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Count Them In: A Quantitative Investigation into the Relationship and Differences Between Minority Youth Leadership Capacity and School Factors

Abstract

This quantitative study investigated the leadership capacity of minority youth. The research used a sample population of 322 ninth and tenth grade urban school students, in a medium sized secondary school in the lower Hudson Valley of New York. The participants completed the Youth Leadership Questionnaire, an 18 item self-report instrument that measured leadership capacity in relation to Self-concept, Self-efficacy, and Emotional Intelligence. After totaling each of the composite scores of the Youth Leadership Questionnaire, Independent t-tests and a Spearman correlation were run to determine relationships and differences between minority youth leadership capacity (based on the YLQ) and gender, achievement, attendance, grade, extracurricular activities, and socioeconomic status. The study revealed that no relationship existed between the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students and school dependent variables, which were achievement, gender, extracurricular activities, attendance, grade, and socioeconomic status. Furthermore, the study revealed there were no differences between ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ scores as related to the variables of gender, achievement level, school attendance, grade level, participation in extracurricular activities, and socioeconomic status as measured by the three variables in the YLQ. The findings indicated that all youth have leadership capacity as determined by the Youth Leadership Questionnaire three domains: self-concept, emotional intelligence, and self- efficacy. The lowest score, scored on the YLQ in this study was 60 and the highest scored was 124.

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Count Them In: A Quantitative Investigation into the Relationship and Differences
Between Minority Youth Leadership Capacity and School Factors

By

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Submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree
Ed.D. in Executive Leadership

Supervised by

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St. John Fisher College

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Dedication

Without God, I am nothing and with God I am everything... First, I need to thank the God of my understanding for providing me with strength, courage, humility, perseverance, patience, and grace to endure and complete this doctoral journey. Only my God knew the challenges ahead of me and knew just how to equip me in order to get me through to the end.

I wish to thank Reverend, Dr. Harry Dawkins, III for his consistent support and belief in my ability to succeed and successfully complete this 28-month doctoral journey. All of your help, time, and unconditional love supported me during this process. Your constant motivation, encouragement, and unconditional love made this journey livable. Thank you for the times you just listened and the times you reawakened a lost dream. Words cannot express my gratitude.

Next, I would like to thank my mother Benita Hamlett, my grandmother Rose Hamlett, and my Uncle Howard Hamlett for loving me unconditionally over the years, in spite myself. Due to your unwavering love, support, and belief in me, I was able to believe in myself and get through this doctoral process even though at times I wanted to quit. This process of higher learning inevitably changed me for the better.

Dr. Ronald Valenti, my dissertation chair, thank you. Thank you for your patience, insight, expertise, and guidance during this process. Thank you for your constant support and encouragement during this entire process. Your invaluable insight and knowledge will always be greatly appreciated. Dr. Winsome Gregory, my committee

member, thank you. Your support, guidance, and positive encouragement made my success possible. Thank you both, for sharing your precious time with me in order to successfully complete what I started out to do. There are not enough words to express my warmest sentiments toward you both; however, I will let you know that I am humbly grateful that God saw fit for both of you to guide me throughout this process.

I wish to thank Dr. Hinde for giving me permission to use her research “Examining Youth Leadership Through the Development and Validation of a Self-Report Measure: The Youth Leadership Questionnaire (YLQ).” I would also like to thank Mr. Scott Berry, Executive Director at Empowering Minds in Canada, for giving me permission to use the Youth Leadership Questionnaire. Without the use of the Youth Leadership Questionnaire, my research would not have been possible. Thank you both.

The research is dedicated to my younger siblings, LaShawn Hamlett, Jerome Hamlett, and Mekiyhla Hamlett, and all other children who need to know that someone believes in all of you. You are all leaders in your own right, and all you need is already within you. All of you have the potential to move past your current situations and become successful. *You are not your circumstance, and you no longer have to be defined by them, you are better because of them...*

Biological Sketch

LaTasha Hamlett is the Second Vice President of the New Rochelle Branch NAACP. Ms. Hamlett attended The College of New Rochelle from 2003 – 2007 and graduated with a Bachelor of Arts and Science in Liberal Arts. She attended The College of New Rochelle from 2008 – 2010 and graduated with a Master of Science in Communication Studies. Ms. Hamlett came to St. John Fisher College in the summer of 2011 and began her doctoral studies in the Ed.D. Program in Executive Leadership. Ms. Hamlett pursued her research in minority youth leadership capacity under the direction of Dr. Ronald Valenti and Dr. Winsome Gregory and received the Ed.D. degree in 2013.

Abstract

This quantitative study investigated the leadership capacity of minority youth. The research used a sample population of 322 ninth and tenth grade urban school students, in a medium sized secondary school in the lower Hudson Valley of New York. The participants completed the Youth Leadership Questionnaire, an 18 item self-report instrument that measured leadership capacity in relation to Self-concept, Self-efficacy, and Emotional Intelligence. After totaling each of the composite scores of the Youth Leadership Questionnaire, Independent t-tests and a Spearman correlation were run to determine relationships and differences between minority youth leadership capacity (based on the YLQ) and gender, achievement, attendance, grade, extracurricular activities, and socioeconomic status. The study revealed that no relationship existed between the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students and school dependent variables, which were achievement, gender, extracurricular activities, attendance, grade, and socioeconomic status. Furthermore, the study revealed there were no differences between ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ scores as related to the variables of gender, achievement level, school attendance, grade level, participation in extracurricular activities, and socioeconomic status as measured by the three variables in the YLQ. The findings indicated that all youth have leadership capacity as determined by the Youth Leadership Questionnaire three domains: self-concept, emotional intelligence, and self- efficacy. The lowest score, scored on the YLQ in this study was 60 and the highest scored was 124.

Table of Contents

Dedication	ii
Biological Sketch	iv
Abstract	v
List of Tables	viii
List of Figures	x
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Introduction	1
Problem Statement	2
Theoretical Rationale	4
Statement of Purpose	11
Research Questions	12
Potential Significance of the Study	16
Definitions of Terms	19
Chapter Summary	23
Chapter 2: Review of the Literature	24
Introduction and Purpose	24
Review of the Literature	25
Chapter Summary	45
Chapter 3: Research Design Methodology	47
Research Context	51

Research Participants	52
Data Collection Instrument	52
Data Analysis	58
Summary	60
Chapter 4: Results	61
Research Questions	62
Findings	66
Summary of results	86
Chapter 5: Discussion	88
Introduction	88
Implications of findings	89
Limitations	91
Recommendations	93
Conclusion	98
References	101
Appendix A	107
Appendix B	110

List of Tables

Item	Title	Page
Table 4.1	Descriptive Statistics: Gender Differences between YLQ Scores	67
Table 4.2	T-test Results: YLQ and Gender	67
Table 4.3	Descriptive Statistics: Academic Achievement Differences Between YLQ Scores	68
Table 4.4	T-test Results: YLQ Scores and Academic Achievement	68
Table 4.5	Descriptive Statistics: Differences Extracurricular Activities and YLQ Scores	70
Table 4.6	T-test Results: YLQ Scores and Extracurricular Activities.....	70
Table 4.7	Descriptive Statistics: Differences Between Attendance and YLQ Scores	72
Table 4.8	T-test Results: YLQ Scores and Attendance	72
Table 4.9	Descriptive Statistics: Differences Between Economic Status and YLQ Scores	73
Table 4.10	Descriptive Statistics: Differences Between Grade Level and YLQ Scores ..	75
Table 4.11	T-test Results: YLQ Scores and Grade Level.....	75
Table 4.12	Spearman’s Rho Correlations Between YLQ Scores and Dependent Variables	82
Table 4.13	Range of YLQ Scores by Gender	83
Table 4.14	Range of YLQ Scores by Achievement.....	84
Table 4.15	Range of YLQ Scores by Grade Level	84

Table 4.16 Range of YLQ Scores by Socioeconomic Status.....	88
Table 4.17 Range of YLQ Scores Involvement in Extracurricular Activities.....	85
Table 4.18 Range of YLQ Scores by Attendance.....	86

List of Figures

Item	Title	Page
Figure 4.1.	YLQ scores for male and female students.....	67
Figure 4.2.	YLQ mean score difference between high achieving and low achieving students.....	69
Figure 4.3.	YLQ mean score difference for extracurricular activities.....	71
Figure 4.4.	YLQ mean score difference for attendance.....	72
Figure 4.5.	YLQ mean scores and economic status.....	74
Figure 4.6.	YLQ mean scores and grade level.....	76
Figure 4.7.	Relationships between YLQ scores and gender.....	77
Figure 4.8.	Relationship between YLQ scores and achievement.....	78
Figure 4.9.	Relationships between YLQ scores and extracurricular activities.....	79
Figure 4.10.	Relationships between YLQ scores and economic status.....	80
Figure 4.11.	Relationships between YLQ scores and attendance.....	81
Figure 4.12.	Relationships between YLQ scores and grade level.....	82

Chapter 1: Introduction

Introduction

At the turn of the 21st century, it is essential to develop leaders and the capacity of individuals to lead within organizations, social structures, and businesses. Leadership is a greatly revered commodity, although, not always well understood. In fact, there is an extensive research literature base that has sought to define what makes a great leader. While some disagreement on what constitutes a great leader and how to prepare someone to become a leader has persisted, the acknowledged importance of leadership is so widely recognized that different programs attempt to prepare leaders (Kress, 2006). These programs include undergraduate and graduate programs at colleges and universities, organizations, seminars, internships, leadership development programs.

Most leadership studies focused on the development of leadership in adults, and eventually all sought to define the effects of a successful leader by identifying leaders' characteristics and ability to perform in essential job related roles. Murphy and Johnson (2011) stated, "most studies on leader development examine managers and executives, ignoring development in youth and adolescence" (p. 459). For the purposes of the dissertation study, the researcher sought to gain an understanding of minority youth perceptions of their personal leadership ability and capacity. Furthermore, the research included an investigation of the relationship and difference between the participants' leadership capacity and environmental factors related to the participants' school life, which is a critical component of this study.

At the beginning of the first term of Barack Obama, the first African American President of the United States, Ospina and Foldy (2009) conducted a review of the research on leadership and ethnicity. One of the conclusions resulting from the review was that “the research suggests that even as many black leaders and other leaders of color thrive-in part by drawing on their racial and ethnicity – they continue to face profound obstacles to their leadership” (p. 876). The authors reiterated that race has been such an ineradicable part of United States history that governs society, communities, and individuals, then subsequently race and ethnicity needs recognition in the discussion on leadership (Ospina & Foldy, 2009). Furthermore, the authors stated, “attending to race brings an understanding of power not only as a resource for individuals, but also a web of institutionalized inequities” (p.876). An important component of the dissertation study was attending to race and leadership. The investigation into youth leadership added to the existing body of research to include and focus on minority youth. Moreover, the novelty of the study worked to understand minority youth’s self-perception of their leadership ability, specifically at a secondary school based in an urban district in the Lower Hudson valley of Westchester, New York.

The dissertation reviewed leadership theory along with critical race theory to provide a base for this scholarship. In addition, the dissertation study included an analysis the self-perceptions of minority urban youth school students’ leadership capacity through the Youth Leadership Questionnaire (YLQ), a self-report instrument.

Problem Statement

The dissertation study examined self-perceptions of leadership capacity in minority urban school students in grades 9 through 10 who attended a public school in

the county of Westchester, New York. The research filled a void in youth leadership development studies through an investigation that addressed leadership perspectives of a minority subgroup. The exploration into the insights of male and female minority youth through a self-report instrument gave voice to an underserved group that has seemed to be neglected in recent youth leadership development studies. The study was designed to inform practice to serve these young people based on their perceptions of their own skills (Stringer, 2007).

Research in youth leadership development explored and documented youth leadership development in the context of youth organizations, after school programs, leadership-training programs, and leadership seminars in both middle schools and high schools (Hindes, 2011; Horn, 2011; Koustic, 2008; Kress, 2006; Wheeler & Edelbeck, 2006). These scholars assessed the impact of youth leadership development programs and attempted to determine how youth leadership was practiced and learned by adolescents as a result of youth leadership programs. Although the existing studies researched youth in multiple programs the studies did not include minority youth living in urban communities. The majority of the youth studied in the existing studies were from suburban upper-class households. Kress (2006) affirmed this exclusion by stating, “successful youth organizations are elite driven, as they attract into leadership involved and achieving youth, who typically come from more educated and included groups and reflect only a small segment of the youth population” (p. 53). Kress also noted that students with low socio-economic status and minority students rarely were offered the opportunity to be included in programs and services dedicated to youth leadership development (Kress, 2006).

At the same time that research avoided the leadership perceptions, attitudes, or behaviors of minority youth in urban communities, there was an increasing amount of scholarship addressing concerns about minority youth's disengagement from schools, their underachievement, and inappropriate behavior (Day-Vines & Terriquez, 2008). Likewise, current leadership theory included a collection of scholarship concerning leadership's practical application in relationship to authority in organizations, businesses, and government. In contrast, there were far fewer leadership research studies examining either minority or non-minority youth in authority roles, except for a small group of youth who held office at a club level or were camp counselors (Horn, 2011). The research available concentrated on the development of youth leadership skills in after school programs. Moreover, the few studies about youth leadership failed to address minority groups in urban communities. "There is a lack of information regarding the perception youth have regarding leadership roles, their own abilities as leaders, and the components youth leaders feel are important to leadership" (Horn, 2011, p.12). Horn identified the importance of understanding whether leadership projects addressing youth were practical, effective, and that the youth, they serve understand them (2011). At the time of the dissertation research, there was a gap within the literature concerning minority youth and leadership. The dissertation study was designed to add to the body of youth leadership scholarship by conducting an examination into the self-perceptions of leadership capacity of minority youth living and attending a secondary school in an urban community.

Theoretical Rationale

The dissertation study used critical race theory (CRT) and early theories of leadership as frameworks to examine the plight of urban minority youth. The exploration

of the literature led to a set of essential questions that guided the dissertation study.

Chapter one concludes with a defense of CRT and leadership theories as important lenses through which to study and prepare solutions to the pervasive social equity challenge.

Critical Race Theory

In the mid-1970s, CRT emerged as a consequence of scholars within critical legal studies (CLS) being unable to adequately address the “effects of race and racism in U.S. jurisprudence” (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004, p. 26). CRT development stemmed from the early writings of black legal scholars such as Bell (1980), Freeman (1998), and Delgado (2001), due to their discontent with CLS’s slow and ineffective achievement of racial reform (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). As a result, CRT aggressively pursued the role race and racism has played in social inequality among dominant and marginalized racial groups within the United States (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). In addition, CRT has been committed to bringing about the change needed to implement social justice.

Initially, CRT focused on the negative and pervasive effect racism has had on society. In order to understand the theory, one must first comprehend the CRT framework and its essential components. CRT’s five central tenets consisted of counter-storytelling, racism’s permanence, whiteness as property, interest conversion, and the critique of liberalism.

Counter-storytelling. Counter-storytelling actualized and communicated the lived experiences of the oppressed and marginalized groups. (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995, p. 58). DeCuir & Dixson (2004) further explained, “counter-storytelling is a means of exposing and critiquing normalized dialogues that perpetuate racial stereotype” (2004,

p.27). Counter-storytelling gave a voice to a marginalized group that would not have been heard otherwise.

Racism's permanence. Racism's permanence, a second essential tenet of CRT, proposed that a racist hierarchical makeup governs all political, economic and social spheres of influence (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004). When an institution ignored the existence of organized racism and neglected its permanence even when working towards diversity, these failures worked to reinforce racism structurally and institutionally (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). "Such structures allocate the privileging of Whites and subsequent Othering of people of color in all arenas" (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004, p.27). This tenet of CRT—the permanence of racism—insisted that racism has been ingrained in America.

Whiteness as property. Whiteness as property was the third critical tenet of critical race theory. Whiteness as property was defined as a valuable asset only white people can possess (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). Harris (1995) argued that the history of race and racism has played a role in solidifying the notion of whiteness being a measurable property asset. He further argued, "in addition to the theoretical descriptions of property, whiteness also meets the functional criteria of property" (p. 281). Furthermore, Harris identified the property functions of whiteness as consisting of "rights to disposition," "right to use and enjoyment," "the conception of reputation," and "the absolute right to exclude" (pp . 281-283).

Interest convergence. Interest convergence, the fourth tenet, suggested whites benefit most from civil rights legislation (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). Bell (1980) claimed, "principle of 'interest convergence'" (p. 22) eventually

means that the “interest of blacks in achieving racial equality will be accommodated only when it converges with the interests of whites” (p.22).

Critique of liberalism. The fifth and final tenet of CRT is the critique of liberalism. This tenet was based on a questioning of the credence of colorblindness, the neutrality of the law, and equal opportunity for all (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004). Gotanda (1991) contended that colorblindness in society does not take into account unfairness, lack of opportunity, and subjugation, which are embedded in American history and will not be diminished by overlooking color. Furthermore, DeCuir and Dixson (2004) stated, “the notion of colorblindness fails to take into consideration the persistence and permanence of racism and the construction of people of color as Other” (p.29).

The five tenets of CRT helped frame a comprehensive profile of urban minority youth. Within the CRT framework, it was possible to carefully examine the barriers, problems, and restrictions experienced by minority youth. Such an examination also took into consideration the impact of leadership in the lives of minority youth, which required an understanding of leadership theory as the gateway to increasing leadership capacity for all groups, but with particular attention to urban minority youths.

Leadership. There has been an increasing amount of scholarship pertaining to leadership. Leadership is one of the oldest concepts that continue to generate concern and investigation. Bass (1990) stated, “the understanding of leadership has figured strongly in the quest for knowledge” (p. 3). When defining leadership, the term leadership did not carry one meaning. The definition varied based on the framework within which leadership has been considered. Bass (1990) claimed that leadership has been envisioned as the primary action of group processes, a part of personality, behaviors, persuasion,

power, and part of organization structures. In spite of the numerous ways leadership has been defined, Northouse (2010) asserted that the central components of leadership can be identified as a process, which exhibits influence in group work, and reaching common goals. Northouse's analyses of several theorists helped in developing an understanding of macro leadership theory.

According to Northouse (2010), "there are two general kinds of behavior: task behaviors and relationship behaviors to influence subordinates" (p. 29). Furthermore, Northouse (2010) treated leadership as a process of great magnitude, as opposed to leadership being inherited skill as some of the early theories of leadership suggested.

Great man theory. The great man theory of leadership became widely accepted during the 18th and 19th centuries. The theory assumed leaders were born not made. The theory suggested leadership is inherited, and leadership abilities are present at conception, and a person is born with leadership capability (Bass, 1990). Furthermore, the great man theory suggested that the great men have distinctive and exclusive characteristics and qualities that set them apart from followers (Bass, 1990). The great man theory focused on recognizing the assumed natural characteristics of great leaders, such as, Abraham Lincoln, Napoleon Bonaparte, and Mohandas Gandhi (Northouse, 2010).

Trait theory. Similar to the great man theory, the trait approach insisted leaders inherited traits that made them suited for leadership roles. Trait theory (Jago, 1992) was rooted in the 1940s and was arguably an expansion of the great man theory. Trait theory shifted from the physical and constitutional factors such as height, weight, appearance, and related factors of the great man theory to the personality and social constructs of trait

theory, which included traits such as achievement, drive, ambition, and cooperativeness (Jago, 1992).

Contingency theory. Fiedler's development of contingency theory advanced the evolution of leadership theory (Seters & Field, 1990) by focusing on the "leader in conjunction with the situation the leader works" (Northouse, 2010, p. 123). Fiedler's contingency theory matched leaders to situations best suited for them. Contingency theory implied that a leader's success was interdependent with fitting the leadership style to the state of affairs (Seters & Field, 1990; Northouse, 2010). In addition, contingency theory was known as a leader-match theory. Leader-match theory matched leaders based on their styles in response to the dynamics of the situation (Northouse, 2010).

Transactional theory. Transactional leadership theory implied that leadership did not only exist in a person, but extended into social interactions by addressing the influence the leader had on subordinates through the exchange of rewards for completed work (Seters & Field, 1990). According to Bass and Steidlmeier (1999), "transactional leadership involves contingent reinforcement" (p.18). Bass and Steidlmeier assumed that transactional leadership was dependent on continuous support. They suggested that leaders motivated followers by contingent rewards; this process allowed the leader to stimulate subordinates by offering rewards, praise, and compensation based on the work performed on an assignment (Seters & Field, 1990). According to Northouse (2010), transactional leadership focused "on the exchange that occurs between leader and follower" (p. 172), which referred only to extrinsic motivation.

Transformational theory. Transformational leadership theory was based on understandings of intrinsic motivation (Seters & Field, 1990). Transformational

leadership acknowledged that leaders who participate in transformational models incited their followers to pledge to outcomes that met and exceeded their expectations while encouraging them to reach their fullest potential (Bass & Steidmeier 1999; Northouse, 2010; Seters & Field 1990). According to Bass (1999), transformational leadership encompassed four components: charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. These components provided a model that can be implemented to aid the leader in order to effectively reach common goals shared between the leader and the followers. Northouse (2010) asserted, “transformational leadership is concerned with the process of how certain leaders are able to inspire followers to accomplish great things” (p. 200).

Application of theoretical frameworks. Race and ethnicity was not consistently considered in the leadership literature. Most leadership theories were derived from western hemisphere philosophies, offering only a White perspective into leadership (Ospina & Foldly, 2009). Whiteness as property was a central tenet of CRT and this tenet pointed out the function that allowed the omission of others. The omission of minorities in the leadership literature did not go without notice. Through the tenet of counter storytelling, the dissertation research gave voice to a marginalized group by focusing in on their leadership capacities and abilities.

Within the dissertation research, critical race theory and leadership theory intersected in order to add to the limited body of research that took race and ethnicity into account. Nonetheless, the critical issue remained that urban minority youth have not been represented in leadership studies with the result that there has not been a venue for displaying or including minority youth leadership capacity or experiences when

compared to non- minority youth (Kress, 2006). The social injustice created by the lack of research was evident throughout the literature. Thus, a critical race theory perspective can be used to argue there has been minimal treatment of the needs of minority youth in current leadership research.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of the quantitative study described in this dissertation was to determine the relationship and difference between minority youth leadership capacity as related to the following school and demographic factors: socio-economic status, gender, school attendance, achievement, and involvement in extra curriculum activities. The quantitative research was designed to use Spearman rank correlational and independent t-test to determine whether any relationships and differences existed between each of the six specific dependent variables.

Simultaneously the research study moved Hines' (2011) finding beyond the initial creation of the Youth Leadership Questionnaire (YLQ) to include testing that further validated and confirmed reliability of the instrument. In addition, the dissertation study expanded Hines (2011) research to ninth and tenth graders in a secondary school in Westchester County, NY. Doing so extended the YLQ's reliability and validity to an American population of secondary urban students, none of which had previously been included in Hines' (2011) research.

The dissertation research intended to gain a better understanding of minority youths' leadership capacity and its relationship to demographic and school factors that may or may not have had an effect on minority urban school students' leadership capabilities.

Research Questions

The following research questions and null hypotheses were developed:

1. Is there a difference between minority male ninth and tenth grade youth leadership scores and minority female ninth and tenth grade youth leadership scores?

Null Hypothesis (H01): There is no significant difference between minority male ninth and tenth grade urban students Youth Leadership Questionnaire Scores (YLQ) and the YLQ Scores of minority female ninth and tenth grade urban students.

2. Is there a difference between high achieving ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ scores and low achieving minority youth leadership scores?

Null Hypothesis (H02): There is no significant difference in high achieving ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ Scores and The YLQ Scores of low achieving minority ninth and tenth grade urban students.

3. Is there a significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who are enrolled in extracurricular activities and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade students who are not enrolled in extracurricular activities?

Null Hypothesis (H03): There is no significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who are enrolled in extracurricular activities YLQ Scores and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority

urban school students who are not enrolled in extracurricular activities/athletic activities.

4. Is there a difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban students who attend school on a regular basis YLQ scores and the YLQ scores of the ninth and tenth grade minority urban students who do not attend school on a regular basis?

Null Hypothesis (H04): There is no significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who attend school regularly YLQ Scores and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who do not attend school on regular basis.

5. Is there a significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority students YLQ scores who receive free or reduced lunch and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority students who do not receive free or reduced lunch?

Null Hypotheses (H05): There is no significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YQL Scores who receive free/reduce lunch and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who do not receive free or reduced lunch.

6. Is there a significant difference in ninth grade minority students YLQ Scores and tenth grade minority urban students YLQ Scores?

Null Hypotheses (H06): There is no significant difference in ninth grade minority urban school students YLQ Scores and the YLQ Scores of tenth grade minority urban school students.

7. What is the relationship between ninth and tenth grade male urban minority YLQ Scores and ninth and tenth grade female urban minority students?

Null Hypotheses (H07): There is no statistically significant relationship between ninth and tenth grade male urban minority school students YLQ Scores and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade female minority youth urban school students YLQ Scores.

8. What is the relationship between high achieving ninth and tenth grade urban minority students YLQ scores and the YLQ Scores of low achieving ninth and tenth urban minority students?

Null Hypotheses (H08): There is no statistically significant relationship between high achieving ninth and tenth grade urban minority school students YLQ scores and the YLQ Scores of low achieving ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students.

9. What is the relationship between ninth and tenth grade minority students who participate in extracurricular activities and sports YLQ Scores and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade students who do not participate in extracurricular activities or sports?

Null Hypotheses (H09): There is no statistically significant relationship between the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who participate in extracurricular activities and the YLQ Scores of the ninth and tenth grade minority urban youth school students who do not participate in extracurricular activities or sports.

10. What is the relationship between ninth and tenth minority youth urban students YLQ Scores who receive free or reduced lunch and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority youth urban students who do not receive free or reduced lunch?

Null Hypotheses (H10): There is no statistically significant relationship between the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who receive free or reduce lunch and the YLQ Scores of the ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who do not receive free or reduced lunch.

11. What is the relationship between ninth and tenth grade minority urban students YLQ Scores who attend school on a regular basis and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority students who do not attend school on a regular basis?

Null Hypotheses (H11): There is no statistically significant relationship between the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who attend school on a regular basis and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who do not attend school on a regular basis.

12. What is the relationship between ninth grade minority school students YLQ Scores and the YLQ Scores of tenth grade minority school students?

Null Hypotheses (H12): There is no statistically significant relationship between the YLQ Scores of ninth grade minority urban school students and the YLQ scores of tenth grade minority urban school students.

Potential Significance of the Study

Minority youth have been confronting two major leadership crises. The first of these crises was a lack of participation in organizational leadership structures. The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), a prominent organization within the African American community, has been an example of where the absence of minority youth has become evident. The article, “The Struggle for the Heart and Soul of the NAACP” (2007) clearly illustrated the lack of youth participation in NAACP organizational membership and eventual leadership:

One-half of the entire African American population is under the age of 32 and was born after the civil rights era. Without programs and practices to attract the new generations of African Americans, the NAACP will cease to be a significant force in the black community. (p. 21)

The second of the two crises was the lack of personal leadership exercised by minority youth, which in itself has become a major contributor to the growing conflicts influencing the minority community. Minority youth have been failing to recognize and demonstrate personal goal accomplishments, which has been severely handicapping the potential to succeed. Youth lack of potential was amply documented in both academic underachievement and destructive conduct (Day-Vines & Terriquez, 2008). In addition, Jenkins (2006) emphasized that minority “males are disproportionately represented among those students who are forced to withdraw, have low academic rates, have low academic performance and report negative college experiences” (p. 128). Along the same line, Edmondson (2009) raised the point that, “young black men are an at-risk group for failure in the United States” (p. 19).

Hughes, Newkirk, and Stenhjem (2010) argued that youth living in low socio economic communities have had a high tendency to experience unfavorable outcomes including incarceration and pessimism toward society. In addition, they stated that youth “feel little control over their already limited opportunities and the realities of persistent crime, drugs and other dangers” (p. 23). The chronic flagrant issues pointed out by Hughes et al. cry out for extensive research in the urban minority student community. Unfortunately, there were very few studies where the sample population was made up of minorities and were committed to understanding the leadership skills and capacity these individuals’ possess.

As evidenced by the previously cited literature, there has been an absence of personal and organizational leadership amongst minority youth. The dissertation study was significant because it addressed a population that has been overlooked in recent leadership development studies. Kress (2006) affirmed this finding by explaining successful youth organizations have been “elite driven, as they attract into leadership involved and achieving youth, who typically come from more educated and included groups and reflect only a small segment of the total youth population” (p. 53). Moreover, Kress highlighted that “income, race and gender influence who participates, and youth from low-income communities—rural or urban—are least likely to be offered consistent support” (p. 53). Hoyt and Kennedy (2008) concluded there were too few studies that included populations, mainly comprised of minorities in general and minority women in particular. Ultimately, these investigators affirmed that race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic background were unfortunately discounted in research (Hoyt & Kennedy, 2008; Kress, 2006). The leadership study described in the dissertation addressed social

economic status, gender, and race as critical variables contributing to leadership, demonstrating its unique contribution to the study of minority youth leadership.

There were two leadership studies especially relevant to the dissertation research: *Examining youth leadership through the development and validation a self-report measure: The youth leadership questionnaire* (Hindes, 2011), and *Leadership and adolescent girls: A qualitative study of leadership development* (Hoyt & Kennedy, 2008). However, neither addressed both minority male and female urban youth: the Hoyt and Kennedy (2008) study was limited to minority females. Furthermore, no studies were found that were both quantitative and exclusively dedicated to ninth and tenth grade male and female urban minority youth. Consequently, it was necessary to examine the few studies conducted on youth leadership and apply some of the findings and recommendations to the specific population for the dissertation study. In particular, the dissertation study was designed to use the Youth Leadership Questionnaire (YLQ) developed by Hindes (2011) as the foundation for data collection. As a result, the dissertation study expanded the body of leadership research to incorporate both minority males and females from an urban environment.

In that the study examined the perceptions of leadership amongst minority urban ninth and tenth grade high school students, the outcomes provided researchers, educators, and program administrators with the necessary data and recommendations to develop curriculum, programs, and services to fit the needs of minority youth attending schools in urban communities. Furthermore, Kress (2006) examined the disengagement that occurred among youth leadership education and the pressing needs of today's youth (2006). Kress stated, "to be effective, youth leadership efforts must focus on creating

environments in which youth matter” (p. 54). However, in order to create the new environments in which youth do matter, there was a need to acknowledge that many youth already possessed the skills that inform leadership. Additionally, since there was limited leadership training, there was a restricted understanding of how leadership influenced academic and daily life of minority youth (Hindes, 2011). Consequently, the dissertation study was both significant and promising as developed basic research expanding the limited knowledge of the relationship between school factors, social factors, and leadership. Not only did the dissertation study fill a void by exploring minority youth’s self-perception of their leadership capacity, but also it allowed practitioners to gauge youth leadership skills, which supports work on the development of those skills. Hindes’ (2011) research demonstrated an understanding of the urgency needed in developing an instrument that assessed youth leadership skills and performance. The dissertation study reinforced the urgency to use the YLQ to assess leadership skills. Furthermore, the dissertation research took Hindes’ valid and reliable instrument and used it as a metric to assess minority youth leadership capacity while also advancing Hindes’ research.

Definitions of Terms

Conceptual definition of youth leadership. A fundamental element of the dissertation study was to define the concept under investigation: youth leadership. Using the theories discussed in chapter one as a foundation, leadership was identified as a process, which exhibits influence in group work and reaches common goals in varied organizational structures, including school settings (Northouse, 2010). Leadership skills

were defined as including an “identifiable set of skills and abilities available to all of us” that can be learned and developed (Kouzes & Posner, 2007, p.23).

According to Hindes (2011) a conceptual model for youth leadership included an “individual’s skills and competencies, including self-efficacy and emotional intelligence” (p. 8). In addition Hindes pointed out, “it also illustrates how personal attributes, such as self-concept, can influence the skills, as well as indirectly impact performance as a leader” (p. 8). For the purposes of the dissertation study, youth leadership was operationally defined based on the results of the Youth Leadership Questionnaire developed by Hindes.

Youth Leadership Questionnaire (YLQ). An instrument that measured youth leadership and “encompasses domains and competencies” (Hindes, 2011, p. 13) such as self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and self-concept, “that have been shown to be both theoretically and empirically important to leadership” (Hindes, 2011, p. 13). For the purposes of the dissertation study, the YLQ was operationally defined by an 18-item questionnaire with a 7-point Likert type scale, ranging from never to always, as developed by Hindes (2011). The YLQ appears in Appendix A.

Self-efficacy. The “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). Furthermore, “self-efficacy affects students’ motivation and learning” process (Dinther, Dochy, & Segers, 2011, p. 96). For the purposes of the study, 6 out of the 18 statements (items 9, 11, 12 , 13, 14, and 16) in the YLQ operationally defined self-efficacy. For example, “I have my share of responsibilities in my family” (Hindes, 2010, p. 74).

Emotional intelligence. “The ability to monitor one’s and others’ feelings, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and action” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189). In addition, Salovey & Grewal (2005) indicated that the definition was broken down into four abilities: perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions (p. 281). For the purposes of the dissertation study, 6 out of the 18 statements (items 2, 7, 8, 10, 17, and 18) in the YLQ operationally defined emotional intelligence. For example, “I make an effort to effectively communicate with others” (Hindes, 2010, p. 74).

Self-concept. “Represents students’ perceptions of their competence, interest, and enjoyment of subjects in schools” (Ireson & Hallam, 2009, p.201). Furthermore, self-concept was defined as an individual’s knowledge and perceptions about themselves. For the purposes of the dissertation study, 6 out of the 18 statements (items 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 15) in the YLQ operationally defined self-concept. For example, “I am content with who I am” (Hindes, 2010, p.75).

Dependent variables. The set of dependent variables in the null hypotheses were operationally defined for the purpose of the dissertation study.

Academic achievement. For the purposes of the dissertation study academic achievement was operationally defined by four performance levels, which indicated a student’s performance on English Language Arts 8th grade exams (NYS SED).

High achieving youth. Level 4 and Level 3 performers, for the purposes of this study, were operationally defined by the term high achieving youth.

Under achieving youth. Level 2 and Level 1 performers, for the purposes of the dissertation study, were operationally defined by the term under achieving.

Level 4: Exceeds Proficiency Standard. “Student performance demonstrates a thorough understanding of the English language arts knowledge and skills expected at this grade level” (NYS SED, 2012).

Level 3: Meets Proficiency Standard. “Student performance demonstrates an understanding of the English language arts knowledge and skills expected at this grade level” (NYS SED, 2012).

Level 2: Meets Basic Standard. “Student performance demonstrates a partial understanding of the English language arts knowledge and skills expected at this grade level” (NYS SED, 2012).

Level 1: Below Standard. “Student performance does not demonstrate an understanding of English Language arts knowledge and skills expected at this grade level” (NYS SED, 2012).

Socio-economic status. For the purposes of the dissertation study, socio-economic status was operationally defined based on New York State Federal Income Guidelines. Children in households that met federal income guidelines were eligible for free or reduced-price meals in school (NYS SED, 2012).

Attendance. For the purposes of the dissertation study, attendance was operationally defined by the number of times a student attended school. Students who missed more than 20 days out of a 180-day school year were classified as students with poor attendance.

Extracurricular activities. For the purposes of the dissertation study, extracurricular activities was operationally defined as students who were participating in

a minimum of one after school provided program consisting of athletics, clubs, or other programs.

Chapter Summary

Critical race theory and leadership theory were the theoretical foundation of the dissertation research for two reasons. First, the focus on social justice through the lens of urban minority youth identified specific needs that the target population experienced in life, in general, and school in particular. Second, the identified deficiencies, which often led to academic/social failure and dropping out, required an additional lens to examine the capacity deficiencies of urban minority youth while still in school. It was the leadership (or lack thereof) lens that was a critical aspect of the research.

The methodology was based on quantitative research methods. The research used a self-report instrument, the Youth Leadership Questionnaire (YLQ), which measured urban minority youth self-perceptions of their leadership ability in grades 9 through 10.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

Introduction and Purpose

Minority youth have been faced with enormous amounts of social and personal factors that have contributed to their success or lack thereof in and out of school. With the concept of leadership being highly valued in research and organizations, the dissertation study was concerned with the leadership perceptions of urban minority youth attending public schools. Murphy and Johnson (2011) suggested that the youth leadership experience can affect both youth outcomes and success and create a foundation to build on for future leadership development. First, Murphy and Johnson stated, “development occurs more readily in childhood and adolescence than in adulthood” (p. 459). Second, they added, “one’s development to eventually become a leader is a self-reinforcing process” (p. 460). In sum, Murphy and Johnson argued that youth’s early experience with leadership can provide a solid base on which young leaders can continuously improve their opportunities to succeed.

At the time of the dissertation study, there was a lack of research on youth leadership development. In addition, there were even fewer studies on leadership development in minority groups. Murphy and Johnson (2011) suggested, “one reason for the lack of systematic study of leadership through a lifespan is that there are no theoretical models that incorporate these younger years” (p. 460). In addition, Ospina and Foldy (2009) claimed, “if society, communities and individuals are all significantly informed by race, then leadership must be as well” (p. 876). Since there was a lack of

research on leader development in youth, and there was evidence that suggested leadership and race needs to be evaluated, the literature review provided in this chapter served as an essential element to the dissertation study. The review of the literature provided insight into minority youth and their views on leadership.

Review of the Literature

This section includes an examination of the empirical work related to leadership development in youth, self-concept, self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and its importance to leadership, while also noting the relevant literature as it relates to gender.

Youth leadership development. Kosutic's (2010) research contributed to exploring the meaning of youth and leadership. Kosutic explained the processes used in the development of a self-report instrument to measure youth confidence in leading. Moreover, Kosutic's work built on defining youth through scholarly works including essays, books, dialogue, and articles. Kosutic retained a working definition for youth in relation to leadership. The definition stated, "youth are people who have limited opportunities to lead, engage in leadership, and occupy positions of influence within the broader social context." (p. 23). In the (2010) attempt to define youth leadership, Kosutic conceded, "there is no clear, understandable, commonly accepted definition of the concept" (p. 25). As a result, Kosutic concluded that, "adult leadership theories do not fit young people's lived experiences" (pp. 29-30).

In attempt to address the lived experiences of young people to gain an understanding of how leadership and youth connected, Kress (2006) examined the connection between youth leadership and youth development. Kress analytically delved into the concept of youth development and used Dewey's vision of learning theory,

Vygotsky's interactional nature of learning theory, and Bandura's social learning theory to establish a vision for youth development. Kress stated,

Youth development is designed to focus on the positive outcomes we desire for all young people, such as becoming economically self-sufficient, remaining mentally and physically healthy, developing caring and cooperative relationships, and becoming a responsible member of and contributor to the community. (p. 50)

Furthermore, Kress examined the disengagement that occurred between youth leadership education and the pressing needs of youth. Kress stated, "to be effective, youth leadership efforts must focus on creating environments in which youth matter" (p. 54). In other words, Kress suggested that youth leadership development endeavors did not necessarily assist in advancing the actual needs of youth. Kress argued that in order to effectively aid youth in the development of their leadership skills, researchers and practitioners must gain an understanding of youth needs and existing leadership capabilities. Furthermore, Kress's research was dedicated to bridging the gap between youth and leadership; Kress stressed the importance of providing settings that relate to youth in the 21st century that will enable them to build on the concept of leadership.

In efforts to understand youth leadership and its potential impact, MacNeil (2006) investigated four limitations that plagued youth leadership literature when compared to general leadership literature. First, MacNeil declared, "in much of the literature focused on leadership theory, leadership development, or leadership practice, youth are noticeably absent" (p. 29). Second, MacNeil emphasized that youth leadership focused on "ability" as opposed to "authority" which was the underlining concept of adult leadership (p. 31-32). Third, MacNeil indicated that the imbalance in youth leadership was due to how

youth have been perceived in society (p. 34). Finally, MacNeil asserted, “the literature that focuses on issues of diversity can help frame the relationships between youth and adults” (p. 34).

MacNeil (2006) pointed out major concepts that may impact the development of leaders in youth. According to MacNeil, the adage “kids today are our leaders tomorrow,” should be a significant reason why research needs to be extended across barriers to engage youth in not only building a foundation of leadership, but also in creating opportunities for youth to engage in leadership behaviors.

Contributing to the inquiry of youth and leadership, Klau’s (2006) research extended youth leadership literature to include an investigation into theory and practice. Klau used Heifetz’s (1994) adaptive leadership model to explore youth leadership programs and the teachings implemented therein. Klau stated, “Heifetz’s framework includes elements of theory and practice directly relevant to the work of youth leadership education” (p. 62). Furthermore, Klau’s research also indicated that many youth leadership programs did not address the needs of youth. Klau made the case that many programs

often depend, at best on implicit unexamined ideas about how young people develop leadership traits and what being a leader entails. At worst, youth leadership programs are described as an almost negative space into which practitioners project their own beliefs about what youth need. (p.60)

In spite of the concept that youth programs are based on adult beliefs and perceptions, Kress (2006) pointed out that successful youth organizations were “ elite driven, as they attract into leadership involved and achieving youth, who typically come

from more educated and included groups and reflect only a small segment of the total youth population” (p.53). Simultaneously Kress argued that programs should be significant to targeted audiences. Additionally, Kress emphasized that “income, race and gender influence who participates, and youth from low-income communities—rural or urban—are least likely to be offered consistent support” (p. 53).

Whereas some researchers examined youth leadership as a whole, its components and effectiveness, Hoyt and Kennedy’s (2008) research took on another dimension. Their research examined leadership and adolescent minority girls, including African American, Latina, and Asian females in low-income households. The researchers used a qualitative methodology to examine the changes that occurred in the girls’ perception of leadership as they participated in a feminist-based leadership program.

Hoyt and Kennedy (2008) stated, “[it is] complicated for adolescent girls of color, who may not ‘buy into’ traditional notions of white middle class femininity, who have to negotiate their identity in the face of racial, class, and gender discrimination” (p. 203). In addition, they argued, “few investigations have included samples largely comprised of young women of color from low income backgrounds” (p. 203). Furthermore, the researchers affirmed that race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic background were discounted in research. Hoyt and Kennedy’s research suggested that additional research was needed to explore youth leadership in various group affiliations with respect to race, ethnicity, and sexual orientation.

Although, Hoyt and Kennedy extended the research on youth leadership to include minority female youth perceptions, the research was not generalizable. The effort

of their research was restricted to a female population who were participants in a feminist based-leadership program. The study did not address a general population of youth.

Following a call for the investigation into female voices to be heard in youth leadership, McNae (2010) aimed to create an alternative approach to youth leadership. McNea (2010) utilized qualitative action research, with a sample size of 12 young women from a mid to high socio-economic background who attended an all-girls high school in New Zealand. The participants used a process of co-construction to design, evaluate, and modify a youth leadership program. The program and accompanying research occurred over a 12 month time frame within 8 phases.

McNae's (2010) findings indicated that co-construction was an intricate process; however, it was an operational method that was relevant and authentic in creating a leadership program that meets the needs of the female participants. McNae stated, "such involvement ensured that the leadership programme content and structure met their needs, increased student ownership of the learning process, and was relevant to the contexts that they showed leadership in" (p. 686). Furthermore, McNae implied that the research was not generalizable by stating, "if the research was to be repeated in another context or school, even, as illustrated with another group of students, the results could be different" (p. 686).

Murphy and Johnson (2011) approached leader development by focusing on early developmental factors of individuals throughout their adulthood by providing a conceptual model of youth leadership development. Their research argued for an investigation into the earliest phases in leadership development. They provided a "framework that explores the tasks of leadership at various ages before adulthood, the

skills required to accomplish these tasks, and the mechanism by which younger leaders develop these skills” (p. 459). Therefore, Murphy and Johnson put forward a model of leader development across a lifespan.

Murphy and Johnson (2011) began the model by first identifying “early developmental factors that shape leaders’ over time” (p. 460). They focused on genetics, temperament, gender, parenting styles, and early learning experiences. Second, they explored leader identity and self-regulation and concentrated on motivation to lead, self-efficacy, self-management, and coping styles. Finally, the model included “the outcomes of engagement in future leadership development and leadership effectiveness” (p. 461). They argued that the “model is broad enough to encompass all types of leadership” (p. 461). The researchers asserted, “a framework of leader development that delineates what is learned before one reaches adulthood can improve our understanding of leadership and leader development” (p. 469). Furthermore, they suggested that starting leadership development in the early stages of life, “can help us develop better leaders by beginning earlier in the developmental process” (p. 467).

Guerin, Oliver, Gottfried, Gottfried, Reichard, and Riggio, (2011) presented the first known study that examined developmental origins of leadership utilizing the Fullerton Longitudinal Study, which extended over a period of 10 years. The research sample was comprised of 106 participants, 54% male, 46% female and 90% European-American. The researchers did not mention the ethnicity of the remaining 10% of participants. The participants were involved from age 2 until 29. Guerin et al. investigated the impact an adolescent’s extraversion personality and intelligence had on

leadership potential and adulthood social skills through leadership self-report survey instruments.

Guerin et al. (2011) found that adolescents who were extraverts, in which they displayed outwards expressions of enthusiasm, assertiveness, pleasure in human interaction, and pleasure from participating in groups tended to have a positive influence on adulthood leadership capabilities. The researchers stated, “individual differences in extraversion during adolescence predict leadership potential over a decade later in adulthood” (p. 491). Subsequently, the data showed that adolescents who had the tendency of being more cheerful, social, and assertive, by the time they reached the age of 29, exhibited leadership in roles of employment and possessed leadership qualities of a transformational leader (Guerin et al., 2011). Guerin et al. claimed, “social skills fully mediated the relation between extraversion and leadership potential” (p. 491).

In addition, Guerin, et al. (2011) found no direct impact on IQ and leadership in the above-mentioned longitudinal study, therefore noting, data from the FLS did not fit this model. They further stated, “both a variable approach and a pattern approach to examine the joint effects of IQ and extraversion in adolescence failed to provide evidence of their joint operation with respect to adult leadership potential” (p.492).

In conclusion, Guerin et al. (2011) confirmed Murphy and Johnson’s (2011) assertion there were many influences consisting of interpersonal and temperamental aspects that defined the passage taken by an individual that enabled them to be a leader or follower. However, it cannot be assumed that Guerin et al.’s results were consistent with individuals whose racial ethnicity was not European American, since they were noticeably absent in the sample population.

The dissertation study utilized the YLQ (Hindes, 2010). In that the YLQ was an important factor in the dissertation study, it became important to review Hindes's (2010) research and processes that supported the creation of the YLQ. First, Hindes established the fields associated with youth leadership and included them in the YLQ. Second, Hindes confirmed that the three-factor model (self-concept, self-efficacy, and emotional intelligence) contained the acceptable skills, qualities, and characteristics important to leadership. Finally, Hindes authenticated the YLQ through construct validity.

The conceptual model for youth leadership, as used by Hindes (2011) showed individual skills and competencies, including self-efficacy and emotional intelligence, directly affected leadership outcomes. In addition, individual attributes such as self-concept directly influenced skills and competencies, and had a direct effect on leadership capabilities and outcomes (Hindes, 2011). Furthermore, leadership outcomes, such as skill development and performance were shaped and defined by environmental and developmental factors (Hindes, 2011).

Theoretical and research literature has continually shown self-concept, emotional intelligence, and self-efficacy as individual skills and abilities that influence leadership abilities and performance (Bandura, 1997; Hindes, Thorne, Schwean, & McKeough, 2008, 2010; Northouse, 2010). Self-concept had a positive impact on leadership along with leadership capabilities being a positive contributor to standards, necessities, and goals of youth (Northouse, 2010). In addition, there were strong associations among self-efficacy, accomplishments, and positive organizational performances (Bandura, 1997; Hindes, 2011). Furthermore, research asserted that the belief in one's capabilities to accomplish goals while having the resources to do so, contributed to leadership capacities

(Maurer, 2001). Moreover, studies have shown connections between emotional intelligence, emotional regulation, life satisfaction, and leadership (Charboneau & Nicol, 2002; Hindes et al., 2008; Lyons & Schneider, 2005). The aforementioned studies established that the ability to manage emotions was related to leadership. The domains of self-concept, self-efficacy, and self-concept were the skills measured in the YLQ.

The construction of the YLQ was a multi-step procedure based on experiential data and theoretical knowledge. The development entailed a literature review, a pilot study, statistical analyses consisting of factor analysis, correlations, and deletions on the items, and item revisions including re-wording, additions, and omissions (Hindes, 2010). As a result of the process, the YLQ was refined and evaluated for reliability and validity (Hindes, 2010). The remainder of the literature review addresses research in the three YLQ leadership domains: emotional intelligence, self-concept, and emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence was determined to be essential in everyday life. Research demonstrated emotional intelligence was important component of the leadership equation, and had a positive impact on performance such as success in work and school settings (Charboneau & Nicol, 2002, Lyons & Schneider, 2005).

Emotional intelligence manifests in order to accurately interpret and manage emotions and feelings within self in addition to being able to perceive another's emotions (Mayer & Belz, 1998). Emotional intelligence was defined as the "ability to monitor and regulate one's own feelings, to differentiate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189). In addition, Salovey

and Grewal (2005) indicated that the definition of emotional intelligence was later parsed into four abilities: perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions.

Salovey and Grewal (2005) identified the first component of emotional intelligence as perceiving emotions, also known as emotional perception (EP). Perceiving emotion was defined as the ability to identify emotions through verbal and nonverbal communications (eg. faces, pictures, and voices). In addition, emotional perception provided the individual with the dexterity to precisely grasp emotions and articulate those emotions to an audience (Lyons & Schneider, 2005). Salovey and Grewal stated, “perceiving emotions may represent the most basic aspect of emotional intelligence, as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible” (p. 281). The second component of emotional intelligence was using emotions, an action commonly referred to as facilitating cognition (FC). Using emotions was defined as the ability to decipher emotions to facilitate problem solving and critical thinking (Salovey & Grewal, 2005). Facilitating cognition “involves using and generating emotions to assist cognitive processes” (Lyons & Schneider, 2005, p. 694). The third component was understanding emotion defined as “the ability to comprehend emotion language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions” (Salovey & Grewal, 2005, p. 281). Understanding emotion was referred to as emotional understanding (EU). EU was used to diagnose emotions and presented a transparent method of how emotions were formed and fused while understanding the roots of the emotions and possible repercussions (Lyons & Schneider, 2005). Having the ability to understand emotions was understood to give the individual an opportunity to identify emotions. The fourth component was managing emotions, which was defined as “the ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and

others” (Salovey & Grewal, 2005, p. 282). Managing emotions was known as emotional management (EM), Lyons and Schneider (2005) stated that EM “involves maintaining and altering emotions in the self and others (enhancing positive or reducing negative emotions as needed)” (p. 694). Emotional intelligence was deemed important because, “[an] emotionally intelligent person can capitalize fully upon his or her changing moods in order to best fit the task at hand” (Salovey & Grewal, 2005, p. 281).

Self-concept. Self-concept was conceptualized as a multidimensional construct referring to individual perceptions of self in regards to a number of characteristics. These characteristics included academics, gender roles, race, and sexuality (Bong & Clark, 1999; Ireson & Hallam, 2009). Self-concept also referred to students’ personal insights into their awareness about themselves in relation to their own competence, interest, and enjoyment in school and social settings (Ireson & Hallam, 2009). Self-esteem was a term used to substitute for self-concept; however, self-esteem was mismatched considering self-esteem was understood to be interconnected to an individual’s self-worth. According to Ireson and Hallam (2009), “conceptually self-esteem is closely related to self-worth, so people with high self-esteem see themselves as having worth, whereas people of low self-esteem may be dissatisfied with themselves” (p. 201). Conversely, self-concept has been identified as having other characteristics that contributed to its make-up, such as social, emotional, academic, and physical constructs, all of which enrich general self-concept (Ireson & Hallam, 2009).

Self-concept was commonly viewed as a product of social interactions, and has been expressed as a mental perception of the individual’s treatment of oneself (Ybrant, 2008). An example of self-concept was “I like myself very much and welcome and enjoy

opportunities to be by myself, I accuse and blame myself, make myself feel bad, guilty , ashamed, unworthy” (Ybrandt, 2008, p. 2). The literature indicated that self-concept is a relative concept that individuals use to evaluate themselves in either a positive or a negative light. In addition, Ybrandt (2008) asserted, “self-concept is very important for mental and positive development in adolescence” (p. 11).

Self-concept can be captured in three dimensions: cognitive, social, and physical (such as appearance and body) (Harter, 1999). Cognitive self-concept referred to school and academic performance, and also was known as academic self-concept and was related to achievement in secondary education (Ireson & Hallam, 2009). Social self-concept was based on the interaction that takes place between peers and friendships. Physical self-concept related to participation in sports and athletic abilities (Harter, 1999). Self-concept played an intricate role in an individual’s development. Self-concept affected a person’s relationships, their ability to perform in different functions and roles, and how an individual views oneself.

Ireson and Hallam (2009) investigated the ramifications that ability grouping had on students’ academic self-concept and general self-concept in European schools. Ability grouping was defined as structured grouping patterns that vary in different schools and countries. For example, U.S. high school students were assigned to different paths that influenced the courses they took (Ireson & Hallam 2009).

Ireson and Hallam (2009) found that ability grouping in schools as a whole had a direct impact on students’ academic self-concept; however, ability grouping did not affect a students’ self-concept. Their findings also revealed that self-concept was positive in students in schools who had experienced less ability grouping (Ireson & Hallam, 2009).

In addition, the researchers found that students' self-concept was affected by their achievement and that gender differences were evident. The male students possessed a more positive self-concept in math and science whereas female students displayed a more positive self-concept in English. Socio-economic status did not appear to have an impact on students' self-concept (Ireson & Hallam, 2009).

Ireson and Hallam (2009) reported that low academic self-concept consequently led to students retaining an adverse conation in relation to future learning. In other words, students who had a positive academic self-concept had a tendency to look forward to future learning; students who had a low self-concept found future learning unfavorable. Moreover, the researchers' stated that ample attention was allotted to raising the achievement level among young people, but little interest was placed on cultivating moral aspects among the youth. Furthermore, the researchers asserted, "the importance of these aspects of learning should not be overlooked as they not only impinge on individual lives but also the future prosperity of the nation" (Ireson & Hallam, 2009, p. 211). In the end, "a valuable contribution can be made to adolescent well-being by promoting self-concept in the different psychosocial contexts of adolescents" (Ybrant, 2008, p.13).

Self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as one's belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situations. In addition, Bandura (1997) assumed that self-efficacy affected the decision a person made, their individual ways of acting, the effort they exerted in order to accomplish a task or goal, and their ability to push forward. According to Bandura, self-efficacy also influenced one thoughts and feelings. Individuals with little to no self-efficacy were inclined to think a task was difficult and did not believe that they

could complete the task. Individuals with a high sense of self-efficacy took pleasure in working towards completing tasks or goals (Dinther et al., 2011).

According to Bandura (1997), accomplishing task and goals linked to a feeling of success created a sense of self-efficacy. When individuals were faced with more failures than successes, a person's self-efficacy was lowered (Bandura, 1997; Dinther et al. 2011). To the degree a person perceived and understood the results of an activity or task, they developed beliefs about their performance on those activities and tasks. Dinther et al. stated, "Interpreted results on one's performances create a sense of self-efficacy" (2011, p. 97). Overall, self-efficacy has been considered an important contributing factor to development.

Gender differences. Gender differences in leadership have been studied extensively, in particular adults and their leadership roles' in organizations. However, gender differences in leadership were not as well researched when pertaining to young children or adolescents (Mawson, 2010). While leadership and gender have been researched and amply documented throughout the leadership literature, a consensus, within the literature, was that women have more difficulty than men when working toward leadership roles and positions (Northouse, 2010). When considering differences in leadership styles and behaviors between men and women, there was neither a joint decision nor consensus (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). This section contains a review of the literature related to young people and gender differences in leadership, along with the findings on gender and leadership as related to differences present between men and women.

Mawson (2010) concluded that there was a paucity of leadership literature with respect to children, in particular, children's gender differences. Mawson's research added to the body of literature by examining whether gender and leadership had an active role in children's play between 3 and 4 years of age. Mawson (2010) indicated noticeable gender differences existed within the children's leadership style. Mawson used the term *dictator* to describe the role boys took on. Dictator was one of the two roles the boys habitually filled, as they became more domineering and less likely to develop conflict resolution skills. The role of dictator was displayed during the time when only boys were playing together. The second of the two roles was what Mawson called the *director*, which the girls typically filled. In the director role, the girls were able to resolve conflicts through compromise and collaboration and typically acted or displayed a democratic leadership approach. The director characteristics were observed when girls played within girls' only groups. In a mixed-group setting, which consisted of girls and boys, the boys had the opportunity to "experience leadership roles and styles that were not often available to them in boys-only play" (Mawson, 2010, p.122). The different leadership styles allowed the boys the opportunity to talk through the prevailing issues and become more social. Mawson's research revealed that mixed-gender play had a positive effect on boys' leadership style and abilities. According to Mawson, the positive effect that mixed gender play had on males allowed the boys to enter into an environment that enabled them to practice and develop social skills important to leadership.

Perry and Vance (2010) explored the gender differences present in minority adolescents' visualization of their educational and career attainment. One gender difference, which was present among minority adolescents, occurred in occupational

prestige. Occupational prestige was defined as the status to which an individual wants to be recognized for based on job position. Occupational prestige was associated with careers as such as lawyers, doctors, and or politicians. According to Perry and Vance (2010), the men in their study did not expect a prestigious career as opposed to the women who anticipated and expected a prestigious career in the future (2010). In addition, women wanted and expected careers that were traditionally deemed as masculine, such as in the fields of health, business, and law (2010). Both minority boys and girls in the Perry and Vance study commonly feared obtaining less prestigious careers such as janitors and foodservice workers.

Self-concept and self-esteem were interconnected with leadership because leaders must hold relatively high self-esteem in order to advance in leadership or fill leadership positions (Li, Arvey, & Song, 2011). Jackson, Yong, Witt, Fitzgerald, Eye, and Harold (2009) conducted a study involving preadolescents to determine whether gender and socio-economic status affected self-concept and self-esteem. The researchers viewed self-concept in multiple dimensions, such as academic, social, physical, athletic, and behavioral self-concept. Based on their results, Jackson et al. argued that adolescents from affluent homes possessed higher self-concept than those from less privileged environments (2011). Nevertheless, the research did provide insight into how household status has the ability to promote self-concept. In addition, Jackson et al. (2009) indicated that young men held a higher self-concept in the dimensions of appearance and athletics, while young women's self-concept in academics and behavior was relatively higher. According to Jackson et al., (2009) the results differed from previous research studies that specified young men had a higher self-concept than their counterparts.

Interestingly, the adult research on gender assessed the relationship between self-esteem, self-concept, and socioeconomic status and leadership differently. Lopez, Retamero, and Martos (2012), assessed the relationship between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence from a gender approach. In the Lopez et al. study, men scored lower than women in transactional and predictive transactional leadership. In addition, the higher scores in transformational leadership revealed a positive relationship that existed with contingent reward. Furthermore, the research showed that there was no significant difference between men's and women's emotional attention. However, the results verified that transformational leadership indicators were emotional clarity, emotional repair, and femininity.

The time and attention paid to gender in leadership throughout the literature included topics devoted to leadership styles and organizational positions. A study conducted by Li et al., (2011) put an interesting twist on the information contributing to leadership and gender. The researchers examined the impact that mental ability, self-esteem, and family socioeconomic status had on leader advancement. The authors argued that men and women, who have high self-esteem, experienced a positive impact on the leadership track. However, Li et al. (2011) found that socioeconomic status had an undesirable effect on the advancement of women seeking leadership roles, but not for men. This was true for female leaders from affluent families who were "more likely to derail on the leadership track than those from low-class families" (p. 530). Li et al. also found that mental ability had no impact on leadership role occupancy. The authors suggested that leadership advancement and role occupancy were influenced by self-esteem and socioeconomic status.

Gender differences in leadership have been well researched when related to adults. Groves (2005) investigated the relationship gender differences have on emotional and social skills, and charismatic leadership. Groves's sample population included 433 people in various occupations in organizations made up of not-for-profits, profits, and government agencies. Of the study participants, 108 out of the 433 were senior leaders of the organizations, and the remaining 325 were their employees or direct followers within the organizations. Groves found that female leaders were more likely to display charismatic leadership than male leaders. In addition, the female leaders were able to empathize with other employees' needs and feelings, which enabled the leaders to influence their colleagues because of the initial support that maintained and increased mutual respect and liking. Furthermore, Groves (2005) indicated that female leaders were more advanced in social and emotional competencies than their male counterparts. Thus, gender has a strong relationship to social skills, in particular those that influence charismatic leadership (Groves, 2005).

Lips and Kenner (2007) researched the effects gender and dominance had on the emergent leader when incentives were used to heighten achievement. They claimed that an incentive program could strongly affect the high-dominant women to come forward as task leaders when matched with low-dominant men. However, their research also indicated that if there was no incentive, men were more likely to emerge as leaders than women. Lips and Kenner's research reported that there was no significant difference in gender differences when emerging as a leader without an incentive based condition. Subsequently, the researchers argued that an incentive could drive leadership emergence respectively between men and women.

Herrera, Ducan, Green, and Skaggs (2012) explored the impact that gender had on leadership. They found that gender was an independent variable and that relationships existed between participative leadership and self-protective leadership. However, their research concluded that gender did not matter when practicing charismatic, team-orientated, and autonomous leadership styles. Herrera et al. (2012) argued that females gravitated toward participative leadership, and men were more likely to use self-protective leadership.

Nevertheless, research demonstrated that women experienced small disadvantages in leadership roles that were considered traditional masculine positions (Northouse, 2010). However, when performing in roles that are considered feminine, the women experienced some advantages (Northouse, 2010). Northouse (2010) affirmed, that women displayed and favored a democratic approach as compared to men. In addition, Northouse stated that women “are more likely to use transformational leadership behaviors and contingent reward, styles that are associated with contemporary notions of effective leadership” (p. 304).

Eagly and Carli (2007) discussed women’s experiences when working towards leadership roles in the workforce. The authors described the experience in which women encounter during their professional uphill climb as a labyrinth. The labyrinth included the barriers that keep women from reaching top leadership positions (Eagly & Carli, 2007). The findings by Eagly and Carli revealed how women still have been likely to have experiences with workforce prejudices, which included lower wages and slower promotions. According to Eagly and Carli (2007), variables that included marriage and

parenthood affected men and women alike; however, men were more likely to get paid a higher compensation for the same work performed.

When seeking to understand the labyrinth faced by women, it was important to examine the three components that directly affected the labyrinth experience (Eagly and Carli, 2007). The first of the three components was human capital investment; concept of the human capital investment includes the suggestion that men were more invested in work experience, educational attainment, and training and development than women (Northouse, 2010; Eagly & Carli, 2007). This suggested that men have sought to further educate themselves, stay on the job longer, and take advantage of more training and development opportunities when compared to women (Northouse, 2010).

The second of the three components was gender differences; the concept of gender differences suggested, “that women are just different from men” (Northouse, 2010, p.309). According to Northouse (2010), gender differences were supposedly found in leadership style and effectiveness, “commitment to employment and motivation to lead” (p.309), ability to self-promote their accomplishments, and ability to negotiate deals. However, according to Northouse, “women are no less effective at leadership roles than men” (p. 310). Furthermore, Northouse indicated, “research shows a few small differences in traits associated with effective leadership, although these differences equally advantage women and men” (p. 310).

The third component was prejudice (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Northouse, 2010). The idea of prejudice in the labyrinth clarified the role gender stereotypes. According to these researchers, stereotypes included beliefs such as women are better at taking care of the household while men are more business oriented. Biased perceptions and judgments

formed against women brought forth prejudice because of initial stereotypes (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Northouse, 2010). In conclusion, thoughts that women were more vulnerable than men because of preconceived thoughts illustrated that women have been considered more nurturing and sympathetic than men (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Northouse, 2010). These gender stereotypes “can significantly alter the perception and evaluation of female leaders and directly affect women in or aspiring to leadership roles” (Northouse, 2010, p. 312).

In sum, gender differences have been examined throughout the leadership literature. However, there was no unifying thought that confirmed that gender differences were an issue in leadership. Men and women may have utilized different leadership styles; however, women have been present in leadership roles in organizations and are climbing the educational ladder. Gender issues should not be ignored; instead gender issues should be studied and documented to bring insight to the challenges that may exist due to gender, in particular youth leadership.

Chapter Summary

Although, chapter two did not contain an exhaustive compilation of research articles, journals and studies concerning all the elements explored within the dissertation it served as a beginning towards the end. Despite the limitations of the chapter, it demonstrated the dearth of youth leadership studies in general and the lack of scholarly analysis of leadership capacity among minority youth. The chapter also included a review of the processes involved with the creation of the YLQ and an explanation of the YLQ three domains, which are central to the dissertation research.

Evidence from the extant literature supported the argument that the sustained and systematic failure to examine youth leadership has weakened educational opportunity and career outcomes among ethnic and demographic groups compared to those who live in wealthier income environments and school systems that have richer academic and extracurricular programs.

Chapter 3: Research Design Methodology

Based on the review of the literature, it was concluded that no quantitative study has been conducted that examined minority youth perceptions of their leadership capacity utilizing the Youth Leadership Questionnaire (YLQ). Although Murphy and Johnson (2010) investigated youth leadership development across a lifespan to include social and environmental influences that affected an adolescent's leadership skill development, European Americans dominated the sample population. Thus, in order to examine whether there was any relationship or difference between minority youth's leadership capacity and select demographic and school factors, the following null hypotheses were generated to test the following demographic factors: student academic achievement, gender, pupil attendance, and participation in extracurricular activity variables. Twelve research questions guided the dissertation study.

Research Questions

1. Is there a difference between minority male ninth and tenth grade youth leadership scores and minority female ninth and tenth grade youth leadership scores?

Null Hypothesis (H01): There is no significant difference between minority male ninth and tenth grade urban students Youth Leadership Questionnaire Scores (YLQ) and the YLQ Scores of minority female ninth and tenth grade urban students.

2. Is there a difference between high achieving ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ scores and low achieving minority youth leadership scores?

Null Hypothesis (H02): There is no significant difference in high achieving ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ Scores and The YLQ Scores of low achieving minority ninth and tenth grade urban students.

3. Is there a significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who are enrolled in extracurricular activities and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade students who are not enrolled in extracurricular activities?

Null Hypothesis (H03): There is no significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who are enrolled in extracurricular activities YLQ Scores and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who are not enrolled in extracurricular activities/athletic activities.

4. Is there a difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban students who attend school on a regular basis YLQ scores and the YLQ scores of the ninth and tenth grade minority urban students who do not attend school on a regular basis?

Null Hypothesis (H04): There is no significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who attend school regularly YLQ Scores and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who do not attend school on regular basis.

5. Is there a significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority students YLQ scores who receive free or reduced lunch and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority students who do not receive free or reduced lunch?

Null Hypotheses (H05): There is no significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YQL Scores who receive free/reduce lunch and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who do not receive free or reduced lunch.

6. Is there a significant difference in ninth grade minority students YLQ Scores and tenth grade minority urban students YLQ Scores?

Null Hypotheses (H06): There is no significant difference in ninth grade minority urban school students YLQ Scores and the YLQ Scores of tenth grade minority urban school students.

7. What is the relationship between ninth and tenth grade male urban minority YLQ Scores and ninth and tenth grade female urban minority students?

Null Hypotheses (H07): There is no statistically significant relationship between ninth and tenth grade male urban minority school students YLQ Scores and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade female minority youth urban school students YLQ Scores.

8. What is the relationship between high achieving ninth and tenth grade urban minority students YLQ scores and the YLQ Scores of low achieving ninth and tenth urban minority students?

Null Hypotheses (H08): There is no statistically significant relationship between high achieving ninth and tenth grade urban minority school students

YLQ scores and the YLQ Scores of low achieving ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students.

9. What is the relationship between ninth and tenth grade minority students who participate in extracurricular activities and sports YLQ Scores and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade students who do not participate in extracurricular activities or sports?

Null Hypotheses (H09): There is no statistically significant relationship between the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who participate in extracurricular activities and the YLQ Scores of the ninth and tenth grade minority urban youth school students who do not participate in extracurricular activities or sports.

10. What is the relationship between ninth and tenth minority youth urban students YLQ Scores who receive free or reduced lunch and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority youth urban students who do not receive free or reduced lunch?

Null Hypotheses (H10): There is no statistically significant relationship between the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who receive free or reduce lunch and the YLQ Scores of the ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who do not receive free or reduced lunch.

11. What is the relationship between ninth and tenth grade minority urban students YLQ Scores who attend school on a regular basis and the YLQ

Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority students who do not attend school on a regular basis?

Null Hypotheses (H11): There is no statistically significant relationship between the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who attend school on a regular basis and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who do not attend school on a regular basis.

12. What is the relationship between ninth grade minority school students YLQ Scores and the YLQ Scores of tenth grade minority school students?

Null Hypotheses (H12): There is no statistically significant relationship between the YLQ Scores of ninth grade minority urban school students and the YLQ scores of tenth grade minority urban school students.

The dissertation study was novel in three distinct ways: First, it investigated the perception of minority youths' self-perception of their leadership capacity; second, the study expanded the use of the Youth Leadership Questionnaire (YLQ) to include both secondary and urban minority youth; finally, the dissertation study selected critical success factors to measure as it related to leadership.

Research Context

The study was conducted in an urban high school in lower Westchester County. According to the New York State Report Card (2011) the high school had 1,475 students enrolled in grades 9 through 12, of which 80% of the student population was Black or African American, 14% was Hispanic or Latino, 5% was White or Caucasian and 1%

was Asian or Native Hawaiian. Fifty-eight percent of the students were eligible for free lunch and 9% of the students were eligible for reduced price lunch.

This study explored the relationship between the Youth Leadership Questionnaire scores of minority students in ninth and tenth grade and various dependent variables; in this case, it is equally important to mention other descriptors such as achievement level. According to the NY State School Report Card (2012), 485 students were tested in Regents Comprehensive English, of which 72 % of the students scored at or above 65%; and 9 % of the students scored at or above 85%.

Research Participants

The sample population included the ninth and tenth grades, registered for the spring 2013 semester, which is a total of 707 students, 355 students in the ninth grade and 352 students in the tenth grade. A formal letter was sent out to all pupils' families in the ninth and tenth grade seeking parental consent for their child/children to participate in this study. The total number of participants in this study was 415 pupils; the total number of participants used in the data analyses was a total of 322. 83% of the sample population was African American or Black, 16% of the sample population was Hispanic and 1% of the sample population was Asian. There was no compensation for participating in the study, and students were able to choose not to participate in the study.

Data Collection Instrument

The research design included the use of the Youth Leadership Questionnaire (YLQ) (Hindes, 2011). The questionnaire consisted of 18 questions and had three domains: self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and self-concept. Items 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 16 referred to self-efficacy. Items 2, 7, 8, 10, 17, and 18 referred to emotional

intelligence. Items 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 15 referred to self-concept (Appendix A). Each of the domains was represented by 6 out of the 18 questions. The questionnaire was based on a 7-point Likert Scale ranging from “always” which was the highest score of 7, to “never” representing 1, the lowest score. The highest composite score an individual could achieve on the YLQ was a 126 (7 x 18 items), and the lowest score that could be achieved was 18 (1 x 18 items) (Hindes, 2011). In addition, each domain score was represented by a total number of no more than 42 (7x 6 items) and no less than 6 (1 x 6 items).

The ninth and tenth grade counselors distributed the questionnaire in ninth grade English and tenth grade English classes. The questionnaire took approximately 7-10 minutes to complete. The survey was coded with a student number to maintain pupil confidentiality. After the student completed the questionnaire, the counselor placed all completed questionnaires into a manila envelope, and then delivered the completed surveys to the school principal. The information was then collected from the principal for analysis by the researcher. All raw data was stored in a locked safe, and the raw data will be destroyed after 3 years.

Validity. The test construction of the YLQ was a multi-step procedure based on experiential data and theoretical knowledge. The development of the YLQ entailed a literature review, a pilot study, statistical analyses consisting of factor analysis, correlations, and deletions of items, and item revisions including re-wording, additions, and omissions (Hindes, 2011). As a result of this process the YLQ, was further refined and evaluated for reliability and validity (Hindes, 2011)

The test construction of the YLQ began with the identification, description, and operationalization of the term youth leadership (Hindes, 2011). The conception of youth

leadership emerged from a thorough review in the literature conducted by Hinde (2011), and Hinde directly connected the YLQ to the leadership domains of emotional intelligence, self-concept, and emotional intelligence. The review of literature provided construct validity and the rationale to support the significance in developing a survey instrument to measure youth leadership (Hinde, 2011).

Once Hinde (2011) determined the purpose of the test, she chose a scaling method and constructed the items in the YLQ. A Likert Scale was used to measure the occurrence and degree of leadership skills and abilities in respondents (Hinde, 2011). The seven-point scale with a midway point was selected to offer respondents a choice based on their skill level (low, intermediate, and high) and to reduce biases by allowing more options to better fit the individual (Hinde, 2010; Tull & Hawkins, 1993). For the purposes of item development and selection of the YLQ, Hinde used both factor analysis and correlations on the items included in the survey instrument (Hinde, 2011).

Hinde (2011) conducted a pilot study utilizing 67 participants to examine and validate scale performance. Factor analysis and correlations along with frequency and means analysis were used to determine insight into the respondents' patterns of responses to the items on the YQL. In addition, Hinde (2011) was assisted by fellow professors to find poorly written and awkwardly worded items in evaluating the items of YLQ. Factor analysis and correlations were performed to distinguish the relationships among the items in the YLQ (Hinde, 2011). Based on the analysis and feedback from professors, Hinde made revised the questionnaire. Specifically, 12 items were revised to improve clarity; 13 items were deleted because they did not relate to leadership; and 13 items of better quality and stronger relationship to leadership were added. The final version of the YLQ

yielded 18 items, divided equally into three domains of self-concept, emotional intelligence and self-efficacy (Appendix A).

Test validation was conducted utilizing 694 Canadian students in grades 10, 11, 12, and college undergraduate students. The test took approximately 10 minutes to complete. The test was taken at four different times in order to establish test/retest validity. According to Hinds (2011), the first test was administered at the start of the Teen Leadership Breakthrough Program (TLB); the second test followed after youth participated in TLB; the third test occurred six-weeks after completing TLB; and, the last test was given six-months after TLB program. For the purposes of reliability and construct validity for the questionnaire, Hinds (2011) used data from the initial pre-test, and two subsequent post-tests as well as similar data from a control group to evaluate the YLQ's reliability and construct validity. Coefficient Alpha analysis and test-retest techniques were used to measure reliability. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were computed to gauge the fit of the YLQ, along with examining the degree of construct validity (Hinds, 2011). Construct validity, was further validated through correlations of students' scores on the YLQ and two other valid tests.

Although Hinds' (2011) work showed the steps taken to provide evidence that the YLQ was a valid instrument for research, for the purposes of the dissertation study, the instrument was further validated through a panel of experts. The panel of experts consisted of three individuals who had substantial experience in secondary school systems. Two were superintendents of schools with earned doctorates and one was a high school principal of a school in lower Westchester County, New York. The principal was

enrolled in a doctoral research program. These experts reviewed the 18-item questionnaire, all confirmed that the instrument demonstrated face validity, and all established that the 18 items presented in the YLQ fulfilled the criteria for content validity. The presence of content validity assured that the instrument could thoroughly measure and assess the skills it was intended to measure (Fink, 2003); the panel of experts supported the work of the dissertation research and confirmed the instrument was an acceptable measure to assess skills and to use with a different population from the one it was originally designed for. The additional validation of the instrument was essential in this study because the YLQ was being used with a sample population consisting of ninth and tenth grade minority students in urban high schools.

Reliability. Reliability of an instrument was crucial in item creation and use. Reliability provided “freedom from measurement error” (Vogt, 2005, p. 274). Hindses’ (2011) preliminary testing and analyses of psychometric properties of the YLQ demonstrated it to be reliable and valid. In addition, reliability analyses proposed the YLQ was constant, internally and temporally. The exploratory factor analysis in LISREL 8.80 used the YLQ item’s raw data to estimate parameters. “The root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) equaled .067, the comparative fit index (CFI) equaled .98, the Tucker-Lewis Index/Non-normed fit index (NNFI) equaled .98, and the goodness of fit index (GFI) equaled .87, which subsequently validated the fit of the model was adequate” (Hindses, 2011, p. 43). Hindses also noted, “the CFA in LISREL 8.80 used the raw data to estimate parameters” (p. 43). The RMSEA equaled .07, the CFI equaled .97, the NNFI equaled .97, and the GFI equaled .86 indicating that fit of the model was adequate (Hindses, 2011).

The YLQ full scales and subscales demonstrated satisfactory reliability. In addition, reliability analyses proposed the YLQ had a good level of internal consistency. CFA confirmed the three-factor model consisting of the domains of self-concept, emotional intelligence, and self-efficacy was proposed for EFA (Hindes, 2011). The findings indicated the YLQ was adequate based on the data. Furthermore, the YLQ yielded positive results.

The YLQ full scales and subscales reported satisfactory reliability, with a coefficient alpha of .95, and with mean inter-item correlations ranging from .31 to .67 (Hindes, 2011). In addition, reliability analyses proposed the YLQ manifested a good level of internal consistency. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) confirmed the three-factor model consisting of the domains of self-concept, emotional intelligence, and self-efficacy was proposed for exploratory factor analysis (EFA) (Hindes, 2011). The findings indicated the YLQ was adequate based on the data.

To insure the reliability of the YLQ, prior to embarking on the full-scale research project, a preliminary small-scale pilot study was implemented. The pilot study, which included 132 (62 males and 70 females) participants in the eleventh grade, was conducted at a high school in lower Westchester County. Although the pilot's sample size was smaller than Hindes' (2011) initial sample size, the YLQ subscales continued to demonstrate acceptable reliability and internal consistency. Based on the average of the correlations between each item and the total score a coefficient alpha of .730 and along with domain correlations ranging from .45 to .57 were calculated and demonstrated homogeneity (Fink, 2003). Using SPSS, the factor loadings of each domain confirmed there was a meaningful relationship associated with each domain. In the end, the YLQ

was a reliable and valid instrument based on reliability analysis, correlational analysis, and factor analysis.

Data Analysis

Quantitative procedures used to interpret the data included a descriptive analysis, which focused on the means and standard deviation for all the dependent and interdependent variables (Creswell, 2009). The computed measures were placed on bar graphs, and the data revealed the relative position of the mean scores of the YLQ scores and displayed the relationship of the scores to the dependent variables identified for use in the dissertation study (Huck, 2012). In addition, the descriptive data detail was recorded into tables and figures to report the study results.

The statistical program, SPSS, tested the correlation for each hypothesis in the study; this revealed whether a relationship existed between the variables. The interpretation method was bivariate in nature and was used “to consider situations in which data on two variables have been collected and summarized, with the interest residing in the relationship between the two variables” (Huck, 2012, p.44). A correlation strategy involved looking at two variables simultaneously, and in return determining whether there was a relationship between the two sets of scores. If a relationship did exist, then it was determined whether the relationship was strong or weak (Huck, 2012).

Spearman’s rho correlation was the bivariate correlation procedure utilized in the study. In addition, it has been the second most popular correlation used in research studies. This technique has been known as rank-order correlation (Huck, 2012). Spearman’s rho correlation was used because one or more variables consisted of ranked data (McDonald, 2009). Spearman’s rho correlation was used to change variables to

ranks. This procedure quantified how well two data sets fit a line and produced correlation coefficients between negative 1.00 to a positive 1.00 (Huck, 2012).

The benefit of using Spearman's rho correlation was that the accuracy of the score increases when data is not normalized and can be shown in diagram form. This allowed analysis of the data to reveal whether any relationships existed between the variables (Huck, 2012). However, like any other statistical technique, Spearman's rho correlation did have some disadvantages. The first disadvantage confirmed that a correlation did not determine cause and effect of variables. Second, "outliers can cause the size of the correlation coefficient to understate or exaggerate the strength of the relationship between the two variables" (Huck, 2012, p. 63). Finally, the subjectivity involved in labeling the relationship strength could become misleading if the researcher presented bias in regards to the research (Huck, 2012).

In addition to the use of Spearman's rho correlation to test the relationship of the variables, the dissertation study used a series of independent t-tests. The independent t-tests were run to look for differences between the dependent variables (grade, gender, achievement, extracurricular activities, attendance, and economic status) and the independent variable (YLQ scores).

An independent t-test, also called the two-sample t-test, and student's t-test is a statistical test used to detect a difference between the means in two unrelated groups (McDonald, 2009). The t-test was used in the dissertation study to test the null hypotheses resulting in the probability of the null hypotheses being true or false (Patten, 2009). This study used a p-value of .05 to test the significance between the unrelated groups.

Furthermore, like any statistical tests, there were advantages and disadvantages to the chosen testing method. The advantages of using the t-test were that fewer subjects are needed when performing the analysis and there were fewer assumptions about the population (Weirers, 2008). In addition, Weirers (2008) claimed that another advantage of using the t-test was that “the population need not be normally distributed” (p. 504). The final advantage of using a t-test design was that data with ordinal and nominal scales could be tested (Weirers, 2008). The disadvantage of using the t-test occurred when there were repeated measures. This has occurred when participants take a test, receive training or practice in a particular subject, and then retest. The test/retest protocol may result in improvement of scores because of the practice or training involved (Weirers, 2008). However, the dissertation study did not involve a repeated measures component.

Summary

Leadership has been such a high commodity that many efforts are put forth in order to achieve leadership skills. There have been leadership programs designed to aid in individuals’ development of leadership skills on all levels (Murphy & Johnson, 2011). Through a quantitative research approach, the dissertation study examined the relationship and difference between minority youth’s leadership capacity and certain demographic and school factors in an urban secondary high school in lower Westchester, New York. The study used Spearman rho coefficient correlation to determine to what degree, if any, a relationship existed between the dependent variables presented in the study and an independent t-test to determine to what degree, if any, differences occurred between the dependent and independent variables in the study.

Chapter 4: Results

Becoming a leader in today's ever changing technology society is a highly revered commodity, and there has been the expectation that youth develop these skills. The expectations have been high for new and upcoming leaders, and as a result, there have been studies, books, courses, and programs dedicated to developing leaders. The intent of the dissertation study was to give minority youth a place in the leadership research. The quantitative dissertation study determined whether significant differences or relationships existed between minority urban youth school students' leadership capacity (as measured by the Youth Leadership Questionnaire) as it related to and differed from demographic and school factors such as gender, socio economic status, extracurricular activities, grade, and attendance.

In addition, the dissertation study revealed whether a relationship existed between students' youth leadership scores and the identified variables related to school and demographic factors. Furthermore, it was determined to what extent school and demographics factors affected students' self-perception of their leadership capacity. The primary research question was what are the current leadership perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors of minority youth in secondary high school in a medium-sized school district in the Lower Westchester County as it differs and relates to gender, achievement, socio-economic status, attendance, and participation in extra curriculum activities?

Research Questions

The following research questions were developed to provide insights into the primary research question:

1. Is there a difference between minority male ninth and tenth grade youth leadership scores and minority female ninth and tenth grade youth leadership scores?

Null Hypothesis (H01): There is no significant difference between minority male ninth and tenth grade urban students Youth Leadership Questionnaire Scores (YLQ) and the YLQ Scores of minority female ninth and tenth grade urban students.

2. Is there a difference between high achieving ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ scores and low achieving minority youth leadership scores?

Null Hypothesis (H02): There is no significant difference in high achieving ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ Scores and The YLQ Scores of low achieving minority ninth and tenth grade urban students.

3. Is there a significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who are enrolled in extracurricular activities and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade students who are not enrolled in extracurricular activities?

Null Hypothesis (H03): There is no significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who are enrolled in extracurricular activities YLQ Scores and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority

urban school students who are not enrolled in extracurricular activities/athletic activities.

4. Is there a difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban students who attend school on a regular basis YLQ scores and the YLQ scores of the ninth and tenth grade minority urban students who do not attend school on a regular basis?

Null Hypothesis (H04): There is no significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who attend school regularly YLQ Scores and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who do not attend school on regular basis.

5. Is there a significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority students YLQ scores who receive free or reduced lunch and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority students who do not receive free or reduced lunch?

Null Hypotheses (H05): There is no significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YQL Scores who receive free/reduce lunch and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who do not receive free or reduced lunch.

6. Is there a significant difference in ninth grade minority students YLQ Scores and tenth grade minority urban students YLQ Scores?

Null Hypotheses (H06): There is no significant difference in ninth grade minority urban school students YLQ Scores and the YLQ Scores of tenth grade minority urban school students.

7. What is the relationship between ninth and tenth grade male urban minority YLQ Scores and ninth and tenth grade female urban minority students?

Null Hypotheses (H07): There is no statistically significant relationship between ninth and tenth grade male urban minority school students YLQ Scores and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade female minority youth urban school students YLQ Scores.

8. What is the relationship between high achieving ninth and tenth grade urban minority students YLQ scores and the YLQ Scores of low achieving ninth and tenth urban minority students?

Null Hypotheses (H08): There is no statistically significant relationship between high achieving ninth and tenth grade urban minority school students YLQ scores and the YLQ Scores of low achieving ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students.

9. What is the relationship between ninth and tenth grade minority students who participate in extracurricular activities and sports YLQ Scores and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade students who do not participate in extracurricular activities or sports?

Null Hypotheses (H09): There is no statistically significant relationship between the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who participate in extracurricular activities and the YLQ Scores of the ninth and tenth grade minority urban youth school students who do not participate in extracurricular activities or sports.

10. What is the relationship between ninth and tenth minority youth urban students YLQ Scores who receive free or reduced lunch and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority youth urban students who do not receive free or reduced lunch?

Null Hypotheses (H10): There is no statistically significant relationship between the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who receive free or reduce lunch and the YLQ Scores of the ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who do not receive free or reduced lunch.

11. What is the relationship between ninth and tenth grade minority urban students YLQ Scores who attend school on a regular basis and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority students who do not attend school on a regular basis?

Null Hypotheses (H11): There is no statistically significant relationship between the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who attend school on a regular basis and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who do not attend school on a regular basis.

12. What is the relationship between ninth grade minority school students YLQ Scores and the YLQ Scores of tenth grade minority school students?

Null Hypotheses (H12): There is no statistically significant relationship between the YLQ Scores of ninth grade minority urban school students and the YLQ scores of tenth grade minority urban school students.

Findings

Research question 1. Is there a difference between minority male ninth and tenth grade Youth Leadership Questionnaire (YLQ) scores and minority female ninth and tenth grade Youth Leadership Questionnaire scores?

Table 4.1 displays the descriptive statistics between the YLQ scores for the male and female participants. An Independent T-Test was conducted to examine whether there was a difference between male and female minority urban school students in the ninth and tenth grade Youth Leadership Scores. The results, as displayed in Table 4.1 revealed that there as no significant difference between males ($M = 95.6$) and females ($M = 96.8$) in YLQ Scores ($t(320) = .869, p = .386$). Since $p > 0.05$, the null hypothesis, H_0 was accepted. There was no significant difference between minority male ninth and tenth grade urban school students Youth Leadership Questionnaire Scores (YLQ) and the YLQ Scores of minority female ninth and tenth grade urban students. Figure 4.1 contains a graphic representation of the results.

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics: Gender Differences between YLQ Scores

Gender	M	SD	SEM	N
Male	95.55	13.862	1.184	137
Female	96.81	12.008	0.95	187

Note. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; SEM = Standard Error Mean; N = Sample Population number.

Table 4.2

T-test Results: YLQ and Gender

		F	Sig	T	df	p-value
YLQ	Equal variances assumed	5.561	0.019	0.869	320	0.386
				-0.85	267.976	0.396

Note. P-value was greater than 0.05: There was no significant difference between male and female YLQ scores.



Figure 4.1. YLQ scores for male and female students.

Research question 2. Is there a difference between high achieving ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ scores and low achieving minority youth leadership scores?

An independent t-test was conducted to examine whether there was a difference between high achieving ninth and tenth grade minority students' YLQ scores and the YLQ scores of low achieving ninth and tenth grade minority students. The results revealed that there was no significant difference between high achieving students ($M = 96.6$) and low achieving students ($M = 96.4$) in their YLQ scores ($t(269) = .136, p =$

.892). Thus, H02 was accepted. There was no statistically significant difference between high achieving ninth and tenth grade minority students YLQ scores and the YLQ scores of low achieving ninth and tenth grade minority students. Table 4.3 contains the descriptive statistics for the results, Table 4.4 shows the results of the t-test, and Figure 4.2 contains a graphic display of the results.

Table 4.3

Descriptive Statistics: Academic Achievement Differences Between YLQ Scores

Achievement	M	SD	SEM	N
High Achievement	96.6	13.576	1.371	98
Low Achievement	96.4	12.49	0.95	173

Note. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; SEM = Standard Error Mean; N = Sample Population Number.

Table 4.4

T-test Results: YLQ Scores and Academic Achievement

		F	Sig	t	df	p-value
YLQ	Equal variances assumed	0.485	0.487	0.136	269	0.892
				0.133	187.951	0.894

Note. P-value was greater than 0.05. There was no significant difference between achievement level and YLQ scores.

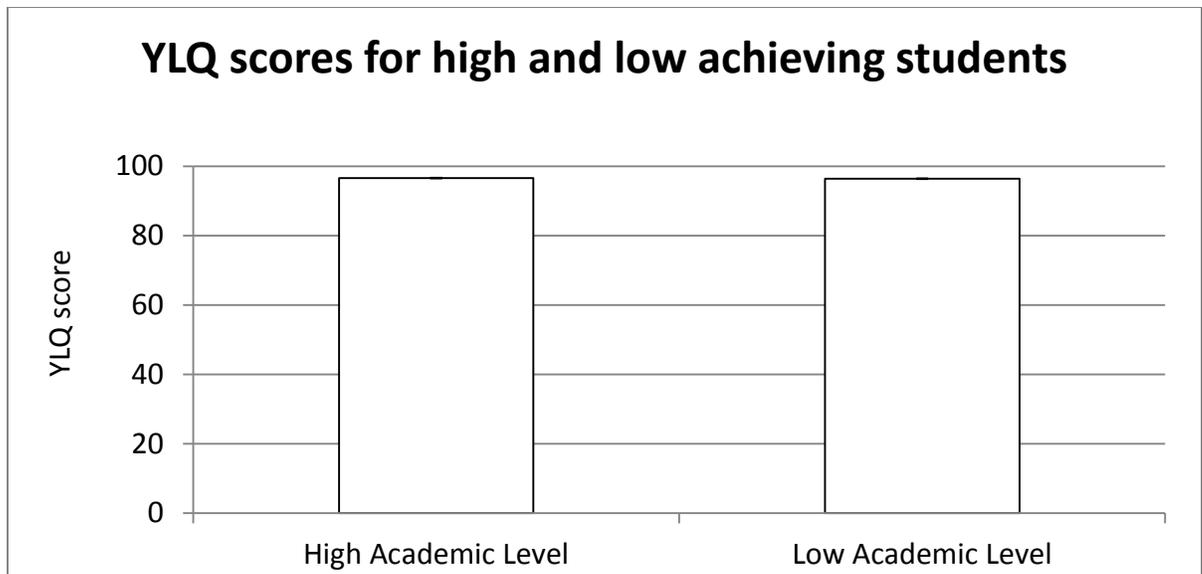


Figure 4.2. YLQ mean score difference between high achieving and low achieving students.

Research question 3. Is there a significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who are enrolled in extracurricular activities and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade students who are not enrolled in extracurricular activities?

An independent t-test was conducted to examine whether there was a difference between ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students who were enrolled in extracurricular activities YLQ scores and the YLQ scores of the ninth and tenth grade students who were not enrolled. The results revealed there was no significant difference in the YLQ scores of students who were enrolled in extracurricular activities ($M = 96.6$) and the YLQ scores of the students who were not in enrolled ($M = 96.1$) in extracurricular activities ($t(319) = .344, p = .731$). Since $p > 0.05$, the null hypothesis, H_{03} , was accepted. There was no significant difference between the YLQ scores of the ninth and tenth grade students who were enrolled in extracurricular activities and the YLQ scores of the ninth and tenth grade students who were not enrolled in extracurricular

activities. Table 4.5 displays the descriptive statistics of the YLQ scores. Table 4.6 shows the results of the t-test, and Figure 4.3 contains a graphic representation of the results.

Table 4.5

Descriptive Statistics: Differences Extracurricular Activities and YLQ Scores

Participation in Extracurricular Activities	M	SD	SEM	N
Yes	96.6	12.097	1.045	134
No	96.1	13.364	0.977	173

Note. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; SEM = Standard Error Mean; N = Sample Population Number.

Table 4.6

T-test Results: YLQ Scores and Extracurricular Activities

	F	Sig	t	df	p-value
YLQ Equal variances assumed	10.845	0.359	0.344	319	0.731
			-0.85	187.951	0.894

Note: P-value was greater than 0.05: There was no significant difference between extracurricular activities and YLQ scores.

Research question 4. Is there a difference in ninth and tenth grade minority urban students who attend school on a regular basis YLQ scores and the YLQ scores of the ninth and tenth grade minority urban students who do not attend school on a regular basis?

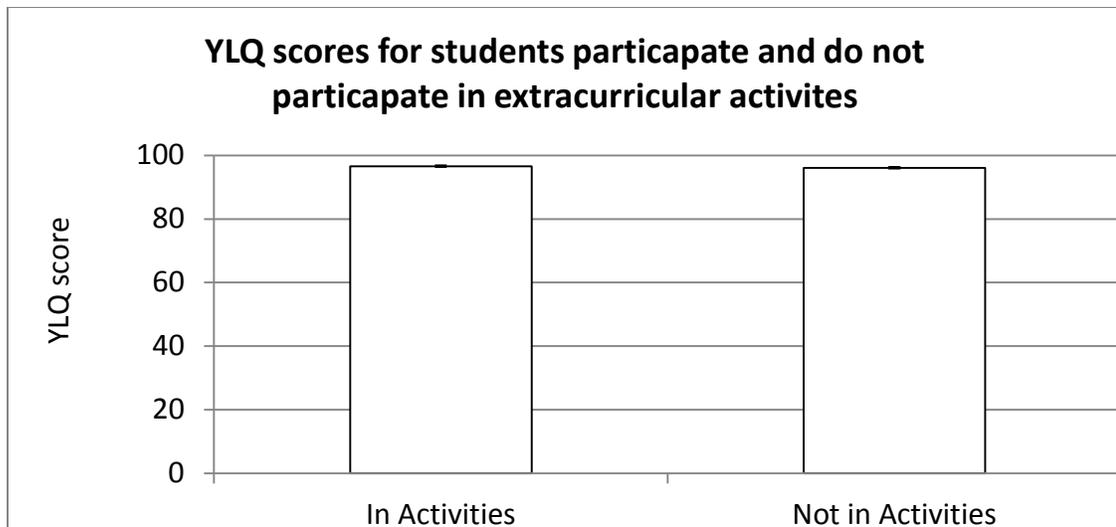


Figure 4.3. YLQ mean score difference for extracurricular activities.

An Independent t-test was conducted to examine whether there was a difference in the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority students who attended school on a regular basis and the YLQ scores of the ninth and tenth grade minority students who did not attend school on a regular basis. The results revealed that there was no significant difference between ninth and tenth grade minority students who attended school on a regular basis (M = 96.7) YLQ scores and the ninth and tenth grade minority students who did not attend school on a regular basis (M = 93.2) YLQ scores ($t(316) = .147, p = .142$). Since $p > 0.05$, the null hypothesis, H04 was accepted. There was no significant difference between ninth and tenth grade minority students who attended school on a regular basis YLQ scores and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority students who did not attend school on a regular basis. Table 4.7 shows the descriptive statistics of the YLQ scores, Table 4.8 shows the results of the t-test, and Figure 4.4 contains a graphic display of the results.

Table 4.7

Descriptive Statistics: Differences Between Attendance and YLQ Scores

Attendance	M	SD	SEM	N
Missed school less than 20x	96.7	12.885	0.765	284
Missed school more than 20x	93.4	12.543	2.151	34

Note. M=Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; SEM = Standard Error Mean; N = Sample Population number.

Table 4.8

T-test Results: YLQ Scores and Attendance

	F	Sig	t	df	p-value
YLQ Equal variances assumed	0.693	0.406	1.472	316	0.142
			1.504	41.787	0.140

Note: P-value is greater than 0.05: There is no significant difference between achievement level and YLQ scores.

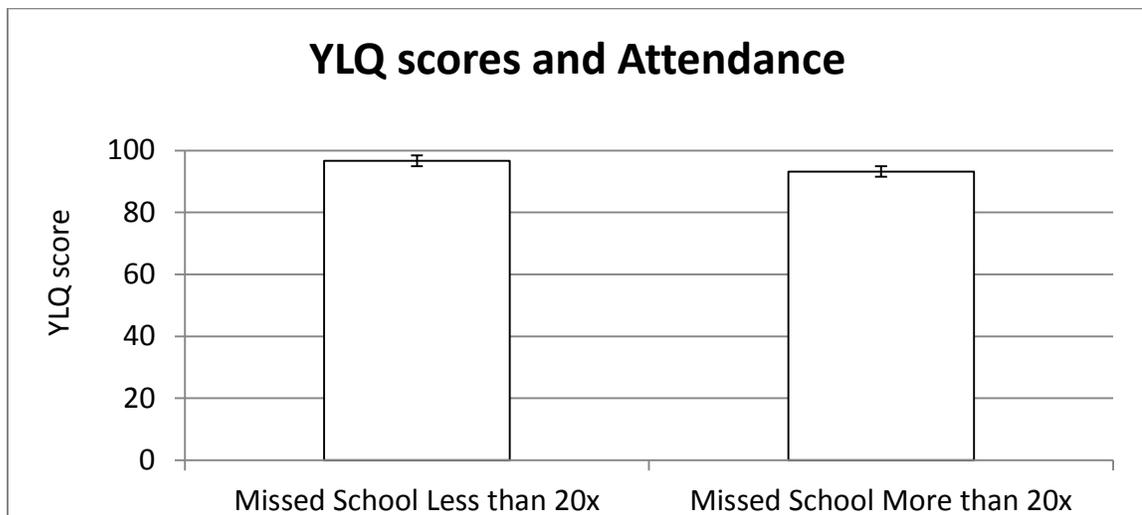


Figure 4.4. YLQ mean score difference for attendance.

Research question 5. Is there a significant difference in ninth and tenth grade minority students YLQ scores who receive free or reduced lunch and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority students who do not receive free or reduced lunch?

An independent t-test was conducted to examine whether there was a significant difference between ninth and tenth grade minority students YLQ scores who received free or reduced lunch and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority school students who did not receive free or reduced lunch. The results revealed that there was no significant difference between the scores of ninth and tenth grade minority students who received free or reduced lunch YLQ (M = 96.0) and the YLQ scores (M =96.8) of the ninth and tenth grade minority students who did not receive free or reduced lunch ($t(319) = .558, p = .577$). H_0 was accepted. There was no statistically significant difference between the scores of ninth and tenth grade minority youth who received free or reduced lunch YLQ and the YLQ scores of the ninth and tenth grade minority school students who did not receive free or reduced lunch. Table 4.9 shows the descriptive statistics from the YLQ scores, Table 4.10 shows the results of the t-test, and Figure 4.5 displays the results as a graph.

Table 4.9

Descriptive Statistics: Differences Between Economic Status and YLQ Scores

Economic Status	M	SD	SEM	N
Low Income	95.97	12.892	0.875	217
High Income	96.83	12.757	1.251	104

Note. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; SEM = Standard Error Mean; N = Sample Population Number.

Table 4.10

T-test results: YLQ Scores and Economic Status

	F	Sig.	t	df	p-value
YLQ Equal Variances Assume	0.062	0.804	0.558	319	0.577
			0.56	205.068	0.577

Note: P-value is greater than 0.05: There is no significant difference between attendance and YLQ scores.

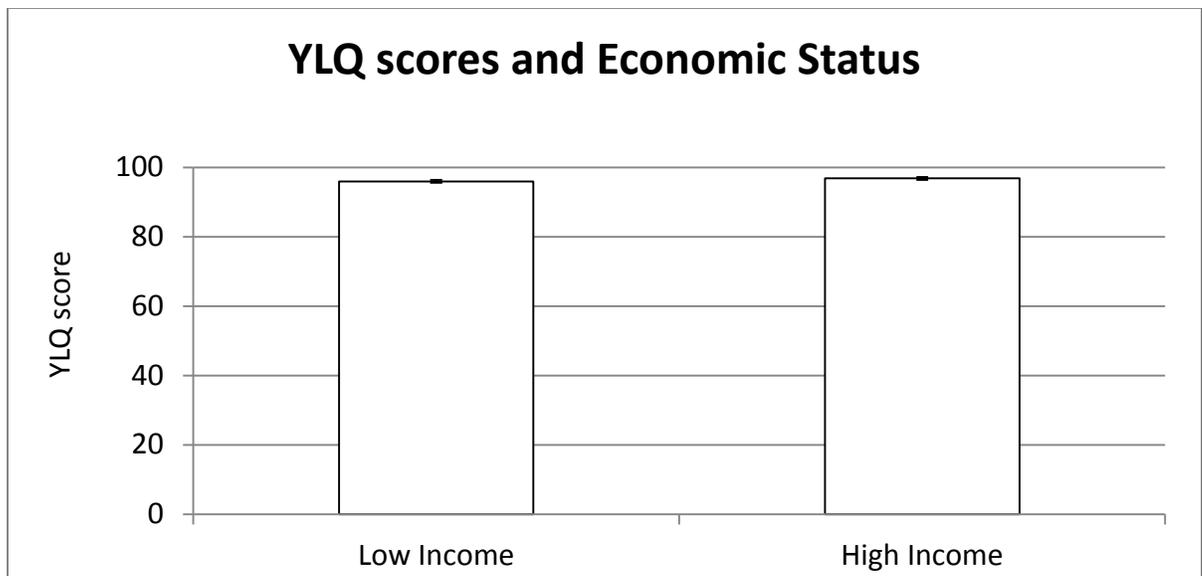


Figure 4.5. YLQ mean scores and economic status.

Research question 6. Is there a significant difference in ninth grade minority students YLQ Scores and tenth grade minority urban students YLQ scores?

An independent t-test was conducted to examine whether there was a difference between ninth grade minority students YLQ scores and the YLQ scores of tenth grade minority students. The results revealed there was no significant difference between ninth grade minority students' youth leadership scores (M = 96.58) and the YLQ scores (M = 95.99) of tenth grade minority school students (t (320) = .413, p = .680). H06 was

accepted. There was no statistically significant difference between ninth grade minority school students and tenth grade minority school students. Table 4.11 shows the descriptive statistics of the differences between grade level and YLQ scores. Table 4.12 shows the results of the t-test, and Figure 4.6 displays the results as a graph.

Table 4.10

Descriptive Statistics: Differences Between Grade Level and YLQ Scores

Grade Level	M	SD	SEM	N
Ninth Grade	96.58	13.625	1.087	157
Tenth Grade	95.99	12.047	0.938	165

Note. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; SEM = Standard Error Mean; N = Sample Population Number.

Table 4.11

T-test Results: YLQ Scores and Grade Level

	F	Sig.	t	df	p-value
YLQ Equal variances assumed	2.322	0.129	0.413	320	0.680
			0.412	310.809	0.681

Note: P-value was greater than 0.05. There was no significant difference between grade level and YLQ scores.

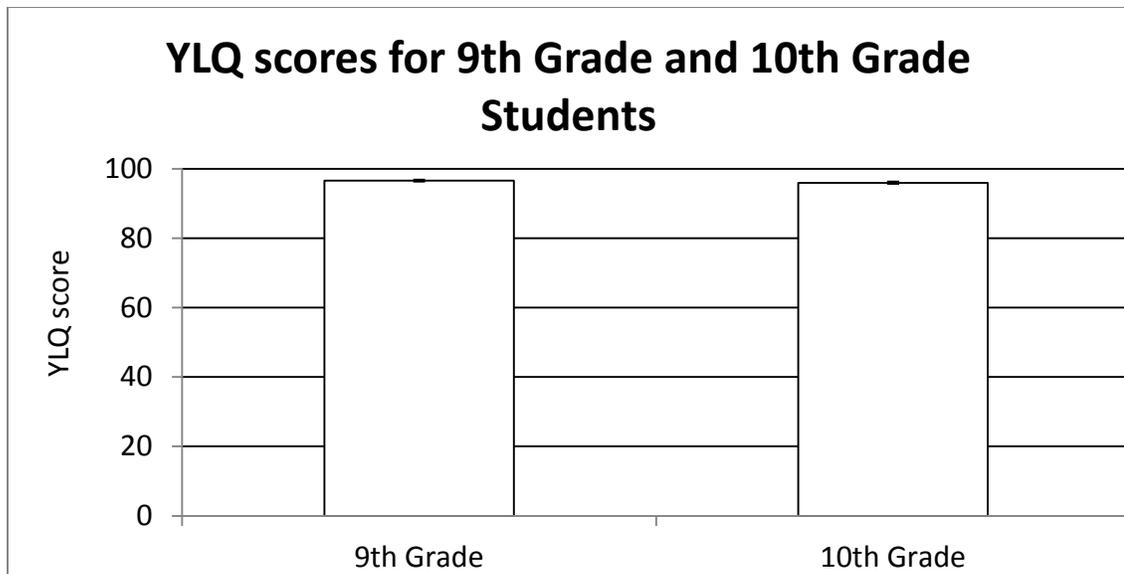


Figure 4.6. YLQ mean scores and grade level.

Research question 7. What is the relationship between gender and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students?

A Spearman's rank order was run to determine the relationship between gender and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students. The results revealed there was no significant correlation between gender and ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ Scores ($r_s(322) = .032, p = .561$). Since $p > .05$, the null hypothesis, $H07$, was accepted. There was no significant relationship between gender and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students. Figure 4.7 contains a graphic representation of the results.

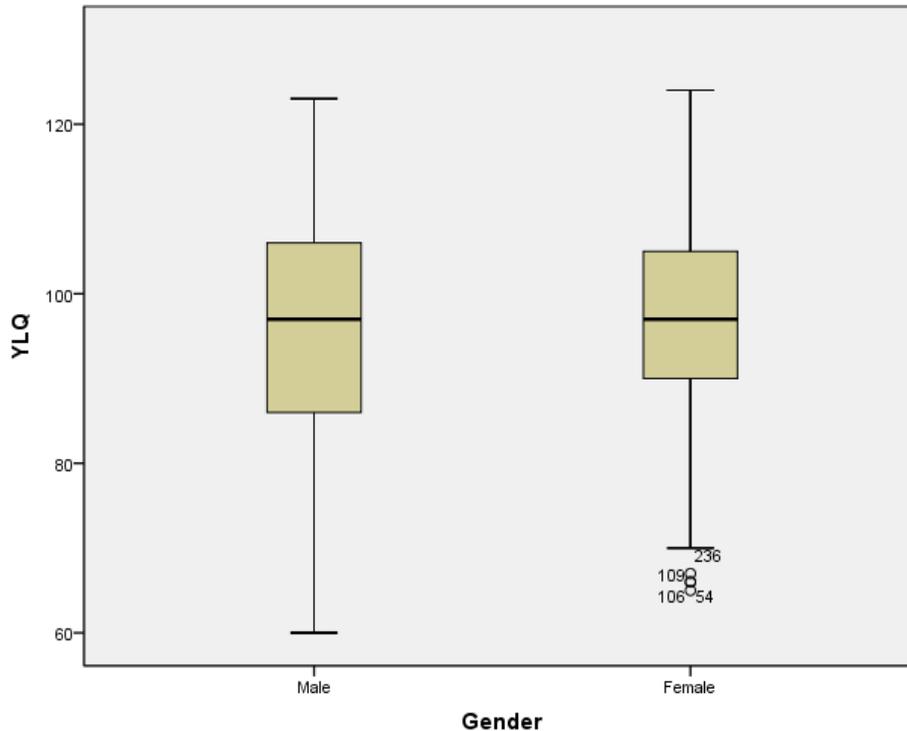


Figure 4.7. Relationships between YLQ scores and gender.

Research question 8. What is the relationship between academic achievement and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students?

A Spearman's rank order was run to determine the relationship between academic achievement and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ Scores. The results revealed there was no significant correlation between academic achievement and ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ Scores r_s ((277) = .028, $p = .652$). Since $P > .05$, the null hypothesis, H08, was accepted. There was no significant relationship between academic achievement and ninth and tenth grade minority school students YLQ scores. Figure 4.8 shows a graphic representation of the results.

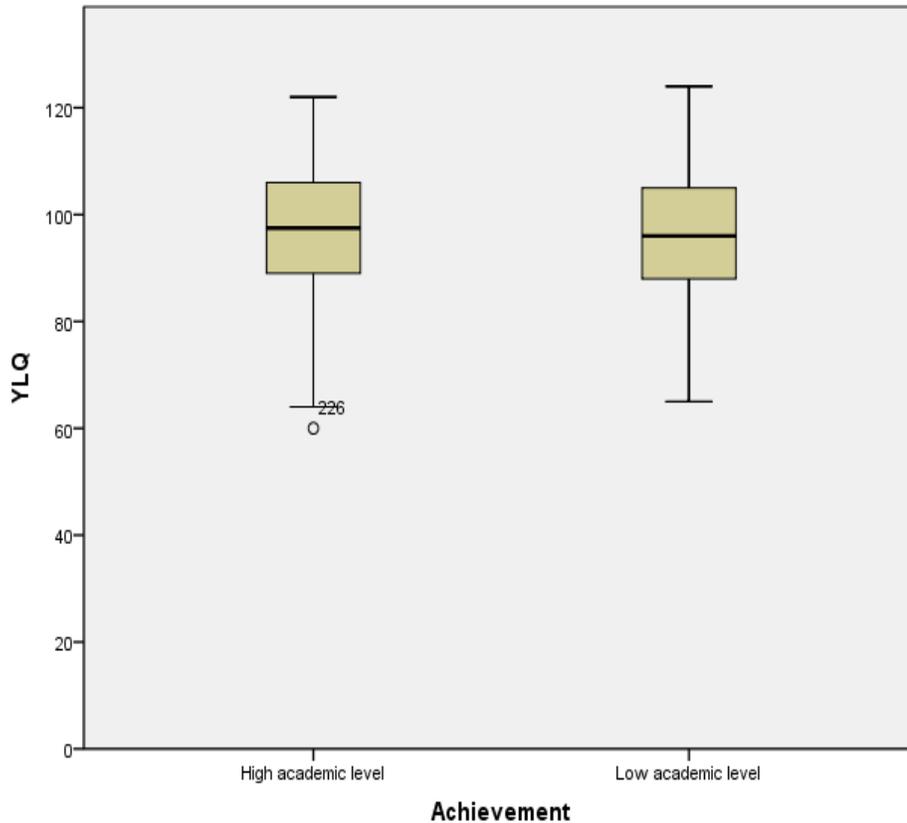


Figure 4.8. Relationship between YLQ scores and achievement.

Research question 9. What is the relationship between extracurricular activities and the YLQ Scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students?

A Spearman’s rank order correlation was run to determine the relationship between extracurricular activities and ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ scores. The results revealed that there was no significant relationship between extracurricular activities and ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ scores ($r_s(321) = .023, p = .681$). Since $p > .05$, the null hypothesis, H09, was accepted. There was no significant correlation between extracurricular activities and ninth and tenth grade minority school students YLQ scores.

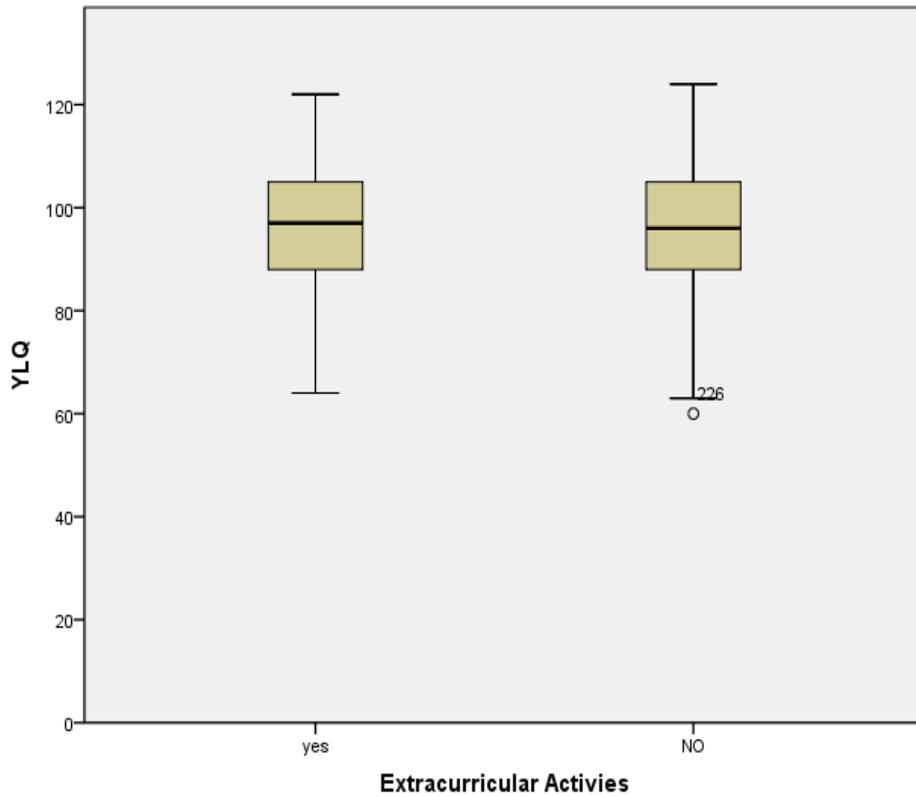


Figure 4.9. Relationships between YLQ scores and extracurricular activities.

Research question 10. What is the relationship between economic status and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students?

A Spearman's rank order correlation was run to determine the relationship between economic status and ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ scores. The results revealed that there was no significant relationship between economic status and ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ scores (r_s (321) .026, $p = .646$). Since $p > .05$, the null hypothesis, H_{010} , was accepted. There was no significant relationship between economic status and ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students youth leadership scores. Figure 4.10 shows a graphic representation of the results.

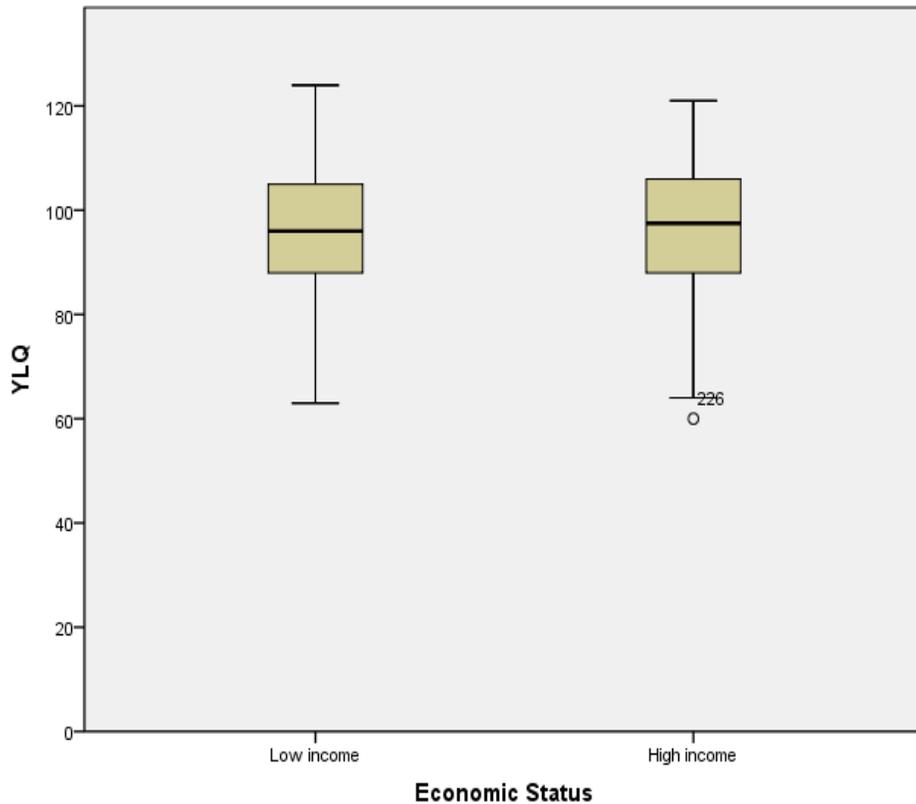


Figure 4.10. Relationships between YLQ scores and economic status.

Research Question 11. What is relationship between school attendance and ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ scores?

A Spearman's rank order correlation was run to determine the relationship between school attendance and ninth and tenth grade YLQ scores. The results revealed that there was no significant difference between school attendance and ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ scores ($r_s(318) = .083, p = .114$). Since, $p > .05$, the null hypothesis, H_{011} , was accepted. There was no statically significant relationship between school attendance and the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students. Figure 4.11 shows the results in graphic form.

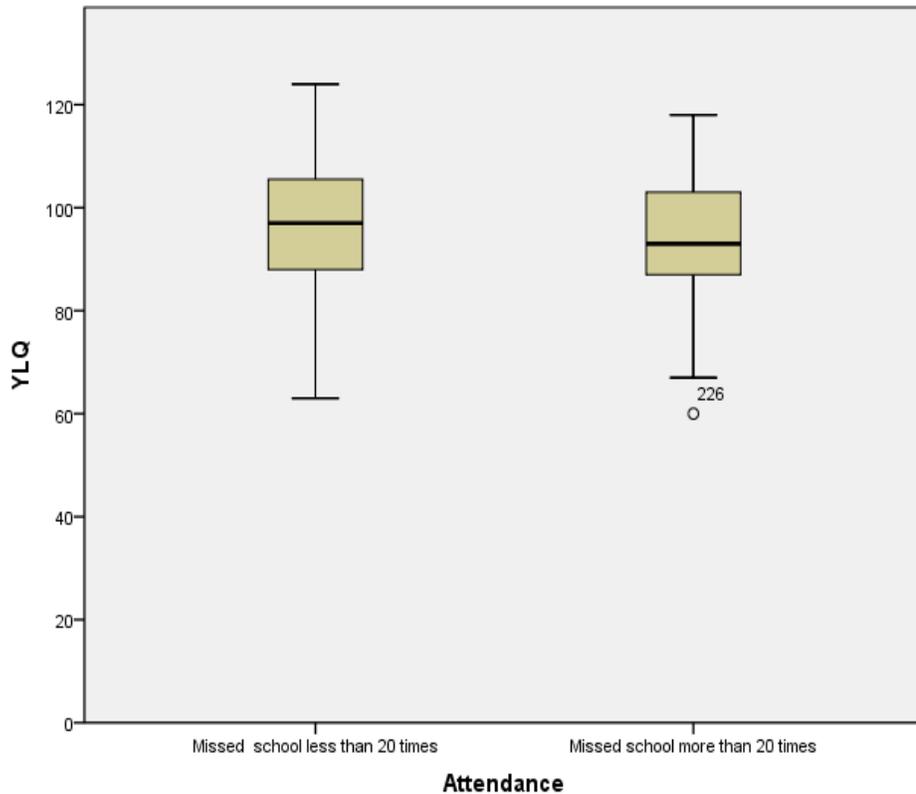


Figure 4.11. Relationships between YLQ scores and attendance.

Research Questions 12. What is the relationship between urban minority school students' grade and ninth and tenth grade minority school students YLQ scores?

A Spearman's rank order correlation was run to determine the relationship between minority urban school students grade and ninth and tenth grade youth leadership scores. The results revealed that there was no statically significant correlation between students grade and ninth and tenth grade minority urban youth YLQ scores ($r_s(322) = .006, p = .921$). Since $p > 0.05$, the null hypothesis, H12, was accepted. There was no significant relationship between students' grade and the ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students YLQ scores. Figure 4.12 shows the results in graphic form.

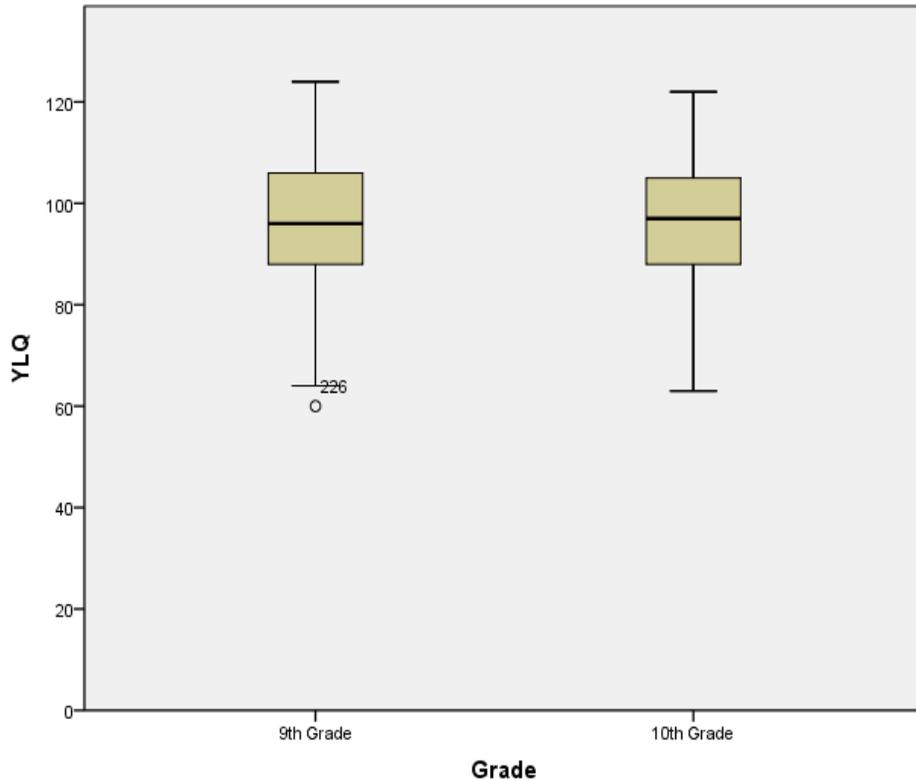


Figure 4.12. Relationships between YLQ scores and grade level.

As Table 4.12 shows, neither independent t-test and Spearman’s rho correlation procedures were statistically significance at the $.05 >$ level in the dissertation study using an independent variable of the YLQ scores and dependent variables consisting of gender, achievement, grade level, socio-economic status, extracurricular activities, and attendance. However, there was practical significance for each variable used in the study.

Analysis of the range of scores showed that the scores of all participants fell between 60 and 124. Table 4.13 displays the range of scores for participants disaggregated by gender. Table 4.14 displays the range of scores for participants disaggregated by achievement. Table 4.15 displays the range of scores for participants disaggregated by grade level. Table 4.16 displays the range of scores for participants disaggregated by socioeconomic status. Table 4.17 displays the range of scores for

participants disaggregated by involvement in extracurricular activities. Table 4.18 displays the range of scores for participants disaggregated by school attendance.

Table 4.12

Spearman's Rho Correlations Between YLQ Scores and Dependent Variables

Variables	r_s	P
Grade	-0.006	0.921
Attendance	-0.089	0.114
Achievement	-0.028	0.652
Economic Status	0.026	0.646
Gender	0.032	0.561
Extracurricular activities	-0.023	0.681

Note. P-value was greater than 0.05. No significant relationships existed between dependent variables and the YLQ scores.

Table 4.13

Range of YLQ Scores by Gender

YLQ Score Range	Entire Population (N = 322)	Male Participants (N = 137)	Female Participants (N = 185)
60-124	100%	43%	57%
60-80		16%	10%
81-100		42%	52%
101-124		42%	38%
109-126		19%	16%

Note. The lowest score attained by the male participants was 60 and the highest score was 123. The lowest score attained by the female participants was 65 and the highest score was 124.

Table 4.14

Range of YLQ Scores by Achievement

YLQ Score Range	Entire Population (N = 271)	High Achieving Students (N = 98)	Low Achieving Students (N = 173)
60-124	100%	36%	64%
60-80		14%	18%
81-100		45%	50%
101-124		41%	40%
109-126		20%	16%

Note. The lowest score attained on the YLQ by the high achieving population was 60 and the highest score was 122. The lowest scored attained on the YLQ by the low achieving population was 65 and the highest score was 124.

Table 4.15

Range of YLQ Scores by Grade Level

YLQ Score Range	Entire Population (N = 322)	Ninth Grade (N = 157)	Tenth Grade (N = 165)
60-124	100%	49%	52%
60-80		13%	11%
81-100		48%	48%
101-124		39%	41%
109-126		21%	13%

Note. The lowest scored attained on the YLQ by the ninth grade population was 60 and the highest score was 124. The lowest score attained on the YLQ by the tenth grade population was 63 and the highest was 122.

Table 4.16

Range of YLQ Scores by Socioeconomic Status

YLQ Score Range	Entire Population (N = 321)	High Income (N = 104)	Low Income (N = 217)
60-124	100%	32%	68%
60-80		11%	12%
81-100		50%	48%
101-124		39%	40%
109-126		21%	35%

Note. The lowest score attained on the YLQ by the high income population was 60 and the highest score was 121. The lowest score attained on the YLQ by the low income population was 63 and the highest score was 124.

Table 4.17

Range of YLQ Scores Involvement in Extracurricular Activities

YLQ Score Range	Entire Population (N = 321)	Participated (N = 134)	Did Not Participate (N = 187)
60-124	100%	42%	58%
60-80		10%	13%
81-100		49%	47%
101-124		41%	40%
109-126		22%	18%

Note. The lowest score attained by the population of students who participated in extracurricular activities on the YLQ was 64 and highest score was 122. The lowest score attained on the YLQ by the population of students who did not participate in extracurricular activities was 60 and the highest score attained was 124.

Table 4.18

Range of YLQ Scores by Attendance

YLQ Score Range	Entire Population (N = 318)	Regular Attendance (N = 284)	Did Not Attend Regularly (N = 34)
60-124	100%	89%	11%
60-80		12%	12%
81-100		46%	59%
101-124		42%	29%
109-126		18%	9%

Note. The lowest score attained on the YLQ by the population of students who regularly attended school was 63 and the highest score attained was 124. The lowest scored attained on the YLQ by the population who did not attend school regularly was 60 and highest score was 118.

Summary of Results

In summary, Chapter 4 presented the results of the youth leadership questionnaire and the relationships and differences between minority ninth and tenth grade urban school students. The quantitative study revealed that there were no significant differences between ninth and tenth grade students Youth Leadership Questionnaire scores and the dependent variables of gender, grade, academic achievement, economic status, attendance, and participation in extracurricular activities. The results of the analysis also revealed that there were no significant relationships existing between ninth and tenth grade Youth Leadership Questionnaire scores and the dependent variables consisting of gender, grade, academic achievement, economic status, attendance, and extracurricular

activities. The results revealed that the lowest Youth Leadership Questionnaire score attained was a 60 and the highest score reached was 124 (Appendix B). The mean score for all 322 participants was 96.28.

A discussion of the research findings and implications are included in Chapter 5. In addition, Chapter 5 includes recommendations for researchers and educators related to youth leadership development.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

Chapter 5 includes a discussion of the implications of the research findings reported in chapter four. Chapter 5 also discusses the limitations of the research. Furthermore, this chapter presents recommendations for educators, policy makers, community based organizations, and future researchers of youth leadership.

The objective of the dissertation research is to examine the capacity of leadership within minority youth school students attending a secondary high school in a medium-sized school district in the lower Westchester County in New York State. An assessment of their leadership capacity is examined utilizing a valid and reliable 18-item self-report instrument, the Youth Leadership Questionnaire (YLQ) as developed by Hindes (2011). The YLQ addresses three domains: self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and self-concept. These domains represent leadership capacity as conceptualized in the dissertation study.

The sample population was 322 participants in the ninth and tenth grade. Students completed the YLQ in their English classes. The questionnaire took approximately 7 to 10 minutes to complete. Each YLQ score was calculated by adding the items to determine the composite score. After the composite score for each of the YLQ was calculated, a series of quantitative tests determined the relationships and differences between the YLQ scores and gender, achievement, socio-economic status, attendance, grade, and participation in extracurricular activities.

The review of literature uncovered a lack of research in the field of youth leadership. The literature revealed that there are far fewer studies completed that involve minority youth and their leadership capacity. Kress (2006) suggests that an instrument to assess the capacity of youth leadership would permit the recognition of leadership potential in youth. Hinds (2011) created the YLQ, which consists of three domains, self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and self-concept in order to measure youth leadership capacity. Using the YLQ, the dissertation study offers insight into viewing minority youth in a positive light as leaders and gives clarity regarding the support needed to nurture the leadership capacity that exists. The dissertation study also advances research by identifying leadership potential that exists in youth and examines the existing body of research on youth leadership.

Implications of Findings

The findings of the dissertation study illustrates that there is still much to be learned about leadership capacity in youth. The study provides evidence that supports the concept that youth should not to be counted out of the leadership equation. Youth exhibit characteristics of leadership daily; they possess leadership skills and the ability to demonstrate leadership skills. However, youth are in leadership developmental stages, and there needs to be suitable conditions that permit and encourage the formation and further development of these leadership skills. The dissertation research offers awareness into the diversity of leadership capacity through an examination into gender, economic-status, grade level, academic level, attendance, and participation or lack thereof in extracurricular activities. Simultaneously, the findings from the dissertation study indicate that leadership abilities are not equally distributed in every person. Specifically,

the lowest score scored on the YLQ was 60, and the highest score scored was 124. The lowest score possible on the YLQ is 18 and the highest score is 126. The range of scores, as measured by the YLQ, indicate that every participant in the study has leadership capacity, and as a result of these students having leadership ability, programs, and curriculums are essential in order to cultivate existing leadership skills. Pace (2012) argued that all youth must receive leadership training and that this training needs to happen amongst all children, because all children have the potential to become leaders.

The dissertation research highlights that leadership is an independent factor as it relates to the dependent variables in this study. The findings indicate that the YLQ scores representing leadership capacity in ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students have no relationship with academic achievement, extracurricular activities, gender, attendance, grade level, or economic status. In addition, the findings demonstrate that an individual's leadership capacity stands independently, as a single component in the study. While there is no statistical correlation found at the $P \geq .05$ level significance between leadership capacity and the school variables, the importance of the variables in a student's overall leadership development process should not be discounted.

Nonetheless, the examination into the leadership capacity in ninth and tenth grade minority youth urban school students reveals no major differences exist between the participants' youth leadership capacities as measured by the YLQ and the school dependent variables in this research. The research reveals that the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth graders did not differ from those who are high achieving academically and those students who are not academically high performers. Similarly, findings show there is no difference in the leadership capacity of ninth and tenth grade minority school

students who participate in extracurricular activities and those students who do not participate in extracurricular activities. In addition, the study reveals there is no difference between the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority students who are from higher socioeconomic backgrounds and those students who are not from a higher socioeconomic background. Furthermore, there is no difference between the YLQ scores of male and female students in ninth and tenth grade. The research indicates there is no significant difference in the YLQ scores of those students who attend school on a regular basis and those students who do not attend school on a regular basis, and no difference exists between the YLQ score of students who are in the ninth and those students who are in the tenth grade. An implication of the findings is that all students can be seen as having the ability to be leaders without the measured dependent variables playing a significantly statistical role.

Limitations

Several limitations of the research indicate the need for further investigation. The primary limitation that arises in this study is that there are environmental influences that contribute to the development of leadership capacity and identity in youth beyond the limited measured dependent variables. Leadership development is constant and it matures throughout an individual's life cycle. Murphy and Johnson's (2011) framework for leadership development provides a way to better gauge the environmental influences that effects leadership development. Their model evaluates early developmental stages of leadership including early leadership experiences, parenting style, genetics, and early learning experiences along with contextual environmental stages, societal expectations, and the impact of generational differences, which all contribute to leadership

augmentation (Murphy & Johnson, 2011). A second limitation suggests leadership development does not only exist within a school structure; there are other factors connected to the leadership equation such as community, home, and society when assessing leadership ability within youth (Hindes, 2011). The dissertation study was limited to school factors due to the time limitations for doctoral field study.

Moreover, the YLQ contains only three domains that typify leadership: emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and self-concept. The three domains allow for the measurement of leadership capacity through a limited framework (Hindes, 2011). Leadership is multidimensional and has the potential to take on different meanings according to the context of its use. Northouse (2010) states, “there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are people who have tried to define it” (p.2). Nonetheless, leadership does not have one universal meaning. Furthermore, the tool used in the dissertation study embodies only a few characteristics of leadership. Therefore, there may be other domains that can be integrated in the YLQ that relate to leadership. Adding additional domains would advance the sophistication and depth into viewing and gauging youth leadership capacity in students and adolescents (Hindes, 2011). Moreover, adding additional questions that have a relationship to the leadership domains will afford an opportunity to probe deeply into youth leadership capacity through this type of self-reporting instrument.

Another important limitation of the dissertation study is the omission of questionnaires. The first reason for the omission of questionnaires is due to incomplete data sets, which means that the researcher was not able to link required independent variables to certain questionnaires because the student neglected to write in their

identification number. The second reason for the omission of questionnaires is due to incomplete surveys. Incomplete surveys were omitted because the participant missed one or more questions out of the 18 item self-report instrument. The composite score is the dependent variable in this study and needed to reflect the student's total leadership capacity based on a score from all 18 items presented on the YLQ.

Lastly, the reporting population for students who missed school more than 20 times was smaller than anticipated. The sub-set sample population number of students who missed school more than 20 times was only 34 out 284 in this group, which is only 12%. If there were more participants in this sub-set sample group, it may have influenced the data results to reflect a significant difference in the YLQ scores of students who attend school on a regular basis and those students who do not attend school on a regular basis assuming equal variances. According to the reported data, 203 students out of a total population of 707 students, which is 28% of the total student population of ninth and tenth graders, missed more than 20 days of school in a 180 day school year.

Recommendations

In the 21st century, leadership development has taken precedence in the workforce and higher educational institutions. Pace (2012) informs us that organizations and businesses know the importance of building leaders in a global society to retain human capital. In order to meet these efforts of developing leaders, there needs to be educational outlets that support leadership development at early ages. In addition, the need for leadership supports the idea that leader preparation needs to start as soon as an individual enters elementary school. Leadership development occurs across a lifespan and there are many contributing factors to the development of leadership. There are also various steps

in which individuals take to enhance and formulate these skills. Youth leadership development programs are typically used to help the advancement and procurement of leadership skills in youth. Unfortunately, many programs are elite driven meaning that youth from high economic backgrounds and exclusive groups only participate in those programs. Youth leadership development programs do not reflect or cater to the needs of all youth (Kress, 2006). The following recommendations are for future researchers, stakeholders, policy makers, educators, government, and not-for-profit and business entities:

New youth leadership assessment tools. Since leadership is a highly sought after commodity and there are programs and trainings dedicated to leadership development, future research is needed to develop multiple tools to measure youth leadership capacity. These tools to need encompass additional domains beyond the three noted in the dissertation study and probe deeper into youth leadership capacity. Such tools are crucial to measuring the effectiveness of curriculum and programs established to advance leadership development in youth. Instruments used to assess leadership capacity are valuable tools that give insight into the success of curriculum and programs develop and further leadership capacity in youth. These instruments should have the ability to measure participant's growth or lack thereof as a result of participating in leadership development venues. Such an awareness will better aid administrators of these programs and help develop curriculum to better serve consumers.

Early learning that supports leadership. Youth leadership development not only occurs inside school environments but also outside the school environment. Since there are several influences that contribute to leadership development outside of the

school setting, a start could be early learning experiences that affect leadership development in minority youth. Future research needs to focus on determining what early learning experiences affects and influences the minority youth leadership development process. One way to proceed into early learning experiences is to probe deeply into how the family structure influences the leadership development, and the research should take into consideration the impact of the child being a product of a family with two adults as head of household and of single parent households.

Research should also investigate the impact of a child having siblings and the child's relative position on the family continuum; are they the oldest, middle, and or youngest child. Research should also take into consideration the child's or children's household or related responsibilities and its impact on them. According to Murphy and Johnson (2011), exploring early learning experiences and the impact and influence on leadership development could offer valuable insight and understanding into early leadership development. Furthermore, "research is needed which explores the impact of early influences of leadership on later leadership outcomes" (Murphy & Johnson, 2011, p. 467).

Define how minority urban youth conceptualize leadership. In that there are many definitions and concepts of leadership, future research needs to develop an understanding of how minority urban youth conceptualize leadership. In addition, research should seek to understand who influences leadership, who are youth leaders, and how youth believe they display leadership. Insight into the ways minority urban school students perceive leadership will aid in bridging the gap between adult structured programs and the actual needs of minority youth school students. Furthermore, there

needs to be an understanding into what youth need in order to develop leadership capacity. Too often youth, and minority youth in particular, are overlooked in the leadership equation; however, these young people are the very ones expected to assume leadership roles as adults. Young peoples' thoughts need to be included as part of the leadership equation. Doing so will allow the services and programs that offer leadership development to reflect the needs of the youth they intend to serve.

Replicate the study with a different population. The sample population used in this study consisted of ninth and tenth grade minority school students living and attending High school in an urban community in the Lower Hudson Valley. This population of high school students already has some level of success and exposure to leadership as reported by the Youth Leadership Questionnaire. This researcher recommends that future researchers of youth leadership repeat this study utilizing the YLQ on younger populations. The younger population can include elementary age students and middle school age students, these students are still in there early development stages and may not have as much exposure to leadership. This study repeated on a younger sample population may offer different results and insights into the different variables used in this study.

Implement leadership programs in K-12. Leadership development needs to start at an elementary school level. Pace (2012) argues that due to the increasing demand from organizations for leadership development, leadership development should start as early as an elementary school age. Leadership skills start developing at early ages in individuals, and at different paces. Elementary, Middle Schools, and High schools need to implement a leadership curriculum for all students. This curriculum should have

components that reflect theory and practice. Youth need to learn the diversity of leadership and have available space to exhibit and practice leadership skills. In addition, youth can practice these leadership skills by mentoring younger individuals. This not only allows youth to practice leadership, it also enables them to learn from each other. Furthermore, not all youth are strong academically, financially secure enough to obtain spots in leadership programs, or choose to participate in extracurricular activities. However, a leadership curriculum designed for all youth and implemented in the K-12 arena will make leadership development more inclusive. This in turn will provide equal opportunity in leadership development for all youth and will further develop the skills that employers seek in qualified candidates.

Collaboration among key stakeholders. Community based organizations, government agencies, and educational agencies and institutions should collaborate to develop a sustainable partnership that affords all young people the opportunity and accessibility to leadership development opportunities. Collaboration among the key stakeholders in the community will further cultivate leadership development in youth. This partnership can take the form of providing meaningful leadership, job, and life skills opportunities. Such programs will offer experiential learning and help young people gain and develop workplace skills, which will aid the leadership development process. In a similar context, MacNeil (2006) notes that leadership is a learned commodity, is refined by practice, and youth should “have opportunities not only to develop skills and knowledge but also to apply them in meaningful and authentic ways” (p. 33). Developing leadership skills is like planting seeds, they need to be watered continuously and exposed

to sun in order to grow. These young individuals need continued exposure to leadership in order for their skills to grow and flourish.

Include youth in planning leadership programs. Youth leadership curriculum and leadership programs within the community should be forward thinking to address the needs of youth. In order to address the needs of young people, they should be included in the development process. Too often, leadership programs are designed to reflect what adults consider essential to youth leadership development; however, by including and “tapping into the insights, talents, and energies of young people can help groups and communities develop and implement effective solutions” (MacNeil, 2006, p. 38).

Because leadership programs are offered to the youth, youth should help develop them through lending their voice through interviews, focus groups, observations, and surveys. If youth are considered in the development process, not only will their voice be heard, their voices will aid in development of programs that better serve their needs. MacNeil (2006) accentuates the importance of having young people involved in the creation of leadership programs, curriculums, and trainings suited for them. She states that their “contributions are useful, but also that their energy, knowledge, talents, and skills are crucial in solving the challenges faced by modern-day organizations and communities” (p. 38).

Conclusion

This investigation was intended to further expand the youth leadership literature to include minority youth in the leadership equation. Youth in general are noticeably absent from the literature on youth, and minority youth are especially absent. The dissertation research is an invaluable contribution to the body of research. The findings

demonstrate that there are positive attributes that youth have that stakeholders need to gain awareness of and devote time to providing opportunities for all students to develop and refine leadership skills.

The dissertation study, a quantitative investigation into the leadership capacity of minority youth, uses a sample population of 322 ninth and tenth grade urban school students in a medium sized secondary school in the Lower Hudson Valley of New York. Each of the participants took the Youth Leadership Questionnaire (YLQ), an 18-item valid and reliable self-report instrument that measured leadership capacity in relation to self-concept, self-efficacy, and emotional intelligence. After totaling the composite scores of the YLQ, independent t-tests, and Spearman correlation determine whether any relationships and differences exists between minority youth leadership capacity (based on the YLQ) and gender, achievement, attendance, grade, extracurricular activities, and socio economic status.

This study reveals that no relationship exists between the YLQ scores of ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students and school dependent variables: achievement, gender, extracurricular activities, attendance, grade, and socio economic status. Furthermore, the study shows no differences between ninth and tenth grade minority urban school students' YLQ scores when comparing gender, achievement level, school attendance, grade level, participation in extracurricular activities, and socioeconomic status as measured by the three variables in the YLQ.

The YLQ scores indicate that all youth have leadership capacity as determined by the three domains, self-concept, emotional intelligence, and self- efficacy. The lowest possible score an individual can score on the YLQ is 18 and the highest possible is score

126. The lowest score in this study is 60 and the highest scored is 124. The mean score of all 322 participants is 96.28 with a standard deviation of 12.8. In addition, 12% of the study's participants scored at or between 60 and 80, 48% scored at or between 81-100, and 40% scored at or between 101-124. Within the overall population, 17% scored at or between 109 and 126, representing the sub sample population that scored the highest on the YLQ.

The dissertation also discusses the limitations of the study and offers recommendations for future research. Although, the study is not generalizable to all populations, it offers valuable insight into the leadership capacity of minority school students in particular. Leadership capacity is limited to self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and self-concept in this study; however, there are other domains that typify leadership beyond the three utilized in the study to assess leadership capacity in youth. It is important that efforts are made to further evaluate leadership capacity in youth.

Youth have leadership skills and the capacity to cultivate these existing abilities. Educators, policymakers, government entities, community organizations, and key stakeholders need to create avenues of opportunities for young people to further develop these abilities and implement leadership development curriculum and programs. The implementation of leadership development in schools will further prepare all children for careers in a global technological society. The dissertation study reveals that all students are not high academic achievers; however, most if not all students have the capacity to develop leadership skills that are transferable to society.

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Appendix A

YOUTH LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Name :
Gender: Male or Female
Month and Year of Birth:
I am a ninth or tenth grader who participates in Extra Curriculum Activities with MVHS (please indicate) YES or NO Please indicate all current activities:
I am a ninth or tenth grader who is currently playing junior or Varsity Sports with MVHS (please indicate) YES or NO Please indicate all sports:

For each question below, **circle** the number to the right, that best fits your opinion on the importance of each item.

Use scale above the question, to match your opinion.

	Questions	Always	Most Often	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom	Very rarely	Never
Q1	I will keep on trying even if I am not successful.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q2	I always make an effort to make new people feel welcome.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q3	I feel comfortable speaking in public (in front of an audience).	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q4	I enjoy new challenges.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Q5	I am aware that my decisions have consequences.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q6	I am willing to stand up for myself.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q7	I can effectively use others' feedback to improve myself.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q8	I make an effort to effectively communicate with others.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q9	I can generally avoid negative situations.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q10	It bothers me when others have their feelings hurt.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q11	When I try something, I usually succeed.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q12	I am good at problem solving.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q13	I am generally good at making decisions.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q14	I can do things well.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q15	I am content with who I am.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q16	When I need something, I can usually get it.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q17	I feel a close bond with my friends and family.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Q18	I enjoy working	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

8	with others							
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Thank you for participating in this very important survey.

Appendix B

YLQ Scoring

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 60	1	.3	.3	.3
63	1	.3	.3	.6
64	1	.3	.3	.9
65	1	.3	.3	1.2
66	2	.6	.6	1.9
67	2	.6	.6	2.5
69	1	.3	.3	2.8
70	2	.6	.6	3.4
71	1	.3	.3	3.7
72	1	.3	.3	4.0
73	3	.9	.9	5.0
74	3	.9	.9	5.9
75	2	.6	.6	6.5
76	2	.6	.6	7.1
77	2	.6	.6	7.8
78	5	1.6	1.6	9.3
79	4	1.2	1.2	10.6
80	4	1.2	1.2	11.8
81	8	2.5	2.5	14.3
82	6	1.9	1.9	16.1
83	5	1.6	1.6	17.7
84	2	.6	.6	18.3
85	4	1.2	1.2	19.6
86	5	1.6	1.6	21.1
87	7	2.2	2.2	23.3
88	8	2.5	2.5	25.8
89	7	2.2	2.2	28.0
90	10	3.1	3.1	31.1
91	10	3.1	3.1	34.2
92	7	2.2	2.2	36.3
93	12	3.7	3.7	40.1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
94	8	2.5	2.5	42.5
95	10	3.1	3.1	45.7
96	11	3.4	3.4	49.1
97	10	3.1	3.1	52.2
98	9	2.8	2.8	55.0
99	6	1.9	1.9	56.8
100	10	3.1	3.1	59.9
101	8	2.5	2.5	62.4
102	9	2.8	2.8	65.2
103	11	3.4	3.4	68.6
104	11	3.4	3.4	72.0
105	14	4.3	4.3	76.4
106	11	3.4	3.4	79.8
107	7	2.2	2.2	82.0
108	2	.6	.6	82.6
109	6	1.9	1.9	84.5
110	6	1.9	1.9	86.3
111	4	1.2	1.2	87.6
112	5	1.6	1.6	89.1
113	5	1.6	1.6	90.7
114	6	1.9	1.9	92.5
115	6	1.9	1.9	94.4
116	2	.6	.6	95.0
117	5	1.6	1.6	96.6
118	3	.9	.9	97.5
119	1	.3	.3	97.8
120	1	.3	.3	98.1
121	1	.3	.3	98.4
122	3	.9	.9	99.4
123	1	.3	.3	99.7
124	1	.3	.3	100.0
Total	322	100.0	100.0	