DEVELOPMENT AND EFFECTS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN ADOLESCENTS

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We developed and tested a model in which adolescents who perceive their parents exhibiting transformational leadership behaviors would themselves display these behaviors. In turn, adolescents who used transformational leadership behaviors in a team context (as rated by themselves, their peers, and their coach) would be rated as more effective, satisfying, and effort-evoking leaders by their peers and coaches. Participants were 112 high school students (mean age = 15.2 years) who were members of 11 sports teams, and their team coaches. Controlling for the effects of adolescents’ skills, results obtained using structural equation modeling supported the predicted model. Conceptual and empirical issues regarding the development and effects of transformational leadership in adolescents are discussed.

Despite ever increasing attention being paid to transformational leadership in the literature and its wide theoretical (Bass, 1997, 1998) and practical acceptance (Avolio, 1998), the development of transformational leadership behaviors has rarely been examined and remains little understood. Transformational leadership comprises four components, namely, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Idealized influence takes place

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when leaders build subordinates’ respect and trust by behaving in a fair manner and do what is right rather than what is expedient. Inspirational motivation occurs when leaders increase followers’ awareness of the mission or vision toward which they are working and raise followers’ expectations of what they can achieve, thereby motivating them to pursue the group’s goals. Transformational leaders use intellectual stimulation when they encourage their followers to look at old problems from new and differing perspectives, giving rise to followers’ creative thinking and innovation. Last, transformational leaders grant individualized attention to their followers, considering their needs and abilities. With their use of individualized consideration, transformational leaders play an especially important role in followers’ growth and development (Bass, 1985a, 1985b, 1990, 1998).

Transformational leadership has now been subjected to considerable empirical scrutiny. Transformational leadership predicts organizational performance in field (e.g., Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Howell & Avolio, 1993) and laboratory studies (e.g., Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Sosik, Avolio, & Kahai, 1997). What links transformational leadership indirectly to favorable organizational outcomes is its direct effects on subordinates’ satisfaction with (Hater & Bass, 1988), and trust in (Barling, Moutinho, & Kelloway, 1998; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996), their leaders, and the way in which it raises subordinates’ affective commitment (Barling et al., 1996) and self-efficacy beliefs (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1993).

Most of the research conducted on leadership in general, and transformational leadership in particular, has focused on its measurement (e.g., Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995) and/or on its effects. Some studies have identified factors that predispose individuals to choose to use transformational leadership, such as postconventional moral reasoning (Turner & Barling, 1998) or emotional intelligence (Slater, Barling, & Kelloway, 1998). The effects of parents and the home environment on leadership development have also been addressed (Karnes & D’Ilio, 1989), but the developmental origins of leadership remain elusive. Consequently, the aim of this study is to further our understanding of the development of leadership in children, and transformational leadership in particular.

Bass (1960) initially speculated about family factors that would promote the development of leadership in children. He suggested that leadership potential is greatest among the youngest siblings of the family, for children in families of four or five children, and for those children whose parents provide stimulating environments, opportunities for decision making, encouragement, and acceptance. Bronfenbrenner (1961) showed that leadership was more likely in families in which fathers are more highly educated and in which both parents are less rejecting, less punitive, and less overprotective. In turn, parent-child interactions reflecting these more positive qualities predisposed children to leadership behaviors. Klonsky (1983) found parental warmth, discipline, and achievement demands predicted leadership behaviors in a sample of high school students. Schneider, Paul, White, & Holcombe (1999) developed a comprehensive model, covering five construct domains, that predicted later leadership ratings for a sample of high school student leaders. This study was the first stage of a continuing research program to develop an understanding of the origin, development, and emergence of adult leadership behav-
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