Authentic leadership: demonstration of authentic leader behavior from the perspective of high school wrestling coaches in successful wrestling programs

Angel Rubio

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Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology

AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP: DEMONSTRATION OF AUTHENTIC LEADER BEHAVIOR
FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF HIGH SCHOOL WRESTLING COACHES IN SUCCESSFUL
WRESTLING PROGRAMS

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by
Angel Rubio

October, 2015

Doug Leigh, Ph.D. – Dissertation Chairperson
This dissertation, written by

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under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Authentic leadership emphasizes the role of ethics and trust a leader displays and which can be a natural and inherent part of a leader’s behavior (Robbins & Judge, 2010). Leaders who are authentic know who they are, know what they believe in and value, and behave in a way that reinforces those values and beliefs openly and candidly (2010). Authenticity is inward-focused and reflects on the behaviors that a leader believes are virtuous and true, from which they project a self-perception that is consistent with their self-concept (Sosik & Cameron, 2010).

Studies within the spectrum of sports have identified that leadership among coaches is a contributor to individual and team performance (Kent & Chelladurai, 2001). In the field of amateur wrestling, coaches can be highly influential in improving their followers’ self-efficacy, which may lead to improved performance and completion of objectives (Rutkowska & Gierczuk, 2012). In leadership literature, however, a substantial gap exists regarding the importance of authentic leadership in sports.

This study was executed to identify which qualities, if any, were displayed by amateur wrestling coaches that are consistent with authentic leadership. The study revealed that four constructs – self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective – were each rated highly both by the coaches themselves and other raters. What was also revealed was that authentic leadership had a relationship with success as reported by assistant wrestling coaches. The study also showed that head wrestling coaches had similar views of their own authentic leadership as that reported by assistant coaches and wrestlers.

There was not enough evidence to support a relationship with success as reported by the head coaches and their wrestlers.
Chapter I. Introduction

“Since an overseer is entrusted with God’s work, he must be blameless – not overbearing, not quick-tempered, not given to drunkenness, not violent, not pursuing dishonest gain. Rather he must be hospitable, one who loves what is good, who is self-controlled, upright, holy and disciplined.” (Titus 1.7, Holy Bible, pg. 886)

Background

Leadership has been described as the behavioral capacity of a person to influence people, influence results, and to simply make things happen (Robbins & Judge, 2010). The need for leadership is a topic that can be traced back at least as far as the Old Testament, ancient China, and 16th-century Italian literature (Safferstone, 2005). The ability to lead is most effective in social relationships such as when one person persuades another to act in a way which is beneficial to advancing personal or organizational goals, needs, and ideas (Torelli & Shavitt, 2010). In the fields of organizational behavior, management, political science, history and athletic coaching, leadership has been studied extensively, with each field advancing its own special definition (Park & Lyle, 2013). For example, managerial leadership has been described in the context of thinking and acting strategically in order to fulfill business goals (Shoemaker, Krupp, & Howland, 2013). While this definition focuses on the individual leader, organizational leadership may be described as the positive behavioral exchanges that occur between leaders and followers that lead to improved employee performance and positive organizational citizenship behaviors (Bambale, Shamsudin, & Subramanium, 2012). Political leaders, managers in the private and public sector, and academicians continue to search for means of increasing organizational performance and adapting to constant change. In addition, various institutional
learning facilities, such as colleges and universities, have required leadership as a staple in their curricula (Cathcart, 2009).

Authentic leadership emphasizes the roles of ethics and trust that a leader displays as a natural and inherent part of a leader’s behavior (Robbins & Judge, 2010). Leaders who are authentic are said to know who they are, know what they believe in and value, and behave in a way that reinforces those values and beliefs openly and candidly (2010). The characteristic of authenticity is inward-focused and reflects on the behaviors that a leader believes are virtuous and true, a stance from which they project a self-perception that is consistent with their self-concept (Sosik & Cameron, 2010).

Much as in traditional organizations such as business and government, effective leadership in sports coaching can be a substantial determinant of individual and team performance (Lee, Kim, & Kang, 2013). For example, a qualitative study of five Canadian female university basketball and volleyball coaches reported that each of the coaches studied adjusted their leadership behaviors to different situations (Vallée & Bloom, 2005). The study examined coaches who had at least ten years of experience, had developed at least one player to compete at an international level, and won at least five conference titles. The examination also reported that attributes of transformational leadership such as inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, were used to lead teams into successful programs (2005). Transformational leadership is a form of leadership that is also used to inspire motivation and intellectual stimulation toward fulfilling common goals (Robbins & Judge, 2010).

Those who lead are obligated to demonstrate the highest moral standards and ethical demeanor in their actions, decisions, and behaviors. When a leader displays high character
standards, they may create a positive culture that produces positive outcomes such as organizational commitment, loyalty, retention, and an increase in positive behavior that is consistent with organizational goals (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011). A qualitative study examining the coaching approach of world-class soccer coach Anson Dorrance gathered information through a semi-structured interview process which was divided into eight thematic categories including leadership style, player development, and creating a positive environment (Wang & Straub, 2012). The researchers report that his democratic and strong coach-player relationship were important factors in building a strong team. One important aspect Dorrance discussed was his approach of coaching genuinely. He emphasized that being true to one’s own personality may develop a leader who is both motivational and effective.

Collectively, these studies and other discussed in Chapter II provide an illustration of possible self-concepts of leaders and how leader’s behaviors may be made to fit situational circumstances. Each of the coaches defined themselves as having the characteristics of trust and integrity, and that they projected this image to their players (Sosik & Cameron, 2010). These self-evaluations identified a range of personal character strengths that were used to bring out the best in themselves and others (Sosik & Cameron, 2010).

Alternatively, corporate misconduct among Fortune 500 leaders whose trust and ethical conduct were compromised by the goal of earnings and profits has exposed inauthentic leadership (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005). In addition, the constant pressures of keeping up with the ever-advancing technology, competition, and social, economic and political uncertainties have contributed to poor choices made by leaders whose original intent was positive (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). When leaders are truly authentic, the risks of being self-centered and making destructive decisions are reduced because of the inherent set of
rules of trust, genuineness, and veritable that naturally takes over decision making, which may lead to positive outcomes (Luthans & Avolio, 2003).

Break-downs in authentic leadership also exist in the sports industry. For example, it was found that the authentic personal leadership identities were ignored by the Penn State leadership when it was discovered that one of the assistant football coaches was engaged in inappropriate contact with minors (Albino, 2013). Instead of addressing the problem in a straightforward manner, leadership looked the other way. The failure to act in an ethical and moral manner led to the destructions of many careers and reputations and also detrimental consequences to the university (Albino, 2013).

A substantial amount of leadership scholarship has evolved over the past 100 years (Day & Antonakis, 2012). One of these, trait theory, considers individual characteristics and abilities that separate the leaders from followers (Robbins & Judge, 2010). According to this theory, leaders are thought to be born with certain qualities that differentiate themselves from nonleaders (Day & Antonakis, 2012). One such quality, drive, is thought by some scholars to be an inborn construct that allows some leaders to be more effective than others (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991).

Alternately, behavioral theory focuses on how those in leadership positions approach tasks, subordinates, and situations (Robbins & Judge, 2010). Initiating structure is a dimension of this theory focused on structuring the employees and their own role in achieving a goal (Robbins & Judge, 2010). For example, a football coach may assign players to specific roles and duties during practice and games. Expectations are developed and conveyed to the players with an emphasis on completing goals which can lead to success on the field.

Yet another approach, contingency theory, concerns the study of how effective the interaction is between subordinates and their leader (Robbins & Judge, 2010). This theory takes
into consideration existing circumstances and how the leader approaches the situation given the followers and resources known. This is the leadership approach a coach may exhibit, for example, when losing during a basketball game. Such a coach will commonly call a time-out, group the players together, and adjust the strategy and player responsibilities in order to seek to recover and win. A successful coach will often continue to adjust the situation the team is in order to achieve a favorable outcome.

The positive psychology movement has extended the discipline of psychology from one that concentrates primarily on deficits to one that lends at least equal attention to what is strong, powerful and working (Fairhurst, 2008). Positive psychology focuses on the strengths and goodness existing in individuals, as well as what motivates them to behave in the ways they do (Peterson & Seligman, 2003). Positive organizational scholarship is the study of positive results, practices, and characteristics of organizations (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). It centers on those things that work in organizations, such as trust, appreciation, resilience, wisdom, and social relationships. For athletic coaches, this type of positive approach can encourage ethical, healthy, and developmental coaching practices that can be an effective force for change within a team environment (Denison & Avner, 2011).

Organizational scholarship suggests that enhancement of desirable attributes can have a positive influence on performance, extra effort, and negative organizational behaviors (turnover, tardiness, absenteeism) (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004). Having positive character, intentions and predispositions have been considered foundational components of successful leadership (Sosik & Cameron, 2010). While various forms of leadership can be effective in creating a positive climate in an organization, it is postulated that hope, trust, and positive emotions may naturally arise from an authentic leadership type of style (Luthans &
Avolio, 2003). This particular style is thought to positively influence followers’ attitudes and behaviors and is a behavior that is has been asserted to be a solid foundation for genuine and sustainable organizational performance (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). In an athletic setting, a coach’s recognition of the social organizational climate can play an important role in each of their team members’ personal development (Domingues, Cavichiolli, & Conçalves, 2014). Furthermore, effective coaches tend not only display positive organizational values, they also construct them. Such an organizational approach may improve performance and goal outcomes (Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

A leader’s display of authenticity stands to enhance their ability to win the trust and loyalty from followers (Sosik & Cameron, 2010). Trust can allow followers and other leaders to have faith in the leader (Robbins & Judge, 2010). Employees in a trusting organization may then naturally become more creative, innovative, and committed to the leader, the group, and the organization. At the same time, the authentic leader can show integrity by being consistent, being transparent, and accountable (Maccoby, 2008). Achieving positive organizational behaviors within an organization has been said to require a leader who transcends self-interest, is confident, ethical, moral, and sacrifices one’s own self-interests for the good of the organization (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Authentic leaders have been defined as those who are genuine, reliable, trustworthy and true to themselves (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). This archetypal leader draws on psychological capacities and highly organizational context, which then may lead to the persuasion of followers to behave in a manner that is positive (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Positive influence is thought to be accomplished indirectly by modeling the exhibited behavior that is performed by the authentic leader, which then can lead to organizational behaviors that are
positive themselves. In other words, the follower sees the leader’s positive behavior, then develops behavior that is consistent with those of their leader (2003).

Studies within the spectrum of sports have identified that the leadership of coaches can be a contributor to individual and team performance (Kent & Chelladuri, 2001). A coach’s leadership behaviors have been found to impact both individual performance and team cohesion (Westre & Weiss, 1991). In the field of amateur wrestling, coaches can be highly influential in improving their followers’ self-efficacy, which can lead to improved performance and completion of objectives (Rutkowska & Gierczuk, 2012). Coaches often find that having a positive attitude, goal-setting and providing individual motivation is important to a wrestler’s success (Gould, Hodge, Peterson, & Petlichkoff, 1987).

**Statement of Problem**

Amateur wrestlers are known for having a high level of physical fitness and mental toughness (Rukowska & Gierczuk, 2012). During a match, wrestlers use a multitude of technical and strategic actions to gain a positional advantage over their opponent. At times, they may struggle with rapid positional changes that occur unexpectedly; thus, the wrestler must constantly adjust to remain, at the very least, in a safe and neutral position. Wrestlers grapple to score points through moves such as takedowns, escapes, reversing positions, controlling opponents through riding, near falls and falls (Yard & Comstock, 2008). This activity requires the wrestler to adapt to changing situations, all the while exerting themselves to the point of fatigue, both physically and mentally (Rukowska & Gierczuk, 2012). Prior to a match, a wrestler may undergo substantial challenges such as overtraining, wrestling while injured and even drug abuse (Thiel et al., 2011). In addition, fasting and dehydrating to make the required weight, cardiovascular and strength training, technique sharpening, mixed with other obligations such as
homework, satisfying family responsibilities and social activities all contribute to the heavy burden of being successful in the sport. Few understand these obstacles better than a wrestler’s coach.

In a qualitative study of four Hungarian coaches and one Olympic medalist involved in wrestling, swimming and kayaking, it was reported that the relationship between a coach and the wrestler is important because it is likely to determine an athlete’s performance level, commitment, confidence and satisfaction (Trzaskoma-Bicséry, Bognár, Révész, & Géczi, 2007). A coach’s behavior can improve morale by creating a trusting environment that encourages feedback and decision making by the athletes (Chan & Mallett, 2011). The role of a coach can also impact the ethics, relationships, and interactions of an athlete’s personal life (Chan & Mallett, 2011). A strenuous work ethic – coupled with values and balance developed through years of effort needed to be successful on the mat – can carry over into everyday life (Zavoral, 2003). With respect to the intensity of training, it also takes a special type of leader to take on the responsibility of coaching and motivating a wrestling team throughout the season.

If a coach is to lead a team, strong leadership skills seem to be mandatory, and like leaders in many other fields, the coach must be able to inspire and motivate (Cathcart, 2009). In leadership literature, however, there exists a substantial gap that exists regarding the importance of authentic leadership in sports. Few scholars have studied the leadership of athletic coaches, and very little empirical research has been performed concerning wrestling coaches by looking at effective and successful coaches. Some components of the type of leadership they display may become clearer and be useful in developing tomorrow’s leaders. Organizations may then be able to seek out those leaders who are trusting, have positive emotions, and exhibit a sense of hope, all constructs of authentic leadership (Avolio, 2003).
Purpose of the Study

The overall aim of this study is to identify which qualities, if any, are displayed by amateur wrestling coaches that are consistent with authentic leadership. In identifying these qualities, the purpose is fourfold.

1. To determine the extent to which, if at all, a relationship exists between the degree of success of amateur wrestling coaches and their self-reported perceptions of the frequency of their authentic leadership behaviors.

2. To determine the extent to which, if at all, a relationship exists between the degree of success of amateur wrestling coaches and wrestlers’ perceptions of the frequency of their coach’s authentic leadership behaviors.

3. To determine the extent to which, if at all, a relationship exists between the degree of success of amateur wrestling coaches and assistant coaches’ perceptions of the frequency of their coach’s authentic leadership behaviors.

4. To determine the extent to which, if at all, if differences exist between the frequency of authentic leadership behaviors of amateur wrestling coaches as perceived by the coaches’ self-report, that of wrestlers, and that of assistant coaches.

For this study, success rate is defined by the following criteria:

- At least one team league championship in the last five years
- At least one team master’s championship in the last five years
- At least one team state championship in the last five years
- At least three league champions in the last three years
- At least two masters champions in the last three years
At least one state placer in the last five years
At least one state champion in the last three years
At least one national placer in the last five years
At least one national champion in the last five years

The study was designed to gather input on behaviors and practices that wrestling coaches have developed while being wrestlers in a subordinate position until now as a wrestling coach. This study also expected to produce findings and recommendations of best practices for developing the following constructs of leadership: hope, trust, and positive emotions (Avolio, 2003).

Nature of Study

A quantitative relational and comparative approach to data collection and analysis was used in this study. Data were collected via a survey method using the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008), with the results used to identify the degree to which a relationship exist between the perceived frequency of amateur wrestling coaches’ authentic leadership behaviors and the success of those leaders, and whether differences in perceived authentic leadership were reported among different constituents. High school wrestling coaches and assistant coaches provided data, as did those coaches’ wrestlers.

Research Questions

The following research questions were developed to understand the authentic leadership behaviors exhibited by high school wrestling coaches:

1. To what extent, if at all, does a relationship exists between the degree of success of amateur wrestling coaches and their self-reported perceptions of the frequency of their authentic leadership behaviors?
2. To what extent, if at all, does a relationship exists between the degree of success of amateur wrestling coaches and wrestlers’ perceptions of the frequency of their coach’s authentic leadership behaviors?

3. To what extent, if at all, does a relationship exists between the degree of success of amateur wrestling coaches and assistant coaches’ perceptions of the frequency of their coach’s authentic leadership behaviors?

4. To what extent, if at all, do differences exist between the frequency of authentic leadership behaviors of amateur wrestling coaches as perceived by the coaches’ self-report, that of wrestlers, and that of assistant coaches?

**Hypotheses and Their Rationale**

The current study established four hypotheses related to wrestling coaches’ behaviors that are consistent with the literature on authentic leadership. These behaviors are said to be exhibited when a leader knows who they are, know what they believe and value, and act upon those values while naturally interacting with others (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004). The following are the four alternative hypotheses were tested.

**Ha1.** It is predicted that a positive relationship exists between the success of amateur wrestling coaches and their self-reported display of authentic leadership behaviors. In a similar study, a qualitative approach was used to determine if two amateur wrestling coaches were self-aware of their leadership styles in regards to transformational leadership (Cathart, 2009). Both coaches were found to use self-reported specific constructs of transformational leadership in instruction such as idealized influence and inspirational motivation.

**Ha2.** It is predicted that a positive relationship exists between the success of amateur wrestling coaches and their display of authentic leadership behaviors as reported by wrestlers. In
a similar quantitative study performed on NCAA Division I rowing coaches, it was found that aspects of positive leadership behavior such as shared values and team engagement, positively related to success (Giddings, 2009).

**Ha3.** It is predicted that a positive relationship exists between the success of amateur wrestling coaches and their display of authentic leadership behaviors as reported by other coaches. A similar quantitative study conducted at the International Islamic University of Malaysia found that administrators believed that the leaders at the university displayed authentic leadership (Opatokun, Hasim, & Hassan, 2013).

**Ha4.** It is predicted that wrestling coaches will perceive themselves as having an equal degree of authentic leadership as that reported by both assistant coaches and wrestlers. In 2013, a similar quantitative study of authentic leadership was conducted that measured whether or no authentic leadership existed in the Canadian healthcare industry (Mishak Beckman, 2013). In one instance, it was found that there was no significant difference between leader and follower assessments.

**Theoretical Framework**

Luthans and Avolio (2003) depict authentic leaders as those who are transparent in their intentions, self-aware, self-regulated, moral, and ethical and helps develops followers into leaders themselves. Authentic leaders are said to effectively exert their influence of follower’s beliefs, attitudes and performance (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004).

Leadership among coaches often follows a contingency approach that relies on the relationship between the coach and the athlete, situational factors, and individual differences (Sullivan, Paquette, Holt, & Bloom, 2012). A coach’s leadership behavior can positively affect motivational development, individual and team performance, and success in reaching objectives.
(Trninić, Papić, & Trninić, 2009). A demonstration of behavioral and social competencies, such as adjusting leadership approaches to various situations, is believed to be required to order to employ knowledge transfer and motivation in order for athlete or team success (Côté, Young, North, & Duffy, 2011).

The constructs that define authentic leadership were explored empirically in this study to identify the relationship between successful wrestling coaches and authentic leadership, and to identify differences in various constituents’ perceptions of the authenticity of coaches’ leadership. Identifying and understanding these constructs may help provide information that can be useful in developing and implementing programs that seek to build authentic leadership.

**Key Terms**

**Authenticity.** Authenticity can be described as one who owns their experiences, opinions, feelings, desires, wishes, and practices captured by the urge to consciously know themselves (Harter, 2002). Being authentic means to behave in a way that is consistent with one’s own values, morals, and beliefs (Harter, 2002).

**Ethics.** Ethics pertains to the individual character of a person whether their character is right or wrong (Thiroux, 1998). Ethics can also be defined as.

The branch of philosophy that tries to understand a familiar type of evaluation. the moral evaluation of people’s character traits, their conduct, and their institutions. We speak of good and bad people, the morally right or wrong thing to do, just or unjust regimes or laws, how things ought and ought not to be, and how we should live (Nagel, 2006, p. 379).

**Leadership.** Leadership is the ability to influence a group toward achieving objectives, goals, and obligations (Robbins & Judge, 2010). Northouse (1997) defines leadership as a
process whereby leadership is an instrument of goal achievement. This perspective includes a type of leadership that transforms followers through vision setting, leading by example, and treating and coaching people autonomously.

**Morals.** Morals pertain to the relationships between human beings. One may be considered to have high morals when their actions are interpreted by others to be good. The opposite is true when someone is considered to have low morals; their actions are interpreted to be bad (Thiroux, 1998).

**Self-awareness.** Goleman (2000) describes three types of self-awareness. The first is emotional awareness, which involves knowing and understanding one’s own emotions and how these emotions affect themselves and others. The second, self-assessment, occurs when an individual knows their own strengths and weaknesses and is willing to take in criticism to improve. The last, self-confidence, concerns insight to one’s own self-worth and capabilities. Individual who are self-confident are said to be willing to stand up for that which they believe in.

**Self-regulation.** Goleman (1998) defines an individual who self-regulates as one who has integrity, is trustworthy, and has a high-level of self-control. Those who are self-regulated are known to handle change and can manage their own emotions.

**Integrity.** Integrity is a character-based ethical commitment to becoming the kind of person who strives to always be a good individual (Thiroux, 1998).

**Trust.** Trust is defined as the giving up of one’s authority or discretion in the belief that the other person will respect the relationship of the social bond between the parties (Caldwell & Dixon, 2010).
Operational Definitions

Authentic leadership. Authentic leadership has been defined as a process that results in one being self-aware and displaying self-regulated positive behaviors that influences others to foster positive self-development (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). This type of leadership extends beyond the behavior of authenticity, and also involves characteristics that draw associates and followers toward developing a dyadic relationship (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005). When an authentic leader displays conduct that is consistent with their core beliefs, values and ethical behavior, then the leader may inspire others to develop into leaders themselves (Gardner et al., 2005). Furthermore, these types of leaders often display inspirational enthusiasm, encouragement, and individualized concern in a way that creates a moral and ethical culture (Bass & Steidlmeyer, 1999). The positive environment naturally created by an authentic leader can allow for followers to grow into leaders in their own right (Sosik & Cameron, 2010).

Authentic leadership was measured using the 16-item Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (Walumbwa et al., 2008). The questionnaire was designed according to the concepts of positive and authentic leadership scholars Bruce J. Avolio, William L. Gardner, and Fred O. Walumbwa (2008). It was developed to measure the four components that constitute authentic leadership. self-awareness, relational consistency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing (Avolio, Gardner, & Walumbwa, 2008).

Leader self-awareness. In the context of leadership, self-awareness “refers to demonstrating an understanding of how one derives and makes meaning of the world and how that meaning making process impacts the way one views himself or herself over time”
Leader self-awareness was measured by four items within the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

**Relational transparency.** In the context of leadership, relational transparency “refers to presenting one’s authentic self (as opposed to a fake or distorted self) to others” (Walumbwa et al., 2008, p. 95). Relational transparency was measured by five items within the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

**Internalized moral perspective.** In the context of leadership, internalized moral perspective “refers to self–regulation that is guided by internal moral standards and values, and results in behaviors and decisions consistent with these internalized values” (Leroy, Palanski & Simons, 2012, p. 256). Internalized moral perspective was measured by four items within the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

**Balanced processing.** In the context of leadership, balanced processing “refers to leaders who show that they objectively analyze all relevant data before coming to a decision” (Walumbwa et al., 2008, p. 95). Balanced processing was measured by three items within the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

**Coach success.** For the sake of this study, coaches’ prior experience must have included pre-high school wrestling and at least three years of coaching. In this study, numeric values were assigned to each of the bullet points regarding the level of success listed below.

- One Point – At least one team league championship in the last five years
- Two Points – At least one team master’s championship in the last five years
- Three Points – At least one team state championship in the last five years
- Four Points – At least three league champions in the last three years
- Five Points – At least two master’s champions in the last three years
Six Points – At least one state placer in the last five years

Seven Points – At least one state champion in the last three years

Eight Points – At least one national placer in the last five years

Nine Points – At least one national champion in the last three years

These success criteria were cross-checked with the publically available individual and team ranking lists posted on the California Wrestler website. The point total was used to rank each of the coach’s level of success. Individual wrestler achievements are graded the same but reach a higher point level because of the difficulty of achieving each possible rate.

One Point – At least one team league championship in the last five years

Two Points – At least one team master’s championship in the last five years

Three Points – At least one team state championship in the last five years

One Point – At least three league champions in the last three years

Two Points – At least two master’s champions in the last three years

Three Points – At least one state placer in the last five years

Four Points – At least one state champion in the last three years

Five Points – At least one national placer in the last five years

Six Points – At least one national champion in the last three years

A survey also asked each respondent to indicate the number of champions applicable for each of the points listed.

Importance of the Study

There have been relatively few empirical studies that have appeared in the academic literature regarding the leadership of wrestling coaches. A study such as the present one can provide valuable information to existing academia regarding how leaders develop and use the
qualities associated with authentic behavior. This dissertation presents findings that may be relevant in ascertaining the constructs underlying authentic leadership which are most pertinent to wrestling. These findings are intended to reflect the degree to which wrestling coaches view themselves as authentic leaders and are so viewed by wrestlers and their own peers. Most leadership theories in the existing academic literature have been developed with no focus on the central practices that result in the progress of leadership advancement (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Self-awareness and the ability for persons to understand their own assumptions about human nature have been said to guide the style that leaders display in various situations which, in turn, can increase the overall effectiveness of a leader (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Thus, these findings may also be applicable to managers in organizations ranging from nonprofit, government, and for-profit agencies.

Assumptions and Limitations

While the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire for Researchers is sufficient in terms of identifying qualities that identify authentic leadership, the relative novelty of authentic leadership theories has hampered the development of other relatable assessment tools that could possibly be more closely related to this study.

It was assumed that respondents understand the questions asked of them and would voluntarily provide accurate assessments. It was also assumed that the perceptions and social constructs of the researcher could influence the design, interpretation, and conclusion of this study. The researcher’s former wrestling association may have also directly or indirectly influenced the participants in either a negative or positive manner, and therefore may have influenced their participation and responses.
A final limitation is the presumption that the sample of wrestling coaches included in the study are indeed representative of authentic leaders. Selection was based on this researcher’s experience with wrestling coaches and assumed that all or most of the leaders identified would possess some measure of authentic leadership. Since wrestling coaches are known for their candidness, work and morale, ethics, and being self-aware (Yockey, 2006; Nemehil, Nezhad, & Khodayari, 2012), these qualities are consistent with the constructs of the authentic leadership model (Avolio, 2003).
Chapter II. Review of Literature

The relevant literature on authentic leadership stems from social psychological research on positive leadership. Positive leadership can be viewed as the consistent leadership behaviors that elevate an organization to perform at a high level (Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2013). Consistent positive behaviors displayed by a leader become a part of an organization’s culture and can positively influence both individual behavior and performance (Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2013). The developmental process and the implementation of positive leadership have resulted in the framework of authentic leadership (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). The three major concepts required for a basic understanding of what authentic leadership entails include leadership, authenticity and authentic leadership itself. Authentic leadership is further divided into four main constructs: self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective (Walumbwa et al., 2008). The history and theories of these concepts is discussed below.

Leadership

There are many theories and various methods in the field of leadership that have populated this particular subject (Northouse, 1997). The most common definition is that leadership is the ability to inspire and motivate a group toward achieving a vision or goal (Robbins & Judge, 2010). While this interpretation of leadership is generally true, it is vague in that influence can also occur through force and unethical methods. However, the use of coerciveness and unethical methods is not considered consistent with the leadership approaches recommended by contemporary scholars (Rosch & Kusel, 2010). Instead, a positive approach to leading followers – such as a charismatic and transformational leadership – have been shown to be more effective because of inspirational and emotional approaches used by leaders to influence followers align their goals with a leader’s vision (Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2013).
Leadership is sometimes confused with management, and the two are often used interchangeably in many organizations (Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2013). Retired Harvard Business School professor John Kotter explains management as coping with complexity and good management creates an environment where people and technology work well together (Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2013). However, management alone is insufficient for keeping pace with the ever-changing landscapes of today’s organizations. This dilemma creates an environment where leadership is needed in coping with change (Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2013). Leaders create pathways, share their expertise and experience, and coach others toward goal achievement (Harper, 2012). Managers promote stability and order, while leaders set a direction with a vision and set of change strategies for achieving that vision (Kotter, 1990).

Classical leadership theories of leadership such as the Warrior Model are derived from conflict, information flow, knowing the enemy, and outcomes to objectives (Nice, 1998). Given the agrarian and preindustrial environments that existed during the different eras and the circumstances that most organizations were military, the leadership perspectives were adequate for their times (Safferstone, 2005). Chinese General Sun Tsu’s book, The Art of War, combines Chinese philosophy with military strategy and describes a leader of armies as a pivotal person of a nation’s fate (Safferstone, 2005). Alternately, some aspects of authentic leadership are represented in the Holy Bible. Moses displays concern and care for others while also being willing and ready to act (Zivotosfky, 1994). For example, Moses saved the life of a Hebrew by stopping the beating of him by an Egyptian. In saving seven women from possibly being killed by a group of shepherds when he fled from Egypt (Zivotosfky, 1994), Moses’ behavior was unwavering and consistent with empathy and integrity.
Theories later evolved during the industrial revolution into a scientific management approach that focused on increasing quality and improving efficiency. Communities centralized into states and nations and large business organizations were created which all resulted in an evolution in leadership practices (Van Vugt, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2008). However, academic discussions under such a framework leaned more toward mass production, human motion studies to improve efficiency, and eliminating waste. Very little attention was given to the human interaction of leaders and followers (Safferstone, 2005).

In response to growing economies and the complexity of groups after the Second World War, the focus on effective leadership shifted toward psychological, sociological, and relationship-based studies (Van Vugt, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2008). The leadership practices used during the industrial era was deemed to be no longer suitable in sustaining growth and remaining competitive. Human social factors such as feelings, perceptions, attitudes and relationships in the work place were found to be value-added resources that helped improve efficiency and production (Kotter, 1990). A wealth of theories on the human side of leadership developed that offered different approaches to leading including theories such as trait, situational, path-goal, charisma, transformational, transactional, servant, and spiritual.

**Trait theory.** Trait Theory, in the context of leadership, is defined as the innate capabilities that are considered born characteristics and personal qualities that differentiate leaders from followers (Robbins & Judge, 2010). The study of trait theories emerged during the same era as the scientific management period was developed as is defined as a systematic attempt to explain what leadership was (Zaccaro, 2007). According to Aristotle, these inborn traits included knowledge, wisdom, competence, talent, and ability (Cawthon, 1996). American founding father and third president of the United States, Thomas Jefferson, believed that these
traits included a natural genius and virtue and these traits were given to only those in political power (Cawthon, 1996). University of Maryland researchers Shelley Kirkpatrick and Edwin Locke defined inborn leadership traits as drive, self-confidence, leadership motivation, cognitive ability and knowledge of the business. They determined leaders are not like other people; leaders are made by being born as leaders, made to be leaders, or are a combination of both (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991).

The “great man” theory was developed early in the 1900s and attempted to explain what traits made great people with social, political, and military power different from common individuals (Northouse, 1997). This trait theory attempted to identify which personal qualities were possessed by those in power that made them effective and successful leaders (Jago, 1982). Leadership scholars later challenged the trait theory and suggested that effective leadership was a combination of both traits and situations. A leader in one situation might not be leader in another (Northouse, 1997). Despite the long history of the trait-based perspectives, a consensus emerged that leaders have special abilities that allow for them to rise up and master the challenges set before them (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991).

**Situational leadership theory.** Situational leadership is a contingency theory that is defined as the leadership relationships that are influenced and exercised in a given situation through a process of communication in order to accomplish a task (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973). This approach is contingent on followers’ readiness to complete a task. This theory requires that a leader select a style that motivates and guides a follower into completing a job. A leaders’ approach depends on the ability and willingness of the follower to perform the required task (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996).
The situational leadership model, as developed by authors and professional leadership consultants Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, defines four basic leadership styles ranging from high task orientation to low socio-emotional support (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973). The first, a high-task and high-relationship style, is recommended when a follower is unable and unwilling to perform a task. The leader has to provide close direction and an intimate relationship orientation in order for followers to buy-in to the task (Robbins & Judge, 2010). The second, a high-task and low-relationship style, is suggested when a follower is unable and willing to perform a task and the leader needs to provide clear instructions and some supervision. Third, a low-task and high-relationship style, is encouraged when a follower is able to but unwilling to perform a task. A leader employs a participative and supportive approach in these situations to influence such followers. Finally, a low-task and low-relationship style is thought to be appropriate when the follower is able and willing to perform a task. This situation is considered ideal if the follower is already motivated and knowledgeable enough to perform a task on their own without much supervision (Robbins & Judge, 2010).

In a quantitative study of 88 elite Norwegian soccer players in 2008 the desired coaching style in periods of perceived success and failure was examined. Players were found to prefer a high task and low relationship approach when they were unsuccessful. It was also found that players who were experiencing unsuccessful times preferred a coaching style that provided more positive reinforcement – as opposed to players who were experiencing success who did not need the same amount of positive feedback (Høigaard, Jones, & Peters, 2008).

**Path-goal theory.** Developed by organizational leadership scholar and University of Pennsylvania professor Robert House, the path-goal theory is another contingency approach that describes a leadership style of encouraging and supporting followers in reaching their goals
(House, 1971). This approach also includes increasing personal rewards for followers in order to motivate them to apply more effort into the accomplishment of goals. The leader works to remove obstacles and pitfalls in their paths and attempts to smooth out the process in order to attain goal accomplishment (Dessler & Valenzi, 1977).

The path-goal theory is based on the expectancy theory of motivation in which followers working at a certain level can expect to receive desirable outcomes, such as rewards and commendations (Behling & Starke, 1973). A leader’s approach is contingent on the needs of the follower and the needs of the situation. Similar to the situational leadership theory, House described the following four leadership styles that can be applied to a given context:

- **Supportive leadership.** This approach considers the needs of the follower and a promotion of a harmonious work environment and is best used in stressful or hazardous occupations. The tasks are highly structured; consequently, close direction or a group participative approach is not needed (Awan, Zaidi, & Bigger, 2008).

- **Directive leadership.** This approach is best used when the follower is inexperienced in performing a task and needs guidance. Detailed instructions and close supervision are used to structure the task (House, 1971).

- **Participative leadership.** Followers share a substantial amount of decision-making power with the leader. This is best used when followers are subject matter experts in their fields (Robbins & Judge, 2010).

- **Achievement oriented leadership.** The leader sets challenging goals to followers who have a high need for growth and achievement. Expectations are high and the followers feel the need to meet or exceed what is expected (Awan et al., 2008).
**Charismatic leadership theory.** German Sociologist Max Weber introduced the concept of charisma into the social sciences in the early 20th century (Derman, 2011). He borrowed the word charisma from German Church historian Rudolph Sohm, and used it to describe political and historical leaders who had a special influence in society (Taylor, 1991). However, Weber’s use of the word charisma was vague, as he never provided a clear definition for the term. Weber explained charisma as a way to describe extraordinary leaders in times of crisis (Eatwell, 2006). Some of his descriptions included leaders who had exceptional personal qualities that are not available to others. Some leaders described were endowed with superhuman powers or qualities that separated them from normal people (Derman, 2011).

In the 21st century, the approach changed to identifying personal characteristics and behaviors of charismatic leaders. This approach was largely influenced by theorists in the fields of psychology and organizational behavior (Jacobsen, 2001). Contemporary theorists added more meaning to the concepts of being a charismatic leader. For example, a charismatic leader was believed to have an extraordinary talent that elicits emulations from followers. These emulations are positive and people are naturally drawn to a person with this “personal magic” (Hooijberg & Choi, 2000). Robert House studied charismatic leadership in the context of organizational behavior and theorized what the description of what a charismatic leader exhibits.

- A leader who articulates a vision of change
- A leader who identifies with people and causes them to identify themselves as their followers
- A leader who inspires followers to participate in a vision
- A leader who influence followers to commit themselves to the success of the vision (Jacobson & House, 1992).
A charismatic leader can impact followers in such a way that the leader’s beliefs are accepted without question, and followers invest emotionally in accomplishing the organization’s mission (Feyerherm & Rice, 2002). There is almost an immediate emotional attachment and people are more willing to follow a person in whom they believe (O’Shea, 2000). This type of magnetism arouses confidence and admiration in the minds of followers and is a key element in developing the charismatic leader. Charismatic individuals attract informal ties from followers and build central positions for themselves within a group setting (Balkundi, Kilduff, & Harrison, 2011). Charismatic leaders do three things well:

- They describe an optimistic view of the future
- They interpret and integrate information in positive ways
- They are more engaging and emotionally expressive (Baeza, Lao, Meneses, & Roma, 2009).

A charismatic leader can also inspire follower devotion to a vision and transform the follower into an organization’s change agent (Elliott, 2009). Charismatic leaders appeal strongly to the values of followers and this is what creates a psychological and social bond that creates admiration towards the leader. This type of leader is thought of attaining heroic qualities such as courage and persistence, to face and prevail against those who would resist their efforts (Raelin, 2003). Authentic leaders are often seen as being charismatic when they display behaviors that are inspirational and perform acts that are extraordinary (Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

**Transformational leadership theory.** Those who use a transformational leadership approach tend to be inspirational and work with followers in a collaborative manner (Fulwiler, 2011). Historian, political sociologist, and authority on leadership, James Macgregor Burns, was the first to conceptualize an effective leadership approach that focused on the relationship
between the leader and follower (Northhouse, 1997). He explained that political leaders who interacted with their constituents had the ability to transform public policy, gain power, and influence resources to work toward mutual goals (Burns, 1978).

Bernard Bass, former university professor and renowned authority on leadership, presented transformational leadership as a process that motivated followers’ efforts to perform at a level beyond expectations (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders raise followers, peers, and other stakeholder’s awareness by providing a vision, an unwavering determination, and confidence by advocating for what is just and beneficial to an organization (Bass, 1985).

Later scholars expanded on transformational leadership by providing four important characteristics that make up the leadership theory. They are:

- **Idealized influence:** includes, leading by example and acting as a moral role model for followers. Being trustworthy, ethical, and moral fosters trust and admiration toward the leader and the vision (Northouse, 1997).

- **Inspirational motivation:** involves instilling an intrinsic drive that is perpetuated by a sense of commitment and loyalty. This is done by a passionate leader who authentically cares for followers. When followers are inspired they too become passionate about their leader, work, and vision (Kerfoot, 2001).

- **Intellectual stimulation:** concerns promoting an environment where followers can be innovative and creative. As long as new approaches are aimed at solving problems and creating organizational value followers are encouraged not conform to the status quo, and failures and mistakes are considered as lessons learned (Shahzad & Zareen, 2011).
• Individualized consideration: developing a relationship with followers and providing an environment where the follower can be open with the leader. Leaders act as coaches while working to develop followers’ behavior and motivation. Individualized attention occurs when the leader respects the differences among the followers (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006).

Transformational leaders develop a positive organizational culture that allows for followers to embrace a vision and common purpose. The transformational leader creates an environment where followers are viewed as valuable, trusting, and unique to the given organization (Bass & Avolio, 1993). The dynamics of this type of leadership involves a strong personal identification to the leader that creates an emotional attachment to the goals, ideals, and vision of the leader. Positive results can occur when a transformational leader is at the helm, as can improvements to the overall culture of an organization (Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997).

In the context of athletic teams, transformational leadership was found in one quantitative study to increase athlete motivation, performance, and team cohesion (Stenling & Tafvelin, 2014). This study included 193 Swedish floorball players who were surveyed to assess their perception of their coaches. The research further found that the players’ satisfaction was high when transformational leaders displayed an individualized consideration type of behavior toward them. This enhanced player performance and individual health of each of the athletes which, in turn, improved athletes’ development (Stenling & Tafvelin, 2014).

Transactional leadership theory. Burns also identified another type of leadership that was in contrast to transformational leadership – transactional leadership. Unlike transformational leadership in which the leader develops a personal relationship with the
follower, the transactional leader has a quid pro quo relationship with followers and seeks to motivate them by rewards and punishments (Fulwiler, 2011). An exchange of services from the follower is compensated with something that is valuable to them. Once the exchange is made between the leader and the follower, however, there is no longer a shared purpose that bonds them together. In such environments, it is in the best interest of the follower to fulfill the leader’s requirements, while at the same time it is important for the leader to meet the follower’s expectations in order to satisfy the transaction (Humphrey, 2012).

Bass (1985) indicated that this approach is based on exchanges between the leader and follower along with the discussion of requirements of the task and the rewards and consequences thereafter. This approach supports and maintains the status quo and reduces resistance from followers. It also creates an environment where the organizational output is mediocre with an average workforce that is not as committed and engaged to the organization as would using a transformational leadership approach (Fulwiler, 2011). Three components derived from Bass’s work of transactional leadership include:

- Contingent reward. This is a positive transaction that occurs when the leader agrees to provide a specific reward for satisfactory performance (Northouse, 1997).
- Management-by-exception. This is a negative transactional approach that occurs when the leader uses corrective criticism and negative feedback to correct mistakes and improve performance (Humphrey, 2012). This method uses the following two forms.
  - Active. A leader will quickly make corrections to a follower’s work behavior as soon as possible.
o Passive. A leader will allow the follower to make a mistake and criticize them at a later time (Northouse, 1997).

- Non-leadership (Laissez-Faire). Those who use this approach avoid making decisions, are not around when needed, and defer their responsibilities. This approach is considered inactive as opposed to reactive or proactive (Bass, 1997).

Bass differentiated between transformational and transactional leadership approaches to motivating followers into achieving goals. A transactional method is used to motivate followers to perform at an acceptable level, while a transformational method is used to inspire and motivate followers to innately perform at a very high level. Both are thought to complement each other and can be used to effectively achieve organizational objectives. Robbins & Judge (2010) advocate that leaders employ both the transactional and transformational methods at the same time. Transformational leadership can supplement transactional leadership by increasing follower performance and output by emotional stimulation and inspirational motivation (Robbins & Judge, 2010). However, a transactional approach without a transformational element is thought to do little to increase performance and output.

**Servant leadership theory.** Leadership consultant Robert Greenleaf first proposed the theory of servant leadership and defined it as the feeling that one wants to serve first and then lead (Greenleaf, 1997). Servant leadership emphasizes that leaders should be attentive to the concerns, welfare, and personal development of their followers (Greenleaf, 1997). Greenleaf contrasted those who become leaders first and then serve, to leaders who serve first and then lead. Leaders who lead first will only serve when their own intrinsic and extrinsic needs are met. A servant leader puts the organizations and followers needs in front of their own and emphasizes the importance of those needs (Boone & Makhani, 2013). The servant leader approach seeks to
create a positive environment to an organization by increasing employee satisfaction, which then can increase loyalty and commitment (Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, & Roberts, 2009).

The following list of ten characteristics was developed out of the theory to expand on instrumental constructs that were identifiable with servant leadership (Spears, 2000):

- **Listening.** Listening attentively, a quality of respect helps build deep and positive relationships and is a display of value and reverence to the one performing the action of communicating. Over time, a bond is formed and strengthened between the servant leader and follower when the understanding that the continuing communication between the two is important (Farson & Rogers, 1987).

- **Foresight.** Is the ability to recognize and learn from the lessons of the past, the possibilities of the present, and the consequences for choices made in the future (Spears, 2000).

- **Stewardship.** A result of leadership behaviors that promotes a sense of duty and responsibility in followers for the long-term health of the organization and society (Hernandez, 2008).

- **Commitment to the growth of people.** The servant-leader believes that followers have immense potential that goes beyond their capacity as workers. Efforts are made to develop the professional and personal growth of followers (Spears, 2000).

- **Building Community.** Individuals feel a sense of engagement that motivates them to be a part of something greater (Gravenkemper, 2007).

- **Empathy.** The leader’s ability to understand another’s perspective and transpose him/self into the situation of others (Davis, 1983).
• **Healing.** The leader’s ability to heal one’s self and one’s relationship with others is also strength of emotional intelligence. Being self-aware of one owns feelings, managing those feelings, and then being aware of and managing the feelings stirring throughout their immediate environment (Goleman, 1998).

• **Awareness.** General awareness and a leader’s awareness of “self” helps identify micro and macro organizational initiatives that satisfy his/her higher order needs and thereby help him/her to satisfy the organizational goals and objectives (Ghosh & Chakraborty, 2008).

• **Persuasion.** In order to influence, a servant-leader shapes the followers expectations and beliefs by connecting with them emotionally and convincing them of the appropriateness of an idea. Effective communication is used to create change through nonjudgmental disagreements (Conrad, 2013).

• **Conceptualization.** Servant-leaders seek to develop their capabilities to not be limited to the status quo. The ability to look long-term at problems and solutions and see what type of short-comings or benefits may occur. Attention to a vision and broad-based thinking should be considered along with respect to day-to-day activities (Spears, 2000).

The servant leader approach embodies decision making in a positive way through mutual caring and trust. The attention to the common good and positive thinking first supports the transformation of an organization that struggles with placing self-interest ahead of collaboration and creativity (Spears & SanFacon, 2008).

**Spiritual leadership theory.** This contingent leadership approach is a concept that illustrates the fundamental need between the leader and follower for spiritual survival (Fry,
A spiritual leader is concerned with the whole person, who is just not a follower, and helps them find meaning in the workplace. A sense of community is developed when there are shared traditions, values, and beliefs (Mansor, Ismail, Alwi, & Anwar, 2013). Similar to servant leadership, the spiritual leadership theory focuses on the quality of life of people within an organization.

University professor Louis W. Fry defined spiritual leadership as an intrinsic motivational approach that is based on having a vision, altruistic love, and hope and faith (Frye & Cohen, 2009). This approach aims to develop the well-being of the leader and follower and the relationship between the two as well. In a quantitative study performed to measure the motivational climate of 577 male athletes and 51 coaches from various Croatian sports teams, it was found that an athlete’s intrinsic motivation was positively influenced by their coach’s display of supportiveness and assurance (Barić & Bucik, 2009). When spiritual leadership is effectively used in an organizational context, social responsibility, increase in revenue, and overall performance improves (Fry, 2003).

Vision is instrumental as it provides a compelling story of where the organization needs to be in the future (Kotter & Cohen, 2002). In motivating change, having a vision provides a clear direction of change, simplifies detailed decisions, and helps to coordinate the actions of everyone involved (Fry, 2003). Altruistic love is the exhibition of behavior that includes being loyal, unselfish, benevolently caring, and appreciating self and others. A trusting culture emerges when altruistic values of trust, empathy, and caring are developed (Fry & Cohen, 2009). Hope and faith is the source of urgency that the organization’s vision will be fulfilled (Fry, 2003). Hope is the expectation of what is to come and faith is the strong belief that the path taken toward the vision will get one there (Sweeney & Fry, 2012).
Fry (2003) further explained that there is often confusion between the terms religion and spirituality, as they are thought of having the same meaning. To clarify, Fry offers that spirituality is having a relationship with a higher power that affects how one behaves while being religious is practicing the norms and customs as defined by a particular faith. Spiritual leadership emphasizes the needs of both the leader and follower for spiritual well-being which then leads to an empowered and more committed organization (Fry & Cohen, 2009).

**Authenticity**

The term “authenticity” can be defined as owning one’s thoughts, emotions, and experiences and behaving in a way that is analogous with this belief process (Harter, 2002). Another interpretation of authenticity is to know, accept, and remain true to one’s self (Avolio et al., 2004). The concept of authenticity can be traced back to ancient Greek philosophy. In Greek philosopher Plato’s essay, the “Idea of the Good,” he touches on being authentic and explained that there was an intrinsic relationship between a man’s soul and being good. Men naturally want to be good and naturally behave in a way that is good (Demos, 1937). Another Greek philosopher, Socrates, touched on authenticity in his speech deemed, “The Apology of Socrates,” explaining that a man who is truly good should not worry about death, but should only consider if what he is doing – right or wrong – is behavior of a good man. Sixteenth century Chinese philosopher Li Zhi explained that being authentic, is similar to being childlike, free of falsehoods with entirely genuine feelings. He further explained that these feelings are naturally inborn and are not influenced by others words or cultures and without these childlike feelings, one loses their ability to be authentic (Lee, 2011).

The Holy Bible also discusses the concept of authenticity throughout its many books.
In 1st Peter 3.1-5, Peter tells spouses to serve their husbands by behaving in a way that is pure and reverent. “Do not rely on their external appearance to display their beauty – but let the beauty of a gentle and quiet heart win over their husbands by their natural behavior” (Holy Bible, pg. 886). In John 20.20-21, the topic of being your true self is discussed when Jesus tells Nicodemus that if one lives an evil life, they will stay in darkness because the light will expose their devious behavior. However, if one lives by the truth, they will welcome the light and their good life will be exposed for God to see (Holy Bible, 1984). For centuries the subject of self-awareness has turned the concept of authenticity into a passionately debated topic amongst human behaviorist and philosophers (Lee, 2011).

American psychologist, Abraham Maslow (1943) described authenticity in terms of the self-actualization of an individual and focused his research on studying those subjects who were psychologically healthy. This positive psychological approach focused on what was right in individuals instead of what was wrong (Weinberg, 2011). His most famous work, “Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs,” is a traditionally diagramed pyramid with five different layers of motivational factors (Yoakam, 1943). These factors were deemed as fundamental desires that all human beings shared regardless of status (Zalenski & Raspa, 2006). They are:

- Physiological. basic needs such as food, clothing, and shelter.
- Safety. security, stability, and protection.
- Belongingness and love needs. the feeling of providing and receiving affection through family or friends.
- Esteem needs. mastery of the environment and the social recognitions that come with it (Zalenski & Raspa, 2006).
- Self-Actualization: becoming self-aware by mastering one's unique potential in life.

Maslow explained that self-actualization is the identification of one’s real self. A self-aware person accepts their own talents and shortcomings without shame or guilt. They are also not ego centered because they are confident in who they are. Additionally, a self-aware person is ethical and moral and does not tolerate dishonesty, cruelty, and hypocrisy (Weinberg, 2011).

Canadian philosopher Charles Taylor described authenticity as one whose uniqueness is defined by their commitments and identifications, providing the explicit or implicit frameworks for moral judgment, intuition, and reactions (Taylor, 1991). Taylor believed that everyone had a moral framework that is comprised of qualitative distinctions. Taylor articulated that relationships and community are instrumental in identifying who a person is. When a person becomes themselves within a community, this does not mean that the community defines the person. The person learns to understand themselves and their position within the community, and may make relationship adjustments when appropriate (McEvoy, 2009). Taylor described another feature called the constitutive good, which is a fundamental construct in the framework of moral judgment. Constitutive good is the driver of human motivation and empowers morality and behavior that is positive. An example of a constitutive good is religion. Those who believe in God are guided by the influences of their beliefs and will behave in a way that is good and in alignment with a just and morale life (Taylor, 1991). This positive influence becomes a deep part of who a person is and contributes to the authentic self.

Social psychologist Michael Kernis’ work on self-esteem and authenticity provided an empirically grounded perspective on authenticity (Gardner et al., 2005). He defined it as “the unobstructed operation of one’s true, or core, self in one’s daily enterprise” (Kernis, 2003).
Authenticity was characterized with having high self-esteem that was built on stability, trueness, and genuineness. Kernis identified four components that comprise authenticity:

- **Awareness.** Knowing one’s own needs, principles, emotions, characteristics, and behavioral role
- **Unbiased processing.** Accepting of one’s positive and negative aspects, characteristics and qualities
- **Action.** Behaving in a way that is consistent with one’s own values, preferences, and needs and not being swayed to behave in any other way
- **Relational orientation.** Appreciating and attaining sincerity and honesty in relationships (Kernis, 2003)

The components listed above will be discussed further in describing what makes up authentic leadership in the next section.

**Authentic Leadership**

German-American psychologist Kurt Lewin developed a theory of social change that was used to identify behavioral conditions of successful change management (Zand & Sorenson, 1975). Change management theory was further advanced by Kotter, who created an eight-step change model to systematically guide leaders heading change initiatives (Kotter & Cohen, 2002). Transactional and transformational leadership theories were brought to light by both Burns in 1978 and Bass in 1985 and have been studied, expanded on, and taught throughout the academic world extensively (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). Hersey’s and Blanchard’s situational leadership theory (developed in 1982) calls for leaders to adapt their leadership behaviors to the persons, place, and circumstances (Vecchio, 1987). And although such theories have increased the understanding of effective leadership, there is a lack of literature about which some argue is a
crucial foundation to leadership – the roles of ethics and trust (Robbins & Judge, 2010). Authentic leadership is an approach that displays these values and behaviors in a way that supports these virtues.

An authentic leader reaches the level of being authentic by being self-aware, self-accepting, valuing relationships, and behaving in a way that is consistent with their beliefs (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Some scholars in the field of leadership follow the definition of authentic leadership espoused by organizational leadership researchers and authors Fred Luthans and Bruce Avolio. “a process that draws from both psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated development” (2003, p. 321). This type of leadership is often defined by the continuous positive behavior displayed that is heavily influenced by high values and convictions (Avolio, 2003). Positive psychologists believe that to be authentic is to own one’s personal experiences and act in accord with the true self (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Persons who display authentic leadership demonstrate the highest moral standards and ethical demeanor in their actions, decisions, mannerisms, and behavior so that others in their organization can follow suit (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011). The ethical perspective is closely associated with authentic leadership behavior since this leadership model requires one to have a high degree of integrity, sense of purpose, and commitment to their own core values (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011). As a result of displaying these qualities, subordinates are theorized to feel a sense of commitment towards the leader and the organization and develop a pronounced sense of interpersonal trust (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011). This trust can allow for all parties to know that the relationship is safe and respectful and this feeling of trust helps to ensure the viability of an organization (Whitener, Brodt, Korggaard, & Werner, 1998). Trust is closely associated with authentic behavior, as trust requires one to have a high degree of
integrity and that the relationship between themselves and another is important (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011).

The developmental processes and implementations needed to construct positive leadership continue to be under-researched by both the positive psychology and leadership fields (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). A positive type of leadership, such as authentic leadership, is thought to shape the high ethical standards needed in developing a culture that is consistent with high moral values and ethical employee behavior (Robbins & Judge, 2010). Demonstrating behavior that presents no false appearance and must match their words with action that is consistent to what is being said has been claimed to be one of the key methods for leaders in developing this type of positive environment (Fogleman, 2010). Authentic leaders are described as displaying a high degree of integrity, behave altruistically, have a deep sense of purpose, and are committed to their personal core values (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011).

One quantitative study in Spain of several private organizations found that authentic leadership had a positive effect in organizations. The study comprised of 571 employees that authentic leadership had a positive impact in organizational culture (Azanza, Moriano, & Molero, 2013). This positive behavior increased employee satisfaction when the employees viewed their leaders as authentic. Organizational performance was also found to have increased when authentic leadership was found to be the mediating role. Another quantitative study of 216 mid-level management law enforcement officers found that authentic leadership behavior was positively related to subordinate job performance. This study found that the leader display of constructs of authentic leadership such as relational transparency, balanced processing, and self-awareness, induced followers positive emotions which positively affective job performance (Peterson, Walumbwa, Avolio, & Hannah, 2012).
The positive leadership displayed in organizations should be of the authentic type in order for it (positive leadership) to be successful and effective over the long term (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011). Authentic leaders promote a trusting relationship in their organizations, which then may translate into increased employee job satisfaction, organizational loyalty, retention, and conscientiousness through their behavior. The authentic leaders’ actions aim to enable others to behave in a way that meets the needs of all stakeholders (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011).

The necessity for an authentic leader to have emotional intelligence is imperative to the success of an organization, and has been claimed as the difference between being a good leader versus an excellent leader (Chan & Mallett, 2011). This leadership approach is contingent on the relationship between the leader and the follower. Authentic leadership involves complex processes of an ongoing interplay of self-awareness, transparency, trust, and open communication between leaders and followers (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Bruce Avolio and Florida State University of Management Professor William Gardner have developed a framework of eight components that will be discussed further throughout this literature review. These components, listed below, were developed using insights from positive organizational behavior, transformational leadership, and ethics (Avolio & Gardner, 2005):

- Positive psychological capital
- Positive moral perspective
- Leader self-management
- Leadership behaviors
- Follower self-awareness
- Follower development
- Organizational context
Positive psychological capital. Positive psychological capital focuses on what is right and good about people. Its emphasis is on the strengths, health and vitality of a person instead of focusing on identifying and correcting weaknesses and short-comings (Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004). Positive psychological capital is made up of self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resiliency—all which represent the motivational propensities that make up the value of human capital (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). These four states also make up what some researchers call, “The Core Confidence-Higher Order Construct,” which is described as the combination of skill, desire, and self-assurance that motivates one to complete a task (Stajkovic, 2006). This combination contributes to motivation, which then leads to positive organizational citizenship and increased organizational performance (Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004).

Avolio and Luthans found that self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resiliency are the psychological antecedents to self-awareness which is important to developing the authentic leader (Avolio & Luthans, 2003). In terms of positive psychological capital, self-efficacy can be defined as one person’s optimistic belief in their ability to organize follower’s motivation and behavior toward completing a goal (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). An optimist can identify and assess risk, see positive possibilities all situations, and devise a path to complete objectives (Rogers, 2009). Research also finds that optimistic individuals have better social relationships and are easily motivated to work harder which can be contagious in an organization (Patterson, & Kelleher, 2007). Hope is the perceived ability to progress through goals by creating pathways and motivational thoughts that lead to the completion of these goals (Snyder, Rand, & Sigmon, 2002). This construct is an active psychological approach where one is determined to complete a tasks by taking action instead of viewing hope as passive approach as when one expects a task to
be completed without action (Stajkovic, 2006). And finally, resiliency is the capacity to recover from setbacks, failure, mistakes, and conflict (Huey & Weisz, 1997). The common behavioral themes of resilient persons are:

- A firm acceptance of reality
- A deep belief, often supported by strong values that life is meaningful
- The uncanny ability to improvise, adapt, and change through adversity (Coutu, 2002).

Confidence, hope, optimism, and resiliency are all vital to developing authentic leaders (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). These four constructs have an overlap of a high-level confidence core that exists within the authentic leader (Stajkovic, 2006). To add, those who are able to adapt to dealing with risk and hardship, will be more likely to sustain their authentic moral behaviors over time (May, Hodges, Chan, & Avolio, 2003).

**Positive moral perspective.** An authentic leader displays his/her self-actualization by being honest and courageous with the truth in the face of group, social, or organizational pressure (Beddoes-Jones, 2012). This honest behavior builds credibility and is an example to followers behaving in a way that is ethical and moral (Maslow, 1964). The positive conduct of innate moral actions of a leader shapes the culture and climate of an organization. This process then promotes ethical and moral behavior from employees which leads to overall positive organizational behavior (May, Hodges, Chan, & Avolio, 2003). The positive moral perspective of a leader are motivated by doing what is best for the organization and other people, as opposed to making decisions that are selfish and self-serving (Illies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005).

When authentic leaders make decisions, there are three important steps, listed below, that are included in this process:
Recognizing a moral dilemma exists,

- Transparently weighing out the alternatives
- Making a decision that is consistent with one’s evaluations (May, Chan, Hodges, & Avolio, 2003).

In recognizing moral dilemmas, leaders tap into their past experiences, memories, core values and principles to determine what is right about the situation and what is wrong. Being transparent includes being open in the decision making process while staying true to the one’s principles and virtues. Authentic leaders do not hide their reasoning from stakeholders (May, Chan, Hodges, & Avolio, 2003). Making the final decision must be congruent with what authentic leaders’ normal character that is consistent with doing the right thing.

Once a course of action is decided, an authentic leader’s intent is to move forward in an ethical and moral manner that is consistent with doing the right thing, regardless of the surrounding circumstances. This commitment to the course of action must be unfailing throughout the life of the decision. This is an example of integrity, a quality that displays the leader as being honest and taking responsibility for his/her own conduct and obligations (Grahek, Thompson, & Toliver, 2010).

**Self-management.** Self-management is the process where leaders align their values with their actions (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Those who demonstrate self-management do so by controlling their actions through internal standards. These standards, whether high or low, are met by activating behaviors that is congruent with self-evaluated principles and reactions (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). The self-evaluated principles do not take into consideration the preferences and demands of others and only consider behavior that is congruent with meeting a type of self-perceived standard that is in alignment with satisfying this standard.
A leader’s self-management can provide a breath of optimism to followers during set-backs, crises, or emergencies (Gardenswartz, Cherbosque, & Rowe, 2009). Being optimistic can help with identifying and assessing risk, seeing positive possibilities, and devising a path to complete objectives (Rogers, 2009). Optimism can be broken down even further to sub-qualities were a leader has the ability to integrate empathy and focused energy that align others in pursuit of a goal (Rogers, 2009). Research also finds that optimistic individuals have better social relationships and are easily motivated to work harder which can be contagious in an organization (Patterson & Kelleher, 2005).

Self-management also enables a leader to communicate effectively, maintain composure and bearing through difficult times. These characteristics eventually lead to a display of confidence which enables the follower to be confident in the leader’s abilities (Cohen, Chang, & Ledford, 1997). Confidence is an attractive attribute and is an important part in developing a fondness toward a leader. Self-confidence helps leaders take the risks needed to persevere in working towards visions and objectives while at the same time, convinces followers to increase their confidence in the leader (Shipman & Mumford, 2011).

**Leadership behavior.** Avolio and Luthans (2003) describe leadership as a conditional interaction between a leader and follower. Leaders who display personal integrity and humanity, who are transparent to followers and are trustworthy, create environments were organizations can thrive (Beddoes-Jones, 2012). In addition, positive modeling, social awareness, and emotional intelligence have all been shown to be influential in developing followers (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Being an authentic leader also requires that the leader and follower have an interpersonal relationship (Anderson, 1989). It is highly unlikely for a leader to emerge, as such,
outside of a social group so the relational process shared between the group members is embedded in a social context (Osbourn, Hunt, & Jauch, 2002).

Authentic leaders display a high degree of integrity, are altruistic, have a deep sense of purpose, and are committed to their personal core values (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011). As a result of displaying these qualities, subordinates feel a sense of commitment to the authentic leader and organization and develop a pronounced sense of interpersonal trust (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011). This trust allows for all of the parties to know that the relationship is safe and respectful; and this feeling of trust helps ensure the viability of an organization (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998).

Leaders who have integrity display high moral and ethical principles. This type of leader is honest and takes responsibility for his/her own conduct and obligations (Grahek, Thompson, & Toliver, 2010). Leaders with integrity take responsibility for setbacks and take ownership for their own mistakes (Maccoby, 2008). It is posited that integrity is a character-based ethical commitment to becoming a special kind of person, such as an authentic leader, who strives to always be a good individual (Thiroux, 1998).

Organizational commitment may increase when the relationship between the leader and the follower contains positive social exchanges and personal and social identifications (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Behavioral integrity within a leader displays to followers that they can be trusted and this trust is reinforced by actions that are value-based to their words (Leroy et al., 2012). Follower behaviors are positively influenced when it is believed that the authentic leader is identified as one who can be trusted and walks the talk (Leroy, Palanski, & Simons, 2012). The authentic leader that demonstrates behavior with no false appearance and matches his/her words with action that is consistent to what is being said, will most likely strengthen follower
commitment to the organization (Fogleman, 2010). A failure of mismatching words with behavior can destroy trust between people which can lead to a break down in organizational cohesion (2010). Leader integrity or lack thereof sets the tone throughout an organization. The lack of leader integrity is often exposed and may cause almost irreversible damage throughout an organization (Tiller, 2011).

Authentic leader behavior is consistent with acts of integrity and positive performance and is seen as the root construct of other forms of positive leadership which then lead to positive organizational behaviors from followers (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Followers view this positive modeling behavior as something special within this leader and adjust their behaviors to be consistent with him/her (Leroy, Palanski, & Simons, 2012). These conscientious adjustments soon become a part of their routine, which in turn leads to a natural form of behavior that then leads to a positive transformational change in the organizational culture (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). If integrity is high in the authentic leader, this will create a positive emotional climate in which hope prevails and individuals will feel motivated and more committed to the leader and organization (Allison, 2012).

Authentic leaders’ exhibit decision making that is transparent and behavior that is enthusiastic, hopeful, and resilient when their words match their actions (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). The consistency between what one does what one says is called, “leading by example” (Gardner et al., 2005). Transformational and charismatic leadership theories propose that leading by example is a major means by which effective leaders influence followers to do the same (Yaffe & Kark, 2011). This type of positive behavior, also known as Organizational Citizenship Behavior, uses human resource strengths and effectively improves employee performance (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). This behavior, in aggregate, promotes efficiency and
operational efficacy within an organization (Lathalavanya & Thenmozhi, 2011). Leadership behavior is ambient and is directed at both individuals and to entire groups. Formal systems in place cannot be relied on to motivate and inspire individuals and is not as effective alone, without positive organizational citizenship behavior (Yaffe & Kark, 2011).

Trust is defined as the giving up of one’s authority or discretion in the belief that the other person will respect the relationship of the social bond between the parties (Caldwell & Dixon, 2010). Trust requires that one person take a risk in believing in another’s action while accepting that there may be the possibility of betrayal of the given trust. If the authentic leader is to gain and give trust in a successful interpersonal relationship, he/she must be willing to care deeply about the other party and be prepared to forgive them if and when this trust is broken (Caldwell & Dixon, 2010). This type of trust allows a leader to be admired and followed because this action creates an environment that communicates to the follower that the leader believes and has confidence in their abilities (Caldwell & Dixon, 2010). Employees in a trusting organization become more creative, innovative, and committed to the leader, the group, and the organization. At the same time, the authentic leader shows great integrity by being consistent, being transparent and accountable (Maccoby, 2008). In order for trust to resonate, the authentic leader must also take into consideration the value of caring, must be willing to forgive, and have personal integrity. Without these three factors, trust will not surface, cynicism will culminate, and motivation will diminish which can lead to a workforce with very low commitment, a disgruntled workforce, and employee turnover (Maccoby, 2008).

Trust in an authentic leader can be viewed as the willingness of followers to be vulnerable to their leaders; with the belief that the leader demonstrates strong qualities of integrity, ability, consideration, and benevolence (Liu, Siu, & Shi, 2010). In contrast, when
followers feel that their leaders cannot be trusted, they feel psychologically distressed, which in turn negatively impacts employee well-being (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Authentic leaders have a way of creating trusting relationships that makes followers feel emotional safe, which in turn leads to higher employee morale. When higher morale is present, followers are willing to contribute discretionary energy and go the extra mile in making commitments to the team and organization (Blanchard, 2010).

Successful management in the context of the authentic leader requires one to be genuinely concerned for others. This concern requires the leader to be mindful of another’s physical, mental, and social well-being. The emotion of caring displays a commitment from the leader to another and can actually change the culture within an organization. An example of this commitment of caring resulted in the U.S.’s largest rural hospital, the North Mississippi Medical Center, in winning the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award. The medical center incorporated a type of caring-servant leadership that transformed its culture into a caring one (Goonan, 2007). This quality award is given to organizations who demonstrate continuous improvement in products and services. The medical center won this award for scoring at or above the 90th percentile for customer service (Goonan, 2007). Organizations in the United States are given this award when they exhibit high performance excellence. When it comes to the authentic leader, when the leader genuinely cares, he/she lets others know that they are important. This feeling of importance gets reflected back and a circle of positive emotion develops (Goonan, 2007). At the Mississippi Medical Center, this positive emotion spread throughout the organization which then resulted in it earning one of the country’s most prestigious awards and one of the main ingredients inserted into the hospital’s culture was caring.
A leader who displays a caring nature invokes a desire in people to take responsibility and care of others (Schultz, 2010). Workers appear happier when they are treated well and tend to be more team-focused, organization-focused, engaged in their work, and committed (Mitchell, Holtom, & Lee, 2001). Authentic leaders demonstrate a concern and empathy for others through acts of kindness and genuine compassion and help team members realize their dreams. Dignity and a sense of value for others creates a virtuous cycle of interdependence that enables a leader to capture the hearts and minds of not just followers, but peers and other leaders higher up the chain-of-command (Mitchell, Holtom, & Lee, 2001). Once an authentic leader is realized, they will have a platform where they can instill a vision and confidence in way that is inspirational throughout the whole organization.

The necessity for an authentic leader to have emotional intelligence is imperative to the success of an organization and is known to be the difference between being a good leader versus an excellent leader (Chan & Mallett, 2011). Emotional intelligence is one’s ability to realize and manage emotions in themselves and in others (Hawkins & Dulewicz, 2007). Goleman added to this definition by relating emotional intelligence to effective leadership and how having this type of intelligence is a predictor of a leader’s success.

Goleman further added that emotional intelligence is even a greater predictor of successful leadership when compared with cognitive intelligence (Goleman, 1998). The four fundamental capabilities make up the competencies needed to develop emotional intelligence are listed below:

- **Self-Awareness.** When an individual can realize one’s own emotions, strengths, and weaknesses, and being self-confident are all needed to be able to manage oneself (Goleman, 2000).
• Self-Management: the ability to control one’s own impulses, the ability to display honesty and integrity, and being conscientiousness are all needed in order to regulate oneself (Goleman, 2000).

• Social Awareness: this is a required leadership soft-skill that is defined as one who is empathetic to others feelings and is sensitive to nonverbal emotional signs (Banaji & Prentice, 1994). When a leader is socially aware, he/she can alter their own behavior to fit the needs of the environment (Marques, 2013). Once this is accomplished, the social attractiveness of the leader by subordinates will be in plain view and the leader’s magnetism will inspires them to follow. This inspiration can energize constituents into dealing with change and positively transform the mental and emotional climate into believing that success is reachable (Rogers, 2009). It is imperative that the leader is socially aware of his/her environment.

• Social Skills: this includes relationship management that comprise of empathy and teamwork (Boyatzis, 2011). The social component of empathy allows for the leader to sense others’ feelings and then acknowledge their concerns. A sense of teamwork requires that a leader help create a synergistic environment where goals and objectives are met (Boyatzis, 2011).

A quantitative study of emotional intelligence and sports performance of six South African cricket teams was performed and found that emotional intelligence was positively associated with performance, with the coach being the central figure of each of the teams (Crombie, Lombard, & Noakes, 2009). The findings indicated that emotional intelligence may very well contribute to the success of the researched cricket teams. Performance of each of the
teams was recorded over two seasons after taking the survey. Those teams who scored the highest in emotional intelligence also achieved the greatest success.

Another realm of emotional intelligence that was first introduced by Bass is the theory of the Transformational Leader. As mentioned earlier, a transformational leader is one that causes inspirational change in people and organizations (Bass, 1985). These leaders are positive, passionate, and enthusiastic and these emotions transcend into the hearts and minds of those in an organization. A transformational leader’s purpose is to empower followers and support them during a change initiative. By a leader’s actions, he/she establishes enthusiasm, a sense of urgency, and a persuasive vision that motivates followers to act in the interest of the organization rather than him/herself (Bromley & Kirschner-Bromley, 2007).

**Follower Self-awareness.** Followers want their leader to have integrity, credibility, and a vision that complements the team and organization (Alter, 2010). Authentic leaders are self-disciplined, transparent, and objective and know that others are observing his/her behaviors and actions (Sinha, 1997). When challenging times and uncertainties occur, followers may be doubtful and lack the confidence needed to persevere. This context creates an opportune time for a leader to rise to the occasion and create hope and deliver performance all while leading from the front (Sinha, 1997).

Authentic leaders encourage follower self-awareness by modeling high values and ethical behavior (Gardner et al., 2005). The socialized relationship between the leader and follower is a charismatic phenomenon that strengthens the relationship between the two by providing a direction for the follower to follow (Weierter, 1997). An emotional appeal and a sense of passion are developed that is in alignment with the leader’s personal charisma and authentic behavior (Weierter, 1997). This relationship is different between each leader and
follower and it is up to the leader to use a situational approach to create and sustain the social bond.

**Follower development.** As followers internalize the positive behaviors displayed by the authentic leader, they themselves become more like the leader over time (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). The relationship between the leader and follower will lead to the follower knowing who they are and will in turn lead to more transparency in the relationship (Gardner et al., 2005). Follower development is also an integral part of an authentic leader’s relationship with followers. This development is created through positive capacities such as optimism, hope, and resiliency which are personal resources of the authentic leader (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). When in the context of organizational challenges, these attributes are tapped into and are openly displayed for followers to adopt into their own mental models (Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004). This development is attained by the dynamics of the leader-follower relationships, in a positive organizational setting, set off by challenging events (Avolio & Gardner 2005).

**Organizational context.** It has been posited that all leadership development takes place in an organizational setting (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Optimal authentic leadership development takes place in organizational settings were the culture is authentic, mature, and highly developed. This is because the organization’s culture provides a system of expectancies that sets the norms, standard behaviors, routines, and rules that are to be followed (Schein, 2006). The interrelated dynamic process of culture creation and management are together the basis of what helps form a leader’s approach (Schein, 2006).

Avolio and Gardner (2003) proposed four different types of organizational contexts that contribute to the self-awareness of the leader and follower. They are:
• Uncertainty: Certain values and norms are validated when shared in a social setting. A group learns that the validated behaviors “work” in reducing uncertainty in ambiguous states (Schein, 2006). Leaders who have a high aptitude for ambiguity are able to keep uncertainty at a tolerable level and use this as an opportunity to bring people together to learn and adapt as one cohesive unit (White & Shullman, 2010).

• Ethical climate: The shared perceptions of the ethical practices and procedures of an organization are what make up the ethical climate (Victor & Cullen, 1988). Social norms, the organization’s political and economic structure, history of the organization are antecedents to the level of ethics in an organization (Victor & Cullen, 1988). Leaders and followers who behave in a pro-ethical manner reinforce and validate this positive behavior which then strengthens an ethical climate.

• Positive climate: the existence of a stable organization upon where positive moments are built (Watson, 2003). These positive moments can be instances where employees and leaders make decisions that positively deviate from the norm. This positive deviation includes making decisions in honorable ways that contribute to the greater good of an organization (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004). Prosocial behaviors such as corporate social responsibility, creativity, and positive organizational behavior make up this type of climate (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004).

• Inclusive climate: this type of climate is made up of a transparent learning environment that provides open access to information, support, and training equally throughout an organization (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). A learning environment
supports continued increase of innovative ways for organizations to stay relevant and operate successfully (Duden, 2011).

An organization’s culture is created by the collective experiences of those within the organization, but it is the leader who initiates the development of the culture by imposing their own beliefs, values and assumptions (Schein, 2006).

**Performance.** The veritable sustained performance in an individual and organizational context refers to the genuine and ethical behaviors used to make decisions to achieve high performance and organizational growth (Watson, 2003). The positive decisions made include the personal choices, problems that occur, and considerations for the organizational culture that are all affected when choices are made and executed. Those organizations with intangible assets such as behaving in a way that is ethical and moral develop a reputation as such. When this happens, organizations that develop an intangible asset – such as a good reputation – help create value over competitors who cannot replicate this advantage (Roberts & Dowling, 2002). In rapidly changing environments, it is imperative for organizations to be able to respond and change swiftly in order to be viable and sustain its performance. A positive working relationship between a leader and follower is thought to be the basis for organizational flexibility and change (Mosley & Patrick, 2011). Being able to constantly learn, be transparent, and cohesive can all contribute to developing a high performance culture that can lead to business excellence such as positive financial and capital gains along with increased social and human performance (Kaliprasad, 2006).

**Self-awareness**

Self-awareness refers to the consciousness of one’s own trust, values, understanding, beliefs and characteristics (Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). Awareness occurs when a
leader is cognizant of their own existence and which proficiencies and abilities make up their life, their thinking, and their behavior (Silvia & Duval, 2001). Being self-aware is a life-long journey that is an evolving process that enlightens the authentic leader in understanding one’s self (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). This competency allows a leader to be aware of his/her own emotions, strengths and weaknesses, and to recognize his/her own capabilities (Faerman, McGrath, Quinn & Thompson, 2003). A leader’s awareness of “self” helps identify micro and macro organizational initiatives that satisfy his/her higher order needs and thereby help him/her to satisfy the organizational goals and objectives (Ghosh & Chakraborty, 2008).

In order for a leader to realize one’s self, he/she needs to realize what type of personality he/she has so adjustments can be made to accommodate the situation and the persons being led. Furthermore, the effectiveness of being self-aware turns on accepting certain principles that can be evaluated by the authentic leader (Ashley & Reiter-Palmon, 2012). Personality traits that are genetically influenced are:

- Openness to new experiences: attitude that is open to a wide range of suggestions and ideas that can lead to new experiences
- Inquisitive: analytical and interested type of behavior
- Agreeableness: being pleasant while paying attention to the social situation
- Accommodating: providing help while being sensitive to the personal relationship of the group
- Emotionally stable: socially and intellectually balanced, especially during a crisis
- Conscientiousness: inherently driven to a duty
- Extrovertedness: outgoing and very a sociable personality (Maccoby, 2008).
Avolio and Gardner developed four constructs of self-awareness that are important to the development of authentic leadership. The four elements are: values, identity, emotional intelligence, and goal and motives are thought to be influenced by the personal history of exposure to other authentic leaders and pivotal trigger events (Gardner et al., 2005).

- **Values**: desirable ideas and notions that guide the way leaders select actions, evaluate people and events, and explain their own behavior (Schwartz, 1999). Through time, values are learned through socialization and then internalized. This process integrates the values into a person’s character which then becomes part of one’s true self (Gardner et al., 2005).

- **Identity**: a perception of a person that defines, connects and explains one’s important features, behaviors, characteristics, and experiences (Schlenker, 1985). At the interpersonal level, identity involves what one perceives themselves to be – which is founded on traits, attributes, and characteristics that are different from other persons (Banaji & Prentice, 1994).

- **Emotional Intelligence**: psychologist and author, Dr. Daniel Goleman first introduced a model that broke down emotional intelligence as a broad collection of capabilities and skills that direct a leader’s performance (Goleman, 1998). Having high emotional intelligence allows a leader to be self-aware of one’s own feelings, manage those feelings, and then be aware of and manage the feelings stirring throughout his/her’s immediate environment (Goleman, 1998). When a person displays appropriate emotional responses to unsettling events, they are perceived as the group leader (Pescosolido, 2002).
• **Goals/Motives:** goals and motives are personal motivations that an individual aims to achieve through their actions, behaviors, and purpose (Emmons, 1986). Authentic leaders focus their efforts on self-verification and self-improvement goals. Their goals and motives is what help identify them (Gardner et al., 2005).

**Relational Transparency**

Relational transparency refers to one who presents their true self to others (Walumbwa et al., 2008). This approach takes self-awareness and self-management a step further and requires for the authentic leader to personally engage with followers (Liopis, 2012). This engagement sets a precedent throughout an organization and allows for problems to be solved faster, the unification of effective teams to be smoother, and promotes trust.

This type of transparency also endorses the importance of presenting oneself as either good or bad (Opatokun, Hasim, & Hassan, 2013). Full self-disclosure requires for one to be self-aware of one’s weakness and strengths. This disclosure stimulates understanding and trust within the leader follower dynamic which helps in building quality relationships (Opatokun et al., 2013).

**Balanced Processing**

Balanced processing refers to leaders who are transparently objective when moving through a decision making process (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). This process takes into consideration how motivational biases impact the decisions by which people with low or fragile high self-esteem select (Kernis, 2003). An authentic leader uses ethical and moral considerations and impartial collections of self-related information to evaluate and decide on a course of action (Opatokun, Hasim, & Hassan, 2013). This evaluation involves
acknowledging one owns strengths and weaknesses all while scrutinizing relevant information before coming to a conclusion.

**Internalized Moral Perspective**

Internalized moral perspective refers to a sense of duty to act in a way that is consistent with internalized morals and values (Walumbwa et al., 2008). There is consistency between a leader’s values and actions. This kind of self-regulation is not compromised by organizational or group pressures. The commitment to moralization and valuation by a leader positively influences follower behaviors in a progressive way (Opatokun, Hasim, & Hassan, 2013). The exhibition of ethical and moral behavior, especially through challenging times conveys to others what kind of behavior is expected of them.

**Athletic Coaching**

In the context of leadership, coaching is a process where one person influences an athlete or team into completing goals (Chelladurai & Reimer, 1998). A positive minded coach has the ability to improve not only the quality of the athletic experience but also the quality of life (Turman, 2003). A qualitative study of 31 Korean coaches from various sports organizations found that the successful coaches were athlete-centered and focused their coaching on developing their athletes (Park & Lyle, 2013). In this study, the successful coaches displayed qualities that were consistent with leadership such as charisma and positive relationship development between themselves and their players. In another study, American youth coaches who displayed positive feedback, social support, and situational consideration were found to be the most effective leaders (Sullivan, Paquette, Holt, & Bloom, 2012). Situational leadership was found to be effective in improving organizational behavior and individual empowerment when faced with different player circumstances in a study of Korean handball players (Lee, Kim, &
Kang 2013). Each of the studies included constructs of what creates an authentic leader in this literature review.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to provide a review of pertinent literature in the areas of leadership, authenticity, and authentic leadership development. The importance of the discussion of the different types of leadership along with having authentic behavior showed the significance of synthesizing these different constructs in the development of an authentic leader. The relevant literature on authentic leadership stemmed from social psychological research on positive leadership (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective were introduced at the conclusion of this review to provide more insight into the contingent relationship and the importance of the relationship between an authentic leader and followers.
Chapter III. Methods

Introduction

This chapter includes a description of the study’s design and rationale, population and sample, sampling procedures, human participants’ protections, procedures, instrumentation and analytic techniques.

Research Design and Rationale

This study used a non-experimental cross-sectional design using a quantitative approach to collecting and analyzing data. A quantitative approach allows for data to be collected systematically from multiple individuals in a discrete manner (Butin, 2010). All variables were measured, rather than manipulated, during the study with participants being surveyed once each.

The survey instrument used was the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (Walumbwa et al., 2008), and was available for respondents to complete either online or in a hardcopy version. The objective in using this instrument was to acquire information about the degree of head coaches’ authentic leadership.

This study focused on high school head wrestling coaches in California during the 2014-2015 wrestling season. Coaches are often viewed as being leaders since their behaviors directly impacts athlete and team outcomes (Mallet, 2010). Similar to leadership within organizational settings, coaching takes place in a social context were positive interactions, positive role modeling, and positive motivation are required for individual and team success (Lyle, 2013).

Population

The state of California has 1,304 high schools with wrestling programs (“MaxPreps School Search,” 2014). The individuals that were recruited in the study were high school head wrestling coaches, assistant wrestling coaches, and those coaches’ wrestlers.
Human Subjects Considerations

Human subjects in this study consisted of wrestling coaches, assistant wrestling coaches, and wrestlers. After obtaining site permissions (described below), the researcher submitted an application to Pepperdine University’s Institutional Review Board (IRB) to recruit participants. Once site permissions and IRB approval was obtained, the researcher recruited participants via the means described below. A description of the study was provided to participants informing them of what their participation entailed. Their participation was voluntary and they were able, at any time, to withdraw from the study with no negative consequences.

Risks for participation of the study were minimal and included fatigue, loss of interest, boredom, and time taken to complete the survey by participants. Another risk included the possible retaliation of head coaches toward assistant coaches and wrestlers if the coach interpreted the final results as undesirable. To mitigate this, participants were made aware of the measures taken to insure identifiable information such as the names of the high schools and head coaches gathered from the surveys was protected. No remuneration was offered. The benefits of participation were societal, and included providing a perspective that reflected the extent to which wrestling coaches viewed themselves and were viewed by others as authentic leaders. These benefits were related to participants in order to encourage participation based on the intrinsic rewards of doing so.

The researcher had no conflicts of interest in this study and was not directly or indirectly related to a high school, high school coaches, or high school wrestlers, in which financial considerations or undue influence might occur. A license to use the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire Multi-rater Report was purchased through Mind Garden, an independent publisher.
of psychological assessments and instruments. Once this was done, the company provided a link to the online survey and scored all completed responses.

Written permission was requested from The California Wrestler website moderator via email to have the survey posted in the “general info” forum on the California Wrestling located at http://forum.thecaliforniawrestler.com/index.php?board=73.0. The website is the state’s primary website to view access current and past information involving wrestling within California (“The California Wrestler Forum,” 2014). The website’s goal is to promote California wrestling and wrestlers throughout the state and the nation. The researcher’s request contained a link to an online version of the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire. A brief summary was provided by the researcher regarding the nature of the research and the option to withdraw or participate. Participants were not asked to disclose information to the researcher regarding their age, ethnicity, or religion.

Coaches, assistant coaches, and high school wrestlers were also asked to participate in this study via email. Email addresses were acquired by the researcher through the websites each of the high schools solicited. Written permission to contact the high school wrestling coach, assistant coaches, and wrestlers was requested through the high school principal via email. Written permission was also acquired through a request made by the researcher by telephone and in person. Once permission was obtained, an email was sent to principals requesting consent via their email response. This response was used as confirmation of consent. Once provided, the wrestling coach, assistant coaches, and wrestlers over the age of 18 years were invited to participate in the survey through either the California Wrestler website or by filling out a hard copy version of the study which included the informed consent form (Appendix A). Adult participants did not have to sign or return the informed consent letter to the researcher. Wrestlers
who were minors were provided an informed consent form for their parent or legal guardian to complete (Appendix B.) Once consent forms from the parent or legal guardian were received, an assent form (Appendix C) along with the survey was provided to the minor. If parents or legal guardians were not available, the researcher asked the wrestlers to mail the completed surveys, consent and assent forms in a self-enclosed stamped envelope provided by the researcher.

Coaches, assistant coaches, and wrestlers were also contacted in-person by the researcher by attending wrestling tournaments throughout California. Almost every week throughout the year, high school wrestling teams meet in competition at various high schools or colleges throughout California. Depending on the area and tournament popularity, approximately 20 to 50 high schools attend. Each of the high schools normally brings approximately five coaches and assistant coaches along each, as well as five to 20 wrestlers. The California Wrestler website lists a large majority of all high school tournaments throughout California. Permission was given to the researcher to utilize tournament information for the researcher to recruit coaches, assistant coaches, and wrestlers in participating in the study. Written permission to survey participants was also requested through the tournament director via email and telephone. Each tournament director at each of the tournaments was either the head wrestling coach of the school or another individual designated by the coach. When a tournament was posted on The California Wrestler website, the tournament director posted information for inquiries. Once written permission was obtained, the researcher invited wrestling coach, assistant coaches, and wrestlers to participate in the survey, either through the California Wrestler website or by filling out a hard copy version of the study, which included the appropriate informed consent letters for each group.

In order to link the surveys from each of the head coaches to their assistant coaches and wrestlers, the head coach was asked to indicate on the online or hardcopy survey (Appendix E).
their name, the name of the high school at which they worked, years of experience of coaching and coaching at the current school, school type (private, charter, public), parent involvement (i.e., help with fundraising, volunteer work, etc.), and whether a wrestling feeder program existed. Assistant coaches and wrestlers were also asked to input their coach’s name, high school, and personal years of experience in coaching (Appendix F). Wrestlers were asked in their version of the online or hardcopy survey (Appendix G) for. their coach’s name, their high school, the number of years’ experience they had with wrestling, their gender, and their weight class. This method was used to ensure that answers from each of the wrestlers and assistant coaches were tied to the head wrestling coach’s self-assessment. Additionally, only head coaches were asked questions regarding the following measures of success.

- How many team league championships in the last five years?
- How many team master’s championships in the last five years?
- How many team state championships in the last five years?
- How many league champions in the last three years?
- How many master’s champions in the last three years?
- How many state placers in the last five years?
- How many state champions in the last three years?
- How many national placers in the last five years?
- How many national champions in the last five years?

The success criteria were cross-checked with the publically available individual and team ranking lists posted on the California Wrestler website. The online survey host, Mind Garden, included the demographic questionnaire (see Appendices E, F, & G) in the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire instrument.
Adult participants who participated in the hardcopy version of the survey were asked to read and sign the informed consent form (Appendix A). However, it was not necessary for the informed consent form to be returned back to the researcher. Participants who participated in the online version of this study were asked to indicate their consent by reading and accepting an online version of the consent form prior to completing the online surveys.

Parents or legal guardians of minors who participated of the hardcopy version were be asked to read and sign an informed consent form (Appendix B) permitting the minor to participate in the study. Once this permission was provided, the minor was asked to read and sign an assent form (Appendix C) before partaking in the study.

As part of the use agreement with Mind Garden, the company collected the raw data from the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire and scored it. The interpretation and comparative information developed from the scoring data were placed in a locked safe in the researcher’s home and will be kept there for at least three years. The hardcopy responses to the survey and the informed consent forms were also be placed in the locked safe in the researcher’s home and will remain there for at least three years. In collecting online data, Mind Garden collected the participant name, high school name, and e-mail address of the participant for the purpose of providing them with assessment results. This demographic data was also used to tie assistant coach and wrestler responses with the head wrestling coach.

Only head wrestling coaches were asked if a feeder program existed, type of school (private, public, charter) and if there was parent involvement in their wrestling program. Mind Garden does not share this information with any third parties; only the test administrator. Certain federal, state, local or other government regulations may require that Mind Garden disclose personally identifiable information. In such cases, Mind Garden uses reasonable efforts
to disclose only the information required under applicable law. Data regarding coach accomplishments, such as the number of state champions and team championships, was verified using information provided by The California Wrestler website. The ranking data collected from The California Wrestler website is public information and was used as part of the success criteria for each of the head coaches. Wrestlers were ranked for their performance during the high school season from January through March. Each of the high schools was also ranked during the same period and was ranked based on performance.

**Procedures**

Participants were recruited by the methods described above. All participants were asked to fill out a 16-item survey of authentic leadership behaviors regarding themselves if they were the head wrestling coach, or regarding the head wrestling coach if they were an assistant coach or wrestler. Each survey took approximately 10 minutes to complete.

The researcher also attended various wrestling tournaments throughout California and recruited participants to partake in the study. At these events, pencils and hard copy versions of the survey were provided to each participant. After receiving these completed instruments, the researcher to the entered participants’ responses manually into the survey link hosted by Mindgarden.com. De-identified hand entries were quality checked for accuracy by a second collateral colleague.

**Instrumentation**

The instrument used for the study was the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire, developed by Walumbwa et al. (2008). This instrument is designed to measure the components that make up authentic leadership. The four components measured are self-awareness, relational consistency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing.
The survey is comprised of 16 questions, each answered using a five-point Likert-type scale designed to measure feelings about a certain issue or theme (Bryaman, 2008). The points range from zero (strongly disagree) to four (strongly agree) (see Tables 3.1 and 3.2 for sample questions for the coach, and assistant coaches and wrestlers, respectively). Table 3.1 provides a sample question used to measure the leader’s awareness of their own strengths (self-awareness), the degree of openness the leader exhibits (relational consistency), the degree of moral and ethical conduct (internalized moral perspective), and the ability to solicit viewpoints and opinions of others (balanced processing) (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Table 3.2 provides a sample question that asks the follower (assistant wrestling coach or wrestler) of their perception of the leader. Self-awareness comprises four questions in the questionnaire, relational consistency five questions, internalized moral perspective four questions, and balanced processing three questions. To determine each respondent’s subscale scores, the average of each section was calculated. The mean score from each of the four sections were calculated, with compared to the following guidelines for interpretation: high = 3.0 to 4.0 and low = 2.99 and below. Scores in the high range indicate stronger authentic leadership attributes, whereas scores in the low range indicate weaker ones.

Table 3.1

Authentic Leadership Questionnaire Self-Assessment Sample Question

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I can list my three greatest weaknesses</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3.2

*Authentic Leadership Questionnaire Assessment Sample Question*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The head coach</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Says exactly what he or she means.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Validity and Reliability**

Walubwa et al., (2008) created the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire as a theory-based questionnaire by connecting it to concepts of authentic leadership and providing evidence of its construct validity. To accomplish this, they defined constructs of authentic leadership along with relevant theories. The item development and validation processes were created and separated into the four theoretical dimensions that comprise the instrument. The utility of the questionnaire was then compared and contrasted to closely aligned forms of leadership such as ethical and transformation. Cronbach’s alpha (α) was computed to verify the reliability of each of the four dimensions, with the authors reporting the following results: self-awareness = 0.79, relational transparency = 0.72, internalized moral perspective = 0.73, and balanced processing = 0.76 (2008).

**Question development and content validity.** The questionnaire was empirically used in a study to determine if demonstration of authentic leadership constructs contributes to job satisfaction and improved performance (Walumbwa et al., 2008). In developing the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire, the authors used five independent samples to test the instrument for validity and reliability. Two were from a university setting and three were from field settings. The field studies included a population from the United States, Kenya, and China. The validity
and reliability of the instrument are described below starting with Question Development and ending with Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

Five initial constructs were identified that were applicable in describing authentic leadership: self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced information processing, internalized regulation, and positive moral perspective (Walubwa et al., 2008). Internalized regulation and positive moral perspective were merged into internalized moral perspective because they were found to both involve behavior that is consistent with one’s moral values and standards (Walubwa et al., 2008). This resulted in a total of four constructs which were examined against ethical and transformational leadership by another comprehensive review of the respective literatures. A pool of 22 items were derived by Walubwa et al. (2008) that best described the content areas of authentic leadership and were then subjected to a content validity analysis. Doctoral students and faculty members were asked to assign the items to the four constructs. 16 of the 22 items were assigned to the same construct 80% of the time (Walubwa et al., 2008). The other six items were subsequently dropped, resulting in 16 questions that comprise the current Authentic Leadership Questionnaire.

**Confirmatory factor analysis.** A confirmatory factor analysis is a statistical strategy used to test hypotheses about the relationship of a set of variables (Hoyle, 2000). This analysis was conducted by Walumba, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson using independent samples first of 224 employees from the United States and then from 212 employees China in 2008. Both samples were asked to answer how often each statement fit their manager using a 5-point scale ranging zero (not at all) to 4 (frequently if not always) (Walubwa et al., 2008).

Three different factor structures were compared to determine whether a second-order authentic leadership factor existed and to explain the relationships between the four constructs.
To determine fit, the Comparative Fit Index, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, Chi-Square, and the rational differences in Chi-Square to the differences in degrees of freedom were calculated (Walubwa et al., 2008). Analysis of data from both samples led to the conclusion of a first-order factor model that allowed items to load onto any of the four constructs and then correlate with each other. The fit statistics were applied to all three factors which resulted acceptable levels for the first-order factor.

Data Analysis

In Chapter IV, a descriptive analysis is reported concerning the results of each of the 16 individual items in the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire, along with those for its four constructs (subscales). Means of each of the four constructs measured are compared for the head coaches, assistant coaches, and wrestlers’ results. The head coaches’ self-assessment is then compared and contrasted with those provided by the assistant coaches and wrestlers. The data are analyzed by comparing the individual self-assessments for each of the coaches with the criteria for being successful as a coach. Bivariate analyses are used to explore relationships between variables that are normally distributed and searches for evidence that one variable correlates with another (Bryman, 2008), with effect size reported by Hedges’ g and Cohen’s d.

Spearman’s Coefficient of Rank Correlations are used to examine the relationship between the variables in the first three hypotheses to the reported success score, and with rho providing an indication of effect size. This type of analysis was selected because the data results may not be normally distributed. An ANOVA will be used to analyze data with effect size calculated via Hedges’ g, and Cohen’s d, for the fourth hypothesis. The distributional assumptions of each hypothesis test and confidence intervals for all data obtained will be reported with claims of small, medium, and large effects being made at 0.20, 0.50 and 0.80,
respectively. The significant p-value of 0.05 will be used to determine if data would be at least this inconsistent with the null hypothesis, assuming the hypothesis is true.

Summary

This chapter examined the characteristics of this quantitative study. The sample described consisted of wrestling coaches, assistant wrestling coaches, and wrestlers. The Authentic Leadership Questionnaire was be used to collect the data needed in order to answer each of the four hypotheses.
Chapter IV. Findings

Overview

The aim of this study was to identify which qualities were displayed by amateur wrestling coaches that are consistent with authentic leadership. These qualities were specific to self-awareness, relational consistency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing (Walubwa et al., 2008). Data collection took place at various high schools and wrestling tournaments throughout California as well as via an online survey hosted by Mind Garden. Participants who took part in the study participated by completing an online survey or by using paper based surveys of sixteen questions as well as various demographic items.

Participant Characteristics

Maxpreps list 1301 high schools with wrestling programs in California (“MaxPreps School Search,” 2014). Assuming homogeneity between these programs, a sample size of 297 wrestling coaches was needed to represent the population at a 95% confidence level with a 5% confidence interval. It was presumed that there are two assistant coaches per wrestling coach; thus 335 responses from assistant coaches were needed from that population to achieve a 95% confidence level with a 5% confidence interval, assuming homogeneity between programs. It was also assumed that each high school has a team of at least 14 wrestlers. With 1301 wrestling coaches leading teams of 14 wrestlers, the presumed population of wrestlers in California is 18,214. A sample size of 376 wrestlers, assuming homogeneity between programs, was needed to represent the population at a 95% confidence level with a 5% confidence interval.

Administrators from 90 high schools were contacted by email or telephone to solicit their sponsorship of the study. Six administrators responded, resulting in two rejections and four acceptances. Of the four acceptances, three wrestling coaches agreed to have the researcher meet
with the coach, assistant coaches, and wrestling team. From these three wrestling teams, a total of 95 participants took part in the study.

Participants were also recruited at five wrestling tournaments. The tournament directors at each of the tournaments provided verbal approval for the researcher to conduct the study. The bulk of the participant data was collected by attending these tournaments as evidenced by the 299 paper surveys completed by wrestlers, assistant coaches, and head coaches.

The online survey on produced 111 surveys completed; however two had to be omitted because they were completed by participants who did not meet the demographic required in this study.

The total number of participants surveyed was 503. Of this total, 83 coaches, 74 assistant coaches, and 346 wrestlers participated in the study. Table 4.1 provides a detailed description of those surveyed.

Table 4.1

*Frequency Counts for Selected Variables (N = 503)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>&gt;5 years</th>
<th>3-5 years</th>
<th>3 years &lt;</th>
<th>&gt;5 years</th>
<th>3-5 years</th>
<th>3 years &lt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>503</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaches</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Coaches</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrestlers</td>
<td>346</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools</td>
<td>153</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charter</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>92%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
More than half of the coaches (89%) and more than half of the assistant coaches (60%) had been coaching for longer than five years. All of the head and assistant coaches were males. Wrestlers made up 69% of the overall total population surveyed and provided the most data in assessing authentic leadership of head coaches. Data collected from participants participating in public schools completed 92% of the surveys, with 8% collected from those participating in charter and public schools.

Table 4.2 provides a description of wrestler demographics. The majority of surveys completed for this study were provided by wrestlers and, of this demographic, 326 were male participants and 20 were female participants. Of the 346 wrestlers surveyed, 65 (19%) had more than five years of wrestling experience.

Table 4.2

*Frequency Counts for Wrestlers (n = 346)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>&gt;5 years</th>
<th>3-5 years</th>
<th>1-5 years</th>
<th>1 year &lt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wrestlers</td>
<td></td>
<td>346</td>
<td></td>
<td>65</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td></td>
<td>326</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 153 schools participants in the study attended, those from 17 schools provided surveys that included head coaches, assistant coaches, and wrestlers. Seven schools provided surveys that included head coaches and assistant coaches and 19 schools provided surveys that included head coaches and wrestlers. There were a total of nine schools that provided surveys which included assistant coaches and wrestlers. In total, survey data from 43 schools were used
to provide self-rater (head coaches) and other-rater (wrestlers and assistant coaches) averages regarding information about the four measured constructs. Tables 4.3 through 4.6 provide comparisons of how the raters (wrestlers and assistant coaches in combination) viewed the head coach versus how the head coach viewed himself. Table 4.7 provides the overall cumulative averages of the four constructs from Tables 4.3 through 4.6 combined that comprise authentic leadership.

Table 4.3

*Descriptive Statistic for Self-Awareness Construct*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rater</th>
<th>Head Coach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>count</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mean</td>
<td>3.202</td>
<td>3.314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sample variance</td>
<td>0.242</td>
<td>0.198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sample standard deviation</td>
<td>0.492</td>
<td>0.445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minimum</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maximum</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>range</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st quartile</td>
<td>2.900</td>
<td>3.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>median</td>
<td>3.300</td>
<td>3.300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd quartile</td>
<td>3.500</td>
<td>3.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interquartile range</td>
<td>0.600</td>
<td>0.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mode</td>
<td>3.500</td>
<td>3.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Self-Awareness table displays a rater mean of 3.20 and a self-rater mean of 3.31, a 0.11 difference on the 4-point scale.
Table 4.4

*Descriptive Statistic for Relational Transparency Construct*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relational Transparency</th>
<th>Rater</th>
<th>Head Coach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>count</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mean</td>
<td>3.281</td>
<td>3.372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sample variance</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td>0.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sample standard deviation</td>
<td>0.336</td>
<td>0.427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minimum</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maximum</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>range</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st quartile</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>3.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>median</td>
<td>3.300</td>
<td>3.400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd quartile</td>
<td>3.500</td>
<td>3.600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interquartile range</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mode</td>
<td>3.500</td>
<td>3.600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Relational Transparency table displays a rater mean of 3.28 and a head coach mean of 3.37, a 0.09 difference on the 4-point scale.

Table 4.5

*Descriptive Statistic for Balanced Processing Construct*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Balanced Processing</th>
<th>Rater</th>
<th>Head Coach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>count</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mean</td>
<td>3.112</td>
<td>3.272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sample variance</td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td>0.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sample standard deviation</td>
<td>0.475</td>
<td>0.457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minimum</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>maximum</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>range</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st quartile</td>
<td>2.700</td>
<td>3.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>median</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>3.300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd quartile</td>
<td>3.400</td>
<td>3.700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interquartile range</td>
<td>0.700</td>
<td>0.700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mode</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>3.300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Balanced Processing table displays a rater mean of 3.11 and a head coach mean statistic of 3.27, a 0.16 difference on the 4-point scale.

Table 4.6

*Descriptive Statistic for Internalized Moral Perspective Construct*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internalized Moral Perspective</th>
<th>Rater</th>
<th>Head Coach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>count</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mean</td>
<td>3.4035</td>
<td>3.726</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sample variance</td>
<td>0.1753</td>
<td>0.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sample standard deviation</td>
<td>0.4187</td>
<td>0.361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minimum</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maximum</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>range</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st quartile</td>
<td>3.2000</td>
<td>3.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>median</td>
<td>3.4000</td>
<td>3.800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd quartile</td>
<td>3.7000</td>
<td>4.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interquartile range</td>
<td>0.5000</td>
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<tr>
<td>mode</td>
<td>3.2000</td>
<td>4.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Internalized Moral Perspective table displays a rater mean of 3.40 and a head coach mean statistic of 3.72, a 0.32 difference on the 4-point scale.
Table 4.7

*Descriptive Statistic for the Overall Constructs*

### Overall Rating

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rater</th>
<th>Head Coach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>count</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mean</td>
<td>3.2451</td>
<td>3.4153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sample variance</td>
<td>0.1395</td>
<td>0.1089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sample standard deviation</td>
<td>0.3735</td>
<td>0.3300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minimum</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maximum</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>range</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st quartile</td>
<td>2.9350</td>
<td>3.2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>median</td>
<td>3.2600</td>
<td>3.5000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd quartile</td>
<td>3.5450</td>
<td>3.6000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interquartile range</td>
<td>0.6100</td>
<td>0.4000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mode</td>
<td>3.3000</td>
<td>3.6000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Overall Rating table displays a rater mean of 3.25 and a head coach mean statistic of 3.42, a 0.17 difference on the 4-point scale.

Success criteria was gathered from the information provided by the surveys completed by head coaches and cross-checked with the publicly available individual and team accomplishments listed on The California Wrestler Website. The data provided by the head coaches was consistent with The California Wrestler Website data – with a small amount of errors from coaches who underrated their teams’ accomplishments. These errors were corrected by the researcher. Table 4.8 provides a listing of the 43 head coaches’ responses to their success along the overall rater average, average between rater and head coach, and success points.
In Table 4.8, the names of the high schools who participated in this study have been replaced with sequential numbers. These numbers are sorted by each school’s rank, with the first school (number 1) having the most number of points and the last (numbers 42 and 43) having the least number of points.

**Self-Reported Authentic Leadership and Success Results**

Research Question One. To what extent, if at all, does a relationship exists between the degree of success of amateur wrestling coaches and their self-reported perceptions of the frequency of their authentic leadership behaviors?
The data did not find a significant relationship between success and the self-reported perceptions of authentic leadership from head coaches. The success ratings were given by head coaches who were surveyed and cross-checked with the publicly available individual and team ranking lists posted on the California Wrestler website. After correcting for a small number of errors of coaches who underrated their teams’ accomplishments, the data provided by the head coaches were consistent with The California Wrestler Website. These errors were corrected by the researcher. Numeric values were assigned to each of the coaches accomplishments listed in Table 4.9 and were given based on the number of success points they had. Table 4.9 summarizes the self–reported rate of frequency of authentic leadership across the 83 head coaches.

Table 4.9

**Success and Self-Reported Perceptions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking by Success points</th>
<th>Success Points</th>
<th>Self-Rating</th>
<th>Ranking by Success points</th>
<th>Success Points</th>
<th>Self-Rating</th>
<th>Ranking by Success points</th>
<th>Success Points</th>
<th>Self-Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>818</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
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<td>61</td>
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<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>3.6</td>
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<td>49</td>
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<td>62</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
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<td>183</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>48</td>
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<td>63</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
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<td>8</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>153</td>
<td>3.3</td>
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<td>40</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.4</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>40</td>
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<td>68</td>
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<td>3.3</td>
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<td>40</td>
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<td>69</td>
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<td>70</td>
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<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
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<td>71</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
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<td>16</td>
<td>92</td>
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<td>44</td>
<td>33</td>
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<td>72</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.9</td>
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<td>74</td>
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<td>75</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>31</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>76</td>
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<td>3.2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>3.3</td>
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<td>31</td>
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<td>77</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
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<td>3.6</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>28</td>
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<td>3.3</td>
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<td>66</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>53</td>
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<td>3.1</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
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<td>3.6</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
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<td>27</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>3.6</td>
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<td>24</td>
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<td>83</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>2.8</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>Median Average: 3.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.10 below displays the same data show in Table 4.9 in a scatterplot format. The $R^2$ value of 0.001 indicates that the head coaches’ self-ratings are not strongly associated with success.

Table 4.10

*Success and Self-Reported Perceptions Scatterplot*

A bivariate analysis was used to explore the relationship between success and the head coaches’ self-reported perceptions of the frequency of their authentic leadership behaviors. The statistical method used to calculate Spearman’s rho was a Spearman Coefficient of Rank Correlation. This method was used because the data presented a non-normal distribution and nonlinear correlation as described in Table 4.10. The outlier at the top of the scatter plot is indicative of a very high-level of success from one of the sample head coach’s. The results listed in Table 4.11 indicate that the Spearman’s rho equals -0.097. This low negative score indicates a weak inverse relationship between success and self-reported perceptions of authentic behavior.
The critical value of ± 0.216 is also greater than the rho value of -0.097. Accordingly, the value falls between a 0.50 and 0.20 in the Critical Values of the Spearman’s Ranked Correlation Coefficient table (Zar, 1972), thus the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Table 4.11

*Spearman Coefficient of Rank Correlation for Self-Rater*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Head Coach</th>
<th>Success Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-0.097</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

83 sample size

± .216 critical value .05 (two-tail)

**Wrestlers Perception of Leader Authentic Leadership and Success**

Research Question Two. To what extent, if at all, does a relationship exists between the degree of success of amateur wrestling coaches and wrestlers’ perceptions of the frequency of their coach’s authentic leadership behaviors?

The data did not find a significant relationship between success and the wrestlers’ perceptions of authentic leadership displayed by head coaches. Of the 153 schools from which participants were recruited, 36 provided surveys that included both head coaches and wrestlers’ data. Numeric values were assigned to each of the coaches accomplishments listed in Table 4.12 and were given based on the number of success points they possessed. A total of 249 wrestlers provided their input on the rate of frequency of authentic leadership of their head wrestling coach.
Table 4.12

Success and Wrestler-Reported Perceptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking by Success Points</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Wrestler</th>
<th>Ranking by Success Points</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Wrestler</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>818</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>2.5</td>
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<td>192</td>
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<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
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<td>6</td>
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<td>3.3</td>
<td>23</td>
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<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
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<td>3.2</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>25</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.3</td>
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<tr>
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<td>84</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>66</td>
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<td>29</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>63</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>52</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>42</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Median Average 3.2

Table 4.13 below displays the same data show in Table 4.12 in a scatterplot format. The $R^2$ value indicates that the wrestler ratings and success are not statistically associated.
A bivariate analysis was also used to explore the relationship between success and the wrestler-reported perceptions of the frequency of their coach’s authentic leadership behavior. The statistical method used to calculate Spearman’s rho was a Spearman Coefficient of Rank Correlation. This method was used because the data presented a uniform distribution and nonlinear correlation as described in Table 4.13. The results listed in Table 4.14 indicate that the Spearman’s rho was -0.067. This low negative score indicates a weak relationship between success and wrestler perceptions of authentic behavior. The critical value of ± 0.320 is also greater than the rho value of -0.067. Accordingly, the value falls below 0.50 in the Critical Values of the Spearman’s Ranked Correlation Coefficient table (Zar, 1972), thus the null hypothesis is not rejected. In addition, the effect size for the comparisons of rater and wrestler data is closest to 0.50 and has been determined to have a medium effect as indicated in Table 4.20.
Table 4.14

*Spearman Coefficient of Rank Correlation for Wrestler Perception*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Rater</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Success</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rater</td>
<td>-0.067</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

38 sample size

± .320 critical value .05 (two-tail)

**Assistant Coaches Perception of Leader Authentic Leadership and Success**

Research Question Three. To what extent, if at all, does a relationship exists between the degree of success of amateur wrestling coaches and assistant coaches’ perceptions of the frequency of their coach’s authentic leadership behaviors?

The data found that there was no significant relationship between success and the assistant coaches’ perceptions of authentic leadership displayed by head coaches. Of the participants from 153 schools surveyed, 24 provided surveys that included both head coaches and assistant coaches’ data. Numeric values were assigned to each of the coaches accomplishments listed in Table 4.15 and were given based on the number of success points they possessed. A total of 33 assistant coaches provided their input on the rate of frequency of authentic leadership of their head wrestling coach.
Table 4.15

*Success and Assistant Coach-Reported Perceptions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking by Success Points</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Asst. Coach</th>
<th>Ranking by Success Points</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Asst. Coach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Median Average 3.7

Table 4.16 below displays the same data show in Table 4.15 in a scatterplot format. Note the $R^2$ value of 0.048 indicates that this comparison of variables is strongest between self-rating and wrestler rating results, though the results were not statistically associated.
A bivariate analysis was also used to explore the relationship between success and the wrestler-reported perceptions of the frequency of their coach’s authentic leadership behavior. The statistical method used to calculate Spearman’s rho was a Spearman Coefficient of Rank Correlation. This method was used because the data presented a non-normal distribution and nonlinear correlation as described in Table 4.16. The results listed in Table 4.17 indicate that the Spearman’s rho was -0.30. This score indicates a moderate negative relationship between success and assistant coach perceptions of authentic behavior. The critical value of ± 0.404 is also greater than the rho value of -0.30. Accordingly, the value falls between a 0.50 and 0.20 in the Critical Values of the Spearman’s Ranked Correlation Coefficient table (Zar, 1972), and thus the null hypothesis was not rejected. Additionally the effect size between the wrestling coach and assistant coaches coach effect size sits between small and medium, 0.20 and 0.50, respectively as indicated in Table 4.20.
Table 4.17

Spearman Coefficient of Rank Correlation for Assistant Coach Perceptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Rater</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Success</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rater</td>
<td>-0.300</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24 sample size

± 0.404 critical value .05 (two-tail)

Differences of Authentic Leadership rating of the Head Coaches’ Self-Rating, Wrestlers Rating, and Assistant Coaches Rating

Research Question Four. To what extent, if at all, do differences exist between the frequencies of authentic leadership behaviors of amateur wrestling coaches as perceived by the coaches’ self-report, that of wrestlers, and that of assistant coaches?

A statistically significant difference was identified between the head coaches’ self-perceptions, wrestlers’ perceptions and the assistant coaches’ perceptions of authentic leadership displayed by head coaches. Also, the effect sizes between head coaches and wrestlers and between head coaches and assistant coaches did point to meaningful differences as evidenced in Table 4.20. Table 4.21 also indicates there was no statistical difference between the self-rater and each of the raters, wrestlers and assistant coaches. Of data obtained from those representing 153 schools, 17 provided surveys that included head coaches, assistant coaches, and wrestlers. Numeric values were assigned to each of the coaches accomplishments listed in Table 4.18 and were given based on the number of success points they had. A total of 17 head coaches, 99 wrestlers and 26 assistant coaches provided their input on the rate of frequency of authentic leadership of their head wrestling coach.
Table 4.18

Authentic Leadership rating of the Head Coaches’ Self-Rating, Wrestlers Rating, and Assistant Coaches Rating

A one factor ANOVA was performed to analyze the data of the self-rater, wrestler rating, and assistant coach rating, Table 4.19. The significant p-value of 0.05 was be used to assess if a relationship exists between the assessment results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Self-Rater</th>
<th>Wrestler Rating</th>
<th>Assistant Coach Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.19

ANOVA of the Head Coaches’ Self-Rating, Wrestlers Rating, and Assistant Coaches Rating

One factor ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>0.462</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ANOVA table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td>1.247</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.6237</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>.0503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>9.402</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.1959</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10.650</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The p-value of 0.05 is statistically significant to the null hypothesis was rejected. While a small association, the F value of 3.18 indicates rejection of the null hypothesis is warranted (Finlay & Agresti, 2009).

Table 4.20 provides Hedges’ g, Cohen’s d and Cramér's effect sizes for the associations of rater and wrestler data, and rater and assistant coach data, and wrestler and assistant coach data. Measuring for effect size allows the researcher to determine the magnitude of differences between the groups (Kotrlik, Williams, & Jabor 2011). The effect size for the comparisons of rater and wrestler data is closest to 0.50 and has been determined to have a medium effect. The rater and assistant coach effect size sits between small and medium, 0.20 and 0.50, respectively. The wrestler and assistant coach effect size is either near or above 0.80. This indicates a large effect size.
Table 4.20

*Effect Sizes*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When comparing rater and wrestler data</th>
<th>When comparing rater and assistant coach data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cohen's $d = 0.4860$</td>
<td>Cohen's $d = -0.4060$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glass's $\Delta = 0.4312$</td>
<td>Glass's $\Delta = -0.3673$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedges' $g = 0.4745$</td>
<td>Hedges' $g = -0.3964$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When comparing wrestler and assistant coach data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cohen's $d = -0.799$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glass's $\Delta = -0.820$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedges' $g = -0.780$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.21 provides Kendall Coefficient of Concordance data which is used to determine if a non-parametric measure of correlation exists between more than two variables (Teles, 2012). The variables used in this study were provided by the self-rater, wrestlers, and assistant coaches. This measure is used to determine if there is an agreement (not a correlation) between the ratings (Teles, 2012). The $W$ value equals 0.130 which is indicative of a low level of agreement between the raters.

Table 4.21

*Kendall Coefficient of Concordance*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Ranks</th>
<th>Avg. Rank</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32.50</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>Self-Rater</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.00</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>Wrestler Rating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.50</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>Assistant Coach Rating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17 n
4.413 chi-square (corrected for ties)
2 d.f.
.1101 p-value

0.130 W
0.075 avg. rank-order correlation
Table 4.21 provides the results from a Tukey’s HSD test. This test is used to examine if pairs of means are differ significantly from one another. It was found that a there is a statistically significant difference between Assistant Coaches and Wrestlers, but not between Assistant Coaches and Coaches’ self-ratings, nor between Wrestlers and Coaches self-ratings.

Table 4.22

Tukey’s HSD Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n = number of measures per sample. If there are only three samples in the analysis, leave the D entries blank.

\[
\text{MS}_{\text{error}} = 0.1959 \\
\text{df}_{\text{error}} = 48
\]

\[
\text{HSD}_{0.05} = 0.37 \\
\text{HSD}_{0.01} = 0.46
\]

Pair-Wise Comparisons via Tukey HSD Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>n/s</td>
<td>P&lt;.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n/s = non-significant
Chapter V. Conclusions and Recommendations

This study was conducted to determine which qualities, if any, were displayed by amateur wrestling coaches that were consistent with authentic leadership and to what extent, if at all, these differed between constituents. It was designed to provide information about how wrestling coaches view themselves as leaders and are viewed by assistant wrestling coaches and wrestlers, relative to authentic leadership. The study used a quantitative approach to gather information from high school wrestling coaches, assistant coaches, and wrestlers using a survey instrument called the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire. The questionnaire measures the four constructs that make up authentic leadership: self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective (Avolio et al., 2008). Demographic information was also gathered in order to measure the level of success of wrestling coaches.

Interpretations

This study yielded similarities and differences to previous studies on head coaches’ display of authentic leadership. Similar to Turman’s (2003) study of leadership behaviors Dwyer and Fischer’s (1988) study of the leadership style of wrestling head coaches, the demographic of this study included high school wrestlers who evaluated their coaches’ leadership. However, in this study only data from 43 participants were used to provide rater (head coaches) and self-rater (wrestlers and/or assistant coaches) averages regarding information about the four constructs. The results show that a statistically significant relationship difference was identified between the head coaches’ self-perceptions, wrestlers’ perceptions and the assistant coaches’ perceptions of authentic leadership displayed by head coaches. The overall authentic leadership score was also similar. On average, the head coaches scored themselves marginally higher in each of the constructs and overall rating.
Implications of the Study

This research establishes two important practical implications. First, the findings indicate that the wrestlers and assistant wrestling coaches who participated in this study view their head coaches as authentic leaders. Avolio and Gardner (2005), Luthans and Avolio (2003), and May, Chan, Hodges, and Avolio (2003) have advocated that authentic leadership is associated with high ethical standards that guide leadership behavior. High ethical behaviors can be demonstrated by leaders, who are just and virtuous, have values that are embedded in the leaders vision, the principles and standards of the progressions of social moral choice and action (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Second, the findings suggest that the head coaches self-rating, wrestlers and assistant coaches rating of authentic leadership has no association with success. Authentic leadership behaviors appeared to be exhibited by head coaches, regardless of the number of individual and team championships acquired.

In explaining the implications of the examination of authentic leadership performed in this study, it is essential to briefly discuss limitations on the generalizability of the outcomes. As discussed in depth earlier, participants from 153 schools ranging one to 61 individuals took part in the study. A total of 503 surveys were completed by head coaches, assistant wrestling coaches, and wrestlers, however, only 43 schools contained surveys with all three types of raters.

The current study provides a foundation for future research in the area of authentic leadership of wrestling coaches. To date, there are no other empirical studies that are know to the researcher that explore authentic leadership of wrestling coaches and if this type of leadership correlates with success. By itself, this study offers a theoretical framework to start with and can be the catalyst for future studies. Further research can reinforce contributing factors that explain success of wrestling coaches and what leadership style is best associated with success.
Study Limitations

Much like businesses, high school wrestling teams operate in a very competitive environment. The literature of authentic leadership in sports teams is limited; however, it is important to note that this style and its constructs are essential in developing a positive and productive learning environment (Denison & Avner, 2011). A positive type of leader can create an environment that not only improves athletic performance, but positive characteristics that will be used in governments, nonprofits, and private sectors. The survey of wrestlers for this dissertation was limited to prompting the opinions of head wrestling coaches, assistant coaches, and wrestlers regarding their views on how the head wrestling coach leads – respective to authentic leadership.

The use of marketing the survey through personal networking and postings on TheCaliforniawrestler.com website provided a wide geographical basis for this study; however this process had its limitations. It was unknown how many high school wrestling coaches use the said website. If the population is low, the researcher would have not have been able to capture the goal of 297 head coaches with at least three wrestlers per coach in a short time span. Reminders were applied by the researcher either by email, telephone, or making face-to-face contact which prolonged the data gathering part of the study. Furthermore, the sample of 43 schools with self-rater and rater participation was small and the groups were homogenous since most of the completed surveys came from public institutions. Another restriction was the geographic location of the participants surveyed. Most of the data was collected at wrestling tournaments in Southern California. A moderate amount of surveys were completed from participants from Northern California via the online method. These considerations limited the
exploration of findings from a larger population of head wrestling coaches, assistant coaches, and wrestlers.

**Recommendations for Future Study**

To appreciate and understand a coach’s display of authentic leadership and if this type of leadership has a relationship to success, it is recommended that a longitudinal study of a qualitative nature be conducted on wrestling coaches who are very successful, moderately successful, and not very successful at all. A narrative approach is recommended. This kind of approach is a qualitative method that allows the researcher to reveal the life of participants and how their experiences have developed them into achieving the level of success they have (Willis, 2007). A qualitative approach also allows for more flexibility when questioning participants and an opportunity to gather more intimate and comprehensive information as opposed to a quantitative approach where the questions are predetermined and inflexible and the data gathered is numerical (Merriam, 1998).

It is further recommended that a narrative approach be used to gather qualitative data on the experience, leader approach, and challenges faced by the head coach who was found to be the most successful as illustrated in the outlier in Table 4.10. This qualitative data can be used to identify leadership style and if suitable, what other factors contributed to success that was found to be beyond the reach of the other 82 wrestling coaches surveyed in this study.

A longitudinal study that expands beyond the focus of a legitimate leader (i.e. head wrestling coach) but rather focuses on the wrestlers’ journey through four years of consecutive high school wrestling season can provide valuable information on what was observed and learned from the leader. A mixed-methods approach can be used to capture quantitative data about the leadership style exhibited and be supplemented with in-depth interviews of opinions of
follower and leader perceptions. Follow-up interviews with wrestlers can be done intermittently throughout their four years of high school and beyond to acquire what leadership qualities were learned and adopted into a wrestler’s life. The same kind of study can be executed that focuses on gathering data from assistant wrestling coaches. This kind of study can focus on just assistant wrestling coaches or concurrently with the gathering of wrestler data.

In this study, wrestlers’ were required to answer questions about their head coach. It was found that some of the questions were too difficult to understand and so the researcher had to paraphrase or reinterpret the questions. The researcher considered rewriting the question but was told by the license holder and host, Mind Garden, that doing so would invalidate the questionnaire. It is recommended, for future studies, that some of the questions be rewritten in a more simplified manner so participants can more easily understand what is being asked. A future researcher may also wish to rewrite the entire questionnaire for a lower reading level and then examine its evidence of validity and reliability.

Participants represented many minority and ethnic groups and had a wide range of experience ranging from one to 40 years. Because of the small sample size, this study should not be viewed as generalizable. Nevertheless, another exploratory study with more time and resources can produce a larger sample size which can then lead to a greater sample size of 43 high schools. A study with a much larger sample size can produce the type of findings that can be viewed as generalizable.

Further research similar to this quantitative study can be conducted at a larger scale in order to gather more data from all three types of participants. Similar studies can also measure for different leadership approaches such as transformational leadership, transactional leadership,
and charismatic leadership. A mixed-methods approach can also be used in order to help provide more details in participant responses.

**Summary**

The purpose of this study was to identify which qualities, if any, were displayed by amateur wrestling coaches that were consistent with authentic leadership and the extent to which, if at all, these perceptions differed between constituents. The study revealed that the four constructs of self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective were all each rated high by raters and self-raters. There was not enough evidence to support a correlation of success as reported by the head coaches and wrestlers. The study also showed that head wrestling coaches had similar views of authentic leadership as reported by assistant coaches and wrestlers.

In sum, organizations need leaders who will demonstrate and perform authentic behaviors that seek to cultivate positive character development over self-interest (Opatokun, Hasim, & Hassan, 2013). This study’s findings indicate that these types of leaders are present in the high school wrestling community. It is hoped that this study can be used to encourage further research in authentic leadership that is found in sporting organizations such as wrestling.
REFERENCES


Liopos, G. (2012). 5 powerful things happen when a leader is transparent. *Forbes Leadership*.


APPENDIX A

Informed Consent for Participation in Research Activities

Participant:  

Principal Investigator: Angel Rubio

Title of Project: Authentic Leadership: Demonstration of Authentic Leader Behavior From The Perspective of High School Wrestling Coaches in Successful Wrestling Programs

1. I , agree to participate in the research study being conducted by Angel Rubio under the direction of Dr. Doug Leigh, Ph.D.

2. The overall purpose of this research is.

The purpose of this dissertation is to identify the qualities that wrestling coaches display that are consistent with authentic leadership. The research will be designed to draw input on behaviors and practices that wrestling coaches have developed while being a wrestler in a subordinate position till now as a wrestling coach. This study is also expected to produce findings and recommendations of best practices for developing the following constructs of leadership: hope, trust, and positive emotions.

3. My participation will involve the following.

Answer questions that will address leadership behaviors exhibited while directly and indirectly coaching wrestlers.

4. My participation in the study will last approximately 3 months. The study shall be conducted in Los Angeles, California.

5. I understand that the possible benefits to myself or society from this research are.

The dissertation findings are intended to provide a perspective that directly reflects how wrestling coaches view themselves as leaders – specifically, relative to authentic leadership and how they display this type of leadership. This study presents what an authentic leader is and how successful wrestling coaches display this type of leadership. The behavior studied and the successfulness of this type of positive behavior can be applied by managers in organizations ranging from nonprofit, government, and for-profit agencies throughout the world.
6. I understand that there are certain risks and discomforts that might be associated with this research. These risks include.

Fatigue and boredom

7. I understand that I may choose not to participate in this research.

8. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may refuse to participate and/or withdraw my consent and discontinue participation in the project or activity at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled.

9. I understand that the investigator(s) will take all reasonable measures to protect the confidentiality of my records and my identity will not be revealed in any publication that may result from this project. The confidentiality of my records will be maintained in accordance with applicable state and federal laws. Under California law, there are exceptions to confidentiality, including suspicion that a child, elder, or dependent adult is being abused, or if an individual discloses an intent to harm him/herself or others. I understand there is a possibility that my medical record, including identifying information, may be inspected and/or photocopied by officials of the Food and Drug Administration or other federal or state government agencies during the ordinary course of carrying out their functions. If I participate in a sponsored research project, a representative of the sponsor may inspect my research records.

10. I understand that the investigator is willing to answer any inquiries I may have concerning the research herein described. I understand that I may contact Dr. Doug Leigh at (xxx) xxx-xxxx, if I have other questions or concerns about this research. If I have questions about my rights as a research participant, I understand that I can contact, Chairperson of the IRB, Dr. Thema Bryant-Davis of Pepperdine University at (xxx) xxx-xxx.

11. I will be informed of any important new findings developed during the course of my participation in this research which may have a bearing on my willingness to continue in the study.

12. I understand that in the event of physical injury resulting from the research procedures in which I am to participate, no form of compensation is available. Medical treatment may be provided at my own expense or at the expense of my health care insurer which may or may not provide coverage. If I have questions, I should contact my insurer.
13. I understand to my satisfaction the information regarding participation in the research project. All my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I have received a copy of this informed consent form which I have read and understand. I hereby consent to participate in the research described above.

Parent or legal guardian’s signature on participant’s behalf if participant is less than 18 years of age or not legally competent.

Date

I have explained and defined in detail the research procedure in which the subject has consented to participate. Having explained this and answered any questions, I am cosigning this form and accepting this person’s consent.

Principal Investigator

Date
APPENDIX B

Informed Consent for Participation in Research Activities
(for parents/guardians of minors)

Dear (Parent, Student, etc.).

My name is Angel Rubio, and I am a student in Organizational Leadership at Pepperdine University, who is currently in the process of recruiting individuals for my study entitled, “AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP: DEMONSTRATION OF AUTHENTIC LEADER BEHAVIOR FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF HIGH SCHOOL WRESTLING COACHES IN SUCCESSFUL WRESTLING PROGRAMS.” The professor supervising my work is Dr. Doug Leigh. The study is designed to investigate authentic leadership of wrestling coaches, so I am inviting individuals who are wrestlers to participate in my study. Please understand that your participation in my study is strictly voluntary. The following is a description of what your study participation entails, the terms for participating in the study, and a discussion of your rights as a study participant. Please read this information carefully before deciding whether or not you wish to participate.

If you should decide to participate in the study, you will be asked to partake in a written survey. It should take approximately ten minutes to complete the survey you have been asked to complete.

Although minimal, there are potential risks that you should consider before deciding to participate in this study. These risks include fatigue and boredom. Participation information of this study will not be disclosed anyone, including the survey subject.

The potential benefits to you for participating in the study are intended to provide a perspective that directly reflects how wrestlers view their coaches as leaders – specifically, relative to authentic leadership and how they display this type of leadership. This study presents what an authentic leader is and how successful wrestling coaches display this type of leadership. The behavior studied and the successfulness of this type of positive behavior can be applied by managers in organizations ranging from nonprofit, government, and for-profit agencies throughout the world.

If you should decide to participate and find you are not interested in completing the survey in its entirety, you have the right to discontinue at any point without being questioned about your decision. You also do not have to answer any of the questions on the survey that you prefer not to answer—just leave such items blank.

In order to avoid an unnecessary expenditure for postage, the surveys have been numerically coded so that follow-up letters are only sent to those persons who have not responded by the requested deadline. Whether you decide to participate or not, please return the survey materials to me. I have enclosed an addressed, stamped envelope for this purpose.
If the findings of the study are presented to professional audiences or published, no information that identifies you personally will be released. The data will be kept in a secure manner for at least three years at which time the data will be destroyed.

If you have any questions regarding the information that I have provided above, please do not hesitate to contact me at the address and phone number provided below. If you have further questions or do not feel I have adequately addressed your concerns, please contact Dr. Doug Leigh. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact Dr. Thema Bryant-Davis, Chairperson of the Pepperdine IRB Administration, Pepperdine University at (xxx) xxx-xxxx.

By completing the survey and returning it to me, you are acknowledging that you have read and understand what your study participation entails, and are consenting to participate in the study.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information, and I hope you decide to complete the survey. Please remember to send me back the survey whether you decide to participate in the study or not. You are welcome to a brief summary of the study findings in about 1 year. If you decide you are interested in receiving the summary, please complete the enclosed postcard and mail it to me separately from the survey--please do not send the postcard with the survey.

Sincerely,

Investigator’s name: Angel Rubio
Investigator’s title: Student
Address: xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
Phone number: (xxx) xxx-xxxx
APPENDIX C

Informed Consent for Participation in Research Activities (for minors)

Authentic Leadership of Wrestling Coaches

My name is Angel Rubio and I am a Student of Organizational Leadership at Pepperdine University. Your parents have given me their permission to speak with you about a study I am conducting on Authentic Leadership and if your coaches exhibit this kind of leadership. I would like to invite you to participate in this study if you are interested. Before I explain more about the study, I want you to know that the choice to participate is completely up to you. No one is going to force you to do something you are not interested in doing. Even if you start the study and decide that you are no longer interested in continuing, just let me know and we will discontinue the study.

Let me tell you about what you will be asked to do if you decide to participate in this study. You will be asked to fill out a survey form. It will take about ten minutes of your time.

If you get bored or tired during our meeting, just let me know, and we can take a break. If you are bothered by some of the things we talk about, let me know so we can talk about what is bothering you. Most of the time what you say to me will not be repeated to your parents unless you wish for me to do so. The only exception would be if I am convinced your parents might be helpful to you if they knew what was going on. If such information comes up, we will talk about it before I speak with your parents.

Your participation in this study may not provide information that will be helpful to you, but what is hoped is that what I find out from you may be of help in the future to others who are undergoing a similar experience.

When the results of this study are published or presented to professional audiences, the names of the people who participated in the study will not be revealed.

If you have any questions, you may contact me at (xxx) xxx-xxxx or email at xxx@xxxxxxxx.xxx.

You may keep a copy of this form if you wish.

Youth’s signature  Date

Researcher’s signature  Date assent obtained
APPENDIX D

Explanation of Study

The dissertation findings are intended to provide a perspective that directly reflects how wrestling coaches view themselves as leaders – specifically, relative to authentic leadership and how they display this type of leadership. This study presents what an authentic leader is and how successful wrestling coaches display this type of leadership.

The following script will be used in the actual post on the California Wrestler website to recruit participants. Hello Wrestling Family, my name is Angel Rubio and I am attempting to bring a positive light to the world of amateur wrestling in California with the use of this doctoral study. Please take a moment to fill out my survey. Your participation is greatly appreciated. For questions, feel free to call me at (xxx) xxx-xxxx or email at xxx@xxxxxxxx.xxx.
APPENDIX E

Demographic Questions for Coaches

1. Your name: ______________________

2. Name of high school: ________________

3. Circle years of experience coaching:
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Less than three years</th>
<th>Between three and five years</th>
<th>More than five years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Circle years of coaching at your present high school:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Less than three years</th>
<th>Between three and five years</th>
<th>More than five years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Circle school type:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Charter</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Private</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Circle parent involvement:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very Low</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Very High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Does a feeder program exist at your high school:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8. Please fill in the blank boxes with numerical values that apply to your wrestlers and high school:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of team league championships in the last five years</th>
<th>Number of team master’s championships in the last five years</th>
<th>Number of team state championships in the last five years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of league champions in the last three years</th>
<th>Number of master’s champions the last three years</th>
<th>Number of state champions in the last three years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of state placers in the last five years</th>
<th>Number of national placers in the last five years</th>
<th>Number of national champions in the last five years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX F

Demographic Questions for Assistant Coaches

1. Your name: ______________________

2. The head coach’s name: ________________

3. Name of high school: ________________

4. Circle years of experience coaching:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Less than three years</th>
<th>Between three and five years</th>
<th>More than five years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

5. Circle years of coaching at your present high school:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Less than three years</th>
<th>Between three and five years</th>
<th>More than five years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
APPENDIX G

Demographic Questions for Wrestlers

1. Your name: ________________________

2. Your coach’s name: ________________

3. Name of high school: ______________

4. Circle your gender:

   Male  Female

5. Wrestlers will be asked to circle:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of wrestling</th>
<th>Less than one year</th>
<th>One to three years</th>
<th>Three to five years</th>
<th>More than five years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Circle weight class this season:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>106lbs</th>
<th>113lbs</th>
<th>120lbs</th>
<th>126lbs</th>
<th>132lbs</th>
<th>138lbs</th>
<th>145lbs</th>
<th>152lbs</th>
<th>160lbs</th>
<th>170lbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>182lbs</td>
<td>195lbs</td>
<td>220lbs</td>
<td>285lbs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX H

IRB Approval Letter

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY
Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board

December 22, 2014

Angel Rubio

Protocol #: E1014D06
Project Title: Authentic Leadership: Demonstration of Authentic Leadership Behavior from the Perspective of High School Wrestling Coaches in Successful Wrestling Programs

Dear Mr. Rubio:

Thank you for submitting your application, Authentic Leadership: Demonstration of Authentic Leadership Behavior from the Perspective of High School Wrestling Coaches in Successful Wrestling Programs, for expedited review to Pepperdine University’s Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (GPS IRB). The IRB appreciates the work you and your advisor, Dr. Legh, completed on the proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. As the nature of the research met the requirements for expedited review under provision Title 45 CFR 46.110 (Research Category 7) of the federal Protection of Human Subjects Act, the IRB conducted a formal, but expedited, review of your application materials.

I am pleased to inform you that your application for your study was granted Full Approval. The IRB approval begins today, December 22, 2014, and terminates on December 22, 2015. In addition, your application to waive documentation of informed consent has been approved.

Your final consent form has been stamped by the IRB to indicate the expiration date of study approval. One copy of the consent form is enclosed with this letter and one copy will be retained for our records. You can only use copies of the consent that have been stamped with the GPS IRB expiration date to obtain consent from your participants.

Please note that your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the GPS IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit a Request for Modification form to the GPS IRB. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for expedited review and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the GPS IRB. If contact with subjects will extend beyond December 22, 2015, a Continuation or Completion of Review Form must be submitted at least one month prior to the expiration date of study approval to avoid a lapse in approval.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite our best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the GPS IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete explanation of the event and your response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the GPS IRB and the appropriate form to be used to report this information can be found in the Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual (see link to “policy material” at http://www.pepperdine.edu/irb/graduate/).

6100 Center Drive, Los Angeles, California 90045 • 310-568-5000
Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all further communication or correspondence related to this approval. Should you have additional questions, please contact me. On behalf of the GPS IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Thema Bryant-Davis, Ph.D.
Chair, Graduate and Professional Schools IRB
Pepperdine University

cc: Dr. Lee Kats, Vice Provost for Research and Strategic Initiatives
Mr. Brett Leach, Compliance Attorney
Dr. Dough Leigh, Faculty Advisor