneself. The present study utilizes this definition of leadership because it focuses on the idea of self-leadership (Manz, 1983b, p. 2). According to Ross (2014), the ultimate end goal for the leadership development of individuals, is to learn how to be self-leaders and how organizations can learn to create

self-leadership in others. Helping students to know and to learn about themselves and others is what Haber-Curran, Allen and Shankman (2015) identify as an important piece in the development of leadership of college students. Enrolling in academic courses focused on leadership development was found to assist students in their own leadership development providing students ways to see themselves as leaders (Rosch & Stephens, 2017).

Self-Leadership Development

Over time, as employers have looked at the leadership development of their employees, there has been a transition from a focus on hard skills, or job-specific related skills, to soft skills such as leadership skills, communication skills, strategic-thinking, and problem-solving skills (Bussing, 2018). Programs have also been developed to increase the self-leadership development of students (Zapalska, Ziesser, & Kelley, 2016). Zapalska, Ziesser, and Kelley (2016), presented a model of self-leadership development to help explain the self-leadership development process of cadets at the U.S. Coast Guard Academy. Other programs have focused on building the self-leadership skills of female graduate students and by designing leadership training and practices to assist women in seeking life balance (Grantham, Pidano, & Witcomb, 2014).

Nature of the Study

Research Questions

1. What is the difference between the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) total scores of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not?

2. What is the difference between the ASLQ subscale scores (Behavior Awareness and Volition, Task motivation, and Constructive Cognition) of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not?

Research Design

Quantitative method. This study utilized a quantitative research design and utilized descriptive statistics to organize and summarize data. Difference statistics were also utilized to compare two or more groups. The research design and method utilized in this study is appropriate to answer the two specific research questions presented because the ASLQ has been found to be a valid and reliable global measurement of self-leadership (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012).

Data Collection & Instrumentation

Survey method. The specific research method this study utilized is the survey research method. Two measuring instruments were utilized in this study and combined into one complete survey, a demographics questionnaire and a self-leadership measure called the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012).

Demographics questionnaire. The first measuring instrument is a demographics questionnaire that collected data with respect to the participants' age, gender, student year level at the university (school-level status), race/ethnicity, socioeconomic, and first-generation college student status.

Self-leadership measure: Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire

(ASLQ). The second measuring instrument that was utilized in this study, is a self-leadership measure called the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). The ASLQ instrument was designed and developed by Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012), and was used as a data collection tool to measure the overall global construct of self-leadership. The nine-item ALSQ has been found to be a valid and reliable global measurement of self-leadership (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). The ASLQ is an abbreviated version of the 35-item Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ), developed by Houghton and Neck (2002). The RSLQ is also the most widely used and empirically validated self-leadership scale (Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018; Stewart, Courtright, & Manz, 2011). Permission was received from the developers of the ALSQ to utilize it for this study. Table 1 in Chapter 2 of this study provides a comparison and summary of the RSLQ and ASLQ.

Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) explained that the 9-item ASLQ should only be used as a brief overall measure of self-leadership and should be used when the using of the 35-item RSLQ is not feasible. The authors also did not recommend the ASLQ sub-scales be used individually to measure “specific categories of self-leadership strategies” (p. 226). The authors explained that the ASLQ’s three factors of Behavior Awareness and Volition, Task Motivation, and Constructive Cognition, were created conceptually to demonstrate how the ASLQ represents an overall measure of self-leadership. The authors suggested that future researchers use the measurement subscales of the original RSLQ if they wanted to measure a specific self-leadership strategy

dimension on its own, such as Behavior-Focused Strategies, Natural Reward Strategies, or Constructive Thought Strategies.

Figure 2 provides a theoretical model depicting the Manz and Sims (1991) SuperLeadership Framework and Seven Step Process of SuperLeadership. It demonstrates how the framework can be applied with self-leadership strategies and measurements such as that of the RSLQ and the ASLQ. Manz and Sims (1991) developed a SuperLeadership Framework that consists of a seven-step process of SuperLeadership containing self-leadership at its core. The current study focuses on step one (1) becoming a self-leader, of the seven-step process. The model shows, that with respect to Step 1: Becoming a Self-Leader, individuals and organizations can utilize self-leadership strategies and measures to develop their own self-leadership skills. It also shows how the self-leadership measures of the RSLQ and the ASLQ can be used as tools to assess and assist in building one's self-leadership processes and strategies, by providing a global measure of self-leadership. The model includes how the RSLQ specifically measures the self-leadership dimensions of Behavior-Focused Strategies, Natural Reward Strategies, and Constructive Thought Strategies. The ASLQ provides only a global measure of self-leadership yet looks at the three conceptual factors of Behavior Awareness & Volition, Task Motivation, and Constructive Cognition. The model also shows that self-leadership strategies and measures can be accessed at any time during the SuperLeadership Framework Seven Step Process.

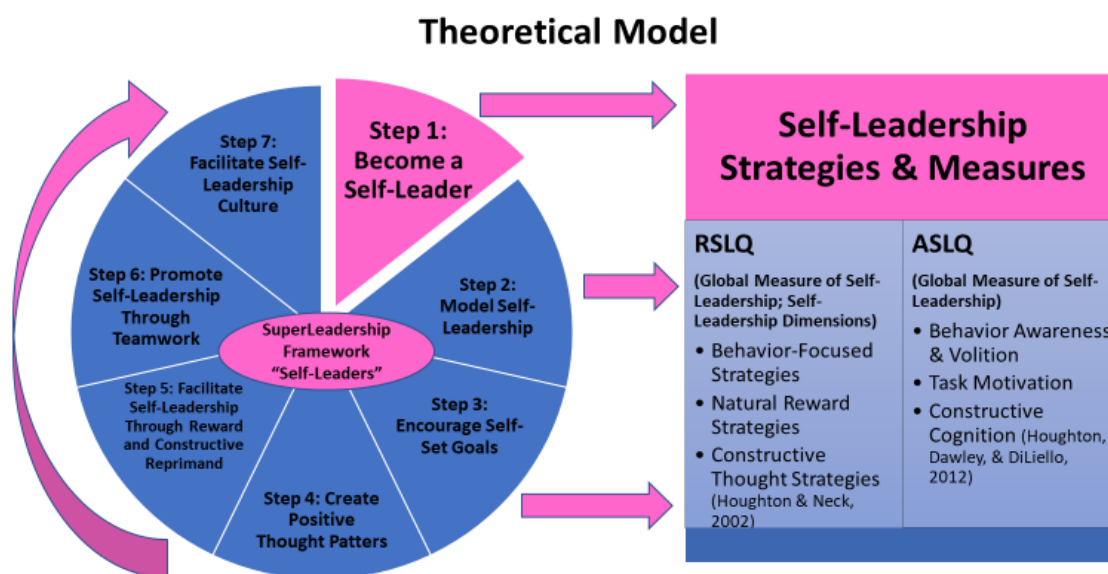


Figure 2. Theoretical model. Adapted from Manz and Sims (1991) SuperLeadership Framework entitled “The Seven-Step Process of SuperLeadership” (p. 33); Houghton and Neck (2002); and Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012).

Operational Definitions

The following operational definitions and key terms are provided for the reader to clarify those used in this research study: *Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ)*, *leadership*, *Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ)*, *self-leadership*, *Self-Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ)*, *self-leadership strategies*, and *SuperLeadership*. The operational definitions and key terms used in this dissertation are presented in Appendix A.

Assumptions, Limitations, Delimitations

There were several assumptions made regarding the study’s research design. First, there is an assumption that all individuals would like to access and utilize their self-

leadership abilities and strategies in a positive way. Second, the study could lead one to assume that students in student and leadership organizations on the university campus may have higher self-leadership scores than students who are not involved in student and leadership organizations on a university campus. However, this is an empirical question that was tested by this research. The researcher acknowledges the fact that those students who may not be involved in student and leadership organizations on campus, may not ultimately have any less self-leadership strategies available to them because of their diverse or unique personal circumstances or background.

Some limitations of the study included the following areas: Population, Sample Size, and Instrumentation.

Population: One limitation of this study includes the fact that the population of the study is limited to only one university and the sample size could have been larger. Due to time constraints and the limited number of resources available, limiting the research study to one university campus made the study more manageable.

Instrumentation: Another limitation of the study was the fact that the survey, which included the demographics questionnaire and the ASLQ, is a self-report measure. Individuals who self-report, using the study's survey, may not accurately report their views of their own self-leadership. It may be possible that other people may view these individuals' self-leadership strategies differently, or even be able to view their self-leadership in a more detailed and accurate way.

Some possible biases that this researcher may bring to the study include the following. First, the bias that the researcher would like to see all students have high levels

of self-leadership strategies and to develop the self-leadership skills to assist them with their lives. Another possible bias might include the fact that the researcher would like to see all students, both those who engage in student and leadership organizations and those who do not, do well and to want to increase their own self-leadership strategies in a positive way in order for them do well in their personal, professional, and academic lives.

Significance of the Study

The study is significant because it benefits and encourages students, as well as other individuals, including educational leaders, organizational and corporate executives, other leadership staff, and key human resource personnel, to develop their own self-leadership strategies, and to work on becoming a SuperLeader. More importantly, it will help them become a self-leader, in their own personal, professional, and educational lives. This research study addresses gaps in the literature by developing the research literature on self-leadership utilizing the ASLQ, with particular attention focused on the leadership development and self-leadership development of undergraduate students engaged in student and leadership organizations on a university campus. There has been no other research that has been conducted to date regarding self-leadership within this specific context. This fact has been confirmed by one of the ASLQ's creators, Jeffery D. Houghton (J. D. Houghton, personal communication, July 2, 2019).

The implications of this research for educational leadership include providing educational leaders with tools that will assist them in their own personal and professional lives as well as assist the students and future leaders whom they serve. Self-leadership development is something that can be utilized by all individuals and can be used to assist

students from all backgrounds and give them tools to use in their daily lives (Manz & Sims, 1991; Neck & Manz, 2010). Developing one's self-leadership can assist educational leaders in working towards building the next generation of SuperLeaders and assist current leaders in improving their own leadership development.

The implications of this research for teaching and educational policy include the creation and implementation of self-leadership development training programs at all levels of educational institutions. Policy changes can be made to include self-leadership development and SuperLeadership development and training in educational curriculum, programming, and student and educational leaders, administrators and employee professional development. The implications of this research study extend not only to educational institutions, but also governmental organizations, corporations, non-profits, entrepreneurs, as well as the individual. Executive and leadership coaches, personal development and leadership development trainers can include in their leadership development and management training programs, curriculum and instruction that focus on the self-leadership and SuperLeadership of all individuals.

The implications of this study for social or organizational change includes an impact on organizations such as corporations, governments, non-profits, institutions of higher education, and educational institutions, where these organizations can seek to add to, or modify, existing leadership and professional development programs or curriculum to include self-leadership strategies and self-leadership development to the benefit of all participants. Additionally, executive leaders and managers, including human resource

managers, can create, develop and include self-leadership into their new or future programs.

Conclusion

This chapter, provided an introduction and background of the study, provided a problem statement, purpose of the study, the theoretical frameworks utilized in the study, the nature of the study, operational definitions, assumptions, limitations, and delimitations of the study and provided the significance of the study. The next section, Chapter 2, will focus on a review of the literature of the theoretical concepts utilized in the study. Chapter 3 will provide an overview of the details of the study and will discuss, the research design, the role of the researcher, provide the research questions, the study's setting, population, and sample, data collection and instrumentation, data analysis, and describe the protection of the study's participants. Chapter 4 will present the study's findings. Chapter 5 will provide an interpretation of the study's findings and recommendations for further action and study.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The idea of leading, studying, and working on the self is not a new concept (Bozyigit, 2018, 2019; Haber-Curran, Allen, & Shankman, 2015; Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018). It has been around for hundreds and thousands of years (Bozyigit, 2018, 2019; Haber-Curran, Allen, & Shankman, 2015; Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018). People from the ancient cavemen to the Egyptians to Buddha explored man's relationship with himself. Leading oneself has been the cornerstone of man's quest to discover and to learn about humankind and its origins (Bozyigit, 2018, 2019; Manz & Sims, 2001; Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018; Neck & Manz, 2010). Even basic survival instincts have helped an individual to self-lead, move forward and complete tasks that have to be done (Bozyigit, 2018, 2019; Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018). This section will provide a review of the literature that discusses and supports the notion that in order to create and to build effective leaders that run organizations, corporations, universities, or just individuals who want to build and to create their personal or professional lives to their optimal ability and desired outcomes, must first take control and learn how to lead him/herself.

One form of leadership theory that supports this notion is the concept of SuperLeadership (Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001). Another important theory that has evolved over time and that can be shown to have developed from this concept, is the theory of Self-Leadership (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Derks, 2016; Bozyigit, 2019; Houghton & Neck, 2002; Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012; Manz, 1986; Neck

& Manz, 2010; Manz & Sims, 1991; Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018). This literature review will discuss these theoretical frameworks as well as SuperLeadership, Self-Leadership, Leadership Development, and Self-Leadership Development. This section will also provide a brief overview of the various self-leadership measurement scales that have been developed over time. The section will conclude with a discussion of the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) that will be the measurement instrument and tool that was used to conduct this research study.

SuperLeadership

In their seminal research article, Manz and Sims (1991), presented the concept of a new form of leadership style called SuperLeadership. The authors contend that at its core is the development of self-leadership of each person. According to Manz and Sims (2001) “SuperLeaders lead others to lead themselves” (p. 7). In order for one to become a SuperLeader, an individual must master their own self-leadership which is at the heart of SuperLeadership (Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Manz, 1991).

The authors defined self-leadership as “...the influence we exert on ourselves to achieve the self-motivation and self-direction we need to perform” (p. 23). The researchers explained that the theory of SuperLeadership was designed to describe leaders who put their attention and focus on their followers, who end up ultimately becoming self-leaders. The authors ask the question, “How can a SuperLeader lead others to become positive effective self-leaders? How can a SuperLeader lead others to lead themselves?” (Manz & Sims, 1991, p. 23). The authors explain that they did not use the term SuperLeader to describe a leader that was the end all be all of all others, who

possesses all the answers, and forces others to do what they want them to do. Instead, the researchers contend they meant the word “super” to mean that the leader, through his focus on the followers as self-leaders, ends up possessing the “strength and wisdom of many persons – by helping them to unleash the abilities of the ‘followers’ (self-leaders) that surround them” (Manz & Sims, 1991, p. 22).

Manz and Sims (1991) posit that the leaders’ main role under this concept is to help followers develop their individual self-leadership skills, that are essential for success in their work and for their organizations. Manz and Sims (1991, 2001) argued that this new form of leadership style was developed to assist business organizations tackle the challenges arising out of the 21st century. For example, dealing with advances in technological information, dealing with large amounts of data, globalization, and rapidly changing environments. These same arguments can also be applied in the educational leadership context and the leadership development of students since they are also facing rapid changes in their environment.

These researchers set forth a comprehensive framework and a seven-step process of SuperLeadership that contains the concept of self-leadership at its core (Manz & Sims, 1991; Manz, 1991). The Seven-Step Process of the SuperLeadership Framework includes the following seven steps: Step One (1) Become a Self-Leader; Step Two (2) Model Self-Leadership; Step Three (3) Encourage Self-Set Goals; Step Four (4) Create Positive Thought Patterns; Step Five (5) Facilitate Self-Leadership Through Reward and Constructive Reprimand; Step (6) Promote Self-Leadership Through Teamwork; and Step (7) Facilitate Self-Leadership Culture (Manz & Sims, 1991, p. 33; Manz, 1991).

The present study focused on Step One (1) Becoming a Self-Leader, of the Manz and Sims (1991) Seven Steps to SuperLeadership Framework and self-leadership theory. Manz and Sims (1991) explain that step one focuses on the concept of self-leadership and reiterates the notion that before a leader can lead others, leaders must first lead themselves. This is an idea that has been widely discussed throughout the personal development and self-help industry. Manz and Sims (1991) in step one, focused their framework on two classes of self-leadership strategies: Behavior-focused strategies, and cognitive strategies.

Manz and Sims (1991) also set forth three basic assumptions they make with respect to their thoughts on self-leadership within the context of the SuperLeadership framework. The first assumption the authors point out, is that all individuals exercise their self-leadership skills to some extent, but not all individuals are effective self-leaders. The second assumption Manz and Sims (1991) make about self-leadership is that self-leadership is something that can be learned and is not just something certain individuals are born with. The third assumption the authors make about self-leadership is that self-leadership is highly important to executives, management and all individuals who work (Manz and Sims, 1991, p. 30). The current research also contends that self-leadership within this SuperLeadership framework, also applies to educational leaders within a higher education setting, as well as all individuals who are involved in educational settings and institutions.

Bum and Lee (2018) conducted a research study examining how the SuperLeadership of professors impacts the self-leadership strategies of students.

Specifically, the authors looked at the relationship between students' self-leadership and career preparation. The research participants were 232 South Korean students. The researchers found that the behavioral self-leadership strategies of students improved because of "the modeling, goal setting, encouraging, and guiding of super-leadership of university physical education professors" (p.43). The researchers also found that the cognitive strategies of students were also improved by the modeling and goal setting of the super-leadership behavior of the university professors. Citing Manz and Sims (2001), Bum and Lee explained that college was the best time to develop students' self-leadership potential through SuperLeadership while they were on a path to adulthood. The researchers explained (citing Bae and Sung, 2016) that this area of research needs to be expanded because the research is minimal in the field of education.

Self-Leadership

Self-Leadership Defined

Over the last several decades, the study of self-leadership has grown, evolved, and blossomed into an emerging area of study that has captivated researchers and individuals from various academic, professional, and organizational disciplines from all over the world. Self-leadership has been defined, discussed, and described throughout the research in a variety of ways. For instance, self-leadership can be described as a certain process or way that an individual uses to guide, motivate, influence, and lead his or herself to perform and achieve his or her goals in desirable ways (Houghton & Neck, 2002; Manz, 1986; Neck & Manz, 2010; Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Derks, 2016; Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018; Bozyigit, 2019). Houghton and Neck (2002) summarized the concept by

stating, “Self-leadership (Manz, 1983b, 1986, 1992; Manz and Neck, 1999; Manz and Sims, 2001) is a process through which people influence themselves to achieve the self-direction and self-motivation to behave or perform in desirable ways” (p. 672). Jooste and Cairns (2014) explain that self-leadership assists individuals to have knowledge and awareness of their own leadership skills.

Manz and Sims (2001) state, “*Self-leadership* [sic] is an extensive set of strategies focused on the behaviors, thoughts, and feelings that we use to exert influence over ourselves. Self-Leadership is what people do to lead themselves” (p. 7). Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) assert that self-leadership is “...the process of influencing oneself to perform more effectively” (p. 217). Stewart, Courtright, and Manz (2019) define self-leadership as, “...a comprehensive self-influence process capturing how individuals motivate themselves to complete work that is naturally motivating or work that must be done but is not naturally motivating...” (p. 47).

Sahin (2015) explains that the concept, “...presents a strong initiative for the development and effectiveness in both individuals and organizations” (p. 92). Stewart, Courtright, and Manz (2019) explains that the concept of self-leadership “challenges many traditional assumptions in organizational psychology and organizational behavior” (p. 47). Napiersky and Woods (2018) state, “Self-leadership is a concept from the organizational and management literature broadly combining processes of self-goal setting, self-regulation and self-motivation” (p. 441). Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) tell us, “More precisely, self-leadership involves specific sets of strategies and normative prescriptions designed to enhance individual performance” (p. 217). Thus,

self-leadership consists of behavioral and cognitive strategies that are broken down into three main categories of self-leadership strategies: (1) Behavior-Focused Strategies, (2) Natural Reward Strategies, and (3) Constructive Thought Pattern Strategies designed to assist individuals in advancing their individual performance (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012; Neck & Houghton, 2006).

Brief History of Self-Leadership

Bozyigit (2019) explains that self-leadership is a type of leadership that has grown and blossomed over the last quarter century. In his article, Bozyigit (2019) explains that when he examined the progression of Modern Leadership Theories and approaches, he specifically found that the approaches of cultural leadership, visionary leadership, teaching leadership, ethics leadership, SuperLeadership and self-leadership rose to the surface of the leadership research landscape. Bozyigit (2019) also discusses leadership and how it has been a concept that has been a continuing challenge for researchers to specifically define. The researcher explains that upon examination of leadership theories, a pattern over time seemed to evolve and progress into several classifications and stages. Bozyigit (2019) explains that over time, leadership theories are generally grouped together in five areas which include: In the 1930s Trait Theory; in the 1940s Behavioral Theories; in the 1960s Contingency Theories; in the 1970s Modern/Contemporary approaches to Leadership; and in the 1990s, Neo-Charismatic Theories. Bozyigit (2019), citing Stewart et al. (2011) relates the fact that the concept of self-leadership has been the focus of some studies conducted on the concept during the last 30 years.

In 2006, Christopher P. Neck and Jeffery D. Houghton published their journal article entitled “Two Decades of Self-Leadership Theory and Research: Past Developments, Present Trends, and Future Possibilities” that reviewed the state of self-leadership research from the past and the present and summarized two decades worth of the existing self-leadership research literature (Neck & Houghton, 2006). The authors provided a historical overview of the self-leadership concept, analyzed and discussed how the concept was created, as well as how the concept has grown throughout the years. The researchers also examined the current trends and directions in current research that existed at that time, with respect to self-leadership. What was particularly helpful to researchers from the Neck and Houghton (2006) article, was the fact that the authors provided an overall theoretical and conceptual explanation of the self-leadership concept and presented how the concept differs from other theoretical concepts such as motivation, personality, and self-influence. The authors found that self-leadership was a normative model of self-influence and a more prescriptive model, rather than a descriptive or deductive model which provided a more conceptual explanation of the theory or issue (pp. 270, 275). The authors explained that “Normative theories, which are common in applied fields such as business, are prescriptive and emphasize *how* [sic] something should be done” (p. 275). This approach is contrary to descriptive theories that do not necessarily provide action steps that could be taken (Neck & Houghton, 2006).

For example, in their article, Neck and Houghton (2006) summarized their arguments regarding self-leadership by providing a *Model of Self-leadership Theoretical Contexts and Performance* (p. 285), (see Figure 3). The researchers found that there were

four theoretical contexts from which the theory of self-leadership has evolved: self-regulation theory, social cognitive theory, intrinsic motivation theory, and self-control theory (p. 285). Ryan and Deci (2000) discussed motivation and its value, in particular, intrinsic motivation and discussed how one can build and keep it. Neck and Houghton (2006) also found that some of the benefits, and outcomes that arise from self-leadership include: commitment, independence, creativity/innovation, trust, potency, positive affect, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and self-efficacy (pp. 283, 285). The Neck and Houghton (2006) model is helpful to researchers in gaining an overall picture of the self-leadership concept, its theoretical underpinnings, strategies, predictable outcomes, performance mechanisms, and individual, team, and organizational performance (p. 285). In addition, the authors also found that other benefits that arise from self-leadership include: commitment, independence, creativity/innovation, trust, potency, positive affect, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and self-efficacy (pp. 283, 285).

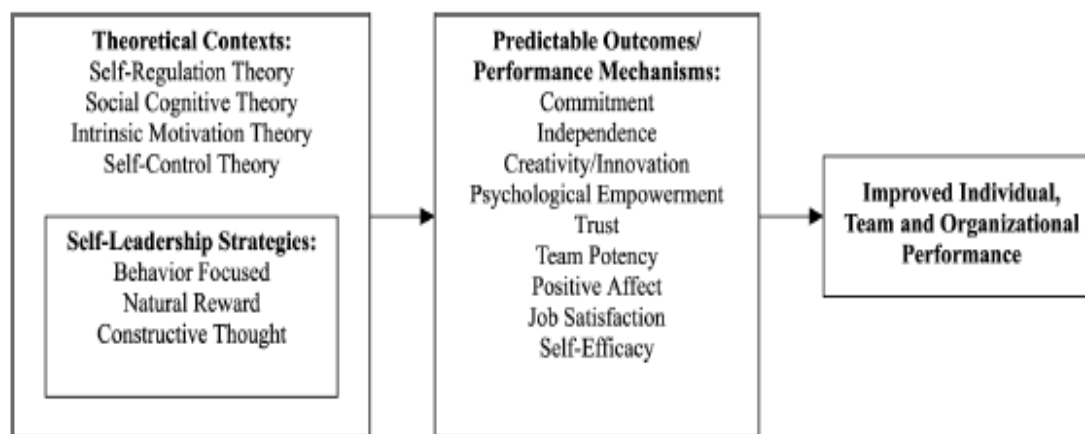


Figure 3. A model of self-leadership theoretical contexts and performance mechanisms.

Reprinted from “A Model of Self-Leadership Theoretical Contexts and Performance Mechanisms” (p. 285) in “Two decades of self-leadership theory and research: Past

developments, present trends, and future possibilities,” by Neck, C. P., & Houghton, J. D. (2006), *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(4), p. 285. Copyright 2006 by Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Stewart, Courtright, and Manz (2011) conducted a literature review consisting of a multilevel review of the self-leadership research literature spanning thirty years. The authors analyzed the self-leadership research at the individual and team levels. The authors found that at the individual level, increased self-leadership corresponded with better affective responses and improved work performance. The authors did not find that the research findings were the same on the team level. The researchers identified internal and external forces that played a role in the development of an individual’s self-leadership.

Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) explained that self-leadership and the self-leadership strategies were examined in multiple areas including appraisals, organizational change, self-leading teams, entrepreneurship, diversity management, job satisfaction, non-profit management, team performance and processes, succession planning, creativity and innovation, as well as ethics (p. 220). Neck, Houghton, Sardeshmukh, Goldsby, and Godwin (2013) examined the area of the entrepreneurial work environment and looked at self-leadership as a cognitive resource for entrepreneurs.

Self-Leadership Strategies

In general, self-leadership consists of behavioral and cognitive strategies that are broken down into three main categories: (1) Behavior-Focused Strategies, (2) Natural Reward Strategies, and (3) Constructive Thought Pattern Strategies designed to assist

individuals in advancing their individual performance (Houghton et al., 2012; Manz, 1983b; Neck & Houghton, 2006; Neck & Manz, 2010; Hauschidt & Konradt, 2012; Furtner & Rauthmann, 2010; Muller, Georgiana, & Roux, 2010).

Norris (2008) conducted a study that examined how self-leadership strategies of individuals differ according to the individual. The reserachers found a positive relationship between self-efficacy, the natural reward, and constructive thought with self-leadership strategies. The researchers also found that the participants who were women used more of the three self-leadership strategies.

Behavior Focused Strategies. Behavior-Focused Strategies involve strategies or ways individuals can analyze and modify their own behavior to adjust and put into place new ways of behaving and acting that are much more beneficial and productive to the person, specifically with respect to necessary but unpleasant tasks (Houghton et al., 2012; Houghton & Neck, 2002; Neck & Houghton, 2006). Behavior-focused strategies include self-observation, self-goal setting, self-reward, and self-correcting feedback (Houghton et al., 2012; Houghton & Neck, 2002; Manz, 1983a, 1983b; Neck & Houghton, 2006; Neck & Manz, 2010). Locke and Latham (1990, 2002) discuss the benefits of self-management and goal setting and how they lead to better work performance.

Natural Reward Strategies. Natural Reward Strategies involve strategies that individuals can include as more pleasurable experiences into the specific tasks they are trying to accomplish. In this way, the tasks include a natural reward element and are satisfying (Houghton et al., 2012; Houghton & Neck, 2002; Manz, 1983a, 1983b; Neck & Houghton, 2006). “The two main natural reward strategies consist of building more

naturally enjoyable features into activities and focusing intentionally on the naturally rewarding aspects of activities (Anderson & Prussia, 1997; Manz & Neck, 2004; Manz & Sims, 2001; Neck & Houghton, 2006)” (Sahin, 2015, p. 92). In their study, Houghton and Neck (2002) describe natural rewards by giving examples such as such as decorating the workplace with personal touches or jogging on a mountain trail.

Constructive Thought Strategies. Constructive Thought Pattern Strategies include strategies for changing a person’s existing belief systems and developing thought patterns that will assist them with positive performance outcomes (Bozyigit, 2019; Houghton et al., 2012; Houghton & Neck, 2002; Manz, 1983b; Neck & Houghton, 2006; Neck & Manz, 2010). The strategies include visualizing successful performance, positive self-talk, and evaluating beliefs and assumptions (Bozyigit, 2019; Houghton et al., 2012; Houghton & Neck, 2002; Manz, 1983b; Neck & Houghton, 2006; Neck & Manz, 2010). Neck, Smith, and Godwin (1997) discuss the value of an individuals’ thinking when they look at opportunity versus thinking about the obstacles that stand in their way. Driskell, Copper and Moran (1994) looked at the positive effects that visualization or “mental practice” (p. 481) has on an individual’s performance. Stewart, Carson, and Cardy (1996) analyzed how an employee’s level of conscientiousness effects the employee’s self-leadership training.

Self-Leadership Benefits

Sahin (2015) discussed the benefits of self-leadership and how self-leadership can drive both individuals and organizations in their ability to be effective and to develop. The author also explained how numerous research studies in the area of self-leadership

have shown that self-leadership is related to improved performance, improved effectiveness, and increased organizational contributions (p. 92). Sahin (2015) also points out that the purpose of the design of self-leadership strategies was to actually help individuals be cognizant of their thoughts and actions, and to assist individuals in a positive way with respect to their individual personal effectiveness. Stewart, Courtight, and Manz (2011) also explain that studies have been consistent over time showing that increasing self-leadership at the individual level will increase an individual's general psychological state and improved work performance (p. 185). Baxter (2016) explains a benefit at the organizational level stating, "A manager's commitment to self-leadership is good for personal outcomes within a workspace and increases the productivity of others, positively affecting the entire organization (Mahembe et al., 2013; Neck & Manz, 2013)" (p. 7). Neck (1996) and Neck, Stewart, and Manz (1995) discuss thought self-leadership and its benefits for organizational change and performance. Phillips, Kern, Tewari, and Jones (2011) looked at self-leadership theory and its positive effect on a developing and implementing a change project.

Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, and Derks (2016) report that individuals with self-leadership propensities, with respect to employee self-leadership and their working experience, experience higher levels of self-determination, individual purpose, and ownership over their work. The authors explain that this propensity for self-leadership creates positive outcomes of self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and productivity (p. 312). Manz (1983a, 1983b) explains that self-leadership also leads to better employee performance in their work settings.

Napiersky and Woods (2018) conducted a study in the United Kingdom on self-leadership and found that certain important parts of self-leadership can predict academic achievement and success in higher education. The researchers focused their study on the question of whether self-leadership strategies could improve educational learning, development and performance. Creating their own self-report survey, the researchers utilized a longitudinal design, to measure self-leadership strategies such as behavioral, cognitive, and motivational aspects of self-leadership, in a sample of 150 bachelor and masters program students majoring in business at a business school at a university. The authors examined the association between student grade point average and the scale scores for self-rated behavioural, cognitive and motivational self-leadership variables. The authors found that self-goal setting, pro-active goal-related behaviour, behavior regulation and direction, motivational awareness, and optimism were significant predictors of educational attainment.

Maykrantz and Houghton (2018) conducted a study that examined the role of coping skills and the relationship between self-leadership and stress among college students. The researchers found that self-leadership can be used to help reduce the stress of college students and that self-leadership strategies can also be used to help mitigate stress levels. Wang (2016) also conducted a research study that examined self-leadership and stress among college students. Wang evaluated the emotional intelligence and self-leadership of students at two Chinese universities. Wang's results showed that the three categories of self-leadership were positively correlated with positive coping (p. 861).

Furtner, Tutzer, and Sachse (2018) examined the relationship between self-leadership and mindfulness utilizing the RSLQ and found that there was a relationship between the observed element of mindfulness. The researchers found that a self-leader who is mindful, more aware and more conscious of his actions and thoughts will exercise, and utilize more self-leadership strategies.

Leadership Development

Leadership is a “process of influence” (Manz, 1983b, p. 2). The definition of leadership used in this study is the definition used by Manz (1983b) which centers on the idea of self-leadership. Manz (1983b) states, “The most useful definition of leadership, to focus on the idea of self-leadership, however, is simply ‘a process of influence’” (p. 2). Ross (2014) explains that the ultimate purpose or endpoint of leadership development “...is to enable the individual to learn how to become a self-leader and for any organization to develop leaders” (p. 299). Ross (2008) explains that the essential aspect of being a leader and building the leadership development of a leader, is building a positive attitude, maintaining self-confidence, analyzing their risk-taking actions, and an ability to analyze their choice of actions in their approach to leading. Formal instruction, work assignments, and self-directed learning are three potential ways that leadership development can occur (Boyce, Zaccaro, & Wisecarver, 2010).

Haber-Curran, Allen, and Shankman (2015) discussed leadership development and discussed the importance of valuing human significance and the importance of connecting leadership development to personal competence. They explain this process as “knowing oneself” (p. 59), while they describe social competence as “knowing others”

and caring (p. 59). The authors posit that an essential piece of college student leadership development is that leadership educators assist in "...helping students learn about themselves and others" (p. 59). The researchers citing Goleman (2005) explained that personal and social competence are areas that are capable of being developed and can assist individuals to become productive leaders. The researchers utilized Fink's (2013) taxonomy of significant learning and the emotionally intelligent leadership (EIL) model as frameworks underpinning their discussion.

In their research, Rosch and Stephens (2017) examined the extent to which formal opportunities for involvement predict a student's growth in their leadership capacity for those students who participated in a formal leadership development initiative (p. 1108). The researchers conducted a study utilizing a sample of 226 university students who participated in an off campus 6-day leadership development training institute with faculty and staff facilitators for purposes of student leadership development. The researchers studied the effects of campus involvement with the following activities: "...formal community service or service learning initiatives, on-campus employment, collaborative learning projects as part of academic coursework, academic courses focused on leadership theory and practice, conversations with faculty or staff they considered personal mentors, student organizations, formal positions of leadership within student organizations, and supervision of peers through formal (e.g. employment) or informal (e.g., team captain) means" (pp. 1108-1109). The results of the Rosch and Stephens' study indicated that assisting students in identifying with a faculty or staff mentor, and

enrolling in academic courses focused on leadership development, helped the students in their leadership development and to see themselves as leaders.

Marcketti, Arendt, and Shelley (2011) conducted a mix-methods study to assess the leadership development of college students enrolled in an event management course that was designed to enhance the leadership skills of the students. The researchers found that involvement in the course where students were in charge of outcomes of their learning may have positively impacted these students' leadership behavior. The authors also explained however, that because the students were involved in one event management course the study may not be generalizable to all students.

Self-Leadership Development

In his research, Bussing (2018) found that with respect to self-directed leadership development, a good amount of emphasis over the years has been placed on the hard skills of talent. That is to say, those skills that are teachable or easy to quantify and specific to the position. Bussing also points out however, that in the last five years, a shift has taken place toward developing the "soft skills" or the interpersonal and people skills of the individual. The author also explains that in addition to strategic thinking and creative problem solving, leadership skills which are considered soft skills, are one of the most desirable qualities employers look for. As evidence, Bussing cites a 2015 survey conducted by Bloomberg that involved 1,320 recruiters from 600 companies that showed employers now put a greater value on soft skills than they had previously (para. 5).

Zapalska, Zieser, and Kelley (2016) looked at the leadership development and self-leadership development of undergraduate students in an undergraduate program at

the U.S. Coast Guard Academy (CGA). The researchers presented specific examples of leadership training practices and educational activities that were found to be successful for the leadership development and self-leadership development of the CGA students; particularly, with respect to the cadets' successful graduation and future employment. Some of the practices included learning inside a classroom, service learning, community engagements, internships, and extra-curricular activities (Zapalska, Zieser, & Kelley, 2016, p. 30). The researchers also presented a model of self-leadership development to help explain the self-leadership development process used at the CGA. The model the authors' presented consisted of five steps in the self-leadership development process. The five steps included (1) Know Yourself, (2) Lead Yourself, (3) Broaden Your Perspectives and Understand Others, (4) Develop and Refine Skills, and (5) Lead Others (Zapalska, Zieser, & Kelley, 2016, p. 35).

Grantham, Pidano, and Whitcomb (2014) conducted a case study on female graduate students' leadership training and development, and self-leadership development that focused specifically on female leadership. The researchers put together a seminar series consisting only of women, to concentrate on increasing the female graduate students ability to recognize their self-leadership potential, leadership potential in others and how they could further find leadership opportunities. The authors surveyed the participants attitudes before and after participating in the seminar program. The researchers used networking, goal setting, skills training, and mentorinig in the program's design. Grantham, Pidano, and Whitcomb utilized the Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) designed by Houghton and Neck (2002). The results indicated that

there were significant changes in the RSLQ's self-leadership dimensions, including the subscales. Results of Grantham, Pidano, and Whitcomb (2014) study showed that after the women went through the leadership training, the female graduate students were found to utilize transactional leadership styles and practices, such as self-reward and goal setting, which could assist them in seeking life balance.

Building the foundation for self-leadership through leadership development and self-leadership development can also open the door to individuals, including undergraduate students, to access other dynamic leadership styles, such as transformational and transformative leadership approaches (Andressen, Konradt, & Neck, 2012; Furtner, Baldegger, & Rauthmann, 2012; Marcketti, Arendt, & Shelley, 2011; Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018). Nevarez, Wood, and Penrose (2013) describe a transformational leadership approach to leading as encompassing a strong work ethic, great communication, leading the way, multiskilled leadership, and affiliate development. This leadership style can be viewed as being centered more on the organization (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Derks, 2016) but includes similar aspects to self-leadership and SuperLeadership such as leading the way and affiliate development. Nevarez, Wood, and Penrose (2013) also describe a transformative leadership approach that is social justice-oriented and encompasses traits such as community engagement, vision, cultural proficiency, and political awareness. The authors explain that transformative leaders embrace diversity while seeing differences as assets to the institution (p. 143). This form of leadership style can be viewed as more external to the organization, projecting outward towards the community through which the leader serves.

However, self-leadership and SuperLeadership leadership traits are more internal and grow outwards from an individual. But, it can be utilized towards this social justice-oriented approach, encouraging self-leaders towards obtaining this objective.

From this higher level perspective, self-leadership and SuperLeadership are centered around the individual, and self-leadership provides the foundation and tools for individuals including students, to perform more effectively (Bozyigit, 2018; 2019; Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Derks, 2016; Furtner, Baldegger, & Rauthmann, 2012; Houghton & Neck, 2002; Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012; Manz, 1986, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018; Neck & Manz, 2010). Self-leadership and its benefits can be translated into any situation, and any person regardless of their background and circumstance, can learn and begin to access self-leadership strategies (Bozyigit, 2019; Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012; Manz, 1986, 1991; 1992; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Neck & Manz, 2010). Self-leadership can provide a strong foundation for students, in particular, undergraduate students, who may then go on and become the future SuperLeaders of the world (Bozyigit, 2018, 2019; Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Marcketti, Arendt, & Shelley, 2011; Neck & Manz, 2010).

Self-Leadership Measurement

It was only during the last few decades, that the concept of self-leadership was explored seriously and a valid and reliable self-leadership measurement instrument was developed and published in the research literature. A criticism of self-leadership research before then, was that there was a lack of empirical research. But, it did not exist primarily because a valid measure of self-leadership was not available that allowed researchers to

measure the concept of self-leadership (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012, p. 221). Over time, a self-leadership questionnaire was developed, and self-leadership researchers were able to publish and develop an accepted measurement of self-leadership. The first published attempt was a 50-item Self-Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) designed and developed by Anderson and Prussia (1997). However, it was found to have inherent validity and reliability issues (Houghton & Neck, 2002; Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). Next, a 35-item Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) was developed by Houghton and Neck (2002). Unlike the SLQ, the RSLQ was found to be a valid and reliable measurement of self-leadership. However, the length of the revised questionnaire was found to be a significant critique since researchers deemed it would be a challenge to use the RSLQ along with other variables they wanted to consider measuring (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). The section below describes in more detail the development and creation of a valid self-leadership measurement, and an abbreviated version that was added to the literature to assist self-leadership researchers.

Self-Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ)

Until 1997, a valid measurement of self-leadership was not available. There had been two preliminary attempts to develop a self-leadership questionnaire that was based on the research literature of self-leadership. According to Houghton and Neck (2002), both versions utilized a version created by Manz and Sims (Manz, 1986, 1992; Manz and Sims, 1987, 1991) (p. 675). One was unpublished and one published. In an unpublished doctoral dissertation Cox (1993) created a 34-item SLQ. Houghton and Neck (2002)

explained that this work demonstrated some preliminary potential as a self-leadership scale and later used it to assist in developing their own scale, the RSLQ.

First published version of 50-Item SLQ created but contained inherent reliability and validity issues. In 1997, Anderson and Prussia (1997) published the first self-leadership scale and pointed out the growing need for self-leadership skills. They concluded that in the 21st Century, organizational empowerment programs for employees, specifically self-leadership skills, were essential to the success of these programs and employees. However, the authors pointed out that up until that point in time, there had yet to be developed a valid measure of self-leadership. Researchers therefore, made it a goal of their research to create and to publish a valid scale for measuring self-leadership called The Self-Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) (Anderson & Prussia, 1997; Houghton & Neck, 2002; Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012).

The prototype SLQ was based on the previous research on self-leadership of C. Manz and H. Sims (citing Manz (1983, 1986, 1992) and Manz and Sims (1991) (Anderson and Prussia, 1997, p. 123). The researchers then conducted three studies that contributed to the refinement and preliminary validation of the instrument. The SLQ originally consisted of 90-items but was reduced to a 50-item scale encompassing the three dimensions of self-leadership including behavior focused strategies, natural reward strategies, and constructive thought pattern strategies (Anderson & Prussia, 1997, Houghton & Neck, 2002, Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). The SLQ was subsequently found to have inherent reliability and validity issues and needed additional

refinement (Houghton & Neck, 2002; Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). Thus, their work still left room for a valid and reliable instrument to be developed.

Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ)

35-item RSLQ created and found to be valid and reliable. Five years after Anderson and Prussia (1997) made a significant attempt to create a self-leadership instrument, Houghton and Neck (2002) posited that a valid and reliable scale had still yet to be developed. Recognizing this lack in the self-leadership researcher literature and the need, the researchers developed a 35-item Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ). In this scale, variables are measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree) and are divided into 9 sub-scales that represent the 3 primary self-leadership dimensions of: 1) behavior-focused strategies, 2) natural reward strategies, and 3) constructive thought pattern strategies. The nine sub-scales the researchers created under the first category, behavior-focused strategies, consisted of the five sub-scales of: 1) self-goal setting, 2) self-reward, 3) self-punishment, 4) self-observation, and 5) self-cueing. The one sub-scale under the natural reward dimension, consisted of: 1) focusing thoughts on natural rewards. The three sub-scales under constructive thought pattern strategies included: 1) visualizing successful performance, 2) self-talk, and 3) evaluating beliefs and assumptions (Houghton & Neck, 2002, p. 677).

In order to create the RSLQ, Houghton and Neck (2002) removed 17 items from the 50-item Anderson and Prussia (1997) scale and then added two items from another scale developed by Cox (1993) (p. 677). The authors tested the reliability and construct validity of the RSLQ and found the scale to be a reasonably reliable and valid instrument

and an acceptable measurement of self-leadership skills and behaviors (Houghton & Neck, 2002, pp. 672, 685; Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). The researchers conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) which was then used to assess the factor structure of the revised scale, so that the authors could engage with the scale and make comparisons with other measures of self-leadership (Neck & Houghton, 2002).

Additionally, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using structural equation modeling to assess the level of fit of the RSLQ to a hierarchical model of self-leadership that was specified by self-leadership theory (Houghton & Neck, 2002, p. 676).

Houghton and Neck (2002) summarized their research in their article pointing out three contributions their study made to the literature. First, the researchers explained, they revised and set forth a new measurement scale called the RLSQ. Second, the authors provided evidence of reliability and construct validity of the RSLQ, which the researchers explained was demonstrated using EFA and CFA techniques across two large independent samples. And third, the authors explained, that for the first time, the researchers evaluated a theory based on a hierarchical model of self-leadership (Houghton & Neck, 2002, p. 685). Houghton and Neck (2002) expressed, that through their research on the RSLQ, and through their empirical confirmation of the self-leadership theoretical model, the authors created a psychometrically sound instrument for the measurement of self-leadership, explaining why their study was important to the advancement and contribution of future self-leadership empirical research (p. 686).

What was exciting about the creation of Houghton and Neck (2002) RSLQ, as Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) pointed out in their research study, was the fact

that the RSLQ had demonstrated reasonably good reliability and validity across multiple empirical studies (p. 221). Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) cited multiple empirical studies to support this assertion including Carmeli et. al (2006); Curren and Marques-Quinteiro, 2009; Houghton, Bonham, Neck and Singh (2004); and Houghton and Jinkerson (2007).

RSLQ has since been translated and utilized all over the world. Additionally, Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) discussed how the RSLQ has been utilized, translated and used in different countries all over the world. The authors explained that at that point in time, the RSLQ had been translated into at least six foreign languages including Chinese, Afrikaans, Portuguese, Turkish, Hebrew, and German. The authors' stated, "translated into at least six foreign languages including Chinese (Ho & Nesbit, 2009; Neubert & Wu, 2006), Afrikaans (van Zyl, 2008), Portuguese (Curren & Marques-Quinteiro, 2009), Turkish (Dogan & Sahin, 2008), Hebrew (Carmeli et al., 2006), and German (Andressen & Konradt, 2007)" (p. 222). Marques-Quinteiro, Curren, and Passos (2012) adapted the RSLQ to the Portuguese context and found the RSLQ to have validity and reliability. Nel and van Zyl (2015) conducted their study in the South African context finding the RSLQ and the ASLQ to be valid and reliable as well. Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) explained that good reliability and validity were shown in the translated versions of the RSLQ scales along with stable factor structures, which the authors explained, confirmed Houghton and Nick (2002) original findings and supported a "significant degree" of cross-cultural validity (p. 222). The authors noted one exception to this in their discussion. Referring to the Chinese version of the RSLQ, which was

originally translated by Neubert and Wu (2006), the authors explained that this original Chinese translated RSLQ version, did not universally generalize to the Chinese culture, and thus, was subsequently modified by Ho and Nesbit (2009) to create a more culturally based RSLQ version (p. 222).

Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ)

In 2012, Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) conducted, developed, and validated a 9-item Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree), and based on the 35-item Houghton & Neck (2002) RSLQ. The ASLQ is listed in Appendix D. The researchers asserted that despite the RSLQ's strong psychometric properties, the RSLQ still posed several issues for self-leadership researchers in terms of scale length. The authors explained that the full RSLQ and its 35-item questionnaire, made conducting additional studies utilizing the survey more arduous for researchers who were looking to explore self-leadership along with its relationship to other variables. The scale length, the authors' argued, could quickly become taxing, possibly "...leading to rater fatigue, inaccuracy and missing survey data" (p. 222).

Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012), conducted two tests which led to the development of the 9-item, three factor ASLQ. The first test, considered to be Sample 1, was an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) that used six of the major dimensions from the RSLQ with a sample of 430 undergraduate students enrolled in a management course at a large university. The researchers measured all survey variables on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly disagree) (p. 223). This first test resulted in the

identification of three factors the authors determined to be representative of the RSLQ with three items loading on each factor (p. 224). The representative three factors of the resulting 9-item ALSQ, included Behavior Awareness and Volition (BAV), Task Motivation (TM), and Constructive Cognition (CC) (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012, p.224).

The second test Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) conducted, Sample 2, involved administering the newly-created 9-item ASLQ from Sample 1 along with the three identified factors (Behavior Awareness and Volition, Task Motivation, and Constructive Cognition), and the three items loading on each factor, to a United States government agency workforce utilizing an online survey. Examples of questions from the ASLQ include questions such as: “I establish specific goals for my own performance”, “I make a point to keep track of how well I’m doing at work”, and “I work toward specific goals I have set for myself” (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012, p. 223). (See Appendix D for the complete list of questions from the ASLQ). The researchers then performed a confirmatory factor analysis to validate the newly-created ALSQ. The authors found that the ASLQ was a reliable and valid measure that embodied the 35-item RSLQ and its classic self-leadership strategy dimensions (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012; Neck & Houghton, 2006). Nel and van Zyl (2015) also confirmed that the ASLQ, as well as the RSLQ, were found to have acceptable levels of validity and reliability.

In their findings, Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) pointed out that the 9-item ASLQ should only be used as a brief overall measure of self-leadership and should

be used when using the 35-item RSLQ is not feasible. The authors also did not recommend the ASLQ sub-scales be used individually to measure “specific categories of self-leadership strategies” (p. 226). The authors explained that the three factors, Behavior Awareness & Volition, Task Motivation, and Constructive Cognition, as discussed and described in their study, were only created to demonstrate conceptually to the reader how the ASLQ represents an overall measure of self-leadership. The authors suggested that future researchers use the measurement sub-scale of the original RSLQ if future researchers wanted to measure a specific self-leadership strategy dimension, such as behavior focused strategies, natural reward strategies, or constructive thought strategies. Permission was received from the scale developers to utilize it for this study. Table 1 provides a comparison and summary of the RSLQ and ASLQ.

Table 1

Comparison of Summary of RSLQ and ALSQ Dimensions, Subscales, and Scale Items

	RSLQ			ASLQ	
3 Classic Self-Leadership Dimensions	9 RSLQ Subscales	35 RSLQ Scale items	3 Factors ^a	9 ASLQ Subscales ^b	9 ASLQ Scale items
Behavior-Focused Strategies	(1) Self-goal setting (2) Self-reward (3) Self-punishment (4) Self-observation (5) Self-cueing	2, 11, 20, 28, 34, 4, 13, 22, 6, 15, 24, 30, 7, 16, 25, 31, 9, 18	Behavior Awareness & Volition	(1) Self-goal setting (4) Self-observation	1, 2, 3

Natural Reward Strategies	(6) Focusing thoughts on natural rewards	8, 17, 26, 32, 35	Task Motivation	(7) Visualizing successful performance (2) Self-reward	4, 5, 6
Constructive Thought Strategies	(7) Visualizing successful performance (8) Self-Talk (9) Evaluating beliefs and assumptions	1, 10, 19, 27, 33, 3, 12, 21, 5, 14, 23, 29	Constructive Cognition	(9) Evaluating beliefs and assumptions (8) Self-Talk	7, 8, 9

Note. Data adapted from “Table 1. RSLQ subscales” by Houghton, J.D. & Neck, C.P. (2002), p. 677, and “Table 1: Item Descriptions, Factor Loadings of Sample One” by Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello (2012), p. 233.

^aThree factors originally rooted in 3 RSLQ Dimensions (Houghton & Neck, 2002, p. 677; Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012, p. 233). These three factors are conceptual in nature and should not be measured as a single construct (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). ^b The 9 ASLQ subscales are based on 9 RSLQ subscales (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012).

Recent studies applying the ASLQ. Mullen, Gutierrez, and Newhart (2018)

examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, leadership self-efficacy (LSE), self-leadership, and leadership experiences among practicing school counselors using the ASLQ along with other measurements. The authors found that school counselors who were identified as having higher levels of emotional intelligence, also had higher levels of leadership self efficacy, self-leadership, and leadership experiences.

Maykrantz and Houghton (2018) conducted a study that utilized the ASLQ along with two other measures, to examine the role of coping skills and the relationship between self-leadership and stress among college students. Using a moderated regression model, the researchers looked at data collected from 643 full-time undergraduate students at a public university. Maykrantz and Houghton found that self-leadership can be used to help reduce the stress of college students and that self-leadership strategies can also be used to help mitigate stress levels.

Lee, Park, and Choi (2018) utilized the ASLQ to conduct a study of patients with colorectal cancer. The authors found that an individuals' self-leadership propensity could be improved by the support from family and friends, in the patients' adoption of healthy eating habits and engaging in exercise.

Bozyigit (2018) conducted a study in Turkey, on the self-leadership of athletes who were volleyball players. A Turkish version of the ASLQ adopted by Sahin (2015) (originally developed and created by Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012), was used to collect data. The researcher's study examined the self-leadership levels of 138 students who were volleyball players, and analyzed whether there was a relationship between the players ranking achievements and the players self-leadership as measured by their ASLQ scores. The author found that the self-leadership level of volleyball players was high and that no significant difference was found between personal information variables and ASLQ scores. Additionally, the author found that there was a low level, negative and significant correlation with respect to the achievement ranking of the volleyball players and the ASLQ scores.

Bozyigit (2019) also conducted another study in Turkey, using the Turkish version of the ASLQ that was adopted by Sahin (2015). Bozyigit looked at a sample 114 sports management students with the purpose of examining the difference in the self-leadership strategies of students who chose to take a leadership course and those that did not chose to take a course. Bozyigit conducted the study utilizing the theoretical frames of leadership, self-leadership, and leadership training. The researcher found that there was a significant difference between the two groups with respect to the students' ASLQ total

scores as well as the ASLQ subscale scores of Behavior Awareness and Volition, Constructive Cognition, and Task Motivation. Bozyigit found the results of the study indicated that the sports management students who chose to take the leadership course had higher self-leadership scores than the students who did not. He explained that the results indicated the importance of leadership training in sports institutions.

Conclusion

In summary, this chapter provided a review of the literature relative to the theoretical concepts used to frame and guide this research study. Its purpose was to examine the role self-leadership plays in the leadership development of undergraduate students engaged in student and leadership organizations on a university campus. The theoretical frameworks of SuperLeadership, self-leadership, leadership development, and self-leadership development were examined. The leadership review looked at SuperLeadership, which looks at how leaders can develop other individuals to lead themselves (Manz & Sims, 1991). The review also presented the SuperLeadership framework developed by Manz and Sims (1991) that consists of a seven-step process of SuperLeadership, whose core focus is self-leadership. This study focused on step one, Becoming a Self-Leader, in the framework. Self-leadership was then defined and explained, and the strategies and benefits of self-leadership were presented. A discussion of leadership development and self-leadership development followed. A brief history of self-leadership measurements was presented, including a discussion on the development of the Self-Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ), the Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire

(RSLQ) and the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ), that is the focus of this study.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the role self-leadership plays in the leadership development of undergraduate students engaged in student and leadership organizations on a university campus. This study utilized a descriptive quantitative research design and employed survey research methods to gather data from a sample of undergraduate students on a northern California university campus located in United States. In particular, the study looked at those students who engage in student and leadership organizations on-campus and those who do not. The measurements used to collect the data included: (1) a researcher-created demographics questionnaire, and (2) the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). The ASLQ was used to measure the undergraduate students' overall global construct of self-leadership (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012).

Research Design

Quantitative Method

This study utilized a quantitative research design. According to Creswell (2009), there are three types of research designs: qualitative, quantitative, and mix-methods. Creswell (2009) also explains that quantitative research is a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. Boudah (2011) explains that research also can be categorized into two major types, experimental and descriptive. "In descriptive research unlike experimental research, the researcher attempts to report what

already exists” (Boudah, 2011, p. 10). Adamson (2018b) explains that descriptive statistics organize and summarize data. For this study, the researcher conducted a quantitative study and utilized descriptive statistics to organize and summarize data. In addition, difference statistics were used to compare two or more groups. The research design and method utilized in this study is appropriate to answer the two specific research questions presented in this study because the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) has been found to be a valid and reliable global measurement of self-leadership (Houghton, Dawley, DiLiello, 2012).

Role of Researcher

In this quantitative study, the role of the researcher was to act independently, collecting data through the use of a pre-existing survey, utilizing the Qualtrics software survey platform to give the online questionnaire, and then to analyze the data using SPSS. The survey participants remained anonymous throughout the collection of the online survey data and throughout the remainder of the study. The researcher did not have any direct contact with the undergraduate students. All of the research participants were emailed information about the study through the department within the university that focuses its attention on student clubs and leadership organizations. An anonymous online survey link to participate in the study was provided by the department. To summarize, the researcher collected data with a survey instrument and then performed appropriate statistical analyses and interpreted the results of the survey data.

Research Questions

1. What is the difference between the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) total scores of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not?
2. What is the difference between the ASLQ subscale scores (Behavior Awareness and Volition, Task motivation, and Constructive Cognition) of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not?

Setting, Population, & Sample

Setting

The study was conducted at a large, vibrant, metropolitan Northern California university campus with a multicultural student body, located in the United States. The university has a diverse student body, enrolls approximately 31,130 students annually, and graduates about 7,000 students each year. The university contributes to the local economy of the region with an annual impact of nearly \$900 million and contributes more than \$1 billion to the statewide economy. This university was chosen for its large, multicultural and diverse student body and student population. The university was also chosen because it has a department within the university that focuses its attention on student clubs and leadership organizations. It advises more than 300 student-led clubs and organizations that are social, religious, political, recreational, academic, cultural, fraternal, and professional.

Population & Sample (Participants)

The population of students enrolled annually at the university is approximately 31,130. A sample was drawn from the population of university students who choose to engage in student and leadership organizations on campus and those students who do not (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2015). After Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, access to the sample population was through email asking undergraduate students to participate in the study. The email contained an anonymous online link to the survey using the Qualtrics software platform.

The email containing the anonymous survey link was sent to the target population by the university department that focuses its attention on student clubs and leadership organizations. All officers of student organizations on-campus comprised the sample of students who engage in leadership organizations (approximately 900). A sample of 900 students was generated randomly for the sample of students who do not participate in student and leadership organizations. The only requirement of participants in the study was that they must have been 18 years or older and be an undergraduate student at the university at the time of the study. The researcher took into consideration cases that would need to be deleted from the final sample because of missing data or those participants who did not complete the survey. Only undergraduate students were chosen instead of the entire population of students on the university campus, for convenience of conducting the study.

Data Collection & Instrumentation

Measuring Instruments

Demographics Questionnaire. A brief demographics questionnaire was utilized to collect and gather information about participants in the study (see Appendix C). The demographics questionnaire included biographical questions about participants' age, gender, student year level at the university (school-level status), race/ethnicity, socioeconomic, and first-generation college student status. A question was also included that asked whether or not the participants self-identified as a student leader for a club, recreational sport, or student organization on-campus.

Self-Leadership Measure: Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire

(ASLQ). Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) describe self-leadership as the following, "Self-leadership...is a process of behavioral and cognitive self-evaluation and self-influence whereby people achieve the self-direction and self-motivation needed to shape their behaviors in positive ways in order to enhance their overall performance" (p. 217). Self-leadership strategies consist of three primary categories, behavior-focused strategies, natural reward strategies, and constructive thought strategies (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012).

Subjects' self-leadership was measured by utilizing the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ). This was the main data collection tool used in this study. It is a scale that has been developed and validated by Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012). The ASLQ is a 9-item abbreviated version of the 35-item Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) which was developed by Houghton and Neck (2002)

and found to be the most widely used and empirically validated self-leadership scale (Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018; Stewart, Courtright, & Manz, 2011). The ASLQ is a self-report measure that is measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree) (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). The ASLQ measures the overall global construct of self-leadership (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). The ASLQ is listed in Appendix D. Examples of questions from the ASLQ include questions such as: “I establish specific goals for my own performance”, “I visualize myself successfully performing a task before I do it”, and “I think about my own beliefs and assumptions whenever I encounter a difficult situation”. See Appendix D for the complete list of questions from the ASLQ (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012, p. 223). The final survey instrument containing both the Demographics Questionnaire and the ASLQ, can be found in Appendix E.

Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) explained that the 9-item ASLQ should only be used as a brief overall measure of self-leadership and should be used when using the 35-item RSLQ is not feasible. The authors also did not recommend the ASLQ sub-scales be used individually to measure “specific categories of self-leadership strategies” (p. 226). The authors explained that the ASLQ’s three factors of Behavior Awareness & Volition, Task Motivation, and Constructive Cognition, were only created to conceptually show how the ASLQ represents an overall measure of self-leadership. The authors suggested that future researchers use the measurement sub-scales of the original RSLQ if they wanted to measure a specific self-leadership strategy dimension on its own, such as Behavior-Focused Strategies, Natural Reward Strategies, or Constructive Thought

Strategies. The authors explained that the internal consistency of scores found on the ASLQ was found to be acceptable based on prior research. The ASLQ has a Cronbach's alpha of .73, which is considered above the acceptable reliability threshold (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012; Mullen, Gutierrez, & Newhart, 2018).

Procedures

All data was collected during the end of the fall semester in November 2019 through the beginning of the spring semester, in January 2020. The method that was used to conduct the online survey was the Tailored Design Method (Dillman, 2000; Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009; Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). There was one type of data collection. This was an anonymous online survey administered through Qualtrics in which the link to the survey was emailed to undergraduate students at the university. The email containing the anonymous survey link was sent by the department within the university that focuses its attention on student clubs and leadership organizations. The online survey was administered anonymously through Qualtrics. All survey respondents were assigned an anonymous identifier so that the participant's identity could not be ascertained. The online survey was administered using the "Prevent Ballot Box Stuffing" feature through Qualtrics, that prevents participants from taking the survey more than once. For the online survey, the informed consent language appeared as the first page of the survey, and participants clicked either "Yes, I agree to participate" or "No, I decline". Those who clicked "Yes" proceeded to the survey. Those who clicked "No" were brought to an exit page. The online survey consisted of two instruments: a demographics questionnaire and a self-leadership measure.

Data Analysis

For this study, the survey data was downloaded anonymously and analyzed using the SPSS software program to conduct the statistical analysis. In the analysis of the data, a Z-test was used to determine whether the scores were normally distributed. A *t* test was used to determine the difference between two groups (Adamson, 2018a; Green & Salkind, 2014). The significance level for each research question was pre-determined. A reliability analysis was conducted and the Cronbach's alpha value was calculated.

Data Analysis of Research Question #1

For research question #1: What is the difference between the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) total scores of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not? An Independent Sample *t* test was utilized because there is one (1) independent variable (IV), which has a nominal level of measurement, and consists of two independent groups, and one (1) dependent variable (DV), with a ratio level of measurement. The IV is Students Engaged in Student and Leadership Organizations. The IV's two independent groups consist of (1) students engaged in student and leadership organizations and (2) students who are not engaged in student and leadership organizations. The DV is the ASLQ Total Scores. The *t* test procedure indicates whether the two groups (students engaged in student and leadership organizations and those who are not engaged in student and leadership organizations) show a significant difference when comparing their mean ASLQ total scores.

Data Analysis of Research Question #2

For research question #2: What is the difference between the ASLQ subscale scores (Behavior Awareness and Volition, Task motivation, and Constructive Cognition) of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not? An Independent Sample *t* test was also used because there is one (1) independent variable (IV), which has a nominal level of measurement, and consists of two independent groups, and one (1) dependent variable (DV), with a ratio level of measurement. The IV is Students engaged in Student & Leadership Organizations. The IV's two independent groups consist of (1) students engaged in student and leadership organizations and (2) students who are not engaged in student and leadership organizations. The DV is the ASLQ Subscale Scores. The *t* test procedure indicates whether the two groups (students engaged in student and leadership organizations and those who are not engaged in student and leadership organizations) show a significant difference when comparing their mean ASLQ subscale scores for each subscale (Behavior Awareness and Volition, Task Motivation, and Constructive Cognition).

Protection of Participants

Prior to conducting research for this study, the researcher obtained permission from the Institutional Review Board (IRB). The participants were provided an Informed Consent Form that they signed prior to the study via the online survey software program Qualtrics. (See Appendix B, for a copy of the Informed Consent Form). The participants were informed that their participation in the study was voluntary, and that they had a right to not participate or leave the study at any time without consequence. The participants

were also informed of the benefits of the study and the possible risks that were involved. The possible risks involved were considered to be minimal or not any greater than would usually be expected during normal day-to-day activities and events.

The participants were also advised that measures to ensure their confidentiality and privacy were included with respect to the survey. For example, the participants were informed that their participation in the survey was anonymous, that their anonymity would be maintained throughout the data collection and analysis process, and that no identifying information would be collected as part of the survey, nor would any raw research data be shared with third parties. The participants were informed that all data would be secured in a password-protected hard drive that only the researcher would have access to. In addition, participants were informed that at the conclusion of the study, all data would be destroyed after three years (Creswell, 2009).

Chapter 4

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the role self-leadership plays in the leadership development of undergraduate students engaged in student and leadership organizations on a university campus. This chapter presents the findings from the study. The study utilized a quantitative research design and descriptive statistics to organize and summarize data. Difference statistics were also utilized to compare two or more groups. The measurements used to collect the data included: (1) a researcher-created demographics questionnaire (Appendix C), and (2) the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) (Appendix D), (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). The ASLQ served to measure undergraduate students' overall global construct of self-leadership (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). The complete survey can be found in Appendix E. The study had a total of 75 participants. The only requirements of the study were that the participants must have been 18 years or older and be an undergraduate student at the University.

The entire survey consisted of 16 questions, which included seven (7) demographic questions and nine (9) questions relating to self-leadership. The entire survey was broken down into two parts, Part I and Part II. Part I, consisted of the seven demographic questions relating to the participants' age, gender, student's year at the university (school-level status), race/ethnicity, first-generation college student,

socioeconomic, and student leader status. Part II of the survey consisted of the nine questions that comprise the ASLQ.

First, this chapter will introduce the research questions. Second, this chapter will introduce the demographic results of the research participants. Third, the chapter will introduce the results of the data relating to the undergraduate students' self-leadership. An analysis of the data was conducted for Research Questions 1 and 2. Utilizing the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ), Research Question 1 provides for an examination of the difference between the total self-leadership scores of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not. Research Question 2 provides an examination of the ASLQ subscale scores (Behavior Awareness and Volition, Task motivation, and Constructive Cognition). The chapter will conclude with a summary of the findings.

Research Questions

1. What is the difference between the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) total scores of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not?
2. What is the difference between the ASLQ subscale scores (Behavior Awareness and Volition, Task motivation, and Constructive Cognition) of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not?

Demographics

Part I of the survey (questions 1-7) consisted of the demographics section of the survey. This section of the chapter will discuss the demographics of the study's participants and will be presented in the figures and tables described below.

The study had a total of 75 participants (N=75). The majority of students who participated in the study were in the age range of 21-29, female, and third-year students, whose race/ethnicity consisted of Hispanic (n=29) and White (n=23). The participants were about equal as to whether or not they were First-Generation College Students (Yes=40, No=35). In terms of socio-economic status, the majority of the study's participants identified themselves as eligible for a Pell Grant. The study's sample was about equal in terms of students who identified themselves as Student Leaders (n=39) and Non-Student Leaders (n=36).

Age

Question 1 asked, "Which category below includes your age?" The choices included the following categories: (1) 18-20; (2) 21-29; (3) 30-39; (4) 40-49; (5) 50-59; and (6) 60 or older. Figure 4 and Table 2 present the participants' age. Table 2 shows that of the 75 participants, 29.33% (n=22) identified themselves as 18-20 years of age; 56% (n=42) identified themselves as 21-29 years of age; 8% (n=6) identified themselves as 30-39 years of age; 2.67% (n=2) identified themselves as 40-49 years of age; 4% (n=3) identified themselves as 50-59 years of age; and no one (n=0) identified themselves as 60 or older. As Figure 4 and Table 2 show, students in the age range of 18-20 and 21-29

comprised the majority of the study's participants. In fact, together they comprised 85.33% of the total participants in the study.

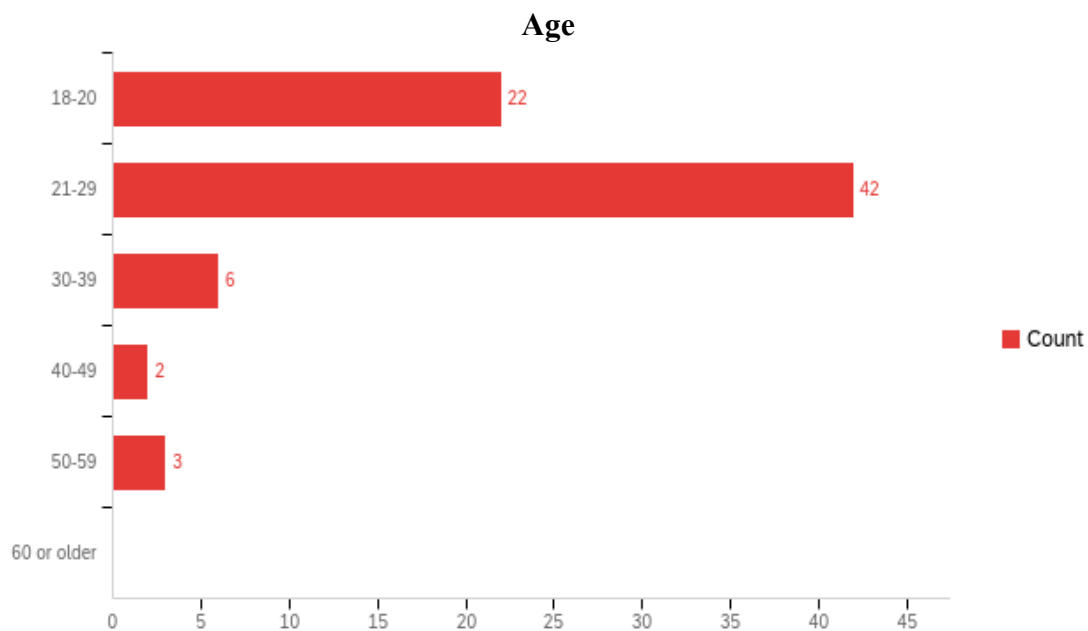


Figure 4. Age of participants.

Table 2

Age of Participants

Answer	%	Count
18-20	29.33%	22
21-29	56.00%	42
30-39	8.00%	6
40-49	2.67%	2
50-59	4.00%	3
60 or older	0.00%	0
Total	100%	75

Gender

Question 2 asked, “What is your gender?” The choices of gender included (1) Female, (2) Male, (3) Non-binary/Third gender, and (4) Prefer Not to Answer. Figure 5 and Table 3 display the participants’ gender. Of the 75 participants, 77.33% (n=58) identified themselves as Female while 22.67% (n=17) identified as Male. None of the participants identified as Non-binary/Third gender or Prefer Not to Answer. As Figure 5 and Table 3 show, females made up the majority of the study’s participants.

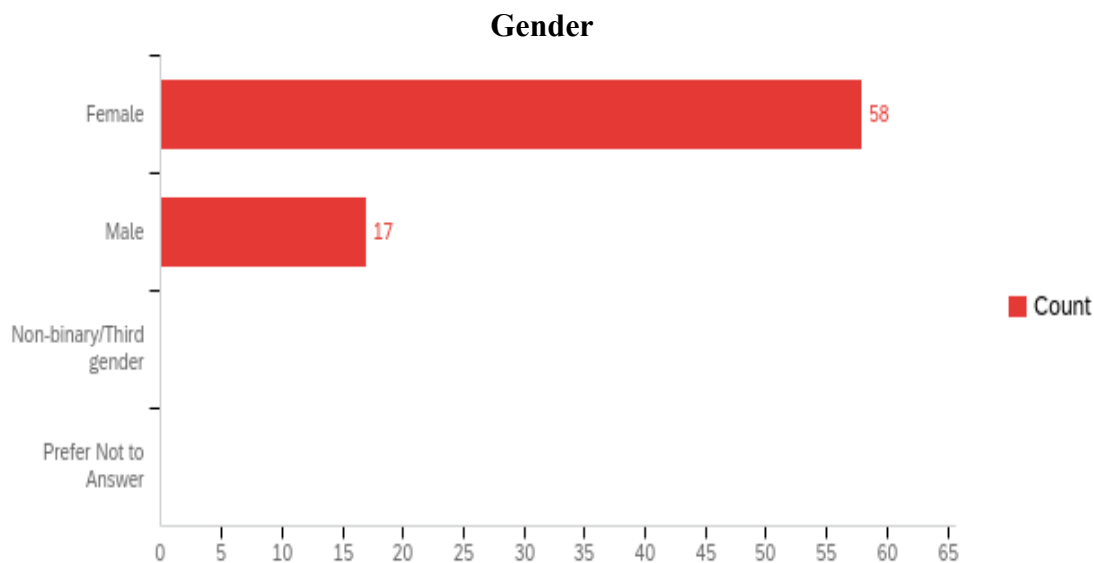


Figure 5. Gender of participants.

Table 3

Gender of Participants

Answer	%	Count
Female	77.33%	58
Male	22.67%	17
Non-binary/Third gender	0.00%	0
Prefer Not to Answer	0.00%	0
Total	100%	75

School-Level Status

Question 3 asked, “What is your current year in school?” The choices of the current year in school included (1) First year student, (2) Second year student, (3) Third

year student, (4) Fourth year student, (5) Fifth year student, and (6) Sixth year or beyond student. Figure 6 and Table 4 display the participants' current year in school. Of the 75 participants, 6.67% (n=5) identified themselves as a First year student; 8% (n=6) identified as a Second year student; 45.33% (n=34) identified as a Third year student; 21.33% (n=16) identified as a Fourth year student; 5.33% (n=4) identified as a Fifth year student; and 13.33% (n=10) identified as a Sixth year or beyond student. Figure 6 and Table 4 show that the majority of the study's participants were in the Third year student category.

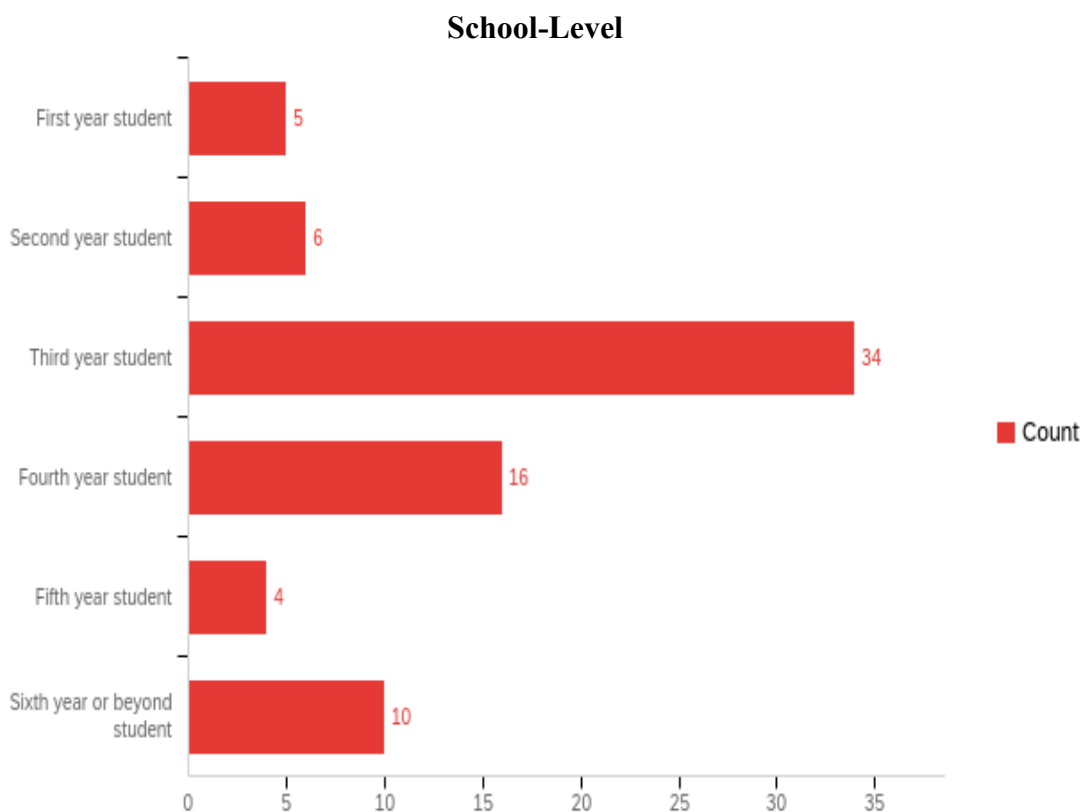


Figure 6. School-Level Status of participants.

Table 4

School-Level Status of Participants

Answer	%	Count
First year student	6.67%	5
Second year student	8.00%	6
Third year student	45.33%	34
Fourth year student	21.33%	16
Fifth year student	5.33%	4
Sixth year or beyond student	13.33%	10
Total	100%	75

Race/Ethnicity

Question 4 stated, “Please check one of the boxes that best describes your race/ethnicity?” The choices were (1) American Indian/Alaskan Native, (2) Asian, (3) Black/African American, (4) Hispanic/Latino, (5) Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander, (6) White, (7) Two or More Races/Ethnicities, (8) Race/Ethnicity Unknown, and (9) Prefer Not to Answer. Figure 7 and Table 5 display the participants’ Race/Ethnicity. Of the 75 participants, 1.33% (n=1) identified themselves as American Indian/Alaskan Native; 10.67% (n=8) identified as Asian; 9.33% (n=7) identified as Black/African American; 38.67% (n=29) identified as Hispanic/Latino; none identified as Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander; 30.67% (n=23) identified as White; and 8% (n=6) identified as coming from Two or More Race/Ethnicities. Figure 7 and Table 5 show that

the greatest number of the study's participants consisted of Hispanic/Latino students (n=29), followed by White students (n=23).

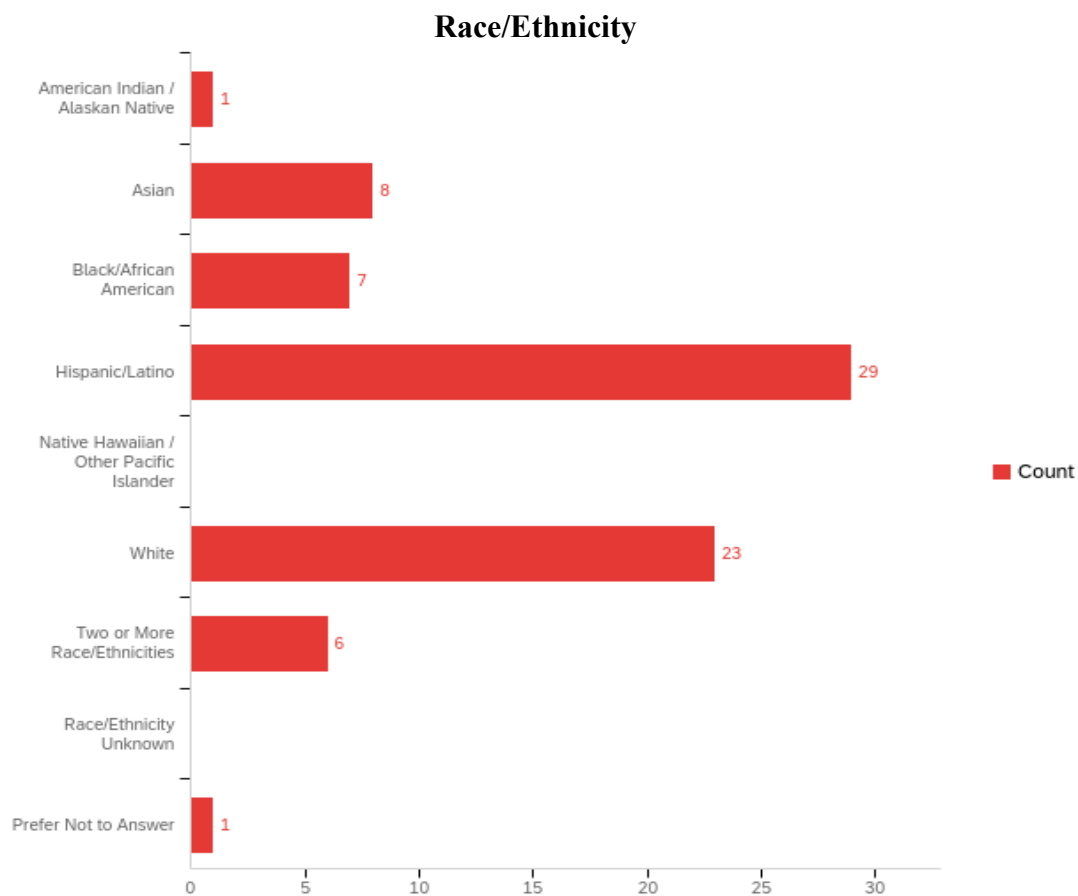


Figure 7. Race/Ethnicity of participants.

Table 5

Race/Ethnicity of Participants

Answer	%	Count
American Indian / Alaskan Native	1.33%	1
Asian	10.67%	8
Black/African American	9.33%	7
Hispanic/Latino	38.67%	29
Native Hawaiian / Other Pacific Islander	0.00%	0
White	30.67%	23
Two or More Race/Ethnicities	8.00%	6
Race/Ethnicity Unknown	0.00%	0
Prefer Not to Answer	1.33%	1
Total	100%	75

First-Generation College Student Status

Question 5 asked, “Are you the first in your family to attend college?” The choices were (1) Yes, and (2) No. Figure 8 and Table 6 display the participants’ First-Generation College Student Status. Of the 75 participants, 53.33% (n=40) identified as a First-Generation College Student; and 46.67% (n=35) did not identify as a First-Generation College Student. While there were more students who identified as First-Generation College Students, there was almost an equal number of those who did not identify themselves a First-Generation College Student.

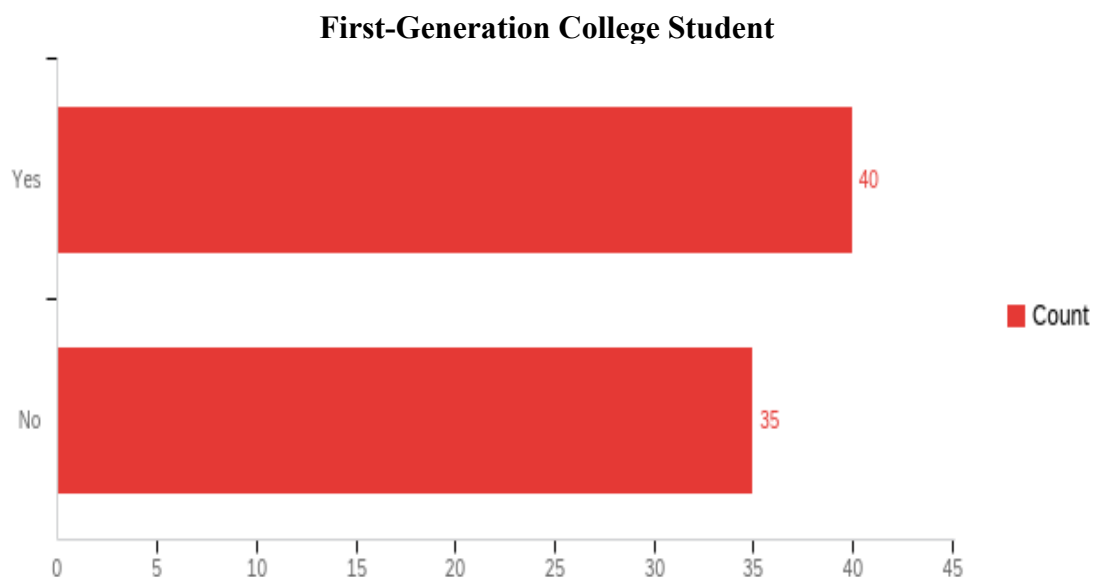


Figure 8. First-Generation College Student Status of participants.

Table 6

First-Generation College Student Status of Participants

Answer	%	Count
Yes	53.33%	40
No	46.67%	35
Total	100%	75

Socio-Economic Status

Question 6 asked, “Do you qualify for a Pell Grant?” The choices (1) Yes, and (2) No. Figure 9 and Table 7 display the participants’ socio-economic status. Of the 75 participants, 66.67% (n=50) identified themselves as qualifying for a Pell Grant; 33.33% (n=25) identified that they did not qualify for a Pell Grant. Figure 9 and Table 7 show that

the majority of the study's participants categorized themselves as qualifying for a Pell Grant, thus indicating that they had a lower income and could be falling into low-socioeconomic status.

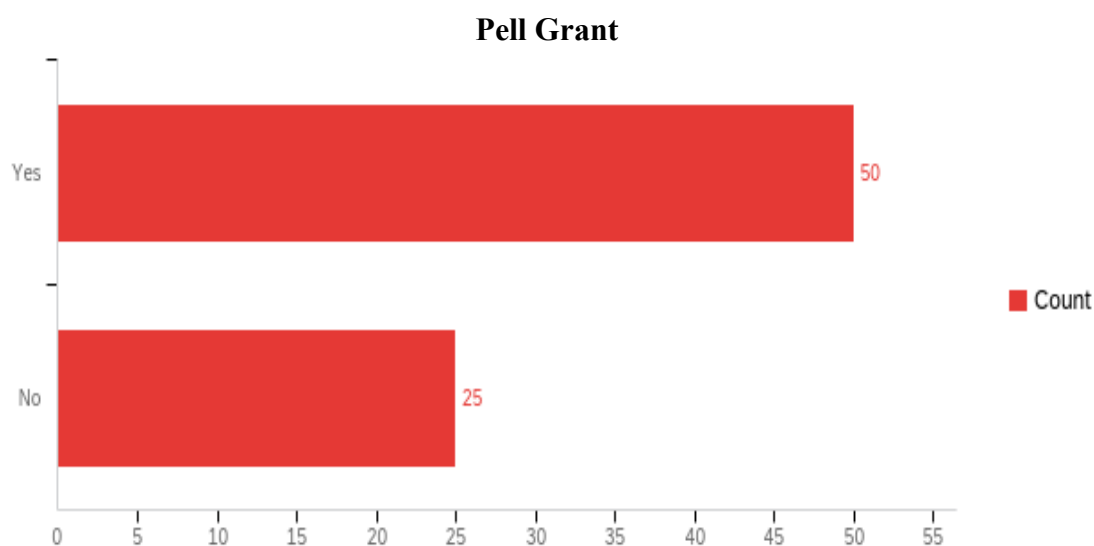


Figure 9. Socio-Economic Status of participants.

Table 7

Socio-Economic/Pell Grant Status of Participants

Answer	%	Count
Yes	66.67%	50
No	33.33%	25
Total	100%	75

Student Leader Status

Question 7 asked, “Do you currently (or in the past) identify yourself as a student leader for a club, recreational sport, or student organization on-campus?” The choices

were (1) Yes, and (2) No. Figure 10 and Table 8 display the participants' Student Leader Status. Of the 75 participants, 52% (n=39) identified themselves as Student Leaders; and 48% (n=36) identified as Non-Student Leaders. Figure 10 and Table 8 show that the study's participants were similar in their sample sizes for the Student Leader Status category (Student Leaders, n=39; Non-Student Leaders, n=36).

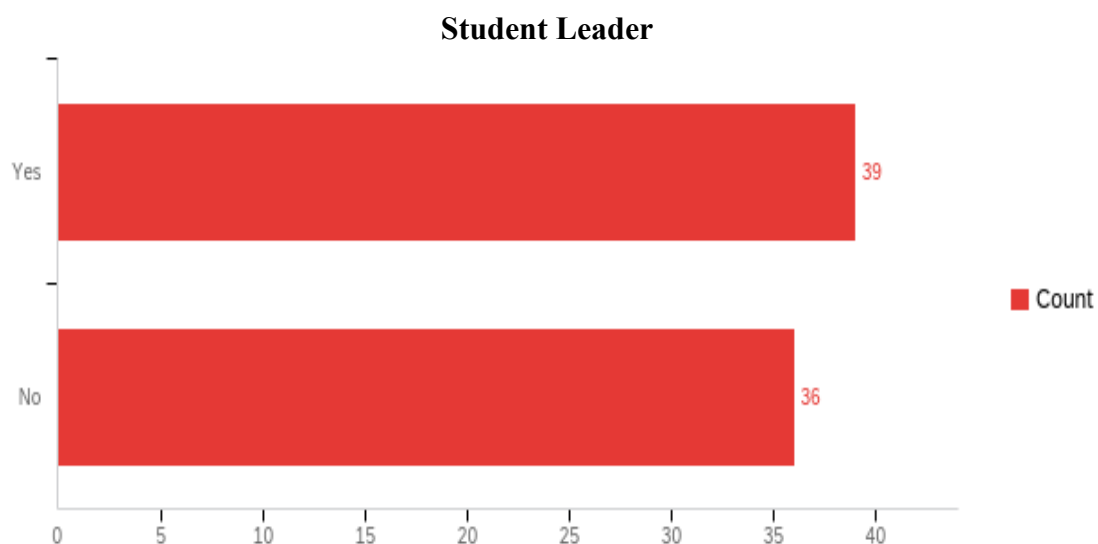


Figure 10. Student leader status of participants.

Table 8

Student Leader Status of Participants

Answer	%	Count
Yes	52.00%	39
No	48.00%	36
Total	100%	75

Self-Leadership

Part II of the survey consisted of 9 questions that comprised the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ). The ASLQ (Appendix D) is a self-leadership measurement instrument that was designed and developed by Houghton, Dawley, DiLiello (2012). The nine-item ALSQ was found to be a reliable and valid measure and is an abbreviated version of the 35-item Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) created by Houghton and Neck (2002). The ALSQ is a data collection tool that measures the overall global construct of self-leadership using a 5-point Likert-type scale. For ease of reference, Table 9 below presents the ASLQ.

Table 9

9 Questions of the ASLQ

9 Questions of the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ)

1. I establish specific goals for my own performance
2. I make a point to keep track of how well I'm doing at work.
3. I work toward specific goals I have set for myself.
4. I visualize myself successfully performing a task before I do it.
5. Sometimes I picture in my mind a successful performance before I actually do a task.
6. When I have successfully completed a task, I often reward myself with something I like.
7. Sometimes I talk to myself (out loud or in my head) to work through difficult situations.
8. I try to mentally evaluate the accuracy of my own beliefs about situations I am having problems with.
9. I think about my own beliefs and assumptions whenever I encounter a difficult situation.

Note. Adapted with permission from Houghton, J. D., Dawley, D., DiLiello, T. C. (2012). The Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ): A More Concise Measure of Self-Leadership. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, 7(2), 216-232.

As Figure 11 indicates, the majority of the participants' responses to the ASLQ fell in the areas of "Mostly Accurate" and "Completely Accurate" on the 5-point Likert-type scale.

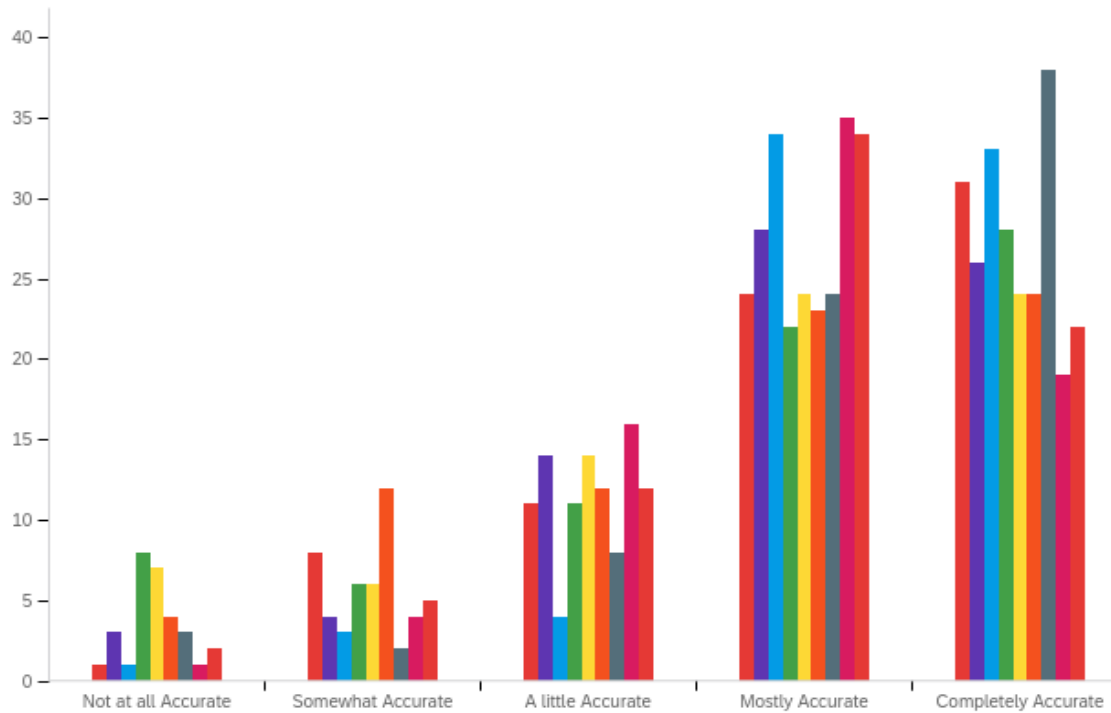


Figure 11. Grouping of 5-Point Likert-type ASLQ scale responses.

Total Self-Leadership/ASLQ Scores of Participants

Measures of central tendency and dispersion were computed to summarize the data for the Total Self-Leadership/ASLQ Scores of the entire study's participants (N=75). The results of this analysis are presented below as Table 10.

Table 10

Measures of Central Tendency and Dispersion, Total Self-Leadership/ASLQ Scores

		Total Self-Leadership Score
	N	75
Measures of Central Tendency	<i>M</i>	35.37
	<i>Mdn</i>	36
	<i>Md</i>	36
	<i>SEM</i>	0.747
	<i>SD</i>	6.472
Measures of Dispersion	Variance	41.886
	Range	30
	Minimum	15
	Maximum	45

The total Self-Leadership/ASLQ scores of the 75 participants and the distribution of the scores, are shown through the use of a histogram in Figure 12. The histogram in Figure 12 is a left-skewed histogram which has the peak to the right of the center. Since the mean is closer to the left and is lesser than either the median or the mode, the histogram is considered to be unimodal, with one clear peak. The histogram in Figure 12 is negatively skewed which means the histogram trails to the left; which in this case confirms that the scores are more towards the upper range and the mean score of 35.37.

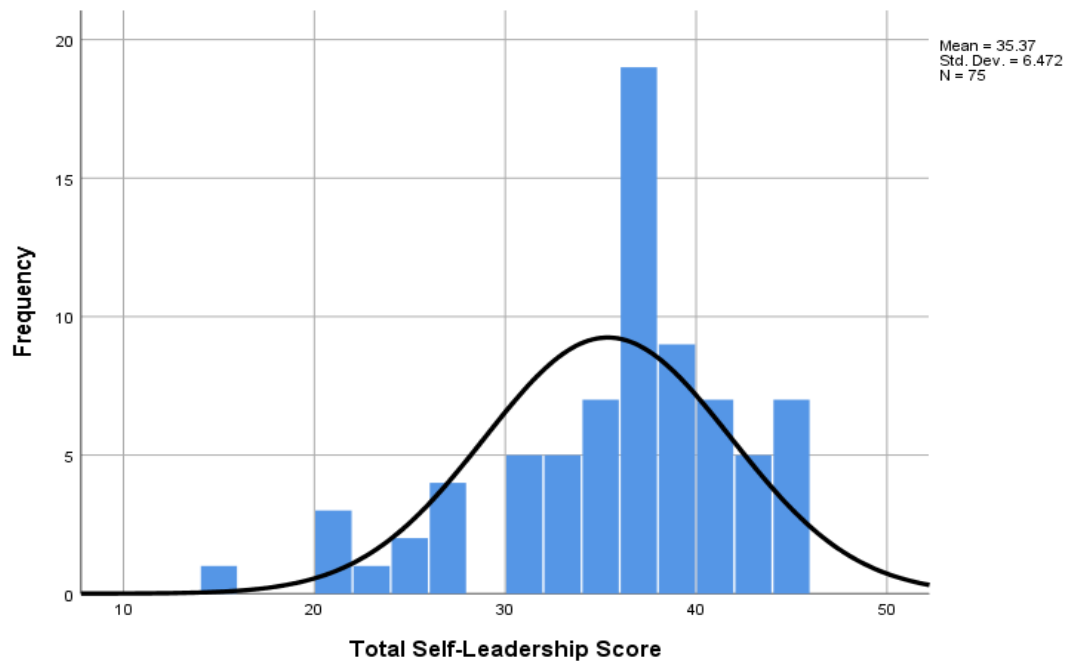


Figure 12. Total Self-Leadership/ASLQ Scores of participants.

Figure 13 below, shows a stacked histogram of the Total Self-Leadership Scores of the participants by Student Leader Status. The mean for the Student Leader Status category ($n = 39$) was 36.38, while for the Non-Student Leader category ($n = 36$) the mean was 34.28. From a perusal of the distribution of scores, it can be seen that the scores for the two groups of respondents did not differ significantly.

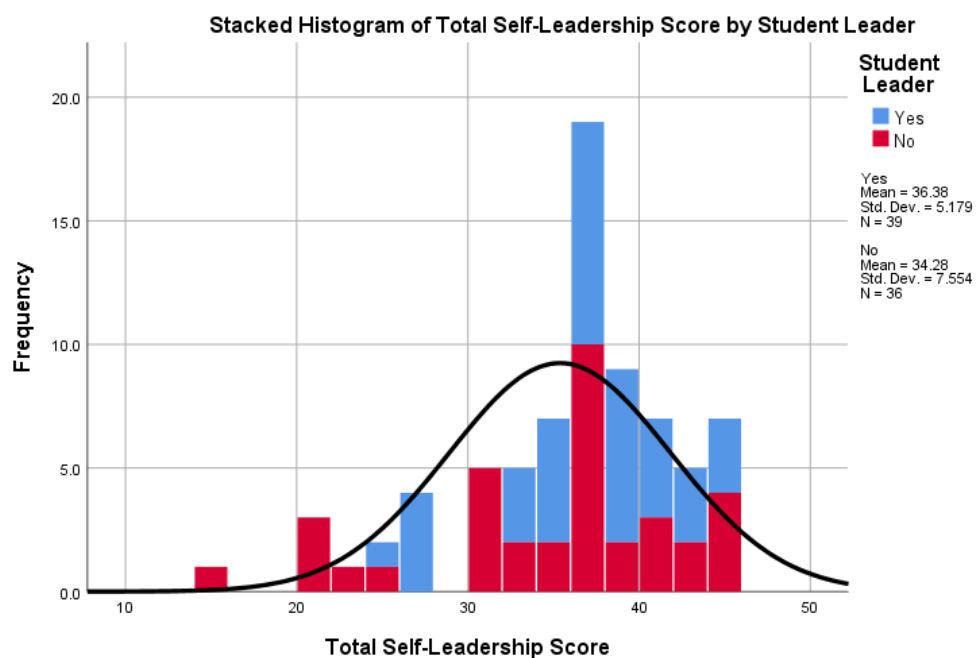


Figure 13. Total Self-Leadership Scores of participants, by Student Leader Status.

Total Self-Leadership/ASLQ Subscale Scores of Participants

Measures of central tendency and dispersion were computed to summarize the data for the Total Self-Leadership/ASLQ Subscale Scores of the entire study's participants (N=75), see Table 11, below. Table 11 presents the results of this analysis for the three subscales: Behavior Awareness and Volition; Task Motivation; and Constructive Cognition.

Table 11

Measures of Central Tendency, Total Self-Leadership/ASLQ Subscale Scores

		Total Behavior Awareness and Volition score	Total Task Motivation Score	Total Constructive Cognition Score
Measures of Central Tendency	N	75	75	75
	<i>M</i>	12.21	11.12	12.04
	<i>Mdn</i>	12.00	11.00	12.00
	<i>Md</i>	15	12	13
	<i>SEM</i>	0.297	0.322	0.277
	<i>SD</i>	2.570	2.785	2.402
Measures of Dispersion	Variance	6.603	7.756	5.769
	Range	10	12	12
	Minimum	5	3	3
	Maximum	15	15	15

Self-Leadership Results

The results of the analysis of the research questions presented in this study are given in the following tables below. For this study, the survey data were downloaded and analyzed using the SPSS software program to conduct the statistical analysis. In the analysis of the data, a Z-test was used to determine whether the scores were normally distributed. A *t* test was used to determine the difference between two groups (Adamson, 2018a; Green & Salkind, 2014). The significance level for each research question was determined to be .05 using the fixed-level testing approach (Sue & Ritter, 2012). A reliability analysis was conducted and the Cronbach's alpha value was calculated and found to be .840. Cronbach's alpha measures the internal consistency of a scale, or how well the test measures that what it should if the test was given on multiple occasions. A

coefficient of .8 or better is considered an acceptable level of internal consistency (Boudah, 2011).

Null Hypothesis and Hypothesis #1 and #2

Null Hypothesis (H₀)

There is no significant difference between the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) total scores of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not.

Hypothesis #1 (H₁)

There is a significant difference between the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) total scores of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not.

Hypothesis #2 (H₂)

There is a significant difference between the ASLQ subscale scores (Behavior Awareness and Volition, Task Motivation, and Constructive Cognition) of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not?

Research Question #1

For research question #1: What is the difference between the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) total scores of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not? An Independent Sample *t* test was used because there was one (1) independent variable (IV), which had a nominal level of measurement, and consisted of two independent groups, and one (1)

dependent variable (DV), with a ratio level of measurement, see Table 12. The IV was Students Engaged in Student and Leadership Organizations. The IV's two independent groups consisted of (1) students engaged in student and leadership organizations and (2) students who are not engaged in student and leadership organizations. The DV is the ASLQ Total Scores. The *t* test procedure indicates whether the two groups (students engaged in student and leadership organizations and those who are not engaged in student and leadership organizations) show a significant difference when running a *t*-test on their mean ASLQ total scores. The results are presented below in Table 12.

Table 12

Independent Samples T-Test Results According to ASLQ Total Scores of Students

					<i>t</i> test		
ASLQ	Student Leader	N	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>Df</i>	Sig (two-tailed)
Total Self-Leadership Score	Yes	39	36.38	5.179	1.418	73	0.160
	No	36	34.28	7.554			
	Total	75					

Note. N=sample size; *M*=mean; *SD*=standard deviation, *Df*=degrees of freedom.

Results of Data Analysis for Research Question 1

As can be seen from a perusal of Table 12, there was not a significant difference between the ASLQ total scores of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus ($M=36.38$, $SD=5.179$) and those who do not ($M=34.28$, $SD=7.554$); $t(73)=1.418$, $p=0.160$.

Research Question #2

For research question #2: What is the difference between the ASLQ subscale scores (Behavior Awareness and Volition, Task motivation, and Constructive Cognition) of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not? An Independent Sample *t* test was used because there is one (1) independent variable (IV), which has a nominal level of measurement, and consisted of two independent groups, and one (1) dependent variable (DV), with a ratio level of measurement, see Table 13. The IV is Students engaged in Student & Leadership Organizations. The IV's two independent groups consisted of (1) students engaged in student and leadership organizations and (2) students who are not engaged in student and leadership organizations. The DV is the ASLQ Subscale Scores. The *t* test procedure indicates whether the two groups (students engaged in student and leadership organizations and those who are not engaged in student and leadership organizations) show a significant difference when running a *t*-test on their mean ASLQ subscale scores for each subscale (Behavior Awareness and Volition, Task Motivation, and Constructive Cognition). ASLQ Questions 1-3 consisted of the subscale Behavior Awareness and Volition; Questions 4-6 consisted of the subscale Task Motivation; and Questions 7-9 consisted of the subscale Constructive Cognition.

Table 13

Independent Samples T-Test Results for ASLQ Subscale Scores of Students

ASLQ	Student Leader	N	M	SD	t test		
					t	df	Sig (two-tailed)
Total Behavior Awareness and Volition	Yes	39	12.51	2.437	1.051	73	.297
	No	36	11.89	2.702			
Total Task Motivation	Yes	39	11.13	2.783	.026	73	.979
	No	36	11.11	2.826			
Total Constructive Cognition	Yes	39	12.74	1.464	2.756	73	.007
	No	36	11.28	2.953			
	Total	75					

Note. N=sample size; M=mean; SD=standard deviation, Df=degrees of freedom.

Results of Data Analysis for Research Question 2

For the first subscale, there was not a significant difference between the ASLQ total subscale score for Behavior Awareness and Volition [$t(73)=1.051, p=.297$], of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus ($M=12.51, SD=2.437$) and those who do not ($M=11.89, SD=2.702$).

For the second subscale, there was not a significant difference between the ASLQ total subscale score for Task Motivation [$t(73)=.026, p=.979$], of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus ($M=11.13, SD=2.783$) and those who do not ($M=11.11, SD=2.826$).

For the third subscale, Table 13 above shows a significant difference was found for the ASLQ total subscale score for Constructive Cognition ($t(73)=.2.756, p=.007$) between students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus ($M=12.74, SD=1.464$) and those who do not ($M=12.74, SD=11.28$). Table 14 below lists the ASLQ questions for the subscale Constructive Cognition. Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) explained that the Constructive Cognition subscale/factor of the ASLQ encompasses "...self-talk and evaluating beliefs and assumptions items from the original RSLQ and thus represents the classic self-leadership strategy dimension of constructive thought" (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012, p. 226).

Table 14

Questions in Third Subscale of ASLQ, Constructive Cognition

ASLQ Questions for Third Subscale, Constructive Cognition	
7.	Sometimes I talk to myself (out loud or in my head) to work through difficult situations.
8.	I try to mentally evaluate the accuracy of my own beliefs about situations I am having problems with.
9.	I think about my own beliefs and assumptions whenever I encounter a difficult situation.

This finding of statistical significance for the ASLQ total subscale score for Constructive Cognition, indicates that students engaged in student and leadership organizations on a university campus, such as those who are involved in a club, recreational sport, or student organization, utilize this area of self-leadership and the Constructive Thought self-leadership strategies at higher levels than those students who fall into the non-student leader category.

Conclusion

In summary, this chapter analyzed the data from this study. The discussion was presented in two major sections in line with the study's survey that consisted of two parts. Part I consisted of the Demographics section and Part II contained the Self-Leadership section. Overall, the student demographics of the study were similar to those of the study's setting and the diversity of the University campus where the study took place. In terms of the actual demographics of the study's participants, a majority of the students were in the age range of 21-29, were female, third-year students, whose race/ethnicity consisted of Hispanic (n=29) and White (n=23). The participants were about equal as to whether or not they were of First-Generation College Student status (Yes=40, No=35). In terms of socio-economic status, the majority of study's participants identified themselves as eligible for a Pell Grant. The study's sample was about equal in terms of students who categorized themselves as Student Leaders (n=39) and Non-Student Leaders (n=36).

In terms of Research Question 1, the findings showed that there was not a significant difference between the ASLQ total scores of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not. For Research Question 2, the findings showed that there was not a significant difference between the ASLQ total subscale scores for Behavior Awareness and Volition and Task Motivation, of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not. However, with respect to the third subscale, Constructive Cognition, there was a significant difference between the ASLQ total subscale scores (Constructive Cognition), of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a

university campus and those who do not. This signifies that students engaged in student and leadership organizations on a university campus, such as those who are involved in a club, recreational sport, or student organization, use this area of self-leadership and the Constructive Thought self-leadership strategies at higher levels than those students who fall into the non-student leader category. These findings have positive implications for self-leadership development and the leadership development of students.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the role self-leadership plays in the leadership development of undergraduate students engaged in student and leadership organizations on a university campus. This chapter presents the summary and conclusions drawn from conducting this study. The chapter begins with the problem statement, followed by a presentation of a summary of the study. The research questions, hypothesis #1 and #2 and the null hypotheses are also presented. Next, a discussion of the findings including a discussion of the study's student demographics and the self-leadership results are presented. Moreover, the study's theoretical frameworks, assumptions, limitations, and delimitations are discussed. The significance of the study is also included; followed by the implications for practice, and recommendations for future research. Finally, the chapter will conclude with final thoughts on the study.

Problem Statement

The problem this study addresses in its examination of self-leadership and SuperLeadership is the challenge of leading and developing leaders in higher education within the context of a continually changing 21st Century environment (Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Neck & Manz, 2010). The advancement of knowledge in rapidly changing environments in the era of information and data, is growing at an exponential rate (Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001). This necessitates that individuals, such as students, educational and organizational leaders, need to shift, mold, and adapt to new

ways of leading themselves and building the self-leadership development of others (Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Neck & Manz, 2010; Nevarez, 2017). Self-leadership strategies are important in that they can be utilized as tools to assist individuals and organizations in providing training, curriculum, and instruction that can assist them in performing more effectively (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Andressen, Konradt, & Neck, 2012).

The study encourages students as well as other individuals, including educational leaders, organizational and corporate executives, other leadership staff, and key human resource personnel, to develop their own self-leadership strategies, and to work at becoming not only SuperLeaders, but more important, self-leaders, in their own personal, professional, and educational lives.

Summary of the Study

The study utilized a quantitative research design to examine the use of self-leadership strategies between students who participated in student and leadership organizations on-campus, and those who did not. Descriptive statistics were used to organize and summarize data. Difference statistics were also utilized to compare the two groups of subjects. The instruments used to collect the data included: (1) a researcher-created demographics questionnaire (Appendix C), and (2) the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) (Appendix D), (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). The ASLQ served to measure undergraduate students' overall global construct of self-leadership (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). The complete survey can be found in Appendix E. The study had a total of 75 participants. The only requirements of

the study were that the participants must have been 18 years or older and be an undergraduate student at the University.

The entire survey consisted of 16 questions, which included seven (7) demographic questions and nine (9) questions relating to self-leadership. The survey was comprised of two parts. Part I, consisted of the seven demographic questions relating to the participants' age, gender, student's year at the university (school-level status), race/ethnicity, first-generation college student, socioeconomic, and student leader status. Part II of the survey consisted of the nine questions that comprise the ASLQ.

The ASLQ instrument was designed and developed by Houghton, Dawley, DiLiello (2012), and was used as a data collection tool to measure the overall global construct of self-leadership. The nine-item ALSQ has been found to be a valid and reliable global measurement of self-leadership (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012). The ASLQ is an abbreviated version of the 35-item Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ), developed by Houghton and Neck (2002). The RSLQ is also the most widely used and empirically validated self-leadership scale (Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018; Stewart, Courtright, & Manz, 2011). Permission was received from the creators of the ALSQ to utilize it for this study.

Research Questions

1. What is the difference between the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) total scores of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not?

2. What is the difference between the ASLQ subscale scores (Behavior Awareness and Volition, Task motivation, and Constructive Cognition) of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not?

Null Hypothesis and Hypothesis #1 and #2

Null Hypothesis (H₀)

There is no significant difference between the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) total scores of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not.

Hypothesis #1 (H₁)

There is a significant difference between the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) total scores of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not.

Hypothesis #2 (H₂)

There is a significant difference between the ASLQ subscale scores (Behavior Awareness and Volition, Task Motivation, and Constructive Cognition) of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not?

Discussion of the Findings

This section discusses the interpretation of the findings related to the study. Part I of the study consisted of the Demographics section and Part II contained the Self-Leadership section.

Demographics

The majority of students who participated in the study were in the age range of 21-29 years old, female, and third-year students, whose race/ethnicity was Hispanic (n=29) and White (n=23). The participants were about equal as to whether or not they were First-Generation College Students (Yes=40, No=35). In terms of socio-economic status, the majority of the study's participants identified themselves as eligible for a Pell Grant, thus indicating that they had a lower income and could fall into the low-socioeconomic status category. The study's sample was about equal in terms of students who identified themselves as Student Leaders (n=39) and Non-Student Leaders (n=36).

Self-Leadership Results

The results of the research questions examined in this study are presented below.

Research Question 1. The findings showed that there was not a significant difference between the ASLQ total scores of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not. For the ASLQ, the highest total self-leadership score that can be achieved is 45; the lowest score that can be achieved is a 9. However, looking at the average total self-leadership scores for this study, the average score was 35.37 (Table 10). The findings (Table 12), show that the Student Leader scores were above the average score at 36.38; and the Non-Student Leaders were below the average total self-leadership score at 34.28. This means that the self-leadership scores of the Student Leader engaged in student and leadership organizations were higher than the average score reported for this scale.

This finding is important because it shows that involvement with student and leadership organizations could have a positive influence on the development of an individual's self-leadership development. These findings are also important because they also demonstrate that individuals who are students in general, whether student leaders or non-student leaders, are accessing their own self-leadership strategies and abilities in this important time period of their lives, as undergraduate students pursuing higher education.

These findings are important because they show how self-leadership is an important and growing aspect for women student-leaders. In the current study, women made up 77.33% while men made up 22.6% of the sample. The study demonstrated that Female Student-Leaders are exercising their self-leadership skills and strategies at levels above the average scale score. In addition, these findings show the majority of Female Student Leaders are also first-generation college students, who are accessing their self-leadership strategies above the average score. These findings are important because if institutions and the world of work are seeking to build future female leaders, this finding of an above-average score could have positive implications for women in the areas of leadership, leadership development, self-leadership, and self-leadership development. As Grantham, Pidano, and Whitcomb (2014) state, "Today there are increased opportunities for women to assume leadership positions in the workforce based on their higher education and years of experience in the workforce (Trinidad & Normore, 2005)".

Research Question 2. For Research Question 2, the findings showed that there was not a significant difference between the ASLQ total subscale scores for Behavior Awareness and Volition and Task Motivation, of students who engage in student and

leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not. However, with respect to the third subscale, Constructive Cognition, there was a significant difference between the ASLQ total subscale scores (Constructive Cognition), of students who engage in student and leadership organizations on a university campus and those who do not. This signifies that students engaged in student and leadership organizations on a university campus, such as those who are involved in a club, recreational sport, or student organization, use this area of self-leadership and the Constructive Thought self-leadership strategies at higher levels than those students who fall into the non-student leader category. These findings have positive implications for self-leadership development and the leadership development of all students.

This finding also has positive implications for the area of self-leadership, leadership development, and for individuals and students in general, because it shows that when students are actively engaged in student and leadership organizations on campus, these activities allow for students to positively develop their constructive thought processes. Thus, it allows students to seek and to develop new ways of thinking and working through difficult situations they may encounter and assists them positively with their daily lives. These self-leadership strategies provide students the opportunity to work on their own self, by analyzing their own particular belief systems, especially when difficult situations may arise that can impact their personal, professional, and academic success (Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018; Neck & Manz, 2010).

Theoretical Frameworks

The theoretical concepts and frameworks that were used to frame this research were discussed in Chapter 2. The frameworks included SuperLeadership, Self-Leadership, Leadership Development, and Self-Leadership Development. The most important aspect of these theoretical concepts is that they encourage educational leaders, organizational and corporate executives, other leadership staff, and key human resource personnel, and more importantly, students, to become SuperLeaders; one who leads others to lead themselves (Bum & Lee, 2018; Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001). More importantly, these concepts encourage individuals to become a self-leader and to develop their own self-leadership skills that are essential for success in their personal, professional, and educational lives (Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Napiersky & Woods, 2018; Neck & Manz, 2010). These skills are especially useful and important during difficult and challenging times (Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018; Neck & Manz, 2010; Wang, 2016).

Assumptions, Limitations, Delimitations

There were several assumptions that were made regarding the study's research design. First, there is an assumption that all individuals would like to access and utilize their self-leadership abilities and strategies in a positive way. Second, the study could lead one to assume that students in student and leadership organizations on the university campus may have higher self-leadership scores than students who are not in student and leadership organizations on the university campus. However, this was an empirical question that was tested by this research. The researcher acknowledges the fact that those

students who may not be involved in student and leadership organizations on campus, may not utilize self-leadership strategies available to them simply because of their diverse or unique personal circumstances or background.

Some limitations of the study included the following areas: Population, Sample Size, and Instrumentation.

Population and Sample Size: One limitation of this study includes the fact that the population of the study is limited to only one university and the sample size could have been larger. Due to time constraints and the limited number of resources available, limiting the research study to one university campus made the study more manageable.

Instrumentation: Another limitation of the study was the fact that the survey, which included the demographics questionnaire and the ASLQ, is a self-report measure. Individuals who self-report, using the study's survey, may not accurately report their views of their own self-leadership. It may be possible that other people may view these individual's self-leadership strategies differently, or even be able to view their self-leadership in a more detailed and accurate way.

Some possible biases that this researcher may bring to the study include the following. First, the bias that the researcher would like to see all students as well as all individuals have high levels of self-leadership strategies and to develop the self-leadership skills to assist them with their lives. In addition, the researcher believes that with these skills, they can utilize their own independent thinking and judgement with respect to challenging and difficult situations that may present themselves. Another possible bias might include the fact that the researcher would like to see all students, both

those who engage in student and leadership organizations and those who do not, do well and to want to increase their own self-leadership strategies in a positive way for whatever personal reasons, in order for them do well in their personal, professional, and academic lives.

Significance of the Study

The study is significant because it benefits and encourages students and others to develop their own self-leadership strategies, and to work towards becoming SuperLeaders. More important, it encourages them to become a self-leader, in their own personal, professional, and educational lives. This research study addresses gaps in the literature by developing the research literature on self-leadership utilizing the ASLQ, with particular attention focused on the leadership development and self-leadership development of undergraduate students engaged in student and leadership organizations on a university campus. There has been no other research that has been done to date regarding self-leadership within this specific context.

The implications of this research for educational leadership include providing educational leaders with tools that will assist them personally and professionally, as well as the way these leaders assist the students and future leaders whom they serve. Self-leadership development is something that can be utilized by all individuals and can be used to assist students from all backgrounds and provide them tools to use in their daily lives (Manz & Sims, 1991; Neck & Manz, 2010). Developing one's self-leadership can assist educational leaders in working towards building the next generation of SuperLeaders and assist current leaders in improving their own leadership development.

The implications of this research for teaching and educational policy include the creation and implementation of self-leadership development training programs at all levels of educational institutions. Policy changes can be made to include self-leadership development and SuperLeadership development and training in educational curriculum, programming, and the professional development of student and educational leaders, administrators and employees. The implications of this research extend not only to educational institutions, but governmental organizations, corporations, non-profits, entrepreneurs, as well as the individual. Executive and leadership coaches, personal development, and leadership development trainers can include in their leadership development and management training programs, curriculum and instruction that focus on the self-leadership and SuperLeadership of all individuals.

The implications of this study for social or organizational change includes the impact on organizations such as corporations, governments, non-profits, institutions of higher education, and educational institutions. These organizations can seek to add to, or modify, existing leadership and professional development programs or curriculum to include self-leadership strategies and self-leadership development for the benefit of all participants. Additionally, executive leaders and managers, including human resource managers, can create, develop and include self-leadership into their new or future programs.

The implications of this study for students as well as individuals in general, include providing the students with tools and strategies to access their ability to lead themselves, to access their own independent thought processes to be critical thinkers, and

to question those leaders and individuals around them based on their own self-awareness and intuition. Self-leadership skills are important during times of panic, fear, stress and worry, and can assist students to cope. It is also an essential tool to help students become the self-leader in their own lives (Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018).

Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher suggests the following areas for future research. To begin, researchers can continue to conduct research on the growing and evolving research area of self-leadership. Researchers can continue to conduct studies utilizing the ASLQ. Future studies could be conducted on self-leadership in other college or university settings, as well as other educational settings across the country. Investigators could utilize a qualitative approach to look at both sets of students, student leaders and non-student leaders, to get a more detailed and inside perspective in order to understand and further explain the results of the current study. In addition, future research could also explore qualitatively, the self-leadership strategies of female student leaders in higher education, since women's opportunities to assume leadership positions are increasing based on their higher education experience (Bozygit, 2018). Future researchers could also explore the self-leadership strategies of female student leaders who are also first-generation college students. Researchers could also include examining male self-leadership strategies in higher education as well as in their personal and professional experience.

Research could explore the self-leadership strategies of individuals in various industries and life settings, especially while changes in the 21st century are occurring at

such a rapid pace, and situations and environments are constantly changing and ever evolving. Finally, researchers could explore in more detail, the constructive thought strategies utilized by student leaders and non-student leaders with the use of the RSLQ. This would provide a more detailed analysis of the three self-leadership strategies of Behavior-Focused Strategies, Natural Reward Strategies, and Constructive Thought Strategies (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012).

Conclusion

The problem this study addressed in its examination of self-leadership and SuperLeadership is the challenge of leading and developing leaders in higher education within the context of a continually changing 21st Century environment (Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Neck & Manz, 2010). The purpose of the study was to examine the role self-leadership plays in the leadership development of undergraduate students engaged in student and leadership organizations on a university campus. Self-leadership and SuperLeadership are centered around the individual, and self-leadership provides the foundation and tools for individuals to perform more effectively (Bozyigit, 2018; 2019; Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Derks, 2016; Furtner, Baldegger, & Rauthmann, 2012; Houghton & Neck, 2002; Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012; Manz, 1986, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018; Neck & Manz, 2010).

Self-leadership and its benefits can be translated into any situation, and any person regardless of his/her background and circumstance, can learn and begin to access self-leadership strategies (Bozyigit, 2019, Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012; Manz,

1986, 1991; 1992; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Neck & Manz, 2010). Self-leadership can provide a strong foundation for students, in particular undergraduate students, who may then go on and become the future SuperLeaders of the world (Bozyigit, 2018; 2019; Manz, 1991; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Marcketti, Arendt, & Shelley, 2011; Neck & Manz, 2010). Given the results of this study, more research focused on self-leadership and strategies for its development should be implemented.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Operational Definitions

The following operational definitions and key terms are provided for the reader to clarify those used in this research study: *Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ)*, *leadership*, *Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ)*, *self-leadership*, *Self-Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ)*, *self-leadership strategies*, and *SuperLeadership*. The operational definitions and key terms used in this dissertation are defined below and listed in alphabetical order.

Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ): The Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire is a self-leadership measurement instrument designed and developed by Houghton, Dawley, DiLiello (2012). The ALSQ is a data collection tool that measures the overall global construct of self-leadership on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The nine-item ALSQ was found to be a reliable and valid measure and is an abbreviated version of the 35-item Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) created by Houghton and Neck (2002).

Leadership: Leadership is a “process of influence” (Manz, 1983b, p. 2). The definition of leadership used in this study is the definition used by Manz (1983b) which centers on the idea of self-leadership. Manz (1983b) states, “The most useful definition of leadership, to focus on the idea of self-leadership, however, is simply ‘a process of influence’ (Manz, 1983b p. 2).

Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ): The Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) is a 35-item self-leadership measurement created by Houghton and Neck (2002) and was found to be the most widely used and empirically validated self-leadership scale (Maykrantz & Houghton, 2018; Stewart, Courtright, & Manz, 2011). The RSLQ contains variables measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly agree to 5=strongly agree), divided into 9 sub-scales that represent the three primary self-leadership dimensions of: 1) behavior-focused strategies, 2) natural reward strategies, and 3) constructive thought pattern strategies.

Self-Leadership: Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) describe self-leadership as the following, “Self-leadership...is a process of behavioral and cognitive self-evaluation and self-influence whereby people achieve the self-direction and self-motivation needed to shape their behaviors in positive ways in order to enhance their overall performance” (p. 217). Neck and Houghton (2006) state that, “Self-leadership (Manz, 1986; Manz and Neck, 2004) is a process through which individuals control their own behavior, influencing and leading themselves through the use of specific sets of behavioral and cognitive strategies.” (p. 270).

Self-Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ): The Self-Leadership Questionnaire was the first self-leadership scale that was published by Anderson and Prussia (1997). The SLQ was subsequently found to have inherent reliability and validity issues and was later followed with the Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) (Houghton & Neck, 2002) and then the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) (Houghton, Dawley, DiLiello, 2012).

Self-Leadership Strategies: Self-leadership strategies consists of behavioral and cognitive strategies that are broken down into three main categories of self-leadership strategies: (1) Behavior-Focused Strategies, (2) Natural Reward Strategies, and (3) Constructive Thought Pattern Strategies designed to assist individuals in advancing their individual performance (Houghton, Dawley, & DiLiello, 2012; Neck & Houghton, 2006; Manz, 1983b; Neck & Manz, 2010).

SuperLeadership: SuperLeadership as defined by Manz and Sims (2001) consists of "...leading others to lead themselves" (p. 4). "In order for one to become a SuperLeader, an individual must master their own self-leadership which is at the heart of SuperLeadership (Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001; Manz, 1991).

Appendix B

Survey Informed Consent Letter

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Self-Leadership and SuperLeadership: Examining the Leadership Development of University Undergraduate Students Using the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ)

My name is Isabell Flores, and I am a Doctoral Candidate at California State University, Sacramento, Doctorate in Educational Leadership Program. I am conducting this research study to examine the leadership development and self-leadership of undergraduate students on a university campus. If you volunteer to participate, you will be asked to complete the following anonymous online survey. Your completion of this survey indicates your consent to participate in the study. Your participation in this study will last approximately 10-12 minutes. The survey consists of 16 questions. The only requirement is that participants must be 18 years or older and be an undergraduate student at California State University, Sacramento (CSUS).

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You have the right not to participate at all or to leave the study at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. There are some possible risks involved for participants. These risks are not anticipated to be any greater than risks you encounter in daily life. There are some benefits to this research, particularly for higher education leaders who may be interested in self-leadership development and developing programs for students.

It is anticipated that study results will be shared with the public through presentations and/or publications. Information collected for this study is anticipated to be completely anonymous and cannot be linked back to you. Any information that is obtained in connection with this study cannot be identified with you and will remain confidential. Measures to insure your confidentiality are the survey will be administered by a third party who will not be present during the survey administration. The only data used and stored will not be linked to individual students. Qualtrics does not link data to the individual students. The anonymous data will be maintained in a safe, locked location and may be used for future research studies or distributed to another investigator for future research studies without additional informed consent from you. Raw data will be destroyed after a period of 3 years after study completion.

If you have any questions about the research at any time, please contact the researcher or the dissertation chair, Dr. Alexander Gonzalez. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in a research project please call the Office of Research, Innovation, and Economic Development, California State University, Sacramento, (916) 278-5674, or email irb@csus.edu.

Your participation indicates that you have read and understand the information provided above, that you willingly agree to participate, that you may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

Please keep this form as your copy.

Appendix C

Demographics Questionnaire

Demographics Questions

1. Which category below includes your age?
 - 18-20
 - 21-29
 - 30-39
 - 40-49
 - 50-59
 - 60 or older

2. What is your gender?
 - Female
 - Male
 - Non-binary/Third gender
 - Prefer Not to Answer

3. What is your current year in year in school?
 - First year student
 - Second year student
 - Third year student
 - Fourth year student
 - Fifth year student
 - Sixth year or beyond student

4. Please check one of the boxes that best describes your race/ethnicity?
 - American Indian / Alaskan Native
 - Asian
 - Black/African American
 - Hispanic/Latino
 - Native Hawaiian / Other Pacific Islander
 - White
 - Two or More Race/Ethnicities
 - Race/Ethnicity Unknown
 - Prefer Not to Answer

5. Are you the first in your family to attend college?
 - Yes
 - No

6. Do you qualify for a Pell Grant?

- Yes
- No

7. Do you currently (or in the past) identify yourself as a student leader for a club, recreational sport, or student organization on-campus?

- Yes
- No

Appendix D

Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ)

Self-Leadership

INSTRUCTIONS: Read each of the following items carefully and try to decide how true the statement is in describing you.

<i>Not at all Accurate</i>	<i>Somewhat Accurate</i>	<i>A little Accurate</i>	<i>Mostly Accurate</i>	<i>Completely Accurate</i>
1	2	3	4	5

1. I establish specific goals for my own performance.
2. I make a point to keep track of how well I'm doing at work.
3. I work toward specific goals I have set for myself.
4. I visualize myself successfully performing a task before I do it.
5. Sometimes I picture in my mind a successful performance before I actually do a task.
6. When I have successfully completed a task, I often reward myself with something I like.
7. Sometimes I talk to myself (out loud or in my head) to work through difficult situations.
8. I try to mentally evaluate the accuracy of my own beliefs about situations I am having problems with.
9. I think about my own beliefs and assumptions whenever I encounter a difficult situation.

Source: Houghton, J. D., Dawley, D., DiLiello, T. C. (2012). "The Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ): A More Concise Measure of Self-Leadership," International Journal of Leadership Studies, 7, 216-232. All rights reserved.

Appendix E

Survey Instrument

Part I: Demographics

Please fill out the following demographics questions.

1. Which category below includes your age?

- 18-20
- 21-29
- 30-39
- 40-49
- 50-59
- 60 or older

2. What is your gender?

- Female
- Male
- Non-binary/Third gender
- Prefer Not to Answer

3. What is your current year in year in school?

- First year student
- Second year student
- Third year student
- Fourth year student
- Fifth year student
- Sixth year or beyond student

4. Please check one of the boxes that best describes your race/ethnicity?

- American Indian / Alaskan Native
- Asian
- Black/African American
- Hispanic/Latino
- Native Hawaiian / Other Pacific Islander
- White
- Two or More Race/Ethnicities
- Race/Ethnicity Unknown
- Prefer Not to Answer

5. Are you the first in your family to attend college?

- Yes
- No

6. Do you qualify for a Pell Grant?

- Yes
 No

7. Do you currently (or in the past) identify yourself as a student leader for a club, recreational sport, or student organization on-campus?

- Yes
 No

Part II: Self-Leadership

INSTRUCTIONS: Read each of the following items carefully and try to decide how true the statement is in describing you.

	<i>Not at all Accurate</i> 1	<i>Somewhat Accurate</i> 2	<i>A little Accurate</i> 3	<i>Mostly Accurate</i> 4	<i>Completely Accurate</i> 5
1. I establish specific goals for my own performance.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. I make a point to keep track of how well I'm doing at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I work toward specific goals I have set for myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I visualize myself successfully performing a task before I do it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Sometimes I picture in my mind a successful performance before I actually do a task.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. When I have successfully completed a task, I often reward myself with something I like.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. Sometimes I talk to myself (out loud or in my head) to work through difficult situations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. I try to mentally evaluate the accuracy of my own beliefs about situations I am having problems with.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. I think about my own beliefs and assumptions whenever I encounter a difficult situation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

REFERENCES

- Adamson, F. (2018a). *EDD 606: Inferential statistics: t-Test [Powerpoint Presentation]*.
Sacramento, CA: California State University, Sacramento, EDD 606.
- Adamson, F. (2018b). *EDD 606: Statistical terms [Powerpoint Presentation]*.
Sacramento, CA: California State University, Sacramento, EDD 606.
- Anderson, J. S., & Prussia, G. E. (1997). The self-leadership questionnaire: Preliminary assessment of construct validity. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, 4(2), 119-143.
- Andressen, P., Konradt, U., & Neck, C. P. (2012). The relationship between self-leadership and transformational leadership: Competing models and the moderating role of virtuality. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 19(1), 68-82.
- Bae, S., & Sung, S. Y. (2016). Analysis of the structural relationship among college students' self-leadership, career decision-making self-efficacy, and career preparation behavior. *Journal of Learner-Centered Curriculum and Instruction*, 16(9), 271-292.
- Bassendowski, S. L., & Petrucka, P. (2013). Are 20th-century methods of teaching applicable in the 21st century? *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 44(4), 665-667.

- Baxter, M. J. (2016). *Explaining the relationship between the identification of academics with self-leadership: A study of MBA graduates*. Capella University, Minnesota : (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/1765446716/abstract/77E484100EE844A5PQ/>
- Bess, J. L., & Dee, J. R. (2012). *Understanding college and university organization: Theories for effective policy and practice* (Vol. II). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.
- Boudah, D. J. (2011). *Conducting educational research: Guide to completing a major project*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Boyce, L. A., Zaccaro, S. J., & Wisecarver, M. Z. (2010). Propensity for self-development of leadership attributes: Understanding, predicting, and supporting performance of leader self-development. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(1), 159-178. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.10.012
- Bozyigit, E. (2018). Self-leadership: Volleyball student-players and their competition achievement. *European Journal of Physical Education and Sport Science*, 4(10), 32-49. doi:10.5281/zenodo.1400814
- Bozyigit, E. (2019). The importance of leadership education in university: Self-leadership example. *International Education Studies*, 12(4), 1-8. doi:10.5539/ies.v12n4p1
- Breevaart, K., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Derks, D. (2016). Who takes the lead? A multi-source diary study on leadership, work engagement, and job performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 37(3), 309-325.

- Bum, C.-H., & Lee, K. (2018). The relationships between professors' superleadership, self-leadership, and career preparation behavior in college students. *Sport Mont, 16*(2), 39-44.
- Bussing, J. (2018). *What are the best resources for self-directed leadership development?* Retrieved from Mountaintop Web Design website:
<https://mountaintopwebdesign.com/what-are-the-best-resources-for-self-directed-leadership-development/>
- Carmeli, A., Meitar, R., & Weisberg, J. (2006). Self-leadership skills and innovative behavior at work. *International Journal of Manpower, 27*(1), 75-90.
- Cox, J. F. (1993). *The effects of superleadership training on leader behavior, subordinate self-leadership behavior, and subordinate citizenship*. University of Maryland. College Park, MD: (Doctoral dissertation).
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Curral, L., & Marques-Quinteiro, P. (2009). Self-leadership and work role innovation: Testing a mediation model with goal orientation and work motivation. *Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 25*(2), 165-176.
- Dillman, D. A. (2000). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method* (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley.
- Dillman, D. A., Smyth, J. D., & Christian, L. M. (2009). *Internet, mail, and mixed-mode surveys: The tailored design method* (3rd ed.). Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

- Driskell, J. E., Copper, C., & Moran, A. (1994). Does mental practice enhance performance? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*(4), 481-492.
- Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2015). Comparison of Convenience Sampling and Purposive Sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics, 5*(1), 1-4. doi:10.11648/j.ajtas.20160501.11
- Furtner, M. R., Baldegger, U., & Rauthmann, J. F. (2012). Leading yourself and leading others: Linking self-leadership to transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 1*, 1-14. doi:10.1080/1359432X.2012.665605
- Furtner, M. R., Tutzer, L., & Sachse, P. (2018). The mindful self-leader: Investigating the relationship between self-leadership and mindfulness. *Social Behavior and Personality, 46*(3), 353-360.
- Furtner, M., & Rauthmann, J. F. (2010). Relations between self-leadership and scores on the big five. *Psychological Reports, 107*(2), 339-353.
- Grantham, S., Pidano, A. E., & Whitcomb, J. M. (2014). Female graduate students' attitudes after leadership training. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 8*(1), 6-16.
- Green, S. B., & Salkind, N. J. (2014). *Using SPSS for Windows and Macintosh* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Haber-Curran, P., Allen, S. J., & Shankman, M. L. (2015). Valuing human significance: Connecting leadership development to personal competence, social competence, and caring. *New Directions for Student Leadership, 2015*(145), 59-70. doi:10.1002/yd.20124

- Hauschildt, K., & Konradt, U. (2012). Self-leadership and team members' work role performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 27*(5), 497-517.
- Ho, J., & Nesbit, P. L. (2009). A refinement and extension of the self-leadership scale for the Chinese context. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 24*(5), 450-476.
- Houghton, J. D., & Neck, C. P. (2002). The revised self-leadership questionnaire: Testing a hierarchical factor structure for self-leadership. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 17*(8), 672-691. doi:10.1108/02683940210450484
- Houghton, J. D., Bonham, T. W., Neck, C., & Singh, K. (2004). The relationship between self-leadership and personality. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 19*(4), 427-441.
- Houghton, J. D., Dawley, D., & DiLiello, T. C. (2012). The Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ): A more concise measure of self-leadership. *International Journal of Leadership Studies, 7*(2), 216-232.
- Jooste, K., & Cairns, L. (2014). Comparing nurse managers and nurses' perceptions of nurses' self-leadership during capacity building. *Journal of Nursing Management, 22*(4), 532-539.
- Lee, M. K., Park, S. Y., & Choi, G. S. (2018). Association of support from family and friends with self-leadership for making long-term lifestyle changes in patients with colorectal cancer. *European Journal of Cancer Care, 27*(3), 1-7.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). Work motivation and satisfaction: Light at the end of the tunnel. *American Psychological Society, 1*(4), 240-246.

- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (2002). Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task motivation: A 35-year odyssey. *American Psychologist, 57*(9), 705-717.
- Manz, C. C. (1983a). Improving Performance through self-leadership. *National Productivity Review, 2*(3), 288-297.
- Manz, C. C. (1983b). *The art of self-leadership*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Manz, C. C. (1986). Self-leadership: Toward an expanded theory of self-influence process in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 11*(3), 585-600.
- Manz, C. C. (1991). Developing self-leaders through superleadership. *Supervisory Management, 36*(9), 3.
- Manz, C. C. (1992). *Mastering self-leadership: Empowering yourself for personal excellence*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Manz, C. C., & Sims, H. P. (1987). Leading workers to lead themselves: The external leadership of self-managing work teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 32*(1), 106-128.
- Manz, C. C., & Sims, H. P. (1991). SuperLeadership: Beyond the myth of heroic leadership. *Organizational Dynamics, 19*(4), 18-35. Retrieved from <http://proxy.lib.csus.edu/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bth&AN=9607245422>
- Manz, C. C., & Sims, H. P. (2001). *The new superleadership: Leading others to lead themselves*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

- Marcketti, S. B., Arendt, S. W., & Shelley, M. C. (2011). Leadership in action: Student leadership development in an event management course. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 32(2), 170-189.
- Marques-Quinteiro, P., Curral, L. A., & Passos, A. M. (2012). Adapting The Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire to the Portuguese context. *Social Indicators Research*, 108(3), 553-564.
- Maykrantz, S. A., & Houghton, J. D. (2018). Self-leadership and stress among college students: Examining the moderating role of coping skills. *Journal of American College Health*, 1-8. doi:10.1080/07448481.2018.1515759
- Mullen, P. R., Gutierrez, D., & Newhart, S. (2018). School counselors' emotional intelligence and its relationship to leadership. *Professional School Counseling*, 21(1b), 1-12. doi:10.1177/2156759X18772989
- Muller, G. F., Georgianna, S., & Roux, G. (2010). Self-leadership and physical vitality. *Psychological Reports*, 107(2), 383-392.
- Napiersky, U., & Woods, S. A. (2018). Innovations in Education and Teaching International. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 55(4), 441-449.
- Neck, C. P. (1996). Thought self-leadership: A self-regulatory approach towards overcoming resistance to organizational change. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 4(2), 202-216.

- Neck, C. P., & Houghton, J. D. (2006). Two decades of self-leadership theory and research: Past developments, present trends, and future possibilities. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21*(4), 270-295.
- Neck, C. P., & Manz, C. C. (2010). *Mastering self-leadership: Empowering yourself for personal excellence* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Neck, C. P., Houghton, J. D., Sardeshmukh, S. R., Goldsby, M., & Godwin, J. L. (2013). Self-leadership: a cognitive resource for entrepreneurs. *Journal of Small Business & Entrepreneurship, 26*(5), 463-480.
- Neck, C. P., Smith, W. J., & Godwin, J. L. (1997). Thought self-leadership: a self-regulatory approach to diversity management. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 12*(3), 190-203.
- Neck, C. P., Stewart, G. L., & Manz, C. C. (1995). Thought self-leadership as a framework for enhancing the performance of performance appraisers. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 31*(3), 278-302.
- Nel, P., & van Zyl, E. (2015). Assessing the psychometric properties of the revised and abbreviated self-leadership questionnaires. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 13*(1), 1-8.
- Neubert, M. J., & Wu, J. C. (2006). An investigation of the generalizability of the Houghton and Neck Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire to Chinese context. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21*(4), 360-373.
- Nevarez, C. (2017). *A multiplicity leadership approach to leading institutions of higher education*. San Diego, CA: Montezuma Publishing.

- Nevarez, C., Wood, J. L., & Penrose, R. (2013). *Leadership theory and the community college: Applying theory to practice* (1st ed.). Sterling, VA: Stylus.
- Norris, S. (2008). An examination of self-leadership. *Emerging Leadership Journeys*, 1(2), 43-61.
- Phillips, J., Kern, D., Tewari, J., & Jones, K. (2011). Self-leadership change project. *Advances in Business Research*, 2(1), 71-85.
- Rosch, D. M., & Stephens, C. M. (2017). Campus involvement as predictor for durable leadership development in conjunction with leadership program participation. *Journal of College Student Development*, 58(7), 1107-1112.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2017.0087>
- Ross, S. (2014). A conceptual model for understanding the process of self-leadership development and action-steps to promote personal leadership development. *Journal of Management Development*, 33(4), 299-323.
- Ross, S. C. (2008). Leadership development in corporate America. *The Journal of Applied Business and Economics*, 8(1), 46-55.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68-78.
- Sahin, F. (2015). The convergent, discriminant, and concurrent validity of scores on the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire. *The Journal of Human and Work*, 2(2), 91-104.

- Stewart, G. L., Carson, K. P., & Cardy, R. L. (1996). The joint effects of conscientiousness and self-leadership training on employee self-directed behavior in a service setting. *Personnel Psychology, 49*(1), 143-164.
- Stewart, G. L., Courtright, S. H., & Manz, C. C. (2011). Self-leadership: A multilevel review. *Journal of Management, 37*(1), 185-222.
- Stewart, G. L., Courtright, S. H., & Manz, C. C. (2019). Self-leadership: A paradoxical core of organizational behavior. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 6*(1), 47-67.
- Sue, V. M., & Ritter, L. A. (2012). *Conducting online surveys* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Wang, Y., Xie, G., & Cui, X. (2016). Effects of emotional intelligence and self-leadership on students' coping with stress. *Social Behavior and Personality, 44*(5), 853-864.
- Wood, J. L., & Nevarez, C. (2014). *Ethical Leadership and the Community College: Paradigms, decision-making, and praxis*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Zapalska, A. M., Zieser, N., & Kelley, T. (2016). Leadership development in undergraduate programs: an example at the U.S. Coast Guard Academy. *Problems and Perspectives in Management, 14*(1), 30-43.