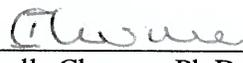## DISSERTATION APPROVED BY

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BREAKING PRECEDENT: ASSESSING THE LEADERSHIP
BEHAVIOR OF YOUNG LAWYERS IN LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

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By

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A DISSERTATION

Submitted to the faculty of the Graduate School of Creighton University in Partial

Fulfillment of the Requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education in the Department

of Interdisciplinary Studies

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Omaha, NE

August 17, 2015

Abstract

This study used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X-Short to assess the leadership behavior of young lawyers. The purpose of this quantitative study was to understand the type of leadership behaviors that young lawyers in Los Angeles, California engage in according to the full range theory of leadership. E-mail invitations were sent to 2,026 lawyers in Los Angeles, California who were first licensed to practice law in California on or after January 1, 2011. One hundred and seventy-seven complete survey responses were received from the target study population. The results were imported and analyzed in SPSS. T-tests, ANOVAs, and a general linear repeated measures ANOVA were conducted. Young lawyers reported engaging in transformational leadership behaviors significantly more frequently than active-transactional and passive-avoidant leadership behaviors. However, they reported engaging in transformational and active-transactional leadership behaviors significantly less frequently than non-lawyers based on a norm sample. Male lawyers reported engaging in four transformational leadership behaviors significantly more frequently than female young lawyers. Male young lawyers also reported engaging in one passive-avoidant leadership behavior more frequently than female young lawyers. Finally, young lawyers who had attended a leadership development program after law school reported engaging in two transformational leadership behaviors significantly more frequently than young lawyers who had not. Young lawyers who had attended a leadership development program after law school also reported engaging in one active-transactional leadership behavior more frequently than young lawyers who had not.

Dedication

For my high school sweetheart. And the mother of my four children.

Acknowledgements

I am grateful to my dissertation committee who has been instrumental in helping me to develop a thoughtful and relevant study. And I am grateful to the young lawyers who took time out of their busy schedules to complete the survey that I e-mailed to them. Without them, this study would not have been possible.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

Lawyers have filled prominent leadership roles in government and business since the founding of our country (Sorenson, n.d.). Despite the long lineage of lawyer-statesmen and lawyer-business leaders, the legal academy and profession has largely absconded with its duty to develop leadership capacity in lawyers. Stanford Law Professor Deborah Rhode has argued that "[t]he legal profession attracts a large number of individuals with the ambition and analytic capabilities to be leaders, but frequently fails to develop other qualities that are essential to effectiveness" (Rhode, 2013a, p. 1). During the last several years, things have started to change. Legal academics and members of the bar have been calling for the need to train lawyers to be better leaders (Monopoli & McCarty, 2013; Rubenstein, 2008; Tyner, 2014). In response, law schools and bar associations across the country have been developing leadership programs for law students and lawyers (Monopoli & McCarty, 2013; Rubenstein, 2008). There are, however, few studies about lawyers and leadership to inform the development of these programs (Tyner, 2014). This study seeks to fill this gap by providing data about how young lawyers behave as leaders so that lawyer-leadership programs can develop effective curricula.

This quantitative study assessed the leadership behavior of young lawyers in Los Angeles, California using an empirically-validated leadership development questionnaire. The results were analyzed to determine whether any patterns exist in young lawyer leadership behavior, and were compared to non-lawyers using a norm sample. Using the

study results as a guide, this dissertation concludes with proposing leadership

development objectives for young lawyers.

Statement of the Problem

This study addressed the problematic gap in research concerning the leadership

development of lawyers (Tyner, 2014). Previous research on lawyers and leadership has

addressed lawyer-personality traits (e.g., Daicoff, 1997; Richard, 2013), competencies

that make lawyers successful in law firms (e.g., Berman, Bock & Aiken, 2012), and case

studies about lawyer-leaders (e.g., Rhode, 2013a; Tyner, 2014). In many cases,

academics and legal practitioners have employed a patchwork of different leadership

theories and in some cases, no theory at all, in writing about lawyers and leadership. This

dissertation departed from what Rhode (2013a; 2010b) referred to as a cottage industry

approach to leadership development and used empirical methods to study young lawyer-

leadership behavior. The data obtained from this study should help inform the

development of leadership programs for lawyers.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative study was to understand the type of leadership

behaviors that young lawyers in Los Angeles, California engage in according to the full

range theory of leadership.

Theoretical Framework

This study focused on self-identified leadership behavior – not traits, skills, or

abilities –because behavior is an important predictor of leadership effectiveness (Avolio,

2010a; DeRue et al., 2011; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). This study

analyzed young lawyer leadership behavior according to the full-range theory of

leadership (Bass, 1999). This theory posits that leadership behavior exists on a

continuum with passive-avoidant leadership (essentially the absence of leadership) being

the least effective, and transformational leadership (inspirational leadership appealing to

followers' higher ordered needs) being the most effective (Goldkind & Pardasani, 2013).

Between passive-avoidant and transformational leadership is transactional leadership

which is characterized as quid pro quo exchanges between leaders and followers (e.g.,

leaders reward followers for their efforts) (Goldkind & Pardasani, 2013).

Instrumentation

This study used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5X-Short to

assess young lawyer leadership behavior under the full range theory of leadership. This

instrument was developed by leadership scholars Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio. It

consisted of 36 questions, which measured nine leadership dimensions that collectively

made up transformational leadership, active-transactional leadership, and passive-

avoidant leadership. The MLQ 5X-Short also had nine questions that assessed three

leadership outcomes. Although it is not without criticism, the MLQ is one of the most

widely-used instruments to assess leadership behavior (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008).

Research Question and Hypotheses

This study attempted to answer the following research question: What type of

leadership behaviors do young lawyers in Los Angeles, California engage in according to

the full range theory of leadership? More specifically, this study sought to determine

where young lawyers in Los Angeles fell on the continuum of the full range of leadership

behaviors, and whether any patterns in leadership behavior existed.

This dissertation tested four hypotheses:

H1: Young lawyers will score higher on active-transactional leadership compared to transformational leadership.

This hypothesis was based on the concept that burgeoning law students are taught to "think like a lawyer," which is characterized by rational, logical thinking that is devoid of emotional considerations (Hall, 2005). In this regard, lawyers-in-the-making are taught that "one must detach and remove oneself from the problem and from the individuals being served. Within the domain of the attorney personality is a fundamental belief that emotions get in the way of thinking clearly" (Hall, 2005, p. 91). While the research is far from equivocal, some studies have found that lawyers and law students tend to view morality based on obedience to laws and regulations, and they value conformance to the existing social order (Daicoff, 1997). Richard (2013) studied the lawyer-personality and found that compared to the norm, lawyers tend to be more skeptical, less sociable, less resilient, and have a higher sense of urgency.

The perception of lawyers as being robotic-like thinkers, and the research on their moral reasoning and personality seems at odds with transformational leadership, which tends to emerge based on the emotional connections that leaders establish with others (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). Transformational leaders are visionary change agents who motivate followers by appealing to their higher ordered needs (Burns, 2010). Transactional leadership, on the other hand, seems to be more consistent with the existing research about lawyers. Transactional leadership is based on an exchange relationship between leaders and followers (Burns, 2010). Transactional leaders operate within an organization's existing structure and culture; they avoid risk, focus on efficiency, and

prefer procedures and processes to maintain control (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

H2: Young lawyers will score lower on the transformational leadership dimensions compared to non-lawyers.

This hypothesis was based on existing research about who lawyers are, and how they think, which appears to be at odds with transformational leadership, as explained in the rationale for H1. H2 was also based on studies that have found that the lawyer-personality differs from the norm in certain respects, which may be inconsistent with transformational leadership (Berman, Bock, & Aiken, 2012; Daicoff, 1997; Richard, 2013). Among leaders of human services organizations, those with Juris Doctorates had the lowest transformational leadership scores (Goldkind & Pardasani, 2013). Goldkind and Pardasani (2013) was not a study about lawyers, and their results are limited by a small subset of respondents who had juris doctorates (n 13). Nonetheless, this study anticipated results consistent with Goldkind and Pardasani (2013), namely, that young lawyers will have lower transformational leadership scores compared to non-lawyers.

H3: Young lawyers will score higher on the active-transactional leadership dimensions compared to non-lawyers.

This hypothesis was based largely on the rationale for H1 and H2, which explained that lawyers differ from the norm in ways that indicate that they may be more likely to engage in transactional leadership behaviors.

H4: Young lawyers will score lower on the leadership outcome measures compared to non-lawyers.

This hypothesis was based on Goldkind and Pardasani (2013), who found that among leaders of human services organizations, those with Juris Doctorates scored the lowest on two of the MLQ's leadership outcome criterions, and scored the second lowest on the third outcome criterion. This study anticipated results consistent with Goldkind and Pardasani (2013).

Method Overview

Two thousand three-hundred (2,300) lawyers in Los Angeles, California who had been licensed to practice law since January 1, 2011, were randomly identified using the California State Bar website. Two thousand and twenty-six (2,026) of those lawyers were sent e-mails inviting them to complete an online survey about leadership behavior. The survey consisted of two parts: part one was 11 demographic and background questions; and part two was the 45-item MLQ 5X-Short.

Definition of Terms

Defined terms for this study included the following:

Contingent reward (**CR):** is one of two active-transactional leadership behaviors under the full range theory of leadership and is assessed by four items on the MLQ 5X-Short.

Effectiveness (EFF): is one of three leadership outcomes assessed by four items on the MLQ 5X-Short.

Extra Effort (EE): is one of three leadership outcomes assessed by four items on the MLQ 5X-Short.

Idealized influence (attributed) (**IIA**): is one of five transformational leadership behaviors under the full range theory of leadership and is assessed by four items on the MLQ 5X-Short.

Idealized influence (behavior) (**IIB**): is one of five transformational leadership behaviors under the full range theory of leadership and is assessed by four items on the MLQ 5X-Short.

Individualized consideration (**IC**): is one of five transformational leadership behaviors under the full range theory of leadership and is assessed by four items on the MLQ 5X-Short.

Inspirational motivation (IM): is one of five transformational leadership behaviors under the full range theory of leadership and is assessed by four items on the MLQ 5X-Short.

Intellectual stipulation (IS): is one of five transformational leadership behaviors under the full range theory of leadership and is assessed by four items on the MLQ 5X-Short.

Management-by-exception (active) (MBEA): is one of two active-transaction leadership behaviors under the full range theory of leadership and is assessed by four items on the MLQ 5X-Short.

Large law firm: a law firm with more than 101 lawyers.

Laissez-faire (LF): is one of two passive-avoidant leadership behaviors under the full range theory of leadership and is assessed by four items on the MLQ 5X-Short.

Management-by-Exception (Passive) (**MBEP**): is one of two passive-avoidant leadership behaviors under the full range theory of leadership and is assessed by four items on the MLQ 5X-Short.

Satisfaction (SAT): is one of three leadership outcomes assessed by four items on the MLQ 5X-Short.

Small law firm: a sole practitioner or a law firm with less than 6 lawyers

Young Lawyer: a lawyer who was first licensed to practice law in any jurisdiction on or after January 1, 2011, regardless of age.

Assumptions

This study used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X-Short to assess the leadership behavior of young lawyers. This instrument has been widely used, criticized, and validated as accurately assessing leadership behavior in a variety of contexts (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). This study assumed that the MLQ 5X-Short is an effective tool for measuring the leadership behaviors of young lawyers.

This study was based on lawyers' self-rated assessments of their own behavior. While self-assessments are not as informative as 360-degree assessments, this study assumed that self-assessments provide insight into how lawyers actually behave as leaders. In this regard, this study followed the approach used by leadership researchers who have studied self-rated leadership behaviors in different contexts (see Horwitz et al., 2008 ; Goldkind & Pardasani, 2003).

This study also assumed that the there were approximately 2,334 lawyers who have been licensed to practice law in California since January 1, 2011, with a City of Los Angeles address listed on the California State Bar website between August 30, 2014, and

October 12, 2014. This estimate is based on an analysis of publicly available

information, and is described in Chapter 3.

Limitations and Delimitations

The study sample was identified through publicly available information on the

California State Bar website. The sample was limited to lawyers who had been licensed

to practice law in California since January 1, 2011, and who had a City of Los Angeles

address listed on the California State Bar website between August 30, 2014, and October

30, 2014.   It was not determined whether the address information on the State Bar

website was accurate. Some of the respondents may not have updated their addresses on

the website and may not have been living or working in Los Angeles when they received

the invitation to participate in this study. The results of this study may not be applicable

to lawyers who were first licensed to practice law before January 1, 2011, and to lawyers

who live or work outside of Los Angeles. Further, this study was also limited to

measuring young lawyers' self-perceived leadership behaviors. A leader's perception of

his or her behavior may not accurately reflect how he or she actually behaves or is

perceived to behave by others (Bass & Avolio, 2011). To obtain the most complete and

accurate picture of how a leader behaves, a 360-degree assessment would be needed

(Bass & Avolio, 2011).

The exclusive means to invite participants to complete the survey was e-mail

correspondence: one initial e-mail message inviting respondents to complete the survey

was sent, and most respondents received one reminder e-mail. Many of the e-mail

invitations and reminder e-mails were sent on weekdays before 7:00 a.m., weeknights

after 7:00 p.m., and weekends. The timing of the e-mail invitations may have impacted

the response rates. Further, there were no control measures to prevent individuals who

had been invited to complete the survey from forwarding the e-mail invitation to others.

The e-mail invitations were also sent manually to each respondent. The researcher

personally addressed and sent every e-mail, instead of using a program to send automated

e-mails, or a mass e-mail to all respondents at one time. In total, approximately 4,000

combined invitation and reminder e-mails were sent. Given the volume of e-mails, some

e-mails contained typos, a few reminder e-mails were inadvertently sent more than once

to respondents, and a few respondents may not have been sent reminder e-mails.

Significance of the Study

Lawyer-leadership scholar Dr. Artika Tyner wrote that "[p]resently, there is a

dearth of research related to leadership development for lawyers; only a few key

empirical studies are available on this topic" (Tyner, 2014, p. 4). This study is significant

because it helps to close this research gap. The results from this study should provide

insight into how young lawyers behave, or at least how they perceived they behave, as

leaders. In this regard, Rubenstein (2008) wrote extensively on the value of leadership

assessments in helping to promote self-awareness to improve leadership capacity. This

study further comports with what Rhode (2013) contends is needed in the field of lawyer-

leadership development. Rhode (2013) argued that "[t]he process [of teaching

leadership] would be more effective if it were more mindful, and more informed by

research on leadership" (p. 28). With the insight developed from this study, leadership

programs for lawyers should be better informed to develop effective curricula.

Summary

Since the founding of the United States, lawyers have filled a high proportion of leadership positions in government, business, and the non-profit sector (Sorenson, n.d.). Given the important role that lawyers play as leaders, academics and legal practitioners have identified the need to train lawyers to be better leaders. Little empirical evidence exists, however, about how lawyers behave as leaders. This study attempted to close this research gap by studying the self-perceived leadership behavior of young lawyers in Los Angeles, California using a specific theoretical construct, and an empirically validated leadership assessment instrument. The results from this study should be valuable to leadership development programs for lawyers.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW
Introduction

The legal profession is undergoing what some may call a leadership crisis (Daicoff, 1997; Rhode, 2010). This crisis has been in the making for years and has been attributed to the indoctrination that occurs in law school and perpetuated by the culture and values of the legal profession (Hall, 2005). The profession has lost the ideal of the "lawyer- statesmen" – the type of lawyer who is technically proficient, wise, and uses the law to advance not just private ends, but also the public good (Kronman, 2001, pp. 14-15). Despite the fact that lawyers fill leadership roles in other sectors of society at a higher rate than any other profession, the legal profession has traditionally done little to train lawyers to be leaders (Rhode, 2013).

The historical role of lawyers serving in leadership positions is hardly in dispute. The United States was founded by lawyer-leaders. Of the fifty-six individuals who signed the Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776, 25 of them were lawyers (Sorenson, n.d.). Of the 55 framers of the U.S. Constitution, 39 were lawyers (Sorenson, n.d.). Since then, some of the United States' greatest leaders have been lawyers (Kronman, 2001). Lawyers have historically made up 40% to 65% of Congress, and 58% of U.S. Presidents have been lawyers (Sorenson, n.d.). Lawyers also seem to disproportionately fill leadership positions as governors, state legislators, and heads of government agencies, businesses, and nonprofit organizations (Rhode, 2013; Sorenson, n.d.).

Lawyers also serve as leaders in their traditional roles as members of the legal profession. Lawyers have been the architects of the winning and losing sides of landmark Supreme Court cases that have shaped society, and depending on one's perspective, cases

that have preserved or whittled away rights to equality, liberty, due process, and privacy. Lawyers fought for and against separate but equal standards of education in *Brown v. Board of Education*, lawyers fought for and against the rights of criminal suspects in *Miranda v. Arizona*, lawyers fought for and against a woman's right to privacy to abortion decisions in *Roe v. Wade*, and more recently, lawyers fought for and against the constitutionality of healthcare reform in *National Federation of Independent Business v. Sebelius,* and lawyers fought for and against gay rights in *U.S. v. Windsor*. And in less dramatic roles, lawyers serve as leaders of other lawyers in law firms, government agencies, and law offices (Rhode, 2011b). Lawyers also serve as leaders for their clients (Cullen, 2009). Lawyers are called upon to be advocates, solve problems, and give advice on issues that can have wide ranging societal and organizational impact (Cullen, 2009).

A paradox seems to exist. The mathematical-like reasoning taught in law school and developed through a lawyer's career may be one reason lawyers become leaders within the legal profession, and outside of the legal profession. "Lawyers' analytical skills and unique qualification to draft, assess, and adopt laws and regulations place attorneys in the intersection of leadership in the public arena of business, politics, and civic life" (James, 2011, pp. 411). But overreliance on attributes that make lawyers successful as lawyers may be antithetical to effective leadership. Indeed, leadership is an inherently emotional relationship between a leader and his or her followers (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). A leader who believes that he or she can lead others through cold, analytical thinking without resonating with followers' emotions may have limited success as a leader (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013).

The need for leadership in the legal profession has never been stronger. The law practice environment is in a state of flux and is becoming increasingly complex (Smith & Marrow, n.d.). Law firms are struggling to cost effectively meet the needs of clients and retain talented lawyers in what has been described as the "new normal" of the profession following the Great Recession (Lippe, 2014; Smith & Marrow, n.d.). Within the last decade, major law firms have gone out of business including Brobeck, Phelger, & Harison in 2003, Howrey & Simon in 2011, Dewey & LeBouf in 2012, among others (Grella, 2013; Hilderbrandt, 2008). These failures may indicate a lack of strategic and visionary leadership skills by law firm leaders (Grella, 2013; Rhode, 2013). One study found that the most pressing challenges facing law firms include building strategic leadership skills, managing talent and promoting sustainability, making decisions and setting strategic direction, retaining clients and prompting client satisfaction, managing growth, and developing new and existing markets and practice areas (Smith & Marrow, n.d.)

The effects of poor leadership by lawyers may be spilling into the wider society. The public tends to distrust lawyers, views them negatively, and has little confidence in law firm leaders (ABA, 2002; Rhode, 2011b; Rubenstein, 2008). The public's lack of confidence in Congress may be a product of the number of lawyers serving in Congress. These negative "perceptions in part reflect the sheer number of lawyer-leaders involved in political, financial, and sexual scandals, something which should, but oddly does not, seem to be a source of serious embarrassment to the bar" (Rhode, 2011b, p. 473). Lawyer-leaders are needed to shepherd solutions to solve social justice ills (Tyner, 2014).

Leadership training for lawyers has been offered as a solution to the problems facing the legal profession, as well as a way to help train lawyers to better deal with the stress of their work, to alleviate the dissatisfaction they have with their careers, and to reduce turnover and legal profession defection rates (Rubenstein, 2008). Over the last decade, law schools such as Elon University, University of Maryland, Santa Clara University, and Stanford University have begun offering leadership development courses and programs for law students. Bar associations including the Nebraska State Bar, the Indiana State Bar, the Alabama State Bar, and the Young Lawyers Division of the George State Bar have begun offering leadership academies and continuing legal education programs for lawyers. The Center for Creative Leadership also has a curriculum designed specifically for developing leadership skills in lawyers.

While the legal profession is beginning to recognize the need and value of leadership training for lawyers, there is a dearth of empirical research about lawyers and their leadership skills, abilities and behaviors (Tyner, 2014). Without this research, leadership development programs may not be as effective as they could be, and should be. This study seeks to close this research gap by studying the leadership behavior of young lawyers in Los Angeles, California.

Chapter Two is presented as follows: first, leadership is defined and the development of leadership theory is reviewed. Next, the full range theory of leadership and studies that have analyzed leadership using the multifactor leadership questionnaire are reviewed. Following the presentation of the theoretical foundation of this study, literature addressing lawyers and leadership is reviewed. Finally, this chapter concludes

with a review of leadership development programs hosted by law schools and bar associations.

Leadership Theory

Leadership has been defined in many ways. At the core of each definition is the notion that leadership is about influencing others and creating change. "Effective leadership involves influencing others so that they are motivated to contribute to the achievement of group goals" (Haslam, Reicher, & Platow, 2011, p. 1). In the context of the legal profession, "[l]eadership is the creation and fulfillment of worthwhile opportunities by honorable means" (Rubenstein, 2008, p. 13). And in analyzing the legal profession, Hall (2005) concluded that "[t]rue leaders contain and transmit a power that can change people and circumstances, based not on the authority of the position, but on the value and talents they have harnessed for good" (p. 176). Spearheading leadership development in law school, the Santa Clara University School of Law has defined leadership as "[t]he process by which an individual or group influences others to achieve positive, ethical change" (Cullen, 2009, p. 13).

For centuries, scholars and leaders have searched for the secrets of leadership. In the last fifty years alone, more than 1,000 studies have been conducted "in an attempt to determine the definitive styles, characteristics, or personality traits of great leaders" (George, 2007, p. 129). So many different theories of leadership exist that some scholars have called for a moratorium on new theories, and have urged researchers to focus on integrating and falsifying existing theories (Derue et al., 2011). In writing about lawyers and leadership, Rubenstein (2008) identified "[a]pproximately 90 brands of leadership on the market" (p. 153). Different leadership theories have produced, or attempted to

produce, different profiles of what makes an individual an effective leader (Andersen,

2005; Bass, 1985; Kousez & Posner, 2012; Mann, 1959). Those profiles are typically

composed of traits, behaviors, attributes, characteristics, skills, and competencies, and are

used to develop leadership training programs and to assess individual leadership ability

(Andersen, 2005; Bass, 1985; Kousez & Posner, 2012; Mann, 1959).

The Trait Theory of Leadership

Trait theory is the earliest theory of leadership and is based on the notion that

there are certain traits that make individuals leaders (Glynn & DeJordy, n.d.) Original

trait theorists believed that leaders were born, and not made (Glynn & DeJordy, n.d.)

"Greek philosophers such as Plato, Aristotle, and Socrates all assumed that leadership

required exceptional personal qualities, particularly intelligence" (Rhode & Packel,

2011). Social theorist Max Weber believed that what set leaders apart from non-leaders

was charisma (Nye, 2008; Rhode & Packel, 2011). Charisma has been defined to include

the ability of a leader to influence followers by helping them to find meaning and value in

their work (Podolny, Khurana, & Besharov, n.d.). Moving away from the idea that

leaders are born not made, modern trait theorists have acknowledged that individuals

have the ability to develop attributes necessary for effective leadership (Zaccaro, 2007).

Despite decades of research, trait theory has failed to identify a universal set of traits that

explained effective leadership, and it has failed to explain why individuals with purported

leadership traits fail to become leaders (Glynn & DeJordy, n.d., p. 122).

Mann (1959) conducted one of the earliest meta-analyses of studies about

personality traits and leadership. The analysis included studies conducted from 1900

through October 1957, and more than 500 personality measures were identified (Mann,

1959). Of those 500 measures, seven personality traits were isolated for analysis based

on their dominant use in the literature (Mann, 1959). Those traits were intelligence,

adjustment, extroversion, dominance, masculinity, conservatism, and sensitivity (Mann,

1959). These seven personality traits were analyzed to determine whether they correlated

with leadership.   A positive significant correlation was found between intelligence and

leadership (Mann, 1959).   Adjustment was positively and significantly correlated with

leadership, but the strength of the correlation depended on how leadership was measured

(Mann, 1959). Specifically, the correlation between adjustment and leadership was

strongest based on peer leadership ratings, and weaker when leadership was measured

based on one having a formal leadership position (Mann, 1959). In contrast, extroversion

was positively and significantly correlated with one having a formal leadership position,

but not based how peers rated the leader (Mann, 1959). Dominance, masculinity, and

interpersonal sensitivity were also positively related to leadership. Conservatism was

negatively related to leadership (Man, 1959). Despite the positive relationships between

six of the seven personality traits and leadership, the strength of the correlations were

relatively low (Mann, 1959). The median correlation was between .15 and .20, and the

strongest correlation was .34 (Mann, 1959).

　　　　More recently, Andersen (2005) surveyed traditional and modern studies about

leadership and personality in search of a set of traits that predict leadership. The studies

showed varying and inconsistent relationships between personality traits and leadership

(Andersen, 2005).   While certain personality traits explained some variance in leadership

emergence (i.e., who emerges as a leader), personality traits alone did not adequately

explain whether an individual emerges as a leader (Andersen, 2005).   While personality

traits were associated with perceptions of leadership, the correlations between the two

were not strong (Andersen, 2005).   Finally, no consensus was found in the literature

regarding what personality traits are linked to effective leadership (Andersen, 2005).

"The assumption that there is a relationship between leaders' personality and

organizational effectiveness is illogical" (Andersen, 2005, p. 1084). Leadership is about

the impact a leader has on others; personality by-itself does not impact other people

(Andersen, 2005). It is a leader's behavior that impacts others (Andersen, 2005). This is

why the leadership studies field has turned to looking at leadership behaviors, instead of

traits to explain leadership (Andersen, 2005). Despite this trend, some research continues

to advocate for the relevance of personality traits in leadership (see e.g., Judge et al.,

2002; Zaccaro, 2007). But overall, the trait theory of "leadership has largely been

discredited" (Fernandez, 2008, p. 197).

Behavioral Theories of Leadership

Recognizing that trait theory inadequately explained leadership, two researchers

from The Ohio State University spearheaded the development of the first behavioral

theories of leadership in the 1950s (Holtz & Harold, 2013 (citing Fleishman, 1951, 1957;

Hemphill, 1957). Leadership professor Andrew Halpin argued that "[w]e will greatly

increase our understanding of leadership phenomena if we abandon the notion of

'leadership' as a trait, and concentrate instead on an analysis of the behavior of leaders"

(Halpin, 1956, p. 172).   One of the first behavioral theories of leadership was known as

consideration and structure (Fernandez, 2008). Consideration refers to people-oriented

leadership behavior and is marked by a leader's interpersonal skills, trust, care and

supporting subordinates' emotional needs, treating subordinates as equals, and listening

and seeking input from subordinates (Fernandez, 2008). Structure, on the other hand,

refers to task-oriented leadership behavior that focuses on meeting goals, organizing

activities and relationships, and directing subordinates (Fernandez, 2008).

The consideration and structure dimensions were identified by assessing the

leadership behavior of B-29 aircraft commanders while in training and combat (Halpin,

1954).   The original research testing this model found a trend moving in a negative

direction between consideration behaviors and the way a B-29 commander's superior

evaluated him (Halpin, 1954). In other words, the higher the consideration score, the

lower the superior's evaluation of the aircraft commander (Halpin, 1954). There was a

positive trend, however, between structure behaviors and the superiors' evaluation

(Halpin, 1954). On the other hand, the trends in the data showed that subordinates were

more satisfied with their commander when the commander scored higher on the

consideration dimension (Halpin, 1954).

The leadership constructs of consideration and structure were highly studied but

eventually gave way to other behavioral theories of research by the 1980s (Holtz &

Harold, 2013). Recently, though, there has been a renewed interest in these constructs.

Recent research has found that leaders who engage in high levels of consideration and

structure help to foster favorable perceptions of justice among subordinate-employees,

and help to reduce counterproductive workplace behaviors (Holtz & Harold, 2013).

Following the consideration-structure paradigm, the transactional-

transformational leadership paradigm was developed (DeRue et al., 2011). While

consideration and structure and transformational and transactional leadership paradigms

have been treated separately in the leadership studies literature, conceptually and

empirically, they overlap (Hartrog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997). In some respects, consideration is similar to transformational leadership behaviors, and structure is similar to transactional behaviors (Hartjog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997).

Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Transactional and transformational leadership theory is a subset of the broader behavioral theories of leadership (DeRue et al., 2011). Political scientist James McGregor Burns was among the first academics to develop the transactional-transformational leadership model in the late 1970s (Hartjog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997). Since then, transactional and transformational leadership has been studied at the neurological level (Balthazard et al., 2011). Transactional leadership refers to leaders who engage in exchange relationships with followers, and is often characterized by leaders who motivate followers through offering rewards and correcting deficiencies (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003). Burns argued that most leaders tend to be transactional and motivate followers by "exchanging one thing for another" – such as jobs for votes, or work effort for higher pay (Burns, 2010, p. 4). Transactional leaders operate within an organization's existing structure and culture; they avoid risk, focus on efficiency, and prefer procedures and processes to maintain control (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Because transactional leadership is based on an exchange relationship, there is nothing that binds leaders and followers "together in a mutual and continuing pursuit of a higher purpose" (Burns, 2010, p. 20).

Transformational leadership, on the other hand, describes leaders who are visionary, innovate and seek to change the status quo, motivate and mentor followers, build confidence and help followers reach their full potential (Eagly, Johannesen-

Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003). Transformational leaders appeal to and influence

followers "values and aspirations, activate their higher order needs, arouse them to

transcend their own self-interests for the sake of the organization" (Podsakoff,

MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996 (citing Bass, 1985; Yukl 1989a, 1989b)). Transformational

leadership occurs when individuals motivate one another by appealing to a higher

purpose (Burns, 2010). Transformational leadership becomes moral leadership by

elevating leaders and follower to a higher level of moral and ethical conduct (Burns,

2010).

Transactional and transformational leadership behaviors are often studied

together, in part, because the two behaviors are not mutually exclusive (Hartrog, Van

Muijen, & Koopman, 1997).   Leadership scholar Bernard Bass has argued that leaders

should augment transactional leadership with transformational leadership behaviors

(Bass, 1985).   Studies have found that both transactional and transformational leadership

behaviors can produce positive outcomes on organizations and individuals (Hamstra et

al., 2013). Transformational leadership, however, tends to be more effective than

transactional leadership behaviors (Bass, 1999).

Transformational leadership has been found to have a positive influence on job

satisfaction (Yun, Cox, & Sims, 2007). And it has been found to have an indirect

positive influence on team organizational citizenship behavior - which has been defined

as discretionary behavior that promotes team effectiveness (e.g., helping co-workers with

high workloads; helping newcomers adjust) (Yun, Cox, & Sims, 2007). The effect on

team organizational citizenship behavior was indirect in that transformational leadership

influences job satisfaction, and in turn, job satisfaction positively influences

organizational citizenship behavior(Yun, Cox, & Sims, 2007).

Dvir et al. (2002) conducted a longitudinal field experiment on the effect of

transformational leadership on follower development and performance in the Israeli

Defense Force (IDF). Infantry cadets were randomly assigned to different squads (Dvir

et al., 2002). Some squads were in the control group, and other squads in the

experimental group (Dvir et al., 2002). During phase one, the squads in the experimental

group received transformational leadership training, and the squads in the control groups

received traditional leadership training (Dvir et al., 2002). After the cadets had graduated

from their officer training, they were assigned to various leadership positions as new

officers – which was customary IDF practice (Dvir et al., 2002). During phase two,

officers who had been assigned as platoon leaders for enlisted basic training were tracked

and studied (Dvir et al., 2002).

At the conclusion of the four month basic training course, the impact the officers

had on their direct followers (e.g., non-commissioned offices), their indirect followers,

and their recruits completing basic training were assessed (Dvir et al., 2002). How well

the experimental group and control group developed their followers was measured (Dvir

et al., 2002). Development was assessed by evaluating satisfaction of follower self-

actualization needs, extra effort, internalization of organizational moral values,

collectivistic orientation, critical independent approach (i.e., critical independent

thinking), and self-efficacy (Dvir et al., 2002 p. 738).   Performance was assessed based

on how well recruits performed five routine IDF tasks: a written test on light weapons; a

practical test on light weapons, physical fitness, obstacle course, and marksmanship (Dvir et al., 2002).

The development and performance assessments for the control and experimental groups were compared (Dvir et al., 2002). The results of the study provided evidence of the direct and indirect positive effects of transformational leadership on follower development and performance (Dvir et al., 2002). Transformational leadership also had a positive impact on follower motivation, morality, and empowerment (Dvir et al., 2002). However, the results did not confirm the impact of transformational leadership "for direct followers' active engagement, internalization of moral values and self-actualization needs" (pp. 741-742). But, the mean scores for these measures were in a positive direction (Dvir et al., 2002). Despite various study limitations, the results provided support for the positive impact of transformational leadership on developing human resources in various organizational settings (Dvir et al., 2002).

Leadership interacts with other variables such as the characteristics of subordinates, the characteristics of tasks, and the characteristics of the organization (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). These characteristics have been called leadership substitutes (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Transformational leadership has been found to account for more variance in employee trust of their leaders, and courtesy than leadership substitutes (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Transformational leadership and leadership substitutes have been found to account for equal variance in employee in-role performance (i.e., meeting job requirements) and employee altruism (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). However, leadership substitutes have been found to account for more variance in employee satisfaction,

commitment to the organization, role clarity (i.e., understanding their role), civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship than transformational leadership (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). "In general, it appears that transformational leadership behaviors are relatively more critical to the determination of employee performance than they are to employee attitudes and perceptions" (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996, pp. 274-275). While context variables may be important to the effects of leadership, the evidence of their effect is not strong (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996).

There is support for the notion that transformational leadership may exist at the neurological level (Balthazard et al., 2011). Leaders whose subordinates rated them as being transformational had distinct neural signatures on electroencephalogram tests, compared to leaders who were not rated as transformational (Balthazard et al., 2011). (Balthazard et al., 2011, p. 253).

The transformational-transactional leadership paradigm is relevant to this study for two reasons. First, this study assessed transformational and transactional leadership behaviors of young lawyers. Second, given the research that has found positive outcomes associated with transformational leadership, leadership programs for lawyers should focus on developing transformational behaviors.

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

The emotional intelligence theory of leadership developed from research about the emotional connections that leaders establish with followers (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). This theory seeks to explain leadership from a biological perspective according to how the human brain reacts to emotional stimuli (Goleman, Boyatzis, &

McKee, 2013). Emotions are central to the relationships developed between leaders and

followers (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). Leaders are engaged in resonant

leadership when they understand the emotions and feelings of followers (Goleman,

Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). Through this understanding, leaders are able to create

positive, supportive environments (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). Leaders who

do not understand their followers emotions and feelings are engaged in dissonant

leadership, and tend to foster negative reactions and relationships with others (Goleman,

Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013).

Goleman (1998) outlined five dimensions of emotional intelligence, which help

leaders develop emotionally resonating relationships with followers (Goleman, Boyatzis,

& McKee, 2013). First, self-awareness involves a leader's ability to understand his or

her own emotions and how those emotions impact his or her thoughts and behaviors

(Goleman, 1998). Self-aware leaders are confident and make decisions that are

consistent with their values, sense of purpose, and mission (Goleman, 1998). Second,

effective leaders have the self-control to *manage their emotions;* particularly, anger,

anxiety, and sadness (Goleman, 1998).   Third, emotionally intelligent leaders *motivate*

others by being optimistic and resonating with the emotions of followers (Goleman,

1998; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). Fourth, emotionally intelligent leaders

empathize with followers emotions (Goleman, 1998). "One of the most brilliant moves a

leader can make -- and what establishes people as natural leaders in a group - is to sense

the unstated feelings of everyone in the group and articulate them for the first time"

(Goleman, 1998 p. 24). Finally, effective leaders *stay connected* with followers spread

their positive emotions among followers (Goleman, 1998).

In later work, Goleman (2000) modified the original five dimensions of emotional intelligence to four broader dimensions. Two of the dimensions – self-awareness and self-management (reviewed above) - involve personal competence (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). The other two dimensions – social awareness and relationship management – involve social competence (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). Social awareness refers to being empathetic, having organizational awareness, and having a service orientation to meet other's needs (Goleman, 2000). Social skill involves visionary leadership, the capacity to influence others, developing other's abilities, being an effective communicator, being a catalyst for change, managing and resolving conflict, building relationships, and promoting teams and collaboration.

There are six leadership styles associated with the four dimensions of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000). These leadership styles each have their own strengths and weaknesses, some styles should be used regularly and others sparingly, and that effective leaders should become adept at knowing when to use each style (Goleman, 2000). The first four styles tend to foster positive, emotional resonance with followers (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). First, the visionary style (which Goleman previously called the authoritarian style)*, articulates a vision for the group, and mobilizes organization members to work toward that vision by making sure followers understand their importance to the organization (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013; Goleman, 2000). Visionary or authoritarian leaders provide feedback to followers, and set direction but give followers the flexibility to develop solutions and take calculated risks (Goleman, 2000). While this leadership style is generally effective, it has weaknesses in

organizations where the leader is leading peers who are experts, or whether others

perceive the leader as being overbearing (Goleman, 2000).

Second, the affiliative style of leadership puts followers first (Goleman, 2000).

The affiliative leader "values individuals and their emotions more than tasks and goals"

(Goleman, 2000 p. 6). He or she fosters an emotionally supportive environment where

members feel comfortable sharing ideas and collaborating (Goleman, 2000). The

affiliative leader fosters a sense of belonging and provides positive feedback to others

(Goleman, 2000). The affiliative leader falls short in providing constructive feedback and

helping followers navigate complex problems (Goleman, 2000).

Third, the democratic style describes a leader who collaborates with others and

seeks to develop buy-in, and consensus before making decisions (Goleman, 2000).

Democratic leadership, while typically having a positive impact on an organization, may

fall short in areas where decisiveness is needed or where followers are not sufficiently

informed to participate in collaborative meetings (Goleman, 2000). Fourth, the *coaching

style* describes a leader who spends time helping organization members understand their

strengths and weaknesses, and helps to develop members into effective leaders

(Goleman, 2000). Coaching leaders delegate effectively, and give assignments that are

challenging and that help subordinates develop their skills (Goleman, 2000).

Despite the positive organizational impact of the coaching style, it is used the least of the

six leadership styles (Goleman, 2000).

The next two styles of leadership tend to create emotional dissonance between

leaders and followers, and should be used sparingly (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee,

2013). The commanding style (which Goleman previously called the *coercive style*)

describes a leader who commands compliance with his or her directions and expectations

(Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). This style can be damaging to an organization,

isolate members, make them feel disrespected, and cause members to not feel responsible

for their work (Goleman, 2000). This style, however, may be effective in emergencies

when a leader must command others, and expect compliance, to address immediate risks

to health and safety (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). The pacesetting leadership

style describes a leader who demands excellence, seeks to do things better and faster,

picks up the slack of those who fall behind, and replaces poor performers (Goleman,

2000). The pacesetter tends not to trust other's performance standards or quality of work,

and gives little direction or feedback (Goleman, 2000). While this style should be used

sparingly, it can be effective to the extent that the leader demonstrates a drive toward

excellence and uses that drive to motivate others (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013).

The emotional intelligence theory of leadership is relevant to this study because

some research has found a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and

transformational leadership (Modassir & Sing, 2008). Therefore, lawyer-leadership

development programs that seek to increase transformational leadership behaviors should

consider including education on emotional intelligence.

Competency Based Models of Leadership

Criterion-based sampling involves studying and comparing clearly successful

leaders to less successful leaders, and identifying features that distinguish the two groups

(Richard, 2013). From this analysis, a model of the competencies that make-up effective

leadership can be developed (Richard, 2013). A number of researchers have used this

technique to identify behaviors and skills that set successful leaders apart from less

successful leaders. James Kouzes and Barry Posner developed a well-known competency model that law and leadership scholars have used to comment on lawyers and leadership (Blank, 2013; Richard, 2013; Rhode, 2013; Grella, 2013; Cullen, 2009; Polden, 2008; Rubenstein, 2008).

To develop their model, Kouzes and Posner (1988) asked managers attending contracting and management seminars to describe their "personal best as a leader" - a situation where they felt they accomplished something extraordinary (p. 484). Six hundred and fifty managers completed the personal best survey which consists of 37 open-ended questions (Kouzez & Posner, 2008). Four hundred and fifty mangers completed a shorter form of the person best survey, and 38 middle and senior level managers were interviewed (Kouzes & Posner, 1988). Based on the personal best research, five practices of effective leadership were identified : 1) modeling the way; 2) inspire a shared vision; 3) challenge the process; 4) enable others to act; and 5) encourage the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 1988).   These five leadership practices accounted for more than 80% of the behaviors described in their personal best case studies (Kouzes & Posner, 1988). From this research, the Leadership Practice Inventory was developed -- which is a survey instrument that measures leadership competency (Kouzes & Posner, 1988, 2012).

The first practice, modeling the way, requires leaders to reflect and develop their own leadership philosophy and to clarify the values that are important to them (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Leaders must affirm shared organizational values and lead by example (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). By modeling the way, leaders should help to foster organizational commitment among followers (Kouzes & Posner, 2012).   The second

practice, inspire a shared vision, involves leaders passionately setting a vision for the

future, seeing possibilities, and getting followers excited about those possibilities

(Kouzes & Posner, 2012). This practice does not involve leaders imposing their vision

on others, rather it involves leaders forging a shared vision by helping followers see how

their own visions fit with the leader's vision (Kouzes & Posner, 2012).

The third practice is challenge the process (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). This

practice involves leaders tackling challenges, taking risks, trying new things, and being a

champion for change to improve the status quo (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Leaders

should also encourage followers to take initiative, and should not challenge practices for

the sake of challenge (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Challenging must be done with a

purpose (Kouzes & Posner, 2012).   The fourth practice is enable others to act (Kouzes &

Posner, 2012). This practice is about fostering collaboration among group members,

building a trusting and mutually supporting relationships, and making followers feel

empowered to act (Kouzes & Posner, 2012).   The fifth practice is encourage the heart.

Leaders do this by communicating the confidence they have in their followers,

recognizing their achievements, coaching and providing feedback, and showing that they

care about followers (Kouzes & Posner, 2012.)

Several law and leadership scholars have cited to Kouzes and Posner's five

practices of exemplary leadership (e.g., Blank, 2013; Richard, 2013; Rhode, 2013; Grella,

2013; Cullen, 2009; Polden, 2008; Rubenstein, 2008). However, no publish studies were

found to exist that that have assessed lawyers using the Leadership Practice Inventory or

that examine lawyers according to the five practice of exemplary leadership. This

research gap appears to present a ripe opportunity to test the leadership behavior of

lawyers using Kouzes and Posner's model. However, "there has been a notable lack of

published evidence substantiating their original claims of the authors [Kouzes and

Posner]" (Carless, 2001, p. 234). Moreover, Kouzes and Posner's leadership practices

inventory "appears to be moderately reliable" with limited useful application (Zagoresk,

Stough, & Jaklic, 2006, p. 190). In contrast, Avolio and Bass's Full Range Leadership

Theory and the MLQ (5X-Short) has been subject to extensive studying, critique, and

validation (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). For this reason, this study

uses the full range theory and the MLQ (5X-Short), instead of Kouzes and Posner's

model and instrument.

Similar to how Kouzes and Posner developed their leadership competency model,

leadership scholars John Zenger and Joseph Folkman created a leadership competency

model based on the results of various 360-degree leadership assessments (Zenger &

Folman, 2009). Their model was derived from "from 237,123 survey responses on

26,314 leaders" (Folkman, n.d., p. 1). Combined, these surveys used 1,956 different

assessment items (Folkman, n.d.). An analysis of the survey responses identified 16

areas of effective leadership: Developing Strategic Perspective; Inspiring and Motivating

Others to High Performance; Solving Problems and Analyzing Issues; Taking Initiative;

Displaying High Integrity and Honesty; Developing Others; Collaboration and

Teamwork; Championing Change; Communicating Powerfully and Prolifically; Drive for

Results; Building Relationships; Establishing Stretch Goals; Technical/ Professional

Expertise; Innovation; Connects the Group to the Outside World - Networking; and

Practicing Self-Development (Folkman, n.d.).   These areas of leadership have been

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tested and have been found to correlate with employee commitment to the organization

and engagement (Folkman, n.d.).

Following their original research, Zenger and Folkman (2009) further analyzed

their data in search of a "silver bullet" of leadership competencies (p. 4). Out of the

original 16 leadership competencies, the ability to motivate and inspire was found to be

the most important (Zenger & Folkman, 2009). Instead of providing a precise definition

of inspiration, Zenger and Folkman likened inspiration to *charisma* which they stated

refers to those hard to define qualities that set a leader apart from others (Zenger &

Folkman, 2009). Inspiration and charisma can be described in the same way the Judge

Black described pornography "I can't define it, but I can recognize it when I see it"

(Zenger & Folkman, 2009, p. 10). To be inspirational, a leader should have the

following three attributes: he or she should be a role model, a change champion, and an

initiator (someone who takes initiative) (Zenger & Folkman, 2009). A positive

correlation has been found between inspirational leadership, and employee commitment

and workgroup productivity (Zenger and Folkman, 2009). Inspirational leaders help to

inspire confidence in others; they help to instill hope and optimism in others; and they

encourage responsibility, enthusiasm, and resilience (Zenger & Folkman, 2009).

Contingency Theory of Leadership

The contingency theory of leadership developed from behavioral leadership

theories (Lorsch, n.d. (in Nohria & Khurana, 2010)). This theory is consistent with the

theme that leadership is largely about the relationship between leader and follower

(Lorsch, n.d. (in Nohria & Khurana, 2010). How best to develop that relationship

depends on the situation and a number of variables (Lorsch, n.d. (in Nohria & Khurana,

2010).   Which leadership behaviors are most effective in a given situation depends on

the size of the group being lead and the group's decision-making style, among other

factors (Lorsch, n.d. (in Nohria & Khurana, 2010).   The full range theory of leadership

incorporates aspects of the contingency theory in regards to how leaders may need to use

different behaviors depending on the leadership context and situation.

Full Range Theory of Leadership and the MLQ 5X-Short

This study analyzed the leadership behavior of young lawyers in Los Angeles,

California according to the full range theory of leadership.   This theory posits that

leadership behavior exists on a spectrum with transformational behaviors at one end

representing the most effective type of leadership, and passive-avoidant behaviors at the

other end representing the least effective type of leadership (Bass, 1999). In the middle

of the spectrum are transactional behaviors (Bass, 1999). The full range theory is based

on the notion that leaders tend to display a varied repertoire of leadership behavior, and

that leaders need to develop an understanding and capacity to engage in a range of

behaviors (Sosik & Jung, 2010).

The full range theory and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, which

assesses leadership behavior, grew from Bernard Bass's original research on transactional

and transformational leadership (Bass, 1985).   Transformational leadership was defined

for 70 senior executives and they were asked to describe a leader they had known that fit

the definition (Bass, 1985).   Based on the results from the interviews, a questionnaire

was developed consisting of 73 items measuring leadership behavior on a Likert scale

(Bass, 1985). The questionnaire was first tested on 176 senior U.S. Army officers (Bass,

1985). The results from the Army officers showed that the questionnaire items associated

with transformational leadership "were more highly correlated with perceived unit effectiveness than were the two transactional factors" (Bass, 1985, p. 33).

Since 1985, what has become known as the full range theory of leadership and the MLQ 5X-Short have been subject to numerous studies which have produced strong support for the MLQ's predictive validity (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Avolio, 2010a; Avolio, Bass, Jung, 1999; Sosik & Jung, 2010). Indeed, a majority of the published research on transformational leadership has used various versions of the multifactor leadership questionnaire (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). The full range theory has important practical implication for leadership development (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Avolio, 2010a; Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999; Sosik & Jung, 2010). Using this model, leadership trainers "are better able to coach leaders on which specific behaviors relating to the nine factors they should focus on to develop their leadership potential" (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003, p. 284).

The full range theory and the MLQ were selected for this study because together, they provide the means to quantitatively analyze the leadership of young lawyers on a range of leadership behaviors. Further, norm data exists which enables a comparison of young lawyer leadership behaviors to the norm's behavior. To date, no published studies have used the full range theory to assess the leadership behavior of lawyers. This model, therefore, holds potential for helping to acquire a better understanding of how lawyers behave as leaders, and to guide the leadership development of lawyers.

The Nine Dimensions of the Full Range Theory of Leadership

Bass and Avolio's full range model of leadership adds depth and specific metrics to the transformational and transactional leadership constructs, and extends the

understanding of leadership behavior to include passive-avoidant leadership (i.e., the

absence of leadership engagement) (Bass, 1999).   There are five dimensions of

transformational leadership, which are associated with effective leadership behavior

(Avolio & Bass, 2004; Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Lowe, Kroeck, &

Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

1. *Idealized influence (behavior).* This transformational leadership dimension

"involves being a positive role model that exemplifies high levels of moral/ethical and

performance standards" (Sosik & Jung, 2010, p. 83). Leaders scoring high on this

component act consistently with the "character strengths and virtues valued by society,"

and they put the needs of the organization before their own (Sosik & Jung, 2010, p. 83).

This type of behavior fosters trust among organization members, encourage teamwork,

and emphasize a strong sense of purpose (Sosik & Jung, 2010).

2. *Idealized influence (attributed).* This transformational leadership dimension

refers to "positive personal characteristics of the leader that are socially constructed in

leader-follower relationships" (Sosik & Jung, 2010, p. 93). Leaders scoring high on this

component instill pride in others for being associated with the leader, they "are seen as

selfless servants to their followers," (p. 97) they earn the respect of others, they are

perceived to be confident and build confidence in others, and they are self-aware (Sosik

& Jung, 2010).

3. *Inspirational motivation*. This transformational leadership dimension

"involves the energy initiative, persistence, and vision that moves followers to achieve

performance outcomes that exceed expectations and develops their leadership potential

along the way" (Sosik & Jung, 2010, p. 120). Leaders scoring high on this component

are enthusiastic, talk optimistically, communication a compelling vision for the future, and instill confidence to achieve goals (Sosik & Junge, 2010).

4. *Intellectual stimulation.* This transformational leadership dimension "involves rational thinking, creativity, and the freedom to fail" (Sosik & Junge, 2010, p. 159). Leaders demonstrating this behavior express a willingness to question assumptions and they are comfortable with testing new ideas, technologies, and ways of doing things, and they encourage others to do the same (Sosik & Jung, 2010).

5. *Individualized consideration.* This transformational leadership dimension "involves dealing with others as individuals and considering their needs, abilities, and aspirations as you work together to further their development" (Sosik & Jung, 2010, p. 195). Leaders engaging in this behavior treat group members as individuals, rather than just a member of the group (Sosik & Jung, 2010).

The following two dimensions of active-transactional leadership behaviors have been found to be effective particularly in stable and predictable environments (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996):

6. *Contingent reward.* This active-transactional leadership dimension "involves a constructive transaction between the leader and the follower" (Sosik & Jung, 2010, p. 230). This component has been found to be an effective leadership style, and involves a contract where the leader establishes expectations and the follower is rewarded for meeting those expectations (Sosik & Jung, 2010). The rewards may be extrinsic (e.g., financial), or intrinsic (e.g., gratification internalized by the follower) (Sosik & Jung, 2010). Leaders demonstrating this component help followers set goals and develop pathways for meeting those goals (Sosik & Jung, 2010).

7. *Management-by-exception (active)*. This active-transactional leadership dimension involves monitoring followers to ensure that they are compliant with procedural rules, regulations, and expectations (Sosik & Jung, 2010). Leaders engaging in this behavior focus attention on pointing out mistakes and deviations from the norm, and correcting errors (Sosik & Jung, 2010).

While active-transactional leadership behaviors are generally effective, Bass (1985) argued that leaders should augment transactional leadership with transformational leadership. Subsequent research has shown that transformational leadership behaviors enhance transactional leadership behaviors and help to predict a group's performance (Bass et al, 2003).

The following two dimensions of passive-avoidant leadership represent generally ineffective leadership behavior (Horwitz et al., 2008):

8. *Management-by-exception (passive)*. This passive avoidant leadership dimension involves "sit[ting] back and wait[ing] for things to go wrong before taking action" (Sosik & Jung, 2010, p. 267). These leaders adhere to the philosophy "if it ain't broke, don't fix it" (Sosik & Jung, 2010, p. 267). They only intervene if standards are not met (Sosik & Jung, 2010).

9. *Laissez-faire leadership*.   This passive avoidant leadership dimension is considered the least effective form of leadership, and is characterized by indifference (Sosik & Jung, 2010).   These leaders are disengaged, avoid responsibility and decision making, and are absent when needed by followers (Sosik & Jung, 2010).

The full range theory of leadership posits that leaders should become adept at choosing and applying different types of leadership behaviors for different situations

(Avolio, 2011).   Similarly, "[l]awyers need to be able to recognize which particular [behavioral leadership] competency is necessary for success on a legal matter" (Rubenstein, 2008, p. 92). Generally, however, leaders should strive to develop and regularly use the five transformational leadership behaviors which have been found to be among the most effective types of leadership behaviors (Avolio, 2011). And they should learn to effectively use transactional leadership behaviors depending on the needs of the situation and followers, and use passive-avoidant leadership sparingly (Sosik & Jung, 2010).

This study sought to determine where young lawyers fall on the spectrum of the full range theory of leadership, and whether young lawyers have a specific leadership profile. The aim of this study is to provide information to help lawyer-leadership development programs become more effective.

Studies Applying the Full Range Theory Using the MLQ 5X-Short

The full range model of leadership and the MLQ 5X-Short has been used to study leadership behavior in various organizations and across cultures. A review of the wide ranging and cross-cultural application of the full range theory and the MLQ 5X-Short provides support for their validity in assessing the leadership behavior of lawyers.

The MLQ 5X-Short was used to study the job satisfaction of faculty members of a state university system based on the leadership styles of administrators (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Faculty members working under administrators whose dominant leadership styles was transformational leadership were the most satisfied with their jobs (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Those faculty members working under administrators who were passive-avoidant were the least satisfied (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014).   The

relationships between transformational leadership, passive-avoidant leadership and job satisfaction were statistically significant (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). The relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction were mixed, and not statistically significant (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014).

A slightly modified version of the MLQ 5X-Short was used to study transformation and transactional leadership behaviors by U.S. Army infantry platoon leaders and sergeants (Bass et al., 2003). Transformational and transactional-contingent-reward leadership behaviors by platoon leaders and platoon sergeants were positively related with potency (collective confidence of a group)and cohesion (Bass et al., 2003). Passive-avoidant leadership was negatively related to potency and cohesion (Bass et al., 2003). As for unit performance, transformational and transactional contingent reward leadership by platoon leaders (usually a lieutenant) was significantly and positively correlated with unit performance (Bass et al., 2003) . In contrast, a passive-avoidant leadership was negatively correlated with unit performance (Bass et al., 2003). The relationship between the platoon sergeants' leadership ratings and unit performance paralleled the platoon leaders, but was not statistically significant (Bass et al., 2003).

The MLQ 5X-Short was used to study the effectiveness of leadership styles by chief executive officers in the U.S. apparel manufacturing industry (McCann, 2008). Significant relationships existed between leadership style and direct reports' engagement of extra effort, perception of their leaders' effectiveness, and their satisfaction (McCann, 2008). The relationships between the leadership styles and the criterion variables, however, were not explained in McCann (2008). The MLQ 5X-Short has been used to study the relationship between leadership styles and profitability (as defined by

leadership effectiveness) and organizational success (as defined by leadership

satisfaction) in small constructions companies in West Virginia and Pennsylvania

(Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010). Strong correlations were found between transformational

leadership and profitability, and transactional leadership and profitability, with

transformational leadership having a stronger correlation (Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010).

Moderate correlations were found between transformational and organizational success,

and transactional leadership and organizational success, with transactional leadership

having a slightly stronger correlation (Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010).

The MLQ 5X-Short was used to study the relationship between leadership and

financial performance among companies that distribute industrial products (Flanigan et

al., 2013). A positive and significant correlation was found between leaders who assessed

themselves higher on transformational leadership, and sales and margin performance

(Flanigan et al., 2013). The relationship between self-reported transactional leadership

and sales and margin performance was not significant; nor was the relationship between

followers' assessment of leadership styles and sales and margin performance (Flanigan et

al., 2013).

The self-reported leadership styles of deans of nursing schools was studied using

the MLQ 5X-Short (Broome, 2013). The deans had the highest scores on the

transformational leadership dimensions, followed by the transactional leadership

dimensions, with the lowest scores in the passive leadership dimensions (Broome, 2013).

Compared to the norm, the deans scored in the 80th percentile on the transformational

leadership dimensions and were about at the 50th percentile for transactional and passive

leadership (Broome, 2013).   The data about the leadership styles of deans "should add to

the discussion about what it takes to be an effective academic dean of nursing" (Broome, 2013 p. 329), just like the data from this study should add to the discussion about the leadership development of lawyers.

The MLQ 5X-Short was used to assess the self-reported leadership behavior of surgical residents at Baylor College of Medicine's Michael E. DeBakey Department of Surgery (Horwitz et al., 2008). Sixty-five residents completed the survey (Horwitz et al., 2008). The residents scored significantly higher than the norm on the management by exception-active and management by exception-passive subscales (Horwitz et al., 2008). This difference may have been due to behaviors needed to address patient-care needs (Horwitz et al., 2008).

The higher resident score on the management-by-exception-active dimension may reflect a need to ensure that medical care standards are met to avoid negative patient outcomes (Horwitz et al., 2008).   The higher resident score on the management-by-exception-passive dimension may reflect a reluctance to engage others due to a lack of lack technical expertise and confidence (Horwitz et al., 2008). Finally, the residents scored significantly lower than the norm on the individualized consideration dimension of transformational leadership (Horwitz et al., 2008). The lower resident score, along with other factors, may indicate that residents are not supportive of one another (Horwitz et al., 2008). The results of the surgical resident study provided insight into areas of leadership training needed for surgical residents (Horwitz et al., 2008), just like the results from this study provide insight into areas of leadership training needed for young lawyers.

Cross culturally, a modified version of the MLQ 5X-Short was used to study communication satisfaction in the ministries of health and education in Gaza Strip, Palestine (Alsayed, Motaghi, & Osman, 2012). The modified instrument was found to be a valid and reliable tool to assess leadership behavior in the turbulent Palestinian environment, and that leadership styles correlated with communication styles (Alsayed, Motaghi, & Osman, 2012). The MLQ has been used to study the connection between transformational leadership and work engagement in hospital nurses in Iran (Hayati, Charkhabi, & Naami, 2014). A positive correlation between transformational leadership dimensions and work engagement was found by among the survey Iranian nurses (Hayati, Charkhabi, & Naami, 2014). With the Iranian nurses, "[e]mployees become more engaged to their work, when their supervisor is able to boost their optimism through his/her transformational leadership style" (Hayati, Charkhabi, & Naami , 2014, p. 6). Similarly, among nurses in Finland transformation leadership behaviors have been found to promote subordinate-nurses willingness to engage in extra effort in their work, and subordinate-nurses' perceptions of their leaders effectiveness (Kanste, Kaariainen, & Kyngas, 2009).

This study adds to the existing body of research that has used the MLQ 5X-Short by assessing leadership in the legal profession. Moreover, this study adds to the literature in the field of lawyer-leadership development, reviewed below, by applying a widely used and validated leadership assessment tool to study lawyer-leadership-behavior.

Lawyers and Leadership

The field of lawyers and leadership has gained traction over the last decade with scholars and practitioners contributing to a growing body of literature.   The following analyzes the existing literature on lawyers and leadership.

The lawyer personality and leadership.

Larry Richard is a lawyer-psychologist who has studied lawyer personality and leadership for decades (Foster et al., 2010; Richard, 1993, 2002, 2013). He has measured lawyer personality using the Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (Richard, 1993), Caliper Profile (Richard, 2002), and the Hogan assessments (Foster et al., 2010; Richard, 2013). In each of his studies, Richard found that lawyers have personality traits that differ from the traits of the general population. Richard (2002 & 2013) also found that certain traits of law firm leaders differed from certain traits of rank-and-file lawyers.

Richard (1993) published the results from a survey of 3,014 lawyers -- all American Bar Association members -- using the Myers Briggs Type Indicator personality test (MBTI). The MBTI measures personality based on four preference types: (1) Extraversion (E) vs. Introversion (I), which refers to whether an individual primarily obtains his or her stimulation from the external environment or from within; (2) Sensing (S) vs. Intuition (N), which refers to whether an individual primarily pays more attention to the physical world or from abstract impressions from their perceptions; (3) Thinking (T) vs. Feeling (F), which refers to whether an individual primarily makes decisions based on logic and objectivity or based on feeling and emotionality; and (4) Judging (J) vs. Perceiving (P), which refers to whether an individual primarily prefers to deal with information in planned, decisive and orderly ways, or open and flexible ways (Richard, 1993).   There are 16 possible combinations of these personality types (Richard, 1993).

More than half of the lawyers surveyed were represented by four personality types: ISTJ: Introvert-Sensor-Thinker-Judger; ESTJ: Extravert-Sensor, Thinker-Judger; INTJ: Introvert-Intuitive-Thinker-Judger; and ENTP: Extravert-Intuitive-Thinker-Perceiver (Richard, 1993). Lawyers tend to be introverts, whereas the general population tends to be extroverts; lawyers also prefer intuition, whereas the general population prefers sensing; lawyers preferred thinking over feeling at a higher rate than the general population; and lawyers prefer judging over perceiving at a higher rate than the general population (Richard, 1993).

While Richard (1993) was not a study about lawyers and leadership, it nevertheless provides important information about who lawyers might be as leaders. Although the trait theory has been highly criticized in its ability to predict leadership, extraversion has been found to be a trait associated with leadership (Andersen, 2005; Mann, 1959). Similarly, studies on trait theory found that openness and agreeableness were associated with leadership, but lawyers tend to be judgers instead of perceivers (Andersen, 2005; Mann, 1959). These findings suggest that as a group, lawyers may lack certain traits that have been associated with leadership.

About a decade after his first study, Richard published the results in a firm newsletter profiling more than 1,000 lawyer personalities using the Caliper Profile (Richard, 2002). The lawyers that Richard profiled in 2002 were mostly lawyers in senior management in law firms and in corporate legal departments (Richard, 2002). Since 1997, Richard has tested more than 5,000 lawyers, including 140 law firm leaders, using the Caliper Profile (Richard, 2013).

The Caliper Profile measures 18 independent traits: assertiveness, aggressiveness, ego drive, empathy, urgency, self-structure, external structure, risk-taking, cautiousness, conscientiousness, skepticism, resilience, gregariousness, sociability, idea orientation, abstract reasoning, accommodation, and flexibility (Richard, 2013). Lawyers in medium and large business law firms had scores similar to the general population for 12 of these 18 traits (Richard, 2013).   They differed from the general population on six traits:

Skepticism. Lawyers scored in the 90th percentile on the skepticism trait, compared to the general population scoring in the 50th percentile (Richard, 2002). "People who score high on this trait tend to be skeptical, even cynical, judgmental, questioning, argumentative and somewhat self-protective. People who score low tend to be accepting of others, trusting, and give others the benefit of the doubt" (Richard, 2002, p. 4).

Abstract reasoning. Lawyers scored high on their preference for analyzing and solving problems (Richard, 2013). This trait may be important to both practicing law and leadership, but too much analysis could lead to inaction (Richard, 2013).

Urgency. Lawyers scored 71% on the urgency trait, compared to 50% with the general population (Richard, 2002). "A high score on Urgency is characterized by impatience, a need to get things done, a sense of immediacy. Low scorers tend to be patient, contemplative, measured, in no particular rush" (Richard, 2002, p. 4).

Sociability. Lawyers scored 12% on the sociability trait, compared to 50% with the general population (Richard, 2002). "Sociability is described as a desire to interact with people, especially a comfort level in initiating new, intimate connections with others. Low scorers are not necessarily anti-social" (Richard, 2002, p. 4).

Resilience. Lawyers scored 30% on resilience, compared to 50% with the general population (Richard, 2002). "People who are low on Resilience tend to be defensive, resist taking in feedback, and can be hypersensitive to criticism" (Richard, 2002, p. 4).

Autonomy. Lawyers scored 89% on autonomy, compared to 50% with the general population (Richard, 2002). The score on this personality trait suggests that lawyers do not like to be managed, and do not like structure (Richard, 2002).

Several arguments have been presented for why these personality traits are important to leadership. Skepticism may help lawyers be successful as lawyers, especially those practicing in litigation (Richard, 2002). However, this trait may interfere with a lawyer's ability to manage and mentor others (Richard, 2002). Somewhat supporting this argument was the finding that law firm leaders tend to be "less Skeptical than rank-and-file lawyers are" (Richard, 2013, p. 49).

Regarding abstract reasoning, law firm leaders and rank and file leaders scored the same on this trait (Richard, 2013). High scores on the urgency trait may negatively interfere with interpersonal relationships, which relationships are important to leadership (Richard, 2013). Similarly, low sociability scores are important because of the negative impact that it has on developing relationships (Richard, 2013). However, law firm leaders have scored higher on sociability than rank-and-file lawyers (Richard, 2013).

High scores on autonomy indicate a preference for not conforming to rules and structure (Richard, 2013). In this regard, lawyers may not be good role models (Richard, 2013) . But in one study, law firm leaders scored lower on autonomy than rank-and-file lawyers (Richard, 2013).

Low resiliency scores explain why lawyers tend to be defensive in various

settings, including business meetings (Richard, 2002). Low resiliency scores indicate

that a person is sensitive to criticism, take things personally, is reactive, and not does not

manage emotional responses well (Richard, 2013). Law firm leaders have been found to

be significantly more resilient than rank-and-file lawyers (Richard, 2013). Law firm

leaders also scored higher on the traits of empathy, risk taking, and flexibility compared

to rank and file lawyers (Richard, 2013).

Richard was one of the researchers in Foster et al. (2010) which used the Hogan

Personality Inventory, Hogan Development Survey, and the Motive, Values, Preferences

Inventory to test lawyers. The Hogan Personality Inventory measured the following

personality traits: adjustment, ambition, sociability, interpersonal sensitivity, prudence,

inquisitive, and learning approach (Foster et al., 2010). These personality characteristic

lead to successful performance (Foster et al., 2010). The Hogan Development Survey, on

the other hand, measures behaviors that can negatively affect performance (Foster et al.,

2010). These behaviors are: excitability, skepticism, cautious, reserved, leisurely, bold,

mischievous, colorful, imaginative, diligent, and dutiful (Foster et el., 2010). The

Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory measures values and interests and include the

following scales: aesthetic, affiliation, altruistic, commerce, hedonism, power,

recognition, science, security, and tradition (Foster et al., 2010).

Foster et al. (2010) obtained data from 1,800 lawyers in four large firms in late

2009 and early 2010. Forty-five percent of the lawyers were associates, 32% were equity

partners, 16% were non-equity partners, and the remaining where other lawyers in the

firms (Foster et al., 2010).   The data was obtained following a round of massive layoffs

in the legal profession (Foster et al., 2010). Thus, the lawyers who were surveyed were

those who survived layoffs and may represent above average performers (Foster et al.,

2010).

Regarding the personality inventory, the results showed that lawyers' highest

score compared to the general population were on learning approach, they scored

significantly lower on adjustment, and the lowest on interpersonal sensitivity (Foster et

al., 2010). Lawyers scored close to the averages for the comparison group on ambition,

sociability, and prudence, and the researchers concluded that lawyers appeared to act a

individual contributors rather than managers (Foster et al., 2010). Furthermore,

compared to other managers and professionals, lawyers only scored higher on learning

approach and scored significantly lower on adjustment, ambition, and interpersonal

sensitivity (Foster et al., 2010).

Regarding the development survey, the study showed that lawyers had the

highest scores compared to the sample group on excitability, cautiousness, and leisurely

(Foster et al, 2010). Lawyers also had above average scores on skepticism and being

reserved (Foster et al., 2010). Lawyers had scores close to the comparison group mean

for being bold, mischievous, colorful, imaginative, diligent, and dutiful (Foster et al.,

2010).   Foster et al. (2010) claim that these results suggest that lawyers move away from

sources of stress, which is different from other managers and professionals who indicate a

tendency to move against or push back against sources of stress.

Regarding the motives, values, and preferences survey, lawyers scored the highest

on aestheticism followed by hedonism (Foster et al., 2010). They scored the lowest on

altruism, and they have below average scores for commercialism, recognition, security,

and tradition (Foster et al., 2010). Lawyers score near the mid-point of the comparison group on affiliation, power, and scientific (Foster et al., 2010). But compared to other professionals and managers, lawyers scored higher on aestheticism, hedonism, and security, and scored lower on affiliation, commercialism, power, and tradition (Foster et al., 2010).

The Hogan data included a subset of 100 leaders of large law firms (Richard, 2013). One trait that differentiated law firm leaders from rank-and-file lawyers and the general population was higher ambition scores -- which is indicative of an individual having an outwardly confident, driven, and leader-like style (Richard, 2013). Lawyers who tend to be rainmakers have been found to score higher on traits of ego drive, empathy, and ego strength compared to service partner (Richard, 2002).

Richard (1993, 2002, 2013) and Foster et al. (2010) shed light on lawyers and leadership by showing that lawyers have certain personality traits that differ from the general population, and that certain personality traits of law firm leaders differ from rank and file lawyers. While Richard's research on lawyer personality traits is unquestionably valuable and helps to answer the question about who lawyers are as leaders, this research leaves the lawyer-leadership picture incomplete. It is unclear from his research whether there is a specific personality profile that effective lawyer-leaders have. Moreover, it is unclear whether the lawyers he surveyed in law firm leadership positions were indeed effective leaders. It is possible that certain personality traits help lawyers obtain law firm leadership positions -- but, obtaining a leadership position is not the same thing as being an effective leader.

Research has found that traits do a poor job at predicting leadership, but "[m]ore recently, studies have shown that while individual traits may not predict leadership behavior that well, traits in combination [with other leadership competencies] can do an excellent job" (Richard, 2013, p. 44). Richard's research as it pertains to leadership is somewhat outdated. This is because the trait theory of leadership gave way to behavioral theories, which shifted focus from "who leaders are" to "what leaders do" (Glynn & DeJordy, 2010, p. 122). Indeed, the trait theory of leadership "has largely been discredited" (Fernandez, 2008, p. 197).

While understanding the lawyer-personality is relevant to developing lawyers into better leaders because it contributes to self-awareness, an understanding of how lawyers behave as leaders is needed. This study extends Richard's work on the lawyer-personality by focusing on lawyer-leadership behavior.

Leadership Competencies of Lawyers

Research on law firm leadership has found that firm leaders should have the following competencies: integrity, the ability to develop self and others, a focus on results, the ability to lead change, confidence and resilience, and the ability to influence in sophisticated ways (Richard, 2013). These competencies are similar to the five clusters of leadership that Zenger and Folkman found in successful corporate leaders (Richard, 2013). Those clusters are character, personal capability, focus on results, interpersonal skills, and leading organizational change (Richard, 2013 (citing Zenger & Folkman, 2009). What is unclear from Richard (2013) is whether the law firm leaders he studied were indeed effective leaders.

Law firm leaders tend to be lawyers who thrive in the law firm environment early in their careers (Berman, Bock, & Aiken, 2012). In an attempt to develop a model to predict future law firm leaders, associates at an American Law 100 firm were studied (Berman, Bock & Aiken, 2012). Characteristics that set top performing associates apart from the rest were identified (Berman, Bock & Aiken, 2012). Eight competencies were measured (Berman, Bock & Aiken, 2012). Four were technical: legal research and knowledge of the law; written advocacy; oral advocacy, trial and negotiation skills; and factual development, investigation, and discovery (Berman, Bock & Aiken, 2012). And four competencies were behavioral: drive for excellence; teamwork; leadership and case management; and client service and communication (Berman, Bock & Aiken, 2012). Four personality traits were assessed: locus of control; self-efficacy; learning orientation and achievement orientation; drivers for performance (Berman, Bock & Aiken, 2012).

Four competencies were found that predict the performance of associates (Berman, Bock, &Aiken, 2012). Three of the competencies were behavioral: drive for excellence; leadership and case management; and teamwork (Berman, Bock & Aiken, 2012). The technical competency was written advocacy (Berman, Bock & Aiken, 2012). As to personality, "[t]he overall scales of self-efficacy, locus of control, and learning and achievement orientation did not predict either competencies or performance" (p. 891). However, subsets of items from these scales were found to predict some competencies and performance (Berman, Bock & Aiken, 2012). Nevertheless, "[m]ore research needs to be completed to better understand how these personality traits predict performance and competencies in general" (Berman, Bock & Aiken, 2012, p. 893-894).

Based on their research, Berman, Bock, and Aiken (2012) developed a model of lawyer success. First, top performers have a mindset and philosophy that differs from other associates in that they rise to challenges, overcome anxiety, have a need for achievement, and have a strong sense of self (Berman, Bock, & Aiken, 2012). Second, top performers were able to manage their work environment, handle unexpected situations, make decisions, actively seek solutions to problems, and put forth their best effort (Berman, Bock, & Aiken, 2012). Third, top performers collaborate, build teams, and influence and impact others (Berman, Bock, & Aiken, 2012). This research is important because it helps to understand that "future law firm leaders develop core mindsets, behaviors and approaches to work early on. These attributes ready future leaders for success, make other take notice of them, and help them reach the point where they are formally promoted to leadership positions" (Berman, Bock & Aiken, 2012, p. 897).

Berman, Bock and Aiken's (2012) research does not address whether successful associates are also effective leaders. Thus, at the expense of leadership, the best lawyers, and not necessarily the best leaders, may be the ones placed into formal leadership positions in law firms. This is called the "paradox of power" or "leadership paradox" (Rhode, 2013, p. 5). This paradox "arises from the disconnect between the qualities that enable lawyers to achieve positions and the qualities that are necessary for lawyers to succeed once they get there" (Rhode, 2013, p. 5). Notably, Berman, Bock and Aiken's (2012) study bears little connection to the leadership competencies identified by leadership scholars such as Kouzes and Posner. Berman, Bock & Aiken's (2012) research, thus, points to the need to specifically study the leadership behavior of lawyers.

Perhaps law firms would be better off identifying associates with the most *leadership potential* for future leadership positions -- even if those associates are not also the best lawyers.

Maureen Broderick conducted a study of leadership in professional services firms (Broderick, 2011). More than 130 leaders in various industries were interviewed (Broderick, 2011). Law firms made up 21% of the firms, and the leaders she interviewed ranged from chief executive officers to heads of non-billable departments (Broderick, 2011). The subjects were asked to identify the characteristics of successful leaders. The top three characteristics were good influencer/builder of coalitions, inspirational and passionate, and visionary (Broderick, 2011).   The complete list of leadership characteristics are presented in Figure 1.
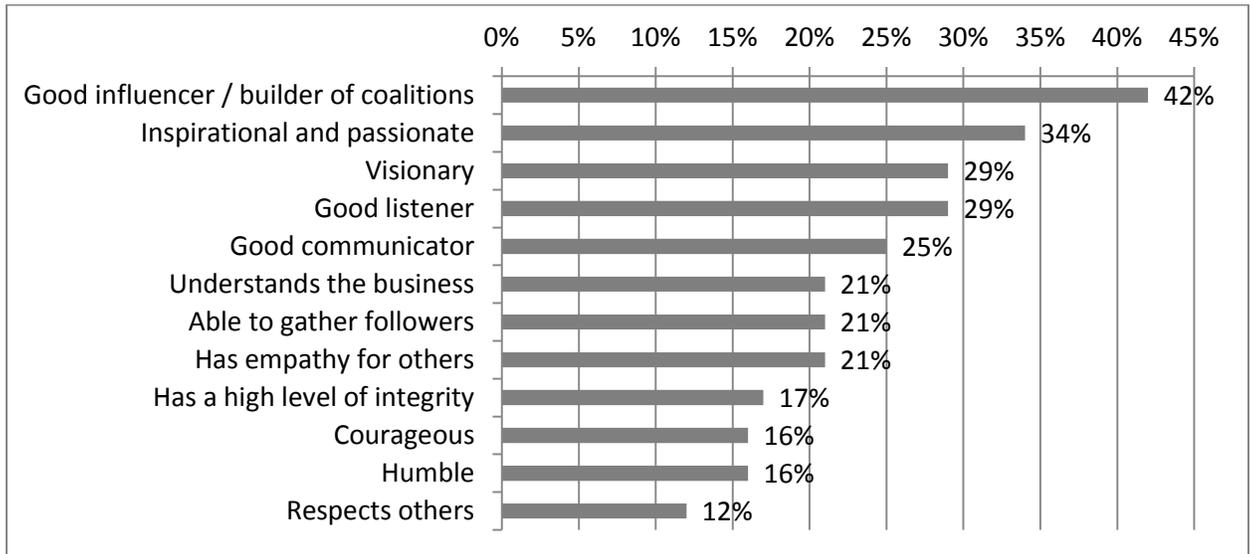
Figure 1. Characteristics of a successful leader in a professional services firm (Broderick, 2011, p. 267).

Similar to Berman, Bock, and Aiken's (2012) findings, Broderick (2011) findings show that the top leadership characteristics are behavioral competencies. *Understands*

the business was the only technical competency. This study evidences the need for

lawyers who desire to become leaders to focus on developing behavioral competencies.

And these behavioral competencies overlap with the components of transformational

leadership – including inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and

individualized influence. The overlap between Broderick (2011)'s findings and

transformational leadership lends support to the validity of the MLQ 5X-Short and the

Full Range Theory of Leadership for use in assessing the leadership of young lawyers.

Smith and Marrow (n.d.) asked 11 managing partners what leadership

competencies were needed to lead their firms into the future. Those competencies are:

adaptability; *building and mending relationships*; *building effective teams; change*

leadership; *coaching*; *collaboration (working across boundaries effectively)*; *credibility*;

decisiveness; *driving innovation*; *influence*; and *leveraging differences* (Smith & Marrow,

n.d.). These competencies are consistent with Goleman's theory of emotional

intelligence (Smyth & Marrow, n.d.). Specifically, these competencies reflect a need for

lawyer-leaders to develop self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and

relationship management (Smith and Marrrow, n.d.). Given the overlap between

transformational leadership and emotional intelligence, Smith and Marrow's (n.d.)

findings also lend support to the applicability of the MLQ 5X-Short and the full range

theory of leadership to young lawyers.

Lawyers and Leadership Books

Over the last decade, several books have been authored by academics and legal

practitioners on the subject of lawyers and leadership. For the most part, these books

present literatures reviews, case studies, and anecdotal illustrations of effective and

ineffective leadership.

Richard Cullen, an adjunct law professor at Santa Clara University and a mediator

has written on the leadership development of lawyers (Cullen, 2009).   He developed and

teaches one of the first law and leadership courses in the country. In his book *The*

Leading Lawyer, Cullen argues that lawyers need the following leadership skills: 1)

credibility (consisting of expertise, integrity, and inspiration); 2) drive and determination

(which includes leading by example and being an agent for change); 3) innovation,

entrepreneurship, and creative problem solving; 3) communication and persuasion; and 4)

relationship building. Cullen's book is based largely on Kouzes and Posner's research.

For the most part, Cullen presented a model of how a leading lawyer should behave based

on what other leadership scholars have said about leadership in general. Cullen has not

empirically tested the validity and reliability of the leadership skills he has tagged for

application to lawyers.   Nevertheless, his arguments lend support to the validity of the

transformational leadership paradigm used in this study. Particularly, inspirational

motivation and individualized consideration overlap with Cullen's arguments about

credibility, drive and determination, and innovation and relationship building.

Cullen argued that lawyers may fill two different types of leadership roles.

Lawyers may be leaders in the big 'L' sense - when they fill formal leadership positions

(Cullen, 2009 pp. 17-18). And they may be leaders in the small 'l' sense - when they

work on smaller projects and play supporting roles (Cullen, 2009, pp. 17-18).   Cullen's

argument about lawyers serving as leaders in the small 'l' sense lends support for why

studying young lawyers is important. While young lawyers early in their careers may not

be heads of law firms or departments, businesses, or government agencies, they

nevertheless fill an important leadership role in the work they do. Young lawyers may be

leaders of projects and in the supporting roles they play.

The first step to becoming a lawyer-leader, Cullen argued, is to develop

credibility in both technical and behavior competencies. Credibility is established when a

lawyer-leader is recognized as an expert in his or her field and can be trusted by others

(Cullen, 2009). Credibility is also established by being a model of ethical conduct, and

becoming an inspirational motivator to others (Cullen, 2009). The second step to

becoming an effective lawyer-leader is demonstrating drive and determination (Cullen,

2009). Lawyers engaging in this behavior work hard to become experts, they set high

standards for themselves and others, they are ambitious and agents of change, and they

motivate and inspire others (Cullen, 2009).

Cullen's third step is about lawyers complementing their analytical thinking skills

with creative problem solving skills. Here, Cullen argued that clients want lawyers to

think creatively to solve problems, and members of an organization want to follow a

lawyer-leader who has a vision for the future. The fourth step necessary for lawyers to

develop into effective leaders, according to Cullen, is to expand communication skills

beyond advocacy into persuasion. Effective lawyer-leaders are able to persuade and

motivate others when they are seen by group members as being credible, when they

develop a common ground by understanding group member perspectives and situations,

and when they connect emotionally with group members (Cullen, 2009). Cullen also

explains that the ability to influence others is important to leadership. Influence,

according to the research reviewed by Cullen, is based on six basic human tendencies:

first, is the tendency to reciprocate behavior, second is the preference for consistent

behavior, third is the desire individuals have for social validation, fourth is the inclination

for individuals to say yes to those that they like, fifth is the deference given to experts and

those in positions of authority, and sixth is that things became more desirable when they

are scarce. Lawyers who understand the art of persuasion and influence are on the road

to being more effective leaders than those lawyers who rely upon their advocacy skills

(Cullen, 2009).

The final step to being an effective lawyer-leader according to Cullen is building

relationships. Relationship builders are individuals who network, collaborate with

others, and build teams (Cullen, 2009). Cullen asserts that leaders need to understand the

four stages of team building: forming, storming, norming, and performing. Leaders also

need to have a clear mission, high performance standards, evaluate available resources,

assess the skills of team members, secure resources for the team, plan and organize, have

high levels of communication, and minimize interpersonal conflicts (Cullen, 2009).

Cullen also emphasizes that leaders need to create a climate of trust within their teams,

motivate others, and have high emotional intelligence.

In summary, Cullen's book provided an intuitive road map supported by research

on how lawyers can develop into effective leaders. However, it lacked a theoretical

framework supported by empirical evidence to guide effective lawyer-leadership

development.

Herb Rubenstein's book entitled *Leadership for Lawyers* presented an argument

advocating the need for leadership training for lawyers. He asserted that

"[s]ystematically taught leadership development courses can help the profession

significantly improve the reputation of lawyers in society at large" (Rubenstein, 2008, p.

70). Rubenstein also argued that leadership training may help alleviate other ills such as

high turnover rates, high rates of lawyers leaving the legal profession, and high rates of

substance abuse. Rubenstein reviewed several leadership theories and styles, which

provides lawyers with an understanding of the theoretical underpinning of leadership as

applied to the legal profession.

Relying on leadership development research in other fields, Rubenstein explained

the importance of mentoring, and leadership training programs and services. Particularly

applicable to this dissertation was Rubenstein's review of the value of leadership

assessment tools. In the context of 360 degree assessments, knowing one's own

behavioral scores compared to how others have scored oneself can aid in developing self-

awareness (Rubenstein, 2008).   Based on research of leadership assessments in other

fields, Rubenstein (2008) proposed abridged versions of potential leadership and

organizational assessments for lawyers and law firms. But these assessments do not

appear to have been empirically tested on lawyers or law firms (Rubenstein, 2008).

Stanford University Law Professor Deborah Rhode has written extensively on the

topic of lawyers and leadership (Rhode, 2013a, 2013b, 2011a, 2011b, 2010a, 2010b). In

her book *Lawyers as Leaders*, Rhode (2013a) presented a literature review, case studies,

and anecdotal evidence to illustrate effective and ineffective leadership, the challenges

leaders face, and the contexts in which lawyers operate as leaders. Rhode concluded that

while effective leadership is context specific, "[t]he most well-documented characteristics

cluster in five categories:

- values (such as integrity, honesty, trust, and an ethic of service);

- personal skills (such as self-awareness, self-control, and self-direction);

- interpersonal skills (such as social awareness, empathy, persuasion, and conflict management);

- vision (such as forward-looking and inspirational); and

- technical competence (such as knowledge, preparation, and judgment)" (Rhode, 2013a p. 4).

Rhodes's list of characteristics combines the research of several different scholars (Rhode, 2013a, p. 4 n. 18), and conflates different leadership constructs. In this regard, Rhode's list is a summary of what other researchers have found, and have argued, to be relevant to effective leadership (Rhode, 2013a, p. 4 n. 18). This list is not a new model of leadership, nor is it a model that has been subject to empirical testing - although some characteristics have been tested individually. Using Goleman's leadership styles (coercive, authoritative, affiliative, pace setting, democratic, coaching) as a guide, Rhode (2013a) presented anecdotal examples of effective and ineffective lawyer-leaders.

Moving beyond leadership characteristics, Rhode (2013a) analyzed leadership capabilities and argued that leaders should excel in decision making, influence, innovation, conflict management, and communication. To illustrate the importance of each of these capabilities, Rhode (2013a) provided anecdotes of leaders who mastered these capabilities and who fell short. Rhode (2013a) also discussed the importance of ethics in leadership and deconstructed the influences on ethical conduct. She conducted a case study on Watergate to illustrate breakdowns in ethical decision making among lawyers, and strategies for avoiding ethical pitfalls. Rhode (2013a) identified common themes of scandalous leadership to include hypocrisy, private conduct becoming public,

and the negative influence that money and sex can have on a leader's judgment. Rhode (2013a) also contextualized various leadership challenges in law firms, fostering social change, and addressing diversity.

In summary, Rhode (2013a) presented a thorough analysis of the skills that leaders should develop, and the unique challenges that leaders in legal profession encounter. The anecdotal evidence provided examples to help understand the make-up of effective and ineffective leadership, and to identify the intentional and unintentional traps that leaders fall into. Rhode (2013a), however, lacked a leadership framework supported by empirical evidence to understand how lawyers in general perform as leaders.

Attorney Thomas C. Grella published a book entitled *Lessons in Leadership for Lawyers*. Grella (2013) describes his leadership experience as a managing partner of a law firm of approximately 25 lawyers. From his experiences, movies, sports stories, and leadership literature, Grella has developed 37 leadership lessons from lawyers. Arguably, much of Grella's work is more closely aligned with law practice management than with leadership. Reviewing all 37 of Grella's lessons is beyond the scope of this literature review, but the general tone of the lessons may be summarized based on the book's chapters: chapter 1 is about defining leadership; chapter 2 is about applying leadership to law firm management; chapter 3 is about developing personal leadership skills; chapter 4 is about the importance of trust and autonomy in a law firm; chapter 5 is about leadership practice and client relationship; chapter 6 is about addressing personnel issues in law firms; chapter 7 is about strategy and planning; chapter 8 is about leadership during times of crisis; and chapter 9 is about succession planning.

Much of Grella's book fits into what Folkman and Zenger (n.d.) identified as a problem with many 360 degree leadership assessments: "[m]any 360s created today consist of 'wise individuals' writing items they think are differentiators, but which have not been empirically tested" (p. 1). Grella no doubt offers relevant and valuable leadership lessons for lawyers. But what this book is lacking is a theoretical framework and empirical anchor to guide leadership development beyond the author's own experiences and opinions.

In her book *The Lawyer as Leader: How to Plant People and Grow Justice*, Doctor Artika Tyner presented a new model for social justice lawyering centered on leadership (Tyner, 2014). She completed case studies of social justice lawyer-leaders and profiled their leadership styles. One lawyer was profiled as "the guide" because of her focus on developing and implementing strategies for social change (Tyner, 2014, p. 52). One lawyer was profiled as the "the visionary" because of his vision for creating a more just society (Tyner, 2014, p. 54). One lawyer was profiled as "the motivator" because of the way she motivated and empowered others to lead (Tyner, 2014, p. 56). And one lawyer was profiled as "the innovator" for his work building bridges and collaborating with multiple professionals to pursue social change (Tyner, 2014, p. 57).   These profiled leadership characteristics share similarities with the five components of transformational leadership – particularly the idealized influence behaviors, individualize consideration, and inspirational motivation. In this regard, Tyner's work provides support for the applicability of the Full range Theory of Leadership and the MLQ 5X-Short to assessing the leadership behavior of young lawyers.

This quantitative study, which used an empirically tested theory and assessment tool, departs from the approach taken in some of the existing literature on lawyers and leadership in at least two respects. First, some of the previous research has largely been driven by qualitative methods and in some cases, by no methods at all. Second, some of the previous research has not been guided by a specific empirically validated leadership theory, and instead, has combined and conflated multiple leadership constructs. In some cases, the existing literature has explored lawyers and leadership without regard to any leadership theory. This study contributes to the lawyer-leadership studies by providing quantitatively obtained empirical evidence about how young lawyers behave as leaders, or at least, how they perceived they behave as leaders.

Review of Lawyer-Leadership Training Programs

This literature review thus far has focused on learning about leadership. But learning about leadership is quite different than learning how to be a leader (MacKenzie & Marnik, 2008). The following section reviews how law schools and bar associations are attempting to teach law students about leadership, and to develop them into leaders.

Law School Programs

The following review is not intended to be a comprehensive review of law school leadership development programs. Instead, the purpose of this review is to provide an illustration of the types of programs that exist.

The Elon School of Law has perhaps one of the most comprehensive law student leadership development programs in the country. The school's "curriculum and pedagogy have been designed to graduate future lawyers who have an exceptional capacity to lead" (Elon School of Law, 2015). The first year program focuses on helping

law students to understand themselves and their personal values. The program also involves self-assessment exercises, and developing personal and professional objectives using leadership coaches. The second-year program focuses on developing teamwork to address legal problems facing non-profit and government organizations. The third year program involves a capstone project where students use leadership and legal skills in an initiative of their choice.

The University of Chicago School of Law hosts an annual program called the *Keystone Professionalism & Leadership Program* (University of Chicago School of Law, 2015). The programming consists of events spread out over the course of the year which focus on ten different skills categories. The program includes an oral advocacy boot camp, a mentoring relationship program, lunch with leaders from the legal community, job interviewing etiquette and techniques, a reception to help refine socializing behaviors and techniques, and other programming on understanding intergenerational workplace differences, the hallmarks of effective leadership, projecting professionalism, managing and building a career, and how to receive constructive feedback and evaluations.

The Santa Clara School of Law also offers specific courses that are focused on leadership development including courses entitled Leadership for Lawyers, Juvenile Justice Topics: Leadership Training, Leadership Skills for Law Student Leaders, and the Marshall-Brennan Leadership Development and Constitutional Literacy Seminar (Santa Clara University School of Law, 2015).

This cursory, non-comprehensive review illustrates the range of law school leadership development programs with the Elon program integrating leadership development throughout its curriculum and pedagogy, the University of Chicago offering

a structured annual, voluntary program for law students, and the Santa Clara University

offering specific leadership courses.

Bar Association Programs

The following review is not intended to be a comprehensive review of bar

association leadership development programs. Instead, the purpose of this review is to

provide an illustration of the types of programs that exist.

At the national level, the American Bar Association is planning Lead Law 2015, a

one-day leadership training event in Greenville, South Carolina set for October 23, 2015.

This researcher's knowledge of this event is based on his involvement with the American

Bar Association. This event will feature leadership development experts, and other legal

professionals who have served in leadership roles during their careers. The event has five

parts. The first part, "lead yourself," presents information about leadership skills,

behaviors, and techniques. The second part, "lead your client," presents information for

establishing effective attorney-client relationships. The third part, "lead your firm,"

presents information about leading and managing law firms. The fourth part, "lead your

profession," presents information about becoming involved in bar associations. The final

keynote addresses "leading through a future of change."

At the state level, the Indiana State Bar Association hosts an annual Leadership

Development Academy for lawyers who have been licensed to practice law for less than

15 years (Indiana State Bar Association, 2015). According to its website, the academy

"empowers and develops lawyers to be informed, committed and involved so that they

may fill significant leadership roles in local and state bar associations, Indiana

communities and organizations, and serve as role models in matters of ethics and

professionalism." The academy is conducted in five multi-day sessions over five

months. The first session is aimed at relationship building among the participants,

introducing them to the skills of servant leadership, the differences in learning styles and

preferences, and the importance of ethics in leadership. The second session focuses on

state and local government, features government leaders as speakers, and tours of

government buildings. The third session addresses economic development and

emphasizes the importance of collaboration, and features prominent business leaders and

government officials who share their experiences and relate the importance of leadership

skills to creating healthy cities. The fourth "highly popular session" involves a tour of a

military base. The final session focuses on poverty, pro bono and volunteer work, and

developing an understanding of a lawyer's role in social justice.

The Washington D.C. Bar created the John Payton Leadership Academy

(Washington D.C. Bar Association, 2015). The goal of this program is to inspire and

educate to "develop and sharpen the necessary skills to be successful leaders." This

leadership academy consists of three one day sessions, and a one day pro bono project.

According to the academy's website, the curriculum covers leadership and

communication styles and skills, influence and persuasion, teamwork and consensus

building, conducting effective meetings, problems solving and strategic thinking, civility

and professionalism. The website does not provide an explicit mission or purpose of the

program.

The Nebraska State Bar Association also hosts a leadership academy (Nebraska

State Bar Association, 2015). According to the website, the mission of the program

"is to develop the leadership skills of the participants to allow them to make greater

contributions to the legal profession and their community." This program begins with a

day and half retreat, followed by five single-day monthly workshops. The goals of the

program include developing effective, ethical leadership, building relationships among

leaders in the legal profession, raising awareness about the issues facing the legal

profession, and to enhancing diversity among leaders in the legal profession and the

community. According to the program's brochure, the first session involves developing

an understanding of the elements of leadership for lawyers. The second session presents

information about getting involved in the community and the bar association. The third

session involves developing an understanding of the legislative branch of government.

The fourth session involves reaching out the community. The fifth session focuses on the

Nebraska judiciary and the issues it faces.

The Alabama State Bar association hosts the leadership forum which "is honored

as a dynamic and highly effective model for nurturing and developing leadership skills

and values among a select group of qualified, promising lawyers each year" (Alabama

State Bar Association, 2015). The forum's mission and core purpose is to develop

lawyers into servant-leaders, and consists of four, two-day sessions. Lawyers in the 2015

program spend time at the Maxwell Air Force Base's officer training school, at the

Alabama legislature, cocktail receptions, and meeting judges, lawyers, and other experts.

Further, the program includes problem solving, and reading and writing assignments.

The Georgia State Bar Young Lawyers Division has created a leadership academy

(Georgia State Bar, 2015). The 2015 program brochure does not contain an explicit

mission statement, purpose, set of objectives, or goals. The argument for why lawyers

should attend the program is to build networks, quality programming (which is not

clearly explained), and receive recognition. The 2015 program consists of five

substantive sessions, with the first session focused on becoming a leader in the state bar

and the young lawyers division, the second session involves touring the state capital,

observing the political process, and a luncheon. The third session held in New Orleans,

Louisiana focuses on professionalism and reviews challenges facing the legal profession,

and involves an awards reception. The fourth session focuses on the importance of

diversity by meeting for lunch, and attending a panel discussion. The fifth session

focuses on pro bono and community service.

Based solely on a cursory review of the information contained on their websites,

lawyer-leadership development programs do not appear to have a consistent leadership

development focus, and appear to focus on presenting networking opportunities and

fieldtrips for lawyers to broaden their understanding of different institutions. Of the

website information reviewed, only two programs – the Indiana State Bar Association

and the Alabama State Bar Association – referenced a specific leadership model – servant

leadership. And in terms of leadership behavior, only the Alabama program recognized

the importance of behavior in leadership stating that "[m]aking necessary and adaptive

changes in work styles or personal behavior is crucial" (Alabama State Bar Association,

2015). Notably, the actual substantive content of these programs may lead to a different

conclusion than this cursory review of website content.

<div align="center">**Summary**</div>

Lawyer-leadership development is becoming an increasingly important subject for

law schools and bar associations. But as Tyner (2014) pointed out, there is a dearth of

research to guide the development of these programs. Research in other professions

demonstrates the value of transformational leadership, and the validity of the full range

theory of leadership and the MLQ 5X-Short. This study applies this existing theoretical

framework and instrument to the legal profession to help develop an understanding of

how young lawyers behave as leaders. The aim of this research is to help inform lawyer-

leadership programs so that they may develop effective curricula.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to understand how young lawyers in Los Angeles, California behave as leaders. This study used an empirically-validated leadership questionnaire to assess the self-perceived leadership behavior of young lawyers living or working in Los Angeles, California. This study sought to determine whether any patterns exist in the type of leadership behaviors that young lawyers engage in, and whether they engage in leadership behaviors differently than the norm. Study participants were randomly identified using the California State Bar website, and were sent e-mails inviting them to complete an online survey.

Research Question and Hypotheses

This study sought to answer the following research question: What type of leadership behaviors do young lawyers in Los Angeles, California engage in according to the full range theory of leadership? This study tested the following hypotheses:

H1: Young lawyers will score higher on active-transactional leadership compared to transformational leadership.

H2: Young lawyers will score lower on the transformational leadership dimensions compared to non-lawyers.

H3: Young lawyers will score higher on the active-transactional leadership dimensions compared to non-lawyers.

H4: Young lawyers will score lower on the leadership outcome measures compared to non-lawyers.

Method Rationale

This study used a quantitative method so that the leadership behavior of young lawyers could be analyzed from a larger sample of the population than would be feasible in a qualitative study. Further, a quantitative method was used because the theoretical framework that this study was based on assessed leadership behavior using a quantitative instrument. Lastly, a quantitative approach was used so that young lawyer leadership behavior could be compared to the leadership behavior of non-lawyers based on quantitative data from a norm sample.

Description of the Study Population and Participants

The study population was lawyers in Los Angeles, California who were first licensed to practice law on or after January 1, 2011. Los Angeles lawyers were selected because Los Angeles is the largest city in California, and the second largest city in the United States.   The size of Los Angeles, arguably, presents a diverse study population in terms of law schools the respondents attended, employer types, experience, age, race, and ethnicity.

The size of the study population was estimated to be 2,334 lawyers. This estimate was determined by analyzing publicly available information from the California State Bar website, and the U.S. Census Bureau website. There were 182,887 active lawyers in California as of October 7, 2014 (http://members.calbar.ca.gov/search/demographics.aspx). There were 53,277 active lawyers in the County of Los Angeles as of October 7, 2014 (http://members.calbar.ca.gov/search/demographics_counties.aspx). Separate statistics for the City of Los Angeles are not provided on the California State Bar website. An

estimate of the number of lawyers in Los Angeles was calculated based on the

comparative population sizes of Los Angeles County and the City of Los Angeles. The

United States Census Bureau reported that the population for Los Angeles County was

10,017,068 in 2013. (http://quickfacts.census.gov/qfd/states/06/06037.html). The

Census Bureau reported that the population of the City of Los Angeles was 3,884,307 in

2013. (http://quickfacts.census.gov/qfd/states/06/0644000.html). Thus, the City of Los

Angeles makes up 38.78% of the population of Los Angeles County.

Assuming that the number of lawyers in Los Angeles County are spread

proportionately throughout the county's cities, the total estimated number of lawyers in

the City of Los Angeles is approximately 20,659 (53,277 x 38.78%). Therefore, the

population of lawyers in the City of Los Angeles as of October 7, 2014, was

approximately 11.3% (20,659 / 182,887) of all active lawyers in the State of California.

In 2011, 6,623 new lawyers joined the California bar, in 2012, 6,834 new lawyers

joined, and in 2013, 6,919 new lawyers joined. The number of lawyers passing the

February 2014 administration of the general bar examination was 2,073. It is assumed

that as of October 12, 2014, all of these passers became members of the California bar.

The July 2014 bar results had not been released as of October 12, 2014. Therefore,

between January 1, 2011, and October 12, 2014, approximately 22,449 new lawyers

joined the California bar.

Assuming that the number of new lawyers who joined the California State Bar are

spread proportionality throughout the state of California, it is estimated that

approximately 2,334 (11.3% x 22,449) new California lawyers were in Los Angeles

between August 30, 2014, and October 12, 2014.

The California State Bar website was used to identify lawyers in the study population. A total of 2,300 lawyers in Los Angeles were randomly identified with bar admission dates of January 1, 2011, or later. A total of 2,026 lawyers were sent e-mails inviting them to complete an online survey about leadership behavior. Two hundred and eighty-two (282) responses were received for a response rate of 13.9%. Out of these responses, 204 were complete for a completed response rate of 10%. Of the complete responses, 177 were from lawyers who were first admitted to practice law in any jurisdiction after January 1, 2011.

Instrumentation

This study used an online survey instead of a paper survey because of the resources available to the researcher and the ease of contacting the study population through e-mail. The survey was administered through SurveyMonkey.com and consisted of 11 background questions and the MLQ 5X-Short. The background questions are located in Appendix A. The background questions were developed to determine whether patterns exist in leadership behavior of young lawyers based on gender, age, type of employer, type of law school (public, private-religious, private-non-religious), and participation in leadership development programs. One background question asked respondents whether they were first licensed to practice law in any jurisdiction before January 1, 2011. The purpose of this question was to identify respondents who had been licensed in other jurisdictions before January 1, 2011, and therefore, were not within the target study population.

This study used the MLQ 5X-Short to assess leadership behavior and leadership outcomes. This instrument was selected because the "vast majority of published

empirical research" about transformational leadership has used the multifactor leadership

questionnaire, which in its current version is the MLQ-5X Short (Hinkin & Schriesheim,

2008, p. 502). Although it has been criticized, the multifactor leadership questionnaire

"'is considered the best validated measure of transformational and transactional

leadership"' (Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008, p. 5 (quoting Ozaralli, 2003, p. 338)). The

current 5X-Short version has been found to adequately assess the nine dimensions of

leadership under the Full Range Theory of Leadership (Antonakis, Avolio &

Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008).

  The MLQ 5X-Short has 45 questions, which ask respondents to rate the frequency

in which they engage in certain behaviors using a Likert scale - 0 (not at all), 1 (once in a

while), 2 (sometimes), 3 (fairly often), and 4 (frequently if not always). Thirty-six

questions assess the nine dimensions of leadership under the full range theory -- Idealized

Influence (Attributed); Idealized Influence (Behavior); Inspirational Motivation;

Intellectual Stimulation; Individualized Consideration; Contingent Reward; Management-

by-Exception Active; Management-by-Exception Passive; and Laissez-Faire. Each

dimension has four associated questions. Nine of the questions assess three leadership

outcomes, which have not been reviewed until this point. The effectiveness outcome

items on the survey measure the perceived effectiveness of the leader, the extra effort

outcome items measure the amount of additional effort the leader elicits from followers,

and the satisfaction outcome measures the perceived satisfaction with the leader (Horwitz

et al., 2008). The transformational leadership dimensions and the active-transactional

leadership dimensions have been found to positively correlate with the leadership

outcome measures (Horwitz et al., 2008).

A license was purchased from Mind Garden, Inc. to administer the MLQ 5X-Short.

Variables

The dependent variables in this study were the nine leadership component behaviors, the three leadership styles (comprised of the component behaviors), and the three leadership outcomes. The independent variables were gender, age, type of employer type, type of law school, participation in a leadership development program in law school, and participation in a leadership development program after law school.

Data Collection Procedure

The California State Bar website was used to identify Los Angeles lawyers who had been licensed to practice law in California since January 1, 2011. The website's advanced search feature allows users to search for lawyers by city, and then sort the results by bar admission date. Multiple searches were conducted using the website. Lawyers in the study sample and their e-mail addresses were collected from publicly available information from August 30, 2014, to October 30, 2014. The longest period of time that a lawyer in the study population could have been practicing law as of October 30, 2014, would have been three years and ten months.

The initial data collection plan was to survey 500 lawyers. But given the low response rate, the sample size was increased twice, and the invitation and reminder e-mails were revised in an attempt to encourage participation in this study. In total, 2,300 Los Angeles lawyers were randomly identified with California bar admission dates of January 1, 2011 or later. This sample is only 34 lawyers short from the estimated population size of 2,334. Initial e-mail invitations and reminder e-mails were sent

between September 17, 2014, and November 10, 2014. The survey was closed on

November 12, 2014.

Of the 2,300 lawyers that were identified, 2,026 lawyers were sent e-mails

inviting them to participate in the study. Two hundred and sixty-seven lawyers were not

sent invitations because they did not have an e-mail address listed on the California State

Bar website during the study, and seven (7) lawyers from the same firm were not sent

invitations because their firm had expressed concern about the e-mail invitations. The

invitations contained an electronic link to the survey administered through

SurveyMonkey.com. Data were anonymously collected online, and IP address tracking

was disabled. One reminder e-mail was sent to most of the respondents who had received

the initial invitation. Lawyers who had responded to the initial e-mail indicating that he

or she had completed the survey or wished not to be contacted in the future were not sent

a reminder e-mail. Also, reminder e-mails were not sent to lawyers whose initial e-mail

was returned as undeliverable, invalid, or not current.

Data Analysis

The data were exported from SurveyMonkey.com into Excel and organized in

Excel. The Excel data was imported into SPSS for analysis. T-tests, ANOVAs, and a

general linear repeated measures ANOVA were conducted to answer the research

question and to test the hypotheses.

Assumptions

This study assumed that the MLQ (5X-Short) accurately assesses the self-

perceived leadership behavior of young lawyers. In this regard, this study assumed that

this instrument is a valid and reliable tool for studying leadership in the legal profession.

Ethical Considerations

The Creighton University Institutional Review Board approved this study as an exempt study. No personally identifying information was collected from respondents. Internet Protocol address collection was disabled to further ensure anonymity. Some subjects e-mailed the researcher stating that they had completed the survey, declined to participate, or wished not to receive any more e-mails regarding the survey. All e-mails were kept confidential.

A manager at one large law firm sent the researcher an e-mail expressing concern about multiples e-mails being sent to one lawyer inviting her to participate in the study. Subjects should not have received more than two e-mails from the researcher -- one e-mail inviting them to complete the survey, and one e-mail reminding them to complete the survey. Upon researching the manger's concern, it was discovered that the lawyer at issue had received four e-mails from the researcher. This error occurred because the lawyer's name was listed twice on the California State Bar website -- under two different last names. The researcher apologized for any inconvenience, and agreed not to send any more e-mails to lawyers at that law firm.

Summary

This descriptive quantitative study assessed the leadership behavior of young lawyers in Los Angeles, California using the MLQ (5X-Short). The study participants were randomly identified using the California State Bar website. Two thousand and twenty-six (2,026) lawyers were sent e-mails inviting them to complete an online survey. The results from the survey were analyzed in SPSS to answer the research question and to test the hypotheses.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to develop an understanding of the type of leadership behaviors that young lawyers engage in. The California State Bar website was used to randomly identify young lawyers in Los Angeles, California with bar admission dates after January 1, 2011. These young lawyers were sent e-mails inviting them to complete an online survey. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X-Short (Bass, 1999) was used to assess their leadership behavior. This chapter reviews the data analysis procedure, scale construction, reliability tests, and reports the findings and results from the hypotheses tests.

Data Analysis Procedure

Survey response data was exported from SurveyMonkey.com into Excel and organized. Based on input from Bruce Avolio – one of the developers of the MLQ 5X-Short – responses missing more than two answers to one of the nine behavioral subscales were manually deleted. Responses were not deleted if the responses were missing answers to the three leadership outcome scales because this study was focused on leadership behavior and not on leadership outcomes. There were 177 complete responses by lawyers who were first admitted to practice law on or after January 1, 2011.

After the data was organized and incomplete responses were deleted, the Excel file was imported into SPSS. The raw data included the text responses to each survey question. The text responses were converted to numerical values in SPSS for analysis. T-tests and one-way ANOVAs, and a general linear repeated measures ANOVA were conducted to determine whether any significant differences on the subscales and

leadership scales exist based on gender, age, employer type, law school type, and the participation in leadership development programs. Further, one sample t-tests were conducted to test the hypotheses to determine whether differences in the young lawyer leadership scores compared to the norm sample were significant.

Scale Construction

The MLQ 5X-Short is a 45-item survey that assesses leadership behavior under the Full Range Theory of Leadership (Bass, 1999). According to this theory, leadership exists on a continuum with transformational leadership at the high end, active-transactional leadership in the middle, and passive-avoidant leadership (i.e., the absence of leadership) at the low end (Bass, 1999). Under the full range theory, five behaviors comprise transformational leadership: individualized influence-attributed (IIA); individualized influence-behavior (IIB); inspirational motivation (IM); intellectual stimulation (IS); and individualized consideration (IC). Two behaviors comprise active-transactional leadership: contingent reward (CR); and management-by-exception-active (MBEA). And two behaviors comprise passive-avoidant leadership: management-by-exception-passive (MBEP); and laissez-faire.

Each of the nine leadership dimensions are measured by four MLQ items, which ask respondents to rate the frequency with which they engage in certain behaviors on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (frequently, if not always). The SPSS compute variable function was used to create nine subscales for each of the nine leadership dimensions. Each subscale was comprised of four MLQ items associated with a particular leadership dimension. The compute variable function was also used to create the following primary scales: transformational leadership, which is comprised of 20 MLQ

items; active-transactional leadership, which is comprised of eight MLQ items; and

passive-avoidant leadership, which is comprised of eight MLQ items. Finally, the

compute variable function was used to create the following leadership outcome scales:

extra effort scale (EE), which is comprised of three MLQ items; effectiveness (EFF)

which is comprised of two MLQ items; and satisfaction (SAT), which is comprised of

four MLQ items. The mean and standard deviation of each subscale and primary scale

are reported in Table 1.

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations

	N	*M*	*SD*
IIA	177	2.76	.60
IIB	177	2.55	.72
IM	177	2.67	.77
IS	177	2.77	.61
IC	177	2.66	.66
CR	177	2.56	.65
MBEA	177	1.97	.75
MBEP	177	.93	.62
LF	177	.72	.56
Transformational Leadership	177	2.68	.55
Active-Transactional Leadership	177	2.26	.56
Passive-Avoidant Leadership	177	.83	.52
EE	173	2.33	.83
EFF	175	2.87	.66
SAT	174	2.96	.71

Note. Leadership Behavior and Leadership Outcome Subscales and Primary Scales.

Reliability Testing

Cronbach's alpha was calculated to determine the reliability of the nine leadership

subscales and the six primary scales of the three leadership styles and leadership

outcomes. The researcher used a listwise deletion process and excluded cases that had

missing values when calculating the alpha values for each of the subscales and scales.

The alpha values are reported in Table 2.

Table 2
Cronbach's alpha
Leadership Behavior and Leadership Outcome Subscales and Primary Scales.

	N	α	Items
IIA	165	.68	4
IIB	169	.67	4
IM	171	.81	4
IS	170	.71	4
IC	169	.59	4
CR	162	.59	4
MBEA	170	.69	4
MBEP	176	.67	4
LF	171	.65	4
Transformational Leadership	154	.89	20
Active-Transactional Leadership	160	.68	8
Passive-Avoidant Leadership	170	.77	8
EE	166	.85	3
EFF	163	.68	4
SAT	166	.62	2

The leadership outcome extra effort (EE) scale has three items and the leadership

outcome satisfaction (SAT) scale has two items. The alpha coefficients for these scales

should be reviewed with this in mind.

For the most part, the reliability scores from the study sample are similar to the

reliability scores provided by the developers of the MLQ 5X-Short (Avolio & Bass,

2004). The norm sample consisting of 3,755 self-rated MLQ assessments had the

following reliability scores: IIA (.70), IIB (.64), IM (.76), IS (.64), IC (.62), CR (.60),

MBEA (.75), MBEP (.64), LF (.60), EE (.79), EFF (.67), and SAT (.78) (Avolio & Bass,

2004).

<div align="center">**Findings**</div>

The findings are reported by presenting descriptive statistics, followed by an

analysis that answers the research question, and concludes with reporting the results from

the hypotheses tests.

Descriptive Statistics

Of the 177 complete responses, 84 (47.5%) were female, 91 (51.4%) were male,

and 2 (1.1%) declined to answer or did not identify as being male or female. Four (2.3%)

respondents were between the ages of 20 to 25 years old, 101 (57%) were between the

ages of 26 to 30 years old, 53 (29.9%) were between the ages of 31 to 36 years old, 11

(6.2%) were between 37 to 41 years old, and 8 (4.5%) were over 42 years old. Four

(2.3%) respondents were veterans. One-hundred and fifty five (87.6%) of respondents

were currently practicing law, 15 (8.5%) were not currently practicing law, 2 (1.1%) were

unemployed or not working, and 5 (2.8%) skipped the question.

Thirty-two (18.1%) of respondents were working as a solo practitioner or in a

small firm (defined as less than six lawyers), 8 (4.5%) were working a law firm of 6 to 10

lawyers, 26 (14.7%) were working a law firm of 11 to 50 lawyers, 4 (2.3%) were working

a law firm of 51 to 100 lawyers, 58 (32.8%) were working a law firm of 101 or more

lawyers, 10 (5.6%) were working in a government agency, 17 (9.6%) were working in a

nonprofit or legal aid organization, 9 (5.1%) were working as in-house counsel, 1 (.6%)

was working in a judicial clerkship, 4 (2.3%) were working in a non-legal job, 7 (4%)

were working in other, and 1 (.6%) was unemployed or not working. Forty-nine (27.7%)

respondents graduated from a public law school, 74 (41.8%) graduated from a private

non-religious law school, 53 (29.9%) graduated from a private religious law school, and 1

(.6%) graduated from other. Twenty-seven (15.3%) participated in a leadership

development program in law school. And 26 (14.7%) participated in a leadership

development program after law school. Ten (5.6%) of respondents had very little interest

in improving their leadership skills, 22 (12.4%) had little interest, 64 (36.2%) had some

interest, 48 (27.1%) had high interest, and 33 (18.6%) had very high interest.

Research Question: Leadership Behavior of Young Lawyers

The following section seeks to answer the following research question: what type

of leadership behaviors do young lawyers in Los Angeles, California engage in according

to the full range theory of leadership?

An ordinal ranking of the mean scores for the nine leadership subscales shows

that young lawyers had the highest scores on four of the five transformational leadership

subscales. Young lawyers scored the highest on intellectual stimulation ($M = 2.77$, $SD =$

.61), followed by idealized influence-attributed ($M = 2.76$, $SD = .60$), followed by

inspirational motivation ($M = 2.67$, $SD = .77$), and followed by individualized

consideration ($M = 2.66$, $SD = .66$).   The fifth highest score was on the contingent

reward subscale ($M = 2.56$, $SD = .65$), which is an active-transactional leadership

behavior, followed by the individualized-influence-behavior subscale ($M = 2.55$, $SD =$

.72), which is a transformational leadership behavior, followed by the management-by-

exception-active subscale ($M = 1.97$, $SD = .75$), which is an active-transactional

leadership behavior. The lowest mean scores were on the two passive-avoidant

subscales: management-by-exception-passive (M = .93, SD = .62), and laissez- faire (M =

.72, SD = .56).

A general linear repeated measures ANOVA was used to determine whether

significant differences existed among the nine subscales. Mauchly's test indicated that

the assumption of sphericity had been violated , $x^2(35)$ = 422.75, p < .001, therefore

degrees of freedom were corrected using Huyhn-Feldt estimates of sphericity (ε = .54).

The results showed a significant difference among the nine subscales, $F(4.29, 755.68)$ =

324.12, p < .001. Table 3 presents the pairwise comparisons and the significant

differences.

Table 3
*Leadership subscale pairwise comparisons from a general linear repeated measures
ANOVA.*

Leadership subscale	Leadership subscale	Sig.
1 (IIA)	2	<.001
	3	.06
	4	.77
	5	.02
	6	<.001
	7	<.001
	8	<.001
	9	<.001
2 (IIB)	1	<.001
	3	.02
	4	<.001
	5	.04
	6	.89
	7	<.001
	8	<.001
	9	<.001

(Table continues)

Table 3

Leadership subscale pairwise comparisons from a general linear repeated measures ANOVA.

Leadership Subscale	Leadership Subscale	Sig.
3 (IM)	1	.06
	2	.02
	4	.06
	5	.75
	6	.04
	7	<.001
	8	<.001
	9	<.001
4 (IS)	1	.76
	2	<.001
	3	.06
	5	.01
	6	<.001
	7	<.001
	8	<.001
	9	<.001
5 (IC)	1	.02
	2	.04
	3	.75
	4	.01
	6	.04
	7	<.001
	8	<.001
	9	<.001
6 (CR)	1	<.001
	2	.89
	3	.04
	4	<.001
	5	.04
	7	<.001
	8	<.001
	9	<.001

Table 3

Leadership subscale pairwise comparisons from a general linear repeated measures ANOVA.

Leadership Subscale	Leadership Subscale	Sig.
7 (MBEA)	1	<.001
	2	<.001
	3	<.001
	4	<.001
	5	<.001
	6	<.001
	8	<.001
	9	<.001
8 (MBEP)	1	<.001
	2	<.001
	3	<.001
	4	<.001
	5	<.001
	6	<.001
	7	<.001
	9	<.001
9 (LF)	1	<.001
	2	<.001
	3	<.001
	4	<.001
	5	<.001
	6	<.001
	7	<.001
	8	<.001

A general linear repeated measures ANOVA was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference between the transformational leadership primary scale score and the scores on the active-transactional and passive-avoidant leadership scales. Young lawyers scored significantly higher on the transformational leadership scale ($M =$ 2.68, $SD = .54$) compared to the active-transactional leadership scale ($M = 2.26$, $SD =$ .56), $F(1, 176) = 94.70$, $p < .001$. Young lawyers also scored significantly higher on transformational leadership compared to the passive avoidant-leadership scale ($M = .83$, $SD = .52$), $F(1, 176) = 781.05$, $p< .001$. Finally, young lawyers scored significantly higher on the active-transactional scale compared to the passive-avoidant scale, $F(1, 176) = 602.06$, $p < .001$.

Leadership behavior of young lawyers: Comparison to the norm. The results from this study indicate that young lawyers may engage in transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than active-transactional and passive-avoidant leadership behaviors. While this could be true, one sample t-tests demonstrate that young lawyers report engaging in transformational leadership behaviors significantly less frequently than non-lawyers.   To make this comparison, norm data supplied by the developers of the MLQ 5X-Short was used. This data is found in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The complete results are reported in Table 4.

Table 4
One sample t-tests between young lawyers and the norm sample.

	N	M	SD	t	df	Sig (two-tailed)
IIA						
Young lawyers	177	2.76	.60	-4.24	176	<.001
U.S. normative sample	3375	2.95	.53			
IIB						
Young lawyers	177	2.55	.72	-8.10	176	<.001
U.S. normative sample	3375	2.99	.59			
IM						
Young lawyers	177	2.67	.77	-6.34	176	<.001
U.S. normative sample	3375	3.04	.59			
IS						
Young lawyers	177	2.77	.61	-4.05	176	<.001
U.S. normative sample	3375	2.96	.53			
IC						
Young lawyers	177	2.66	.66	-10.19	176	<.001
U.S. normative sample	3375	3.16	.52			
CR						
Young lawyers	177	2.56	.65	-8.82	176	<.001
U.S. normative sample	3375	2.99	.53			
MBEA						
Young lawyers	177	1.97	.75	6.94	176	<.001
U.S. normative sample	3375	1.58	.53			
MBEP						
Young lawyers	177	0.93	.62	-3.06	176	.003
U.S. normative sample	3375	1.07	.62			
LF						
Young lawyers	177	0.72	.56	2.71	176	.01
U.S. normative sample	3375	0.61	.52			
EE						
Young lawyers	173	2.33	.83	-7.36	172	<.001
U.S. normative sample	3375	2.79	.61			
EFF						
Young lawyers	175	2.87	.66	-5.49	174	<.001
U.S. normative sample	3375	3.14	.51			
SAT						
Young lawyers	174	2.96	.71	-2.36	173	.02
U.S. normative sample	3375	3.09	.55			

Leadership behavior of young lawyers: Gender. To further answer the research question, the leadership behavior of young lawyers was analyzed based on gender. Independent samples t-tests were performed to determine whether there were any significant differences between the male and female young lawyer leadership scores. The results revealed that males scored significantly higher than females on four of the five transformational leadership subscales. For inspirational motivation, males (M = 2.79, SD = .81) scored significantly higher than females (M = 2.55, SD = .71), $t(173)$ = -2.05, $p <$ .05. For intellectual stimulation, males (M=2.87, SD =.64) scored significantly higher than females (M = 2.66, SD = .57), $t(173)$ = -2.33, $p <$ .05). For individualized consideration, males (M = 2.74, SD = .66) scored significantly higher than females (M = 2.55, SD = .62), $t(173)$ = -1.99, $p <$ .05. For idealized influence-attributed, males (M = 2.84, SD = .60) scored higher than females (M = 2.67, SD = .60), and this difference approached statistical significance, $t(173)$= -1.92, p = .056. The difference between males and females for the idealized influence-behavior subscale was not significant.

The difference between the male and female scores for the active-transactional subscales are as follows: there was no significant difference on the contingent reward subscale, and males and females had the same mean score on the management-by-exception active subscale. For passive-avoidant leadership, males (M =1.05, SD = .62) scored significantly higher on the management-by-exception-passive subscale compared to females (M = .77, SD = .56), $t(173)$ = -3.13, $p <$ .05. Males (M = .73, SD = .54). Males and females had the same mean score on the laissez-faire subscale. The complete results are reported in Table 5.

Table 5
Leadership subscale means and standard deviations for male and female young lawyers.

	Gender	N	M	SD
IIA**	Female	84	2.67	.60
	Male	91	2.84	.60
IIB	Female	84	2.54	.67
	Male	91	2.57	.77
IM*	Female	84	2.55	.71
	Male	91	2.79	.81
IS*	Female	84	2.66	.57
	Male	91	2.87	.64
IC*	Female	84	2.55	.64
	Male	91	2.74	.66
CR	Female	84	2.48	.62
	Male	91	2.63	.68
MBEA	Female	84	1.97	.74
	Male	91	1.97	.76
MBEP*	Female	84	.77	.56
	Male	91	1.05	.62
LF	Female	84	.73	.58
	Male	91	.73	.54

* Significant at the $p < .05$ level; ** significant at $p = .056$.

For the primary transformational leadership scale, males ($M = 2.76$, $SD = .56$) scored significantly higher than females ($M = 2.59$, $SD = .51$), $t(173) = -2.09$, $p < .05$. For the passive-avoidant primary scale, males ($M = .89$, $SD = .54$) scored higher than females ($M = .75$, $SD = .49$) and this result approached statistical significance $t(173) = -1.79$, $p = .075$. On the active-transactional leadership scale, the differences between males and females were not significant.

Leadership behavior of young lawyers: Gender and employer type. To further answer the research question, independent samples t-tests were performed to determine whether gender differences in the leadership behavior scores existed among respondents working at large law firms ($n = 58$). For purposes of this study, large law

firms are defined as law firms with more than 101 lawyers. Law firms of this size were

the highest represented employer type with 31 male respondents, 26 female respondents,

and one respondent who declined to identify, or did not identify, with being male or

female. Male scored significantly higher on the three of the transformational leadership

subscales. Specifically, for inspirational motivation, males (M = 3.04, SD = .78) scored

significantly higher than females (M = 2.42, SD = .78), $t(55)$ = -2.99, p < .05). For

intellectual stimulation, males (M = 3.04, SD = .68) scored significantly higher than

females (M = 2.59, SD = .51), $t(55)$ = -2.80, p < .05. For individualized consideration,

males (M = 2.98, SD = .52) scored significantly higher than females (M = 2.39, SD =

.61), $t(55)$ = -3.98, p < .001. For individualized influence-attributed, males (M = 2.92,

SD = .65) scored higher than females (M = 2.63, SD = .65), and this difference was just

outside the range of significance $t(55)$ = -1.722, p < .091. For individualized influence-

behavior, the difference between males and females was not significant.

For the contingent reward subscale of active-transactional leadership, males (M =

2.71, SD = .55) scored higher than females (M = 2.41, SD =.61) with the difference

approaching significance $t(55)$ = -1.928, p < .059. The difference between the

management-by-exception-active subscale was not significant. The differences between

the management-by-exception-passive and laissez-faire subscales of passive-avoidant

leadership were not significant.

On the transformational leadership scale, males in large law firms (M = 2.91, SD

= .56) scored significantly higher than females (M = 2.47, SD = .53), $t(55)$ = -3.01, p <

.05. The differences between males and females on the active-transactional leadership

scale and the passive-avoidant scale were not significant. Table 6 reports the male and

female subscale and scale scores for young lawyers working in large law firms.

Table 6
Leadership subscale means and standard deviations for male and female young lawyers in large law firms.

	Female			Male			Total^		
	M	*N*	*SD*	*M*	*N*	*SD*	*M*	*N*	*SD*
IIA	2.63	26	.65	2.92	31	.65	2.79	58	.65
IIB	2.37	26	.68	2.57	31	.79	2.47	58	.74
IM*	2.42	26	.78	3.04	31	.78	2.77	58	.83
IS*	2.59	26	.51	3.04	31	.68	2.85	58	.65
IC**	2.39	26	.61	2.98	31	.52	2.73	58	.64
CR***	2.41	26	.61	2.71	31	.55	2.57	58	.59
MBEA	2.16	26	.72	1.85	31	.79	1.99	58	.76
MBEP	.88	26	.58	.94	31	.52	.91	58	.54
LF	.86	26	.63	.66	31	.48	.75	58	.56
Transformational*	2.47	26	.53	2.91	31	.56	2.72	58	.58
Active-Transactional	2.29	26	.54	2.28	31	.54	2.28	58	.53
Passive-Avoidant	.87	26	.54	.80	31	.47	.83	58	.50

^Total includes the scores for one young lawyer who declined or does not identify with being male or female. *Significant at the $p < .05$ level; ** significant at the $p < .001$ level; *** significant at $p = .059$.

The second highest represented employer type among respondents ($n = 32$) was

small law firms with less than six attorneys. Independent samples t-tests were performed

to determine whether there were any differences in leadership scores between males ($n = $

19) and females ($n = 13$) in small firms. None of the differences on the nine leadership

subscales and the three primary leadership scales were significant. The means and

standard deviations are reported in Table 7.

Table 7

Leadership subscale means and standard deviations for male and female young lawyers in small law firms.

	Female			Male			Total		
	M	*N*	*SD*	*M*	*N*	*SD*	*M*	*N*	*SD*
IIA	2.75	13	.54	2.73	19	.61	2.74	32	.57
IIB	2.46	13	.41	2.79	19	.70	2.66	32	.61
IM	2.48	13	.46	2.76	19	.93	2.65	32	.78
IS	2.60	13	.66	2.89	19	.49	2.77	32	.57
IC	2.43	13	.52	2.55	19	.69	2.50	32	.62
CR	2.51	13	.45	2.69	19	.67	2.61	32	.59
MBEA	1.73	13	.61	2.11	19	.82	1.95	32	.75
MBEP	.79	13	.59	1.11	19	.70	.98	32	.67
LF	.85	13	.82	.94	19	.61	.90	32	.69
Transformational	2.55	13	.36	2.74	19	.55	2.66	32	.48
Active-Transactional	2.11	13	.48	2.41	19	.58	2.29	32	.55
Passive-Avoidant	.82	13	.57	1.02	19	.62	.94	32	.60

Leadership behavior of young lawyers: Large law firms compared to small law firms based on gender. The data was analyzed to determine whether any within-gender differences existed between large and small law firms on the nine leadership subscales and the three primary scales. Using independent samples t-tests, none of the differences between females working in large law firms ($n = 26$) and small law firms ($n = 13$) were significant. But as Figure 2 illustrates, there appears to be a trend with females working in small law firms potentially scoring higher on transformational leadership and lower on passive-avoidant leadership compared to females working in large law firms. The lack of statistical significance may be due to small sample sizes.

	IIA	IIB	IM	IS	IC	MBEP	LF	Transform.	Pass.-Avoid.
■ Females (Large)	2.63	2.37	2.42	2.59	2.39	0.88	0.86	2.47	0.87
■ Females (Small)	2.75	2.46	2.48	2.60	2.43	0.79	0.85	2.55	0.82

Figure 2. Bar graph showing the five transformational leadership subscales and scale, and the passive-avoidant leadership subscales and scales of female young lawyers in large and small firms.

The trend in the data for male young lawyers as shown in Figure 3 was the exact opposite compared to female young lawyers. Using independent samples t-tests, male young lawyers in large law firms (*M* = 2.98, *SD* = .52) scored significantly higher on the individualized consideration subscale compared to males working in small law firms (*M* = 2.55, *SD* = .69), *t*(48) = -2.51, *p* < .05. The difference on the laissez-faire subscale was just outside the range of statistical significance with males working in small firms (*M* = .94, *SD* = .61) scoring higher than males working in large law firms (*M* = .66, *SD* = .48), *t*(48) = 1.77, *p* = .083. The differences in the other subscales were not significant, but the data suggested a trend where male young lawyers in large law firms scored higher on the transformational leadership subscales and lower on the passive-avoidant subscales compared to males in small law firms.

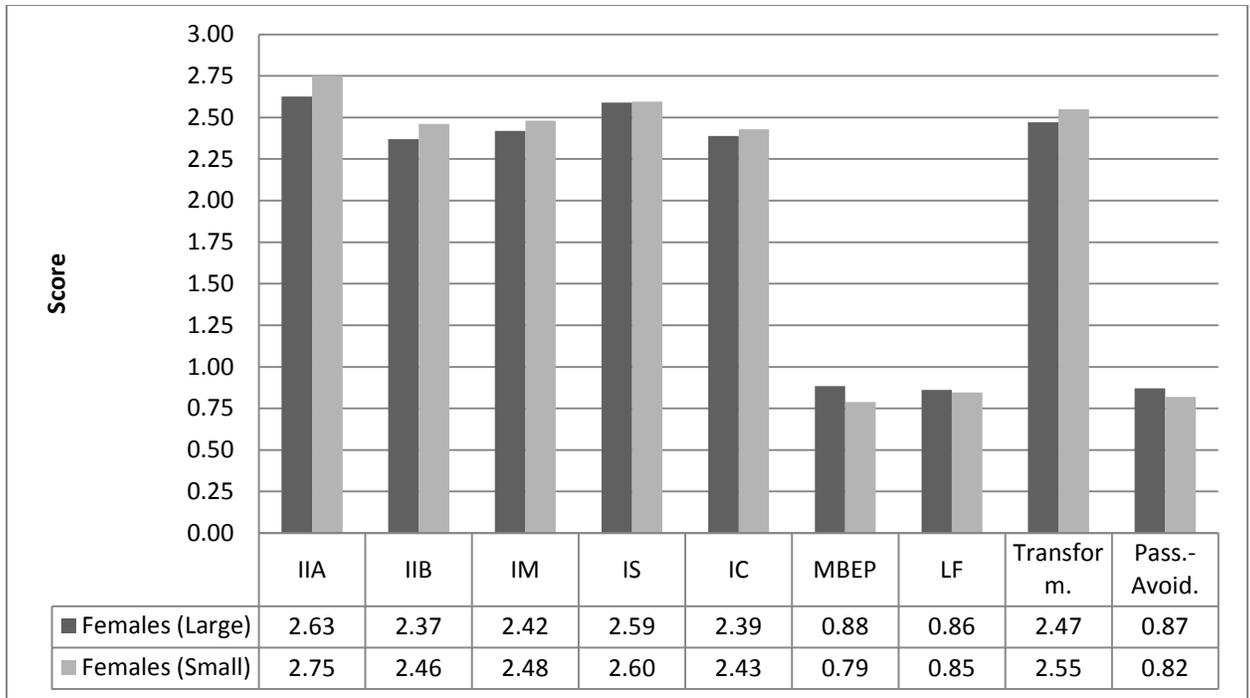|	IIA	IIB	IM	IS	IC	MBEP	LF	Transfo rm.	Pass.- Avoid.
■ Males (Large)	2.92	2.57	3.04	3.04	2.98	0.94	0.66	2.91	0.80
■ Males (Small)	2.73	2.79	2.76	2.89	2.55	1.11	0.94	2.74	1.02
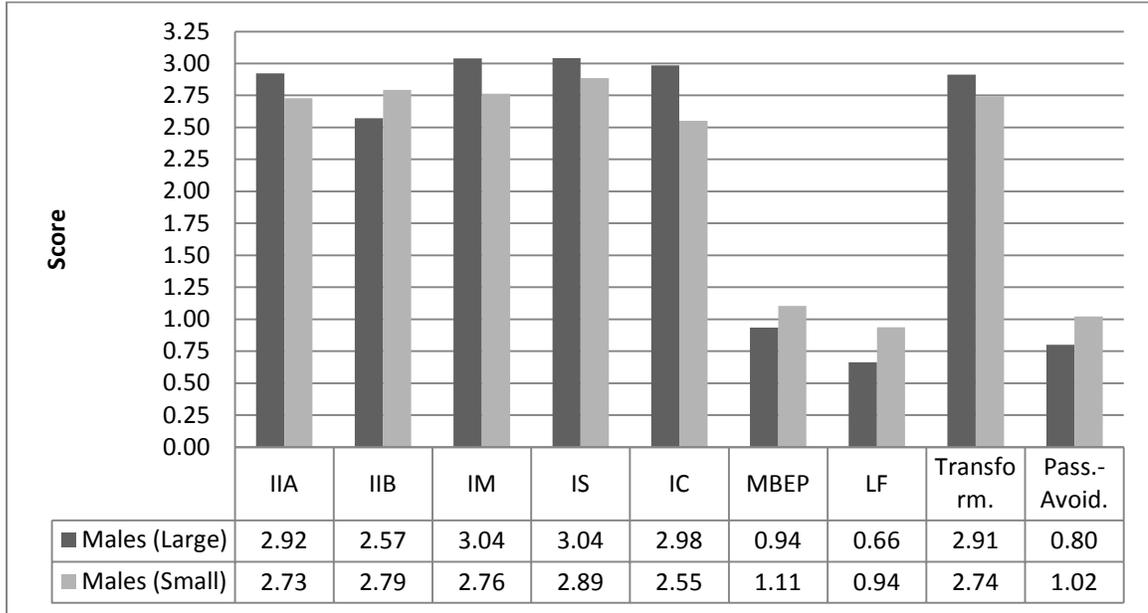
Figure 3. Bar graph showing the five transformational leadership subscales and scale, and the passive-avoidant leadership subscales and scales of male young lawyers in large and small firms.

Leadership behavior of young lawyers: Gender and interest in leadership development. Respondents were asked to rate their interest in learning how to improve their leadership skills on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (no interest) to 5 (high interest). Female young lawyers ($M = 3.40$, $SD = 1.01$) had the same mean leadership development interest as male young lawyers ($M = 3.40$, $SD = 1.18$). Independent samples t-tests were conducted to determine whether gender differences existed based on employer type. Male young lawyers working in large law firms ($n = 31$, $M = 3.42$, $SD = 1.06$) did not differ in their interest in leadership development, compared to female young lawyers working in large law firms ($n = 26$, $M = 3.19$, $SD = .94$). Male young lawyers working in small law firms ($n = 19$, $M = 3.37$, $SD = 1.42$) did not differ in their interest in leadership development, compared to female young lawyers working in large law firms

($n = 13$, $M = 3.31$, $SD = .48$). Female young lawyers working in small law firms had a leadership development interest ($n = 13$, $M = 3.31$, $SD = .48$), compared to female young lawyers working in large law firms ($n = 26$, $M = 3.19$, $SD = .94$). This difference was not significant. Male young lawyers working in large law firms had a leadership development interest ($n = 31$, $M = 3.42$, $SD = 1.06$), compared to male young lawyers working in small law firms ($n = 19$, $M = 3.37$, $SD = 1.42$). This difference was not significant.

   Leadership behavior: Gender differences for lawyers first licensed before January 1, 2011. The population for this study were lawyers who were first licensed to practice law on or after January 1, 2011. The study sample is 177. However, the survey method used unavoidably collected data on lawyers who had been licensed to practice law before January 1, 2011, in jurisdictions outside California. The number of complete surveys by these more experienced lawyers was 26.   Because of the significant gender differences found among young lawyers ($n = 177$) and the implication of these results for the legal profession, additional independent samples t-tests were performed to determine whether gender differences existed for lawyers who were first licensed to practice law before January 1, 2011.

   While not significant, the mean scores for the more experienced male and female young lawyers moved in the opposite direction compared to the mean scores for the young lawyers. Specifically, the trend in the data indicated that the more experienced female lawyers may score higher on the transformational leadership subscales and the primary scale compared to the more experienced male lawyers. The idealized-influence-attributed subscale was the only transformational leadership subscale with a marginally

significant difference using an independent samples t-test: female lawyers ($n = 13$, $M =$

2.99, $SD = 46$) scored higher than the male lawyers ($n = 12$, $SD = 2.64$, $M = .49$), $t(23)=$

1.86, $p = .076$. Despite the lack of statistical significance, these results are presented

because they create questions regarding the meaning of significant gender differences

found in young lawyers, as discussed in Chapter 5. The complete results are presented in

Table 8.

Table 8
Leadership scores for lawyers first licensed to practice law before January 2, 2011.

	Gender	N	M	SD
IIA Score*	Female	13	2.99	.46
	Male	12	2.64	.49
IIB Score	Female	13	2.52	.73
	Male	12	2.33	.69
IM Score	Female	13	2.57	.68
	Male	12	2.38	.46
IS Score	Female	13	2.73	.49
	Male	12	2.58	.50
IC Score	Female	13	2.69	.64
	Male	12	2.56	.49
CR Score	Female	13	2.76	.54
	Male	12	2.60	.61
MBEA Score	Female	13	2.16	.45
	Male	12	2.21	.75
MBEP Score	Female	13	.63	.53
	Male	12	.88	.51
LF Score	Female	13	.67	.66
	Male	12	.54	.41
Transformational	Female	13	2.70	.55
Leadership	Male	12	2.50	.35
Active-Transactional	Female	13	2.46	.37
Leadership	Male	12	2.39	.61
Passive-Avoidant	Female	13	.64	.51
Leadership	Male	12	.71	.43

*Approaching significance at $p = .076$.

Leadership behavior of young lawyers: Age.   The means scores for the

transformational, active-transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership scales were

calculated based on age. The scores for each age group were compared using a between-

groups ANOVA (i.e., 20-25 year olds were compared to 26-30 year olds, and so on).

The results are reported in Table 9. None of the differences were significant. The mean

scores for the nine leadership subscales were not calculated because of the small sample

sizes for some of age groups represented in the study sample.

Table 9
Means and standard deviations based on age group.

Age		Transformational	Active-Transactional	Passive-Avoidant
20-25 years	*M*	2.33	2.22	1.16
	N	4	4	4
	SD	.59	.72	.86
26-30 years	*M*	2.63	2.26	.85
	N	101	101	101
	SD	.53	.56	.52
31-36 years	*M*	2.74	2.32	.74
	N	53	53	53
	SD	.57	.59	.51
37-41 years	*M*	2.75	2.27	1.00
	N	11	11	11
	SD	.54	.50	.56
Over 42 years	*M*	2.97	1.98	.72
	N	8	8	8
	SD	.36	.31	.35
Total	*M*	2.68	2.26	.83
	N	177	177	177
	SD	.54	.56	.52

Leadership behavior of young lawyers: Age and gender. An independent

samples t-test was performed to determine whether the difference between the female and

male leadership scores for the two most represented age groups was statistically

significant. Males between the ages of 26 to 30 years old had a marginally higher

transformational leadership score ($n = 46$, $M = 2.74$, $SD = .56$) compared to females

between the ages of 26 to 30 years old, ($n = 54$, $M = 2.54$, $SD = .49$). This difference was

just outside the range of statistical significance, ($t(98) = -1.89$, $p = .061$). Males' active-

transactional score ($M = 2.33$, $SD = .53$) did not significantly differ from females ($M =$

2.19, $SD = .58$). Finally, males had a significantly higher passive-avoidant score ($M =$

.97, $SD = .54$) compared to females ($M = .74$, SD $= .48$), $t(98) = -2.21$, $p < .05$).

The second most represented age group was lawyers between the ages of 31 to 37

years old. The transformational leadership scales for males in this age group ($n = 31$, M

$= 2.80$, $SD = .61$) did not differ compared to females between the ages of 31 to 37 years

old, ($n = 21$, $M = 2.66$, $SD = .52$). The active-transactional score for males in this age

group ($M = 2.33$, $SD = .65$) did not differ compared to females ($M = 2.27$, $SD = .58$).

Finally, the passive avoidant score for males ($M = .73$, $SD = .53$) did not differ compared

to females ($M = .71$, SD $= .43$).

Leadership behavior of young lawyers: Employer type. Without regard to

gender, the data was analyzed based on the primary leadership scales and employer type.

The differences between the employer-type groups were not significant using a series of

one-way ANOVAs. However, based on an ordinal ranking of the mean scores, young

lawyers with a non-legal job had the highest transformational leadership score ($n = 4$, M

$= 3.00$, $SD = .23$), followed by lawyers working in a non-profit or legal aid organization

($n = 17$, $M = 2.83$, $SD = .38$), followed by lawyers who listed "other" as their employer

type ($n = 7$, $M = 2.73$, $SD = .75$). Based on an ordinal ranking of the mean scores, the

three lowest scores were reported by young lawyers working in a government agency (n

$=10$, $M = 2.48$, $SD = .61$), followed respondents working in law firms with 51-100

lawyers ($n = 4$, $M = 2.26$, $SD = .21$), followed by one lawyer who was unemployed ($n =$

1, $M = 1.8$). Limited value should be given to these scores based on the small sample

sizes. The complete results are reported in Table 10.

Table 10
Leadership Scale Scores Based on Employer Type.

Employer type		Transform.	Active- Transact.	Passive- Avoidant
A solo practitioner or	*M*	2.66	2.29	.94
small law firm	*N*	32	32	32
	SD	.48	.55	.60
A law firm of 6-10	*M*	2.71	2.08	.75
lawyers	*N*	8	8	8
	SD	.56	.85	.34
A law firm of 11-50	*M*	2.61	2.13	.79
lawyers	*N*	26	26	26
	SD	.59	.52	.48
A law firm of 51-100	*M*	2.28	1.99	.94
lawyers	*N*	4	4	4
	SD	.21	.47	.52
A law firm of 101 or	*M*	2.72	2.28	.83
more lawyers	*N*	58	58	58
	SD	.58	.53	.50
A government agency	*M*	2.48	2.05	.65
	N	10	10	10
	SD	.61	.48	.79
A non-profit or legal	*M*	2.84	2.50	.92
aid organization	*N*	17	17	17
	SD	.38	.50	.40

(Table continues)

Table 10

Leadership Scale Scores Based on Employer Type.

Employer type		Transform.	Active-Transact.	Passive-Avoidant
In-house counsel	*M*	2.71	2.28	.72
	N	9	9	9
	SD	.47	.58	.53
Judicial Clerkship	*M*	2.70	2.38	.50
	N	1	1	1
	SD	.	.	.
Non-legal job	*M*	3.00	2.94	.66
	N	4	4	4
	SD	.23	.39	.51
Other	*M*	2.73	2.25	.64
	N	7	7	7
	SD	.75	.72	.55
Unemployed or not working	*M*	1.80	1.63	1.63
	N	1	1	1
	SD	.	.	.
Total	*M*	2.68	2.26	.83
	N	177	177	177
	SD	.54	.56	.52

Leadership behavior of young lawyers: Law school type. The mean scores for transformational, active-transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership were analyzed using a oneway ANOVA to determine whether any differences existed based on the type of law school that lawyers graduated from (public, private non-religious, private religious). There were no significant differences. Based on an ordinal ranking of the means, the transformational leadership scores were the same for lawyers who had graduated from a public law school ($n = 49$, $M = 2.69$, $SD = .45$) and private religious law school ($n = 53$, $M = 2.69$, $SD = .57$). Lawyers who had graduated from a non-religious private law school had the lowest score ($n = 74$, $M = 2.66$, $SD = .57$). Based on an ordinal ranking of the means, young lawyers who had graduated from a non-religious

private law school had the highest active-transactional leadership score ($n = 74$, $M = 2.30$, $SD = .56$), followed by graduates from a private religious school ($n = 53$, $M = 2.25$, $SD = .55$), followed by graduates from a public school ($n = 49$, $M = 2.19$, $SD = .54$). Lawyers who had graduated from a non-religious private law school had the highest passive-avoidant leadership score ($n = 74$, $M = .86$, $SD = .57$), followed by graduates from a private religious school ($n = 53$, $M = .82$, $SD = .51$), followed by graduates from a public school ($n = 49$, $M = .80$, $SD = .48$).

Leadership behavior of young lawyers: Leadership development programs. Twenty-seven young lawyers had attended a leadership training or development program in law school. Independent t-tests were performed to determine whether differences existed for the group of lawyers who had attended a leadership development program in law school compared to those who had not. None of the differences were significant. However, the data points to a trend that indicates that leadership development programs in law school may influence the subscale and primary scale scores. While not significant, the lawyers who had attended a leadership development program had higher mean scores on four of the five transformational leadership subscales compared to lawyers who had not. The results are reported in Table 11.

Table 11
Leadership Development (LD) in Law School (LS).

		N	M	SD
IIA	Yes, LD in LS	27	2.74	.41
	No, LD in LS	144	2.77	.63
IIB	Yes, LD in LS	27	2.58	.71
	No, LD in LS	144	2.54	.72
IM	Yes, LD in LS	27	2.80	.61
	No, LD in LS	144	2.65	.79

(Table continues)

Table 12
Leadership Development (LD) in Law School (LS).

		N	M	SD
IS	Yes, LD in LS	27	2.80	.52
	No, LD in LS	144	2.77	.64
IC	Yes, LD in LS	27	2.80	.56
	No, LD in LS	144	2.64	.67
CR	Yes, LD in LS	27	2.66	.59
	No, LD in LS	144	2.53	.66
MBEA	Yes, LD in LS	27	1.80	.66
	No, LD in LS	144	2.00	.75
MBEP	Yes, LD in LS	27	.84	.63
	No, LD in LS	144	.93	.61
LF	Yes, LD in LS	27	.72	.57
	No, LD in LS	144	.72	.56
Transform.	Yes, LD in LS	27	2.74	.40
	No, LD in LS	144	2.67	.56
Active-	Yes, LD in LS	27	2.23	.45
Transactional	No, LD in LS	144	2.27	.58
Passive-	Yes, LD in LS	27	.78	.54
Avoidant	No, LD in LS	144	.82	.52

Twenty-six young lawyers in the study sample attended a leadership training or development program after graduating from law school. A series of independent samples t-tests revealed that these lawyers scored higher on two transformational leadership subscales, one active-transactional subscale, and on the primary transformational leadership subscale compared to lawyers who had not attended a leadership training or development program post graduation. For the idealized influence-attributed subscale, lawyers who had attended a leadership program after law school scored significantly higher ($M = 2.97$, $SD = .42$) compared to lawyers who had not ($M = 2.72$, $SD = .62$), $t(170) = 2.00$, $p < .05$. For individualized consideration subscale, lawyers who had attended a leadership program after law school scored significantly higher ($M = 2.95$, $SD = .57$) compared to lawyers who had not ($M = 2.61$, $SD = .66$),

$t(170) = 2.46$, $p < .05$. For the transformational leadership primary scale, lawyers who

had attended a leadership program after law school scored significantly higher ($M = 2.89$,

$SD = .47$) than lawyers who had not ($M = 2.65$, $SD = .55$), ($t(170) = 2.149$, $p < .05$. For

the contingent reward subscale of active-transactional leadership, lawyers who had

attended a leadership program after law school scored significantly higher ($M = 2.80$, SD

$= .55$) compared to lawyers who had not ($M = 2.51$, $SD = .67$), $t(170) = 2.062$, $p < .05$).

The complete results are reported in Table 12.

Table 13
Leadership Development (LD) after Law School (LS).

		N	M	SD
IIA*	Yes, LD after LS	26	2.97	.42
	No, LD after LS	146	2.72	.62
IIB	Yes, LD after LS	26	2.76	.70
	No, LD after LS	146	2.52	.73
IM	Yes, LD after LS	26	2.87	.68
	No, LD after LS	146	2.64	.78
IS	Yes, LD after LS	26	2.93	.59
	No, LD after LS	146	2.76	.62
IC*	Yes, LD after LS	26	2.95	.57
	No, LD after LS	146	2.61	.66
CR*	Yes, LD after LS	26	2.80	.55
	No, LD after LS	146	2.51	.67
MBEA	Yes, LD after LS	26	2.05	.71
	No, LD after LS	146	1.96	.76
MBEP	Yes, LD after LS	26	.87	.65
	No, LD after LS	146	.94	.62
LF	Yes, LD after LS	26	.60	.53
	No, LD after LS	146	.75	.57
Transform.*	Yes, LD after LS	26	2.89	.47
	No, LD after LS	146	2.65	.55
Active-Transactional	Yes, LD after LS	26	2.42	.48
	No, LD after LS	146	2.24	.57
Passive-Avoidant	Yes, LD after LS	26	.73	.52
	No, LD after LS	146	.85	.53

* Significant at $p < .05$ level.

Hypothesis Testing

The following section reviews the results of the tests for the four hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis one stated that young lawyers would score higher on active-transactional leadership compared to transformational leadership. This hypothesis was tested using a general linear repeated measures ANOVA. The scores for the transformational leadership scale ($M = 2.68$, $SD = .54$) were significantly higher compared to the mean score for the active-transactional leadership scale ($M = 2.26$, $SD = .56$), $F(1, 176) = 94.70$, $p < .001$. Because young lawyers scored higher on the transformational leadership scale, the hypotheses is not supported.

Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis two stated that young lawyers would score lower on the five transformational leadership components compared to non-lawyers. This hypothesis was tested comparing the young lawyer mean transformational leadership subscale scores to the norm sample's mean subscale scores using a series of one sample t-tests. Young lawyers scored significantly lower than the norm sample on all five components of transformational leadership as shown in Table 3. For IIA, young lawyers scored 2.76 ($SD = .60$) compared to the norm score of 2.95 ($SD = .53$), $t(176) = -4.24$, $p < .001$. For IIB, young lawyers scored 2.55 ($SD = .72$) compared to the norm score of 2.99 ($SD = .59$), $t(176) = -8.10$, $p < .001$. For IM, young lawyers scored 2.67 ($SD = .77$) compared to the norm score of 3.04 ($SD = .59$), $t(176) = -6.34$, $p < .001$. For IS, young lawyers scored 2.77 ($SD = .61$) compared to the norm score of 2.96 ($SD = .53$), $t(176) = -4.05$, $p < .001$. For IC, young lawyers scored 2.66 ($SD = .66$) compared to the norm

score of 3.16 ($SD = .52$), $t(176) = -10.19$, $p < .001$. Therefore, the hypothesis was supported. These findings are reported in Table 3, above.

Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis three stated that young lawyers would score higher on the active-transactional leadership components compared to non-lawyers. This hypothesis was tested comparing the young lawyer mean active-transactional leadership subscale scores to the norm sample's mean subscale scores using one sample t-tests. For CR, young lawyers ($M = 2.56$, $SD = .65$) scored significantly lower than the norm sample ($M = 2.99$, $SD = .53$), $t(176) = -8.82$, $p < .001$. But for MBEA, young lawyers ($M = 1.97$, $SD = .75$) scored significantly higher than the norm sample ($M = 1.58$, $SD = .53$), $t(176) = 6.94$, $p < .001$. Because of the mixed results, hypothesis three was partially supported.

Hypothesis 4. Hypothesis four stated that young lawyers would score lower on the leadership outcome measures compared to non-lawyers. This hypothesis was tested comparing the young lawyer mean leadership outcome scale scores to the norm sample's mean scale scores using one sample t-tests. For EE, young lawyers ($M = 2.33$, $SD = .83$) scored significantly lower than the norm sample ($M = 2.79$, $SD = .61$), $t(172) = -7.36$, $p < .001$). For EFF, young lawyers ($M = 2.87$, $SD = .66$) scored significantly lower than the norm sample ($M = 3.14$, $SD = .51$) $t(174) = -5.49$, $p < .001$). And for SAT, young lawyers ($M = 2.96$, $SD = .71$) scored significantly lower than the norm sample ($M = 3.09$, $SD = .55$), $t(173) = -2.36$, $p < .05$). Therefore, hypotheses four was supported.

Summary

The results from this study provide evidence that young lawyers report engaging in transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than active-transactional and passive-avoidant behaviors. But the frequency in which young lawyers engage in these

behaviors is significantly below the norm. The results provide evidence of gender differences between female and male young lawyers.   Male young lawyers report engaging in some transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than female young lawyers, and this difference is significant for the study sample as a whole and for lawyers working in large law firms. Finally, the results provide evidence for the impact that leadership development programs have on young lawyer leadership behavior. While not statistically significant, based on a simple comparison of the mean scores young lawyers who had participated in a leadership development program in law school reported higher transformational leadership scores and lower passive-avoidant scores compared to young lawyers who had not.   But the scores were significantly higher on two of the transformational leadership subscales and the transformational leadership primary scale for young lawyers who had participated in a leadership development program after graduating from law school, compared to young lawyers who had not.

H1 was not supported because young lawyers reported engaging in transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than active-transactional leadership behaviors. H2 was supported because young lawyers scored significantly lower on all five of the transformational leadership dimensions compare to the norm. H3 was partially supported because young lawyers scored significantly higher on management by exception (active) behaviors compared to the norm, but significantly lower on the contingent reward behaviors compared to the norm. H4 was supported because young lawyers scored significantly lower on all three of the leadership outcomes compared to the norm.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to understand the type of leadership behaviors that young lawyers engage in. The results provide evidence that young lawyers engage in transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than active-transactional leadership behaviors, young lawyers engage in transformational leaderships less frequently than the norm, male young lawyers engage in transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than female young lawyers, and that leadership development programs may be increasing the frequency of transformational leadership behaviors.

Summary of Study

Young lawyers in Los Angeles, California were randomly identified using the California State Bar website and sent e-mail invitations requesting that they complete an online survey. The survey was comprised of two parts. Part one consisted of background and demographic questions, and part two consisted of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X-Short. One hundred and seventy-seven young lawyers completed the survey. The results were analyzed to answer the following research question: what type of leadership behaviors do young lawyers engage in according to the full range theory of leadership? This study also tested four hypotheses about whether young lawyers engage in transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than transactional leadership behaviors, whether they engage in leadership behaviors differently than the norm, and whether they score lower on leadership outcomes than the norm. The results from this study help to close the gap in the "dearth of research related to leadership development for lawyers" (Tyner, 2014, p. 4).

Summary of the Findings

The results from this study uncover four themes about the leadership behavior of young lawyers. First, young lawyers may engage in transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than active-transactional leadership behaviors. Second, young lawyers may engage in leadership behaviors differently than non-lawyers. Third, male and female young lawyers may engage in leadership behaviors differently, or at least they perceive they engage in behaviors differently. Fourth, leadership development programs may be increasing the frequency with which young lawyers engage in transformational leadership behaviors.

Young Lawyer Leadership Behavior

This section analyzes the four themes of young lawyer leadership behavior identified by this study.

Young lawyers and transformational leadership behavior. Young lawyers report engaging in transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than active-transactional and passive-avoidant leadership behaviors. These findings suggest that young lawyers may display empathy and engage in behaviors that form meaningful relationships more often than they engage in behaviors that form transactional (or exchange) relationships (Avolio, 2011; Sosik & Jung, 2010). The findings also suggest that young lawyers may engage in change-oriented behaviors more often than they engage in behaviors that seek to maintain the status quo, and monitor others for compliance with rules and expectations (Avolio, 2011). Further, these findings indicate that young lawyers may be more inclined to be available to respond to others' needs compared to being absent when needed (Avolio, 2011).

The findings from this study are consistent with the norm data and other studies which suggest that individuals, for the most part, report engaging in transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than other types of leadership behaviors (e.g., Avolio & Bass, 2004; Flanigan et al., 2013; Goldkind & Pardasani, 2013; Moore & Rudd, 2006;). From this perspective, young lawyers appear similar to non-lawyers.

It may not be surprising that young lawyers report engaging in transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than active-transactional leadership behaviors because of the organizational roles they fill. Young lawyers may not be in formal leadership positions (or formal positions of power) and therefore, they may not have the organizational resources or political capital to form transactional based relationships. As a result, young lawyers may be seeking to form relationships with others based on their work ethic, intellectual capacity for legal work (young lawyers scored the highest on intellectual stimulation) and a desire to make good impressions early in their careers.

Further research is needed to determine the extent to which young lawyers engage in transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than active-transactional and passive avoidant leadership behaviors. Additional research is also needed to understand why young lawyers report engaging in certain behaviors more than others. Because this study was based on self-perceived behavior, future research should explore how others rate young lawyer leadership behavior.

Young lawyers compared to the norm sample. Young lawyers scored significantly lower than the norm on seven of the leadership subscales and scored significantly higher on the management-by-exception-active and laissez-fair subscale. Young lawyers also scored significantly lower on the three leadership outcome measures.

While young lawyers may be engaging in transformational behaviors more frequently

than active-transactional and passive-avoidant behaviors, the comparison to the norm

provides evidence of just how far behind young lawyers might be in their leadership

development.

Given the age of the respondents in this study and their level of work experience,

the results from this study might not be surprising. One may expect young lawyers to

score significantly lower than the norm on the five transformational leadership subscales.

Age and experience alone, however, do not explain the differences. For example,

Horwitz et al. (2008) involved a sample of surgical residents who had a mean age of 29

years old - which is similar to the ages of the young lawyers in this study (52.9% were

between the ages of 26 and 30, and 29.9% were between the ages of 31 and 36). But

unlike the young lawyers in this study who scored significantly lower than the norm on

all five of the transformational leadership subscales, the surgical residents scored

significantly lower on only one transformational leadership subscale - individualized

consideration (Horwitz et al., 2008). The data on the young lawyers is also consistent

with Goldkind and Pardasani's (2013) finding that executives of human services

organizations with juris doctorates scored the lowest on transformational leadership

compared to executives from other academic backgrounds. Goldkind and Pardasani

(2013) also found that executives with a Juris Doctorate scored lower on two of the three

leadership outcome criterions, and had the second lowest score on one of the outcome

criterions.

The relatively low transformational leadership scores could be attributed to

intrinsic or extrinsic factors. Intrinsically, young lawyers may have different personality

traits than non-lawyers that may have contributed to their low scores. Richard (1993) found that lawyers tend to be introverts as opposed to extroverts. This trait may help to explain the low transformational leadership scores because extraversion has been found to strongly correlate with transformational leadership (Judge & Bono, 2000). Richard (2002) found that lawyers tend to be highly skeptical, and that skepticism is inconsistent with being accepting and trusting of others. This trait may be at odds with transformational leadership because transformational leaders seek to foster trusting relationships (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Studies have found that lawyers, compared to non-lawyers, tend to be "less interested in people, in emotions, and interpersonal concerns" and that "people oriented" individuals do not do well in the legal profession (Daicoff, 1997, p. 1405). Again, these tendencies appear antithetical to transformational leadership.

There may be extrinsic factors such as the culture of the legal profession that explain the low transformational scores. Goldkind and Pardasani (2013) argued that perhaps lawyers score lower than professionals with different academic backgrounds because they lack leadership training or because they use a different metric to evaluate their leadership ability. The lower scores could also be attributed to the emotionally divorcing think-like-a-lawyer training that occurs in law school (Hall, 2005). This training, with an emphasis on analytical thinking, may shape the way lawyers perceive their behavior and the value they place on intelligence compared to behaviors consistent with transformational leadership. The results from this study lend support to the notion that young lawyers value intelligence more than other leadership behaviors given that young lawyers scored the highest on intellectual stimulation.

The scores from the three young lawyers who were not working in legal jobs further point to possible cultural influences - they had the highest mean score on transformational leadership based on employer type. While this difference was not significant (the sample was only three), further research could explore whether leaders trained as lawyers working outside the legal profession engage in leadership behaviors differently than lawyers working as lawyers.   Additional research is also needed to understand why lawyers might be engaging in leadership behaviors differently than non-lawyers.

Young lawyer leadership behavior and gender. Male young lawyers scored significantly higher on four of the five transformational leadership behaviors compared to female young lawyers. As a result, this study provides evidence that male and female young lawyers may be engaging leadership behaviors differently. However, given that this study measured self-perceived leadership behavior these results may mean that male young lawyers have an inflated perception of their transformational leadership behaviors. On the other hand, it could mean that female young lawyers have an underinflated perception of the extent to which they engage in transformational leadership behaviors. Regardless of the extent to which young lawyer's self-perception matches the perceptions of others, these results provide evidence of the conflict between gender roles in the traditionally male dominated legal profession (Rhode, 2013). The evidence of this tension becomes more apparent given the studies of gender and leadership using the MLQ in other contexts.

Generally, male and female leaders have been found to be equally effective when the leadership context is congenial (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003).

Some research has found that while differences in male and female leadership behavior tend to be overstated, "it does appear that women tend to use transformational leadership behaviors and in particular individualized consideration more often than do men, and that men tend to use management-by-exception more often than do women" (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003, p. 274). And a meta-analysis of 45 studies found that females tend to be more transformational than males (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Engen, 2003).

In contrast to the gender differences in the young lawyers, Horwitz et al. (2008) found no significant differences in the transformational leadership behaviors between male and female surgical residents. Horwitz et al. (2008) calls to mind a pertinent question: Why are there significant differences in transformational leadership behaviors between male and female young lawyers, but not between male and female surgical residents? The answer to this question could point to cultural or institutional factors that impact the way male and female young lawyers behave as leaders that are not seen in other professions, or the answer could indicate that males and females attracted to the legal profession differ from males and females attracted to other professions.

The gender differences found among the young lawyers may be more than academic. Batlan (2010) found that legal secretaries preferred working with male partners and associates more than female associates, and that none of the secretaries in the study preferred working with female partners. The secretaries explained that they thought males were more flexible and less emotional than women, and that male lawyers were less demeaning than female lawyers (Batlan, 2010). If male lawyers engage in transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than females, then this could be

one reason secretaries prefer working with male lawyers. This analysis is not entirely

supported, however, given the direction of the data for the male and female lawyers who

were first licensed to practice law before January 1, 2011. While not significant, the

trend in the data suggests that more experienced female lawyers may be engaging in

transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than more experienced male

lawyers. If true, this trend is consistent with the existing body of research on gender

differences and transformational leadership.

 The results from this study are not a criticism of female young lawyers. Nor do

they suggest that female young lawyers are less capable of leadership roles compared to

males. If anything, the results from this study may validate criticisms of the male-

dominated legal profession and point to cultural factors that present challenges to female

young lawyers that male young lawyers do not face. And potentially, as female lawyers

become more experienced, they learn from and overcome these challenges and develop

transformational leadership behaviors in ways that more experienced male lawyers do

not.

Additional research is needed to understand the differences in transformational

leadership behaviors between male and female young lawyers, and between more

experienced male and female lawyers.

The impact of leadership development programs. Young lawyers who

participated in a leadership development program after law school scored significantly

higher on three of the transformational leadership subscales, and on the transformational

leadership primary scale, compared to young lawyers who had not. The results suggest

that leadership development programs after law school may be increasing the frequency

of transformational leadership behaviors by young lawyers. But the higher scores by

young lawyers who had participated in post-law school leadership development program

may be explained by other factors. First, attending a leadership development program

after law school may be an indicator that a young lawyer is interested in leadership

development, and that interest may be influencing the frequency of transformational

leadership behaviors. Consistent with this argument is the lack of significance between

the transformational leadership scores for young lawyers who attended a leadership

development program in law school compared to those who had not.[1] Potentially,

participation in a leadership development program in law school may be less related to

leadership interest and more related to graduation requirements, networking

opportunities, and building a resume for post-graduation employment. In contrast, young

lawyers who attend a leadership development program after law school may do so as a

result of a genuine interest in leadership development.

A second factor that may explain the higher transformational leadership scores

may be due to this study measuring self-perceived leadership behavior. Potentially,

young lawyers who have attended leadership development programs after law school

may understand the value of transformational leadership and may score themselves

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[1]   It is worth nothing that despite the lack of significance, the study results indicate a

possible trend where young lawyers who attended a leadership program in law school

may be engaging in transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than young

lawyers who had not. This issue should be further researched to determine what if any

impact leadership development programs in law school are having on young lawyers.

higher on the related behaviors, even if they are not engaging in those behaviors as frequently as their scores might suggest.

Additional research is warranted to determine whether leadership development programs are in fact increasing the frequency with which young lawyers are engaging in transformational leadership, or whether other factors may account for the increased scores.

Implications for Leadership Development Programs for Lawyers.

Learning how to be a leader is quite different than learning about leadership (Mackenzie & Marnik, 2008). Learning how to be a leader involves more of an active style of learning than learning concepts and theories (Young, 2012). One element of action-learning involves developing self-awareness of one's strengths and weaknesses (Avolio, 2011). Developing this awareness may occur through reflective practice and seeking to understand how one's behavior is effective and ineffective in different situations, and how it affects others (Mackenzie & Marnik, 2008). Leadership assessments, like the MLQ, can be an important action-learning tool because the assessments may lead to an understanding of the types of behaviors one engages in and whether those behaviors tend to be effective (Day, 2001).

Sosik and Jung (2010) advised that as part of the leadership development journey, leaders should take the MLQ to develop a baseline leadership profile to track progress overtime. The results from the MLQ can be used to develop leadership growth objectives (Bass & Avolio, 2011). Leaders should take time each day to reflect on the progress of meeting their leadership development objectives (Bass & Avolio, 2011).

This study established a leadership baseline for young lawyers in Los Angeles, California. While this baseline should not be a substitute for developing personalized, individual development objectives, it nevertheless provides valuable markers for the legal profession. In this regard, leadership development programs for young lawyers should address the following:

Leadership Theory: There appears to be an absence of leadership theory guiding the lawyer-leadership development programs reviewed in this study. Therefore, lawyer-leadership development programs should incorporate a basic foundation of leadership theory into their curricula so that lawyers develop a deeper understanding of what leadership is, and what it is not.

Action-learning: The bar association leadership programs reviewed in this study appeared to involve mostly passive learning and observations. To be more effective, leadership development programs should incorporate action-learning models, including collaborative problem solving, with an emphasis on the reflective practice.

Gender: Leadership development programs should recognize that male young lawyers and female young lawyers may perceive their leadership roles differently, and may be engaging in leadership behaviors differently. Leadership development programs should focus on closing the gender gap and leveraging and developing the respective strengths of male and female young lawyers. Programs may need to incorporate male and female breakout sessions that focus on gender specific development needs. Law firms should develop leadership mentoring programs for all of the young lawyers employed by the firms, and in particular, the programs should encourage female young lawyers to develop into transformational leaders.

Transformational leadership: Young lawyers appear to be on the right leadership development path given that they report engaging in transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than active-transactional and passive-avoidant leadership behaviors. However, the frequency at which they engage in transformational leadership behaviors is significantly below the norm. Leadership development programs, therefore, should incorporate programming that helps to develop transformational leadership behaviors in young lawyers. Specifically:

Idealized-Influence (Attributes and Behavior): Leadership development programs should instill in young lawyers the importance of becoming a good role model for others (Sosik & Jung, 2010). Young lawyers should act in ways that instill pride in others for being associated with them, not just because of their accomplishments, but because of their values and ethics (Sosik & Jung, 2010).   Leadership development programs should convey the importance of young lawyers acting in ways that earn the respect of others (Bass & Avolio, 2011). Young lawyers should demonstrate that they are committed to putting their organization's interests ahead of their own (Bass & Avolio, 2011). Given the emotionally divorcing think-like-a-lawyer training that occurs in law school, lawyers may be unaccustomed to sharing their values and beliefs. But as leaders, young lawyers should become comfortable talking about their values and beliefs (Sosik & Jung, 2010). Research has found that that top performing associates excelled at teamwork, that leaders of professional services firms should be builders of coalitions, and that law firms need leaders who build teams (Berman, Bock, & Aiken, 2012; Broderick, 2011; Smith & Marrow, n.d.). Consistent with idealized influence behaviors, leadership development

programs should help instill the value of teamwork, and the need to foster collaborative working environments.

Inspirational Motivation: Young lawyer leadership development programs should emphasize the importance of inspiring others. While leadership research has not found a single leadership behavior that explains effective and ineffective leadership, Zenger and Folkman (2009) argued that inspiration may be the "silver bullet" of leadership competencies (p. 4). The importance of inspiration has been highlighted in other research (see Berman, Bock, & Aiken, 2012; Broderick, 2011; Kouzes & Posner, 2011; Smith & Marrow, n.d.). Young lawyers can display inspirational motivating behaviors several ways. Sosik and Jung (2011) offered a few examples such as simply talking with others in an enthusiastic, optimistic manner, developing mission and vision statements and seeking input on, and building consensus around, the mission and vision statements. Young lawyers should seek to instill confidence and hope in others (Zenger & Folkman, 2009). Leadership development programs should highlight that being a leader involves getting to know others goals and helping them to achieve those goals (Sosik & Jung, 2011). Young lawyers should display resilience and persistence in the face of adversity (Sosik & Jung, 2011).

Intellectual Stimulation: Of the five dimensions of transformational leadership, young lawyers scored the highest on intellectual stimulation. Leadership development should leverage this strength and broaden young lawyer understanding of what it means to intellectually stimulate others. Young lawyers should be encouraged to become "innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching situations with new methods and perspectives" (Avolio, 2011, p. 61). While

young lawyers are likely accustomed to solving problems and challenging assumptions in the context of legal analysis, leadership development programs should extend this capacity to solving organizational problems and leading others. Sosik and Jung (2011) offer that leaders should engage others through brainstorming, and they caution leaders to be mindful of how they respond to others' ideas to help encourage a creative, supportive environment (Soski & Jung, 2011). Leaders should encourage others to use their imagination and think about possibilities, and help others see things from different perspectives (Bass & Avolio, 2011).

Individualized Consideration: Leadership development programs should convey the importance of understanding the needs of others, and the importance of coaching and mentoring to help others achieve goals and develop their potential (Avolio, 2011). Young lawyers should understand that each person in an organization has his or her own abilities, learning styles, and working styles (Sosik & Jung, 2011). As a leader, young lawyers should interact with others keeping these individualized considerations in mind (Sosik & Jung, 2011). Leadership development programs should emphasize the importance of active-listening to form relationships with others (Sosik & Jung, 2011). Young lawyers, as leaders, should be champions of diversity in the form of gender, race, ethnicity, religion, ideas, and thought (Sosik & Jung, 2011). Young lawyers should display empathy toward others, and should delegate and empower others to meet organizational objectives (Bass & Avolio, 2011; Sosik & Jung, 2011).

Summary

This study sheds light on the leadership behavior of young lawyers. It presents evidence that despite the prominent leadership role that lawyers have played throughout

history, young lawyers may be lagging in their leadership development compared to non-lawyers. And given the prominent leadership roles that lawyers continue to fill, it behooves the legal profession to focus on developing lawyers to become more effective leaders.

It is one thing to learn about leadership, and it is quite another thing to learn to be a leader. Lawyer-leadership development programs should not confuse the two. Leadership development programs for lawyers should be built around a theoretical, empirically validated leadership model - such as the Full Range Theory of Leadership. Lawyers should leave programs with an understanding of what leadership is, and what it is not. And specifically, lawyers should understand the five dimensions of transformational leadership. More important than just learning about leadership, young lawyers should leave leadership development programs with a roadmap on how they will put transformational leadership behaviors into practice.

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PART I

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

This part has 11 questions.

1. Were you first admitted to practice law in any jurisdiction after January 1, 2011?

Yes, I was first admitted to practice law after January 1, 2011.

No, I was first admitted to practice law before January 1, 2011.

2. How old are you?

20-25 years old

26-30 years old

31-36 years old

37-41 years old

Over 42 years old

3. Which racial or ethnic groups do you identify with?

Asian or Pacific Islander

Hispanic or Latino

Black or African American

Caucasian / White

American Indian

I do not identify with the options provided or I decline to answer

4. What is your gender?

Male

Female

I do not identify with the options provided or I decline to answer.

5. Are you a veteran?

Yes

No

6. Are you practicing law in your current job?

Yes

No

I am currently unemployed or not working.

7. Which best describes your current employer?

A solo practitioner or small law firm

A law firm of 6-10 lawyers

A law firm of 11-50 lawyers

A law firm of 51-100 lawyers

A law firm of 101 or more lawyers

A government agency

Military

A non-profit or legal aid organization

In-house counsel

Academia

Judicial Clerkship

Non-legal job

Other

Unemployed or not working

8. Which best describes the type of law school that you graduated from?

A public law school

A private non-religious affiliated law school

A private religious affiliated law school

Other

9. Did you participate in a leadership development/training course or program in law school?

Yes

No

I don't know

10. Since graduating from law school, have you participated in a leadership development/training course or program?

Yes

No

I don't know

11. How interested are you in learning how to improve your leadership skills?

Very little interest	Little interest	Some interest	High interest	Very high interset