

Aspiring and Inspiring Youth Leaders

State of the art analysis

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

This programme is about 10 European partners from various backgrounds who teamed up to put together an inspiring leadership programme for those youth leaders who are ready to make a next step toward a more senior function in the national or international sports world. The leadership programme is put together with help of the youth participants themselves together with other experts in the field of sports.



Special thanks to the author **Adam Evans** from the **University of Copenhagen** for leading on the production of this state of the art analysis

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

- **CONCEPTUALISING LEADERSHIP AND YOUTH LEADERSHIP**
- **MODELS OF YOUTH LEADERSHIP: COGNITIVE, OR APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY**
- **MODELS OF YOUTH LEADERSHIP: MULTILEVEL APPROACHES**
- **YOUTH LEADERSHIP PROGRAMMES**

Conceptualising leadership and youth leadership

- Leadership is a commonly used, but ill-defined term that is difficult to define clearly and simply. Consequently, efforts to conceptualise and understand leadership come from multiple perspectives.
- As a result, many models and theories of leadership exist.
- The most common approach to leadership is to conceptualise leadership as a 'trait' (i.e. individual quality) that can be taught, and that anyone can learn.
- The majority of research which takes this approach is (cognitive) psychological. This approach is therefore highly individualistic (tends to focus upon individual actions).
- Within this and other approaches, leadership has also been conceptualized as a process operating across multiple scales; in individual action, dyadic relationships, within groups and organizations, contexts and within society more widely. However, studies that go beyond the individual characteristics of leaders are less common.
- Youth leadership and adult leadership are differentiated due to differences in age, experience and developmental differences between young people and adults.
- Common assumptions regarding youth leadership include;
 - that youth leadership develops in stages at a young age (adolescence, or even earlier);
 - that youth leadership is dynamic and complex, shifting across the multiple scales outlined above;
 - that all young people have the potential to be leaders if leadership is intentionally taught;
 - and that youth leadership is important in giving young people a voice, and in supporting social justice.
- Sport is considered a key field in which leadership can be taught. However, participation in sport alone is considered insufficient to ensure positive youth development and the development of leadership skills.
- Therefore, leadership has to be intentionally taught through additional actions within and around sports settings.

Models of Youth Leadership: Cognitive, or Applied Psychology

- As noted above, a cognitive (and applied) psychological approach has been predominant in the past.
 - Nevertheless, this approach has been critiqued more recently from other schools of thought, and from within the field (see below).
- This approach highlights a significant relationship between group performance and a leader's orientation (or style), when;
 - The leader's orientation and skills are matched by 'situational favourableness (or the combination of the group's task, and
 - The leader's formal authority is recognized and a degree of support is offered by followers.
- Hence, much focus has been made upon leadership styles (as traits), and how to learn them.
- By far the most common concept in this approach is transformational leadership, widely considered the most effective way of being a leader. Transformational leadership is often held in opposition to transactional leadership.
- Transactional leadership is a model of leadership in which the actions of followers tend to be enacted according to what they get in return, such as increased security, team membership, recognition and affiliation.
- Conversely, transformational leadership is where leaders;
 - Share a vision and challenge followers to improve,
 - Influence their behaviours (idealise influence),
 - Influence their motivation and
 - Give them meaning and challenges in their everyday activities (intellectual stimulation).
 - Transformational leadership also places emphasis upon intrinsic motivation, and the leader sharing responsibility with others. This sharing, however, seems to originate with the leader's actions more than collective action (i.e. the leader's behavior is correlated with positive outcomes).

Transformational leaders have to be exemplary in several ways. These include maintenance of :

- Appropriate role modelling,
- Intellectual stimulation,
- Individual consideration,
- Inspirational motivation,
- Fostering acceptance of group goals and
- Offering contingent rewards.
- These are, frankly, lofty goals for any leader, let alone a novice leader.

- Transformational leadership has been linked with a large and varied number of positive outcomes, both in terms of leadership effectiveness, but also in terms of follower performance.
- Again, such outcomes are observed on multiple scales, although most observations have occurred at the individual (i.e. skills of the leader) and dyadic (i.e. characteristics of followers) scales. Evidence at larger scales is more sparse in sport, however.
- Transformational leadership has also been critiqued, both from within the psychological perspective, and from sports management and social-scientific literature. The key criticisms are;
 - That this approach to leadership focuses more upon correlation between leadership style and a raft of outcomes and variables. Correlation does NOT equal causation (i.e. leadership styles and outcomes are related, but we cannot be sure to what extent leadership style causes those outcomes).
 - As a result, some important variables in effective leadership might not be measured, are unknown or are hidden.
 - There is also a tendency to describe transformational leaders in terms of what they do, not who or what they are. In other words, identity, socio-cultural inequality and experience are often overlooked or underplayed. This is exacerbated by the overwhelmingly quantitative approach to understanding transformational leadership used to 'predict' behaviours, which can be problematic in relation to human beings (i.e. we can be unpredictable!).
 - Notions of power and power inequality are totally absent from this approach.
 - Notions of the 'dark side' of leadership are almost absent from this approach. 'Effective leadership' is considered only in positive terms, yet history teaches us that this is a spurious assumption (i.e. some 'effective' leaders are also cruel, violent or even genocidal).
 - Finally, whilst advocates of transformational leadership present the concept as a solution to the problems associated with ineffective leadership, many argue it isn't always possible to enact.
- Hence, other leadership styles and processes have been shown to be relevant (e.g. authentic leadership, ethical leadership, servant leadership or chameleon leadership).



MODELS OF YOUTH LEADERSHIP: MULTILEVEL APPROACHES

- The transformational model of leadership above does include reference to the multidimensional nature of leadership. Yet many programmes still place the leader (and their skills/traits) at the centre, without paying much reference to contextual, experiential or socio-cultural factors. In other words, they tend to focus upon the skills of the leader as an individual person.
- Still, other approaches do exist which conceptualise leadership as a shared or social phenomenon (e.g. about social justice as well as individual competence). In this model, leadership is a collective achievement, not something that ‘belongs’ to an individual
- Many authors highlight how there is a need to incorporate multilevel investigations into understanding sport-related leadership as a socially constructed phenomenon. Such a model would include organizational foci, highlight leadership as an element in sport for development, understand leadership from multiple viewpoints (e.g. in relation to gender, ethnicity, culture, nationality etc), and view leadership as more subjective.
- In such perspectives, therefore, leadership is viewed as a collaborative process, developed through relationships and contextual experience. Put differently, effective leadership emerges from the interactions of people in a particular context as much as from individual skills and knowledge.
- In sport, this model suggests off the field elements of leadership are also important, including governance, organizational culture, identity and socio-cultural differences.
- This approach is therefore less leader-centric, and places more emphasis on leaders (including youth leaders) having knowledge about the contexts and cultures in which they will be leaders, and how they might influence them.

YOUTH LEADERSHIP PROGRAMMES

- Youth leadership programmes are fairly common, although less so in sport. Those that exist are also based upon several interdependent assumptions;

- That Youth leadership must be developed in stages;
- That all young people can be leaders if taught;
- That young people can be leaders in the present (not only in the future), and;
- That youth leadership is a social good, leadership is a skill and programmes should be concerned with social justice.
- Programmes often focus upon marginalized groups as a way to empower them (e.g. youth in deprived areas, gendered or racialized groups etc). These programmes often pursue social-justice oriented goals.
- However, many programmes are rather ‘deaf’ to social inequality, particularly if their aim is primarily to upskill leaders in an individual-centric way.
- There is no ‘gold standard’ way to deliver such a programme, but several consistent points are made that relate to the effectiveness of such programmes. These include:
 - Adopting a learner-centered approach that is flexible to the different levels of experience, contexts and abilities of leaders
 - Learning simply by ‘doing’ is not enough. Successful programmes provide a mixture of mentorship and formal learning with practical experience; leaders should learn to lead in the locations that they intend to lead in!
 - The learning should be reflexive, and facilitators should listen to the needs of young leaders themselves.
 - That discussions, self-reflections (both personal, in groups and with adult mentors) and listening to youth leader voices are key.
 - That both personal development and awareness of socio-cultural contexts, organizational cultures, policies and rules should be balanced.
 - Learning techniques are diverse, creative and engaging.
 - That leadership courses should not be limited to just the participants, but could encourage and support their outreach into wider communities, sometimes even building partnerships.
 - Ethics and the ‘dark side’ of leadership should also be a focus, as well as the positives of leadership.
 - And, learning to be a leader has no end point.
- Several case-studies of youth leadership courses in sport (along with course content, where available) have been included in this report, including: The IOC Young Leaders Programme, the Nordic International Leadership Education Programme, the IOC New Leaders Programme and The Women’s Sport Leadership Academy.

SCOPING REVIEW

- LITERATURE SEARCH METHODS AND PROCEDURE
- THE SCOPING REVIEW: DESCRIBING THE EVIDENCE RELATING TO YOUTH LEADERSHIP PROGRAMMES IN SPORT
- DEFINING LEADERSHIP
- YOUTH LEADERSHIP
- THEORISING YOUTH LEADERSHIP IN SPORT
- THEORISING LEADERSHIP: INTERPERSONAL ASPECTS OF LEADERSHIP
- CRITICAL PERSPECTIVES TO TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AS A TRAIT
- THEORISING LEADERSHIP: MULTI-LEVEL AND ORGANISATIONAL APPROACHES
- YOUTH LEADERSHIP PROGRAMMES IN SPORT: CENTRAL GOALS AND ASSUMPTIONS
- YOUTH LEADERSHIP PROGRAMMES: FOR WHOM, BY WHOM?
- EFFECTIVE CONTENTS OF YOUTH LEADERSHIP PROGRAMMES: COMMON THEMES AND ACTIVE INGREDIENTS.

Literature search methods and procedure.

This report presents data obtained through a scoping review of literature focused upon youth leadership programmes in sport. The scoping review combines a systematic search of literature using several academic search engines (including both peer reviewed and grey literature) with a narrative review of multiple sources of data. This approach was deemed relevant due to the wide range of studies relevant for the aims of the report. Scoping reviews are a way to synthesize research evidence from broad fields and across multiple types of source (including 'grey' literature) (Davis et al., 2009, Levac et al., 2009, Daudt et al., 2013, Pham et al., 2014). The scoping review can therefore be used to map existing literature in a field (Arksey and O'Malley, 2005), and is therefore of use when a topic is broad, complex or heterogeneous (Mays et al., 2001). They can help outline the range and extent of consensus and debate in a topic area, as well as enabling us to summarize findings. They can also be used to highlight research gaps in the literature (Arksey and O'Malley, 2005, Levac et al., 2009).

Our intention in the present report was to 'map' literature that currently exists in relation to leadership in sport, particularly in relation to youth and leadership programmes (Mays et al., 2001). It also enabled us to highlight consensus upon 'good practice' in relation to these programmes. We took a systematic approach to the review, and this report is based upon the scoping review framework presented by the Joanna Briggs Institute, Adelaide, Australia (Peters et al 2014). This comprises the following steps:

1. Developing a title, objective and identifying the research question
2. Identifying relevant studies/literature and databases
3. Selection of sources
4. Charting the data and
5. Collating, summarizing and reporting the results.

The following report provides a summary of the evidence arising from this search, generated through the following methods.

Systematic search methods: Aims and objectives

The scoping review commenced with a systematic search of literature concerning the following search objectives and research questions:

The central aim of this report was to:

- Identify and categorize the main practices, solutions, or programmes already in existence in the field of leadership programmes in sport, particularly in relation to young people. This primary aim was underpinned by the following objectives:
- To Identify and categorize the main practices, solutions, or programmes already in existence in the field of leadership programmes, particularly in relation to young people.
- To focus upon methodologies, standards/gold standards, goals and objectives of previous programmes, including, for example, the rationale behind youth sport leadership programmes; and with a social-scientific focus (e.g. sociological, psychological, pedagogical or political foci).

The systematic search

We conducted a systematic search concerning two primary fields:

- 1) Definitions of leadership (particularly youth leadership) in sports science literature, including the way in which leadership is theorised
- 2) An overview of research concerning youth leadership programmes in sport, including their contents, objectives and good practices.

Our search focused upon all papers which explicitly focused upon sport and youth leadership programmes, largely in programmes delivered outside the school setting. For example, we excluded programmes focusing upon very young children aged under 16 years in Physical Education. Any programmes were considered relevant if their primary focus was upon young people aged between 16 and 30 years. Papers relating to all forms and formats of sport were included, as the majority of studies did not have a specific sport as a focus area. We were primarily concerned with social-scientific studies in such fields as pedagogy, sociology, psychology and social psychology. Yet, we included studies irrespective of their methodology and both Quantitative, Qualitative and grey literature were incorporated. Papers without any empirical, practical or theoretical content in relation to the primary search topic were excluded.

The search was conducted using both the Royal Danish library search engine (“REX”), and the EBSCOHost Academic Search Complete (which is inclusive of 35 academic and grey-literature databases). After several larger searches, the following search terms resulted in a total of 777 hits (reduced to 440 after removal of duplicate records, see table 1). This was reduced first to 200 papers after titles and keywords were reviewed, then 130 after reviews of abstracts for all available papers. Additional searches were conducted independently using REX and a more informal search by following up on reference lists and via google scholar. Results were then compared and new papers added to the database. These additional searches provided 19 additional sources, leaving a total of 149 articles. The scoping review was constructed from these papers.

Database	Refined Search terms	Search Results	Papers included at Stage 1: Reduction via content of Titles, keywords and primary information	Papers included at Stage 2: Reduction via Abstracts and availability	Papers included at Stage 3: Reduction via reading entire article, with additional hand searches
EBSCOHost databases (Academic Search Complete)	Sport or exercise or physical activity or fitness; Leadership*; youth or adolescents or young people or teen or young adults; program*; NOT animal*; NOT physical education OR PE	777	200	130	149

Table 1: Search terms and number of papers included

The review presented below summarises the key findings of these papers in narrative format, beginning with papers that define leadership, through to a focus upon good practice in youth leadership programmes in sport.

The scoping review: Describing the evidence relating to youth leadership programmes in sport

Introduction to the scoping review

The following sections convey results collated from a scoping review of literature pertaining to youth leadership development in sport. The report contains several sections. First, we outline current perspectives on defining leadership, and highlight how youth leadership represents a specific subfield within these wider definitions. We then provide insights into two perspectives on understanding leadership: leader-centered approaches common to cognitive psychology, and multi-level approaches which have developed over the past decade across multiple disciplines. In so doing, we highlight dominant theoretical perspectives on effect leadership (namely ‘transformational’ leadership) and emergent theories that offer a more varied perspective on how leadership can be conceptualised. Finally, we outlined the prevalence of youth leadership programmes in sport, and highlight evidence related to the most effective ‘active ingredients’ of youth leadership programmes from the academic literature.

Defining leadership

According to Clarkson et al (2019), leadership is one of the most studied phenomena in the social sciences, particularly in relation to its influence on practice (Wang et al 2011). Nevertheless, Burns (1978) argued, “leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth” (p. 2). It is also a concept with multiple definitions, often framed according to different scales (e.g. individual, group, organizational), frames of reference and approaches (e.g. cognitive psychological or sociological), such that it remains difficult to characterize simply, or to define clearly and succinctly.

For example, Gould and Voelker (2010) describe leadership as a complex process involving the effort of an individual to help groups identify and achieve goals. For them, leadership is enacted through reciprocal interaction of the leader’s characteristics and those of their followers. Elsewhere, Northouse (2013) described leadership as “...a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 5). Conversely, Kotter (1996) emphasized leadership as being about dealing with the inevitability of change in organisations, teams or other social contexts. The variation between these brief definitions of leadership is also apparent in more expansive definitions of leadership. For example, Loughhead and colleagues (2006) explain how leadership can be conceptualized from multiple perspectives which go beyond individual-oriented descriptions, or even dyadic relationships (i.e. those between two individuals).

Their definition includes several elements, including; “leadership as the focus of group processes (leaders are at the center of change), personality perspective (leaders possess special traits), behavior (leaders engage in action to bring about change to the group), power relationship (leaders have power and use it to effect change in others), and goal achievement (leaders help to meet the needs of team members and achieve their goals) (p. 74). It is also considered possible for leadership to be shared in a horizontal manner – between people of the same or similar rank or social standing- rather than in only a hierarchical manner (Mertens et al 2020, van Dalen et al 2020). Overwhelmingly, however, leadership tends to be conceptualized as a positive thing; something that should be fostered, supported and taught, and as a force for good. This tendency is apparent in most definitions despite some recognition that leadership – and the operation of power that it engenders- can have a dark side in some of the more critical literature.

Because of this common conceptualization of leadership as beneficial, the question of whether leadership can be taught has seen significant discussion. Presently, consensus is that leadership can and should be taught as a skill, and that sport can provide a key platform through which to engender this (Extejt and Smith, 2004). Yet developing leadership takes time and effort (Nelson 2010), and many assert that leadership does not just develop from sports participation alone. Instead, consensus suggests it must be taught (Gould and Voelker 2012, Voelker et al 2011, Bean and Forneris 2016). Moreover, leadership is often considered a life skill (Gould 2016) which takes time to develop. Indeed, many authors and research suggest that leadership is related to factors which influence early development factors, such as temperament, parenting styles, learning and gender. These factors influence future development of leadership traits such as self-regulation, which in turn influences continued development and leadership effectiveness (Murphy and Johnson 2011).

Hence, many argue that leadership development (in a cognitive-psychological sense) should be intentional and begin in adolescence, and several models have been produced focusing upon leadership development across the lifecourse. These models include Komvines and colleagues’ (2006) leadership identity model, Murphy and Johnson’s lifespan model (2011), and Van Linden and Fertman’s (1998) and Ricketts and Rudd’s (2002) leadership models, both of which focus upon stages and dimensions for leadership development. The result is a general emphasis upon self-efficacy, identity/personality and best practices (Leberman 2017). Furthermore, and perhaps as a result of the assertion that leadership skills have significant benefits for those instructed in its practice, many experts suggest that there is a significant need for leadership development in young people through such avenues as sport (Gould et al 2006). More specifically, leadership as a trait is considered to hold specific characteristics when applied to young people that differentiate it from adult leadership. These differences will now be outlined in brief.

Youth leadership

Multiple authors caution against mobilizing the considerable and broad evidence focused upon adult leadership to uncritically inform our understanding of leadership in youths. They warn against blindly applying adult leadership theories to younger populations, primarily due to likely differences in experience and developmental level between adults and young people (e.g. MacNeil, 2006, Turnnidge and Côté 2018). Consequently, there is consensus that distinctive research, theoretical developments, and measures which specifically focus upon youth leadership is essential. Moreover, study of youth leadership development in sport and physical activity has increased over past decades. In many cases, such study has focused upon the benefits of leadership skills to young people, evaluated sports leadership programmes specifically targeted at young people, and sought to understand the barriers and facilitators to youth leadership in several contexts (e.g., Schilling et al., 2007, Vella et al 2013, Dupuis, Bloom, & Loughhead, 2006; Wright & Côté, 2003).

Several key points of consensus can be observed in this work. These include the assertion that Youth leadership, in particular, develops in stages (Hellison and Martinek 2009, Gould and Voelker 2010), beginning with development of awareness of one’s leadership capacity and the development of basic skills (e.g. effective communication), and then moving to more abstract interventions in one’s environment in a more complex way. Youth leadership is also considered dynamic in nature, involving a complex and flexible interaction between individuals, contexts, groups and cultures (Turnnidge and Côté 2018). Yet alongside this assertion that youth leadership is complex and context-specific is the widespread assumption that all young people have the potential to be leaders if leadership skills are intentionally taught, rather than only a select few (Gould & Voelker, 2010; Jones & Lavalley, 2009; Martinek & Hellison, 2009). Other common assumptions in this literature include the assertion that young people can be leaders in the present (not only in the future), and that youth leadership is concerned with matters of social justice (Kress 2006, Taylor 2016, Dempster et al 2011, Libby et al 2006). Youth leadership is associated with giving young people a voice, and with imbuing them with the tools with which to work towards a fairer and more just society (Dempster et al 2011, Evan and Sendjaya 2013). Leadership for young people is also considered multifaceted, therefore, and can be developed through experience, observation and reflection. These processes are considered to be part of education and mentorship, yet can be personally driven; experiential learning is generally required, often with the help and support of adults. Finally, one point of consensus can be observed by its almost total absence; the potential negative effects of such training (such as potentially in creating inequality for those young people who don’t have equal opportunities to learn) are almost totally absent from this literature. Again, youth leadership is overwhelmingly conceptualized as a benefit in all instances; as something to be sought, supported, promoted and developed, and is considered a benefit for all young people, irrespective of the target group and their subsequent actions.

What's more, sport (and other extra-curricular activities) are considered to have huge potential to serve as a context within which leadership can be taught/learned, for example by learning to be a captain or coach. Yet sport remains under-utilized in leadership-education programmes (Gould and Voelker 2010), such that the best 'active ingredients' of sport and youth leadership programmes remain relatively unclear. Still, there are several recurring assumptions that underpin the idea that sport is a useful concept to deliver leadership programmes. These include the notion that affirmative action is required to teach leadership in sport. Put differently, research indicates that being an athlete does not necessarily correlate to positive youth development -including the development of leadership skills- without additional action by coaches, educators and others (e.g. Gould and Carson 2008, Turnnidge et al 2014, Danish et al, 2004; Papacharisis et al, 2005, Holt et al 2020, Iachini et al 2016, Whitley et al 2019, Extejt & Smith, 2009; Kuhn & Weinberger, 2005, Leberman 2017). Where affirmative actions exists, however, life skills can be taught through sport if their teaching is deliberately planned and structured, and when combined with other activities (Bean and Forneris 2016). Nevertheless, it is vital to recognize that teaching life skills, such as leadership, likely fall on a continuum, rather than being absolute states (or an 'all or nothing' principle) (Bean and Forneris 2016). Indeed, there is evidence to suggest that sports participation can lead to negative outcomes (e.g. injury, increased anxiety, stress and burnout, alcohol and drug abuse) without careful consideration (Bean et al 2014). Hence, although sport is often considered a suitable context for potentially teaching of leadership qualities and other positive youth developments, it must still be carefully managed, and explicit outcomes defined, if this potential is to be enacted.

Because of this complexity, several scholars advocate a long-term approach to leadership development amongst young people in sport, beginning at an early age and proceeding across the lifecourse. Murphy and Johnson (2011), for example suggest that early developmental factors including temperament, gender, parenting styles and learning experience all influence leader identity development. In turn, leader identity effect self-regulation, which in turn is associate with future development experiences and leadership effectiveness. This process is considered linear, which has led many scholars to suggest that leadership development should begin early, potentially during secondary school or even earlier (Murphy and Johnson 2011). Indeed, Murphy and Johnson (2011) draw upon four leadership development models to illustrate this point (Murphy and Johnson 2001, van Linden and Fertman 1998, Ricketts and Rudd 2002, Komives et al., 2006), each of which focus upon distinct stages and dimensions of leadership development beginning from this period of a child's development. For example, these stages focus upon the incremental development of identity, self-efficacy and the best practices of leadership. These leadership practices have also been studied and theorised from multiple perspectives and scales. Therefore, we now turn to a brief outline of the dominant theories of youth leadership in sport.

Theorising youth leadership in sport

Given the complexity outlined above, leadership has also been understood according to multiple scales, including as a trait or skill, as individual or dyadic behavior, as something inherent within the cultures and practices of organizations or groups (including teams), and as something that is more cultural. The former (understanding leadership as a trait and a behavior) is by far the most commonly researched way of understanding and theorizing leadership. This approach has origins in a number of Western European philosophers (e.g., Carlyle, 1907), and is rooted in a strongly individualistic cultural context within which the characteristics of leaders was examined. For example, Lewin and Lippitt (1938) brought to the forefront democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire styles of leadership, and such approaches remain common ways of understanding leadership as an individual trait and behaviour. Often, such research takes a cognitive psychological perspective, utilizing predominantly quantitative measures of various traits and their association with individual traits and resultant behaviours, and defining their benefits and pitfalls. This is because a significant relationship was found between group performance and a leader's orientation (or style), when this matched 'situational favourableness' (or the combination of the group's task, leader's formal authority and the degree of support offered by the followers) (Peachey et al., 2015). Here, the term followers is intended to be used in a broad manner, to include all those individuals the leader attempts to influence or develop (Turnnidge & Côté, 2018). Consequently, much research focuses upon these styles by focusing upon the leader as an individual. It is to outlining trends in this school of thought that this review now turns.

Theorising youth leadership in sport

Behavioural Leadership theories tend to focus upon leadership 'styles,' or techniques. These range from the extreme (non)leadership of laissez-faire approaches, to transactional leadership and transformational leadership at the other end of the scale (Bosselut et al 2020, Loughhead et al 2020, Alvarze et al., 2016). Of these, transformational leadership is the most common theory associated with effective leadership in the field of applied psychology (Beauchamp and Morton 2011, Morton et al., 2011, Turnnidge and Côté 2018, Arthur et al 2017, Beauchamp et al 2007). The theory of transformational leadership places emphasis upon intrinsic motivation, and highlights how leadership should seek the development of followers in ways that differ from transactional leadership. Such factors are often held in opposition to transactional leadership, which consists of a leadership style in which the actions of followers tend to be enacted according to what they get in return adhering to the leader's requests, such as increased security, recognition and affiliation. Transactional leadership also tends to focus more upon the supervision of behaviours, particularly before and after mistakes (management by exception active before a mistake, and management-by-exception passive after a mistake) (Peachey et al 2015).

Conversely, in transformational leadership leaders share a vision and challenge followers to improve, influencing their behaviours (idealise influence), influencing the motivation and giving them meanings and challenges in their everyday activities (intellectual stimulation) (Álvarez et al., 2016). Transformational leadership therefore appeals to higher order needs, such as achievement and self-actualisation. It is also considered more likely to support and push followers to attain organizational goals (Peachey et al., 2015). Hence, in transformational leadership, all members of a team are treated as a prized team member, individual differences are recognized, and leadership is primarily empowering and supportive (Álvarez et al., 2016). More broadly, transformational leadership is considered to have 5 key transformational components, as well as one transactional component (after Vella et al 2013). These are:

1. Appropriate role modelling, defined as 'the extent to which a leader can provide a positive behavioural role model for athletes to follow, including desirable behaviours, equitable treatment of others, respect for the rules and laws of a given context, and strong goal-setting.
2. Intellectual stimulation, or the extent to which a leader can stimulate their followers intellectually or cognitively, including encouraging new ways of learning and doping, and asking thought-provoking questions
3. Individual consideration, including the extent to which a leader understands and meets the needs of their followers (e.g. skills levels in a team),
4. Inspirational motivation, or the extent to which a leader is able to motivate their followers through inspiration and incentives to do well, usually by mobilizing a vision of the future into which all buy-in (rather than a simple reward-punishment system),
5. Fostering acceptance of group goals, or the extent to which a leader facilitates social and task cohesion in a group of followers and
6. Contingent rewards, or the extent to which a leader uses positive reinforcement to strengthen desirable behaviours (the transactional leadership component).

Moreover, the transformational leadership style has been shown to facilitate higher intrinsic motivation in team members, having an augmentation effect on performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Leaders with a more charismatic and transformational style are also more able to;

- Reformulate beliefs about their organization's values and ideological references,
- To present innovative solutions and strategies to solve significant problems,
- To drive radical changes, to involve everyone in an organization's mission,
- To assume higher levels of confidence and efficiency in work,
- To demonstrate availability to sacrifice personal interests when necessary, and
- To show efficacy in critical moments of social pressure of crisis.

These outcomes are based upon strong evidence, and multiple reviews of the impact of transformational leadership (e.g. Arthur et al 2017, Turnnidge and Côté, 2018) suggest this leadership style has a positive effect upon a range of psychological 'factors.' These reviews often relate to transformational leadership styles enacted by coaches in a sports settings (e.g. Lefebvre et al 2019, de Albuquerque et al 2021, Voelker et al 2011, Cotterill and Fransen 2016, Lopez de Subijana et al 2021, Vella et al., 2013, Gould and Voelker 2010), and to athlete leadership (e.g. Mertens et al., 2020, Dupuis et al 2006, Loughhead 2020). Moreover, multiple studies demonstrate that many coaches also consider leadership training to be important for their athletes, particularly those who value character-building and motivation efficacy (Voelker et al 2019, Vella et al., 2013). Less commonly, the impact of transformational leadership has been examined in exercise instructors (e.g. Beauchamp et al 2007), physical education (Bessa et al 2019, Martinek and Hellison 2009) and in other health settings (Green et al 2020, Schilling et al., 2007). Again, transformational leadership has been found to have an positive impact in these settings, including increases in the task perceptions of followers, whilst it can also positively contribute to followers' sense of self, identity and perceptions of their abilities. Transformational leadership can also increase followers' positive emotional intelligence, mood/affect, and affective commitment, and reduce negative emotions, such as sadness, jealousy, anger and contempt. There are also multiple suggestions in this literature that organizations managed by transformational leaders seem able to achieve more positive changes, satisfaction and commitment levels in their teams (Gomes et al 2006). Table 2 outlines just some of the psychological outcomes which have been correlated with a transformational leadership style.

What's more, many psychologists argue leadership affects this variable, if leaders encourage their followers to 'think outside the box.' Creativity therefore appears to be a mediator of leadership, although the causative link between transformational leadership and creativity is tenuous, at best, and other factors may moderate this relationship (Bosselut et al 2020). Furthermore, several studies highlight the effectiveness in improvement group cohesion, tenure in a group or team, and the relationships between peers, workgroups or teams (Bosselut et al 2020, Turnnidge and Côté 2018, Blanton et al 2014). For example, peer leadership roles, like team captains (e.g., Crozier, et al., 2013; Price & Weiss, 2011; Voelker et al., 2011, Gould and Voelker 2010) can enable youth athletes to be responsible for influencing team members toward set goals (Loughead et al., 2006), to adopt non-hierarchical relationships with their team members and maintaining their role as a peer. Transformational leadership can therefore also increase followers' identification with the team and their collective efficacy, including creativity and self-efficacy. Indeed, at the intrapersonal level relationships can also be positively improved. Results suggest that athletes' personal identification with the coach can increase, as well as increasing the relationships between peers or group. Team norms, group identification, cohesion and communication are all also processes enhanced by transformational leaders (Turnnidge and Côté 2018).

There are also several factors which affect transformational leadership that are dependent upon followers rather than leaders alone, however. These factors include their self-perceptions, task perceptions, motivational factors such as autonomy, values/beliefs, and their emotions and emotional state (Turnnidge and Côté, 218, Arthur et al 2017). Multiple studies have examined the way in which leaders influence the dispersion of emotions, mood and affect on their followers, which relates to an approach called the 'affective revolution' by some (Barsade et al 203). The central notion in this approach is that certain traits and experiences (e.g. emotions mood and affect) are often transferred amongst individuals (Clarkson et al 2020, Larson et al 2006) in a 'contagious' manner. Emotional contagion is assumed to relate to 'an individual's tendency to mimic and synchronize facial expressions, vocalizations, postures and movements of those of another person's and, consequently, to converge emotionally (Hatfield et al., 1994 p. 5). Despite there being a lack of conceptual clarity and alignment between studies in relation to how this process works, reviews have demonstrated that the contagion of positive affective phenomena is important to factors such as increased cooperation, team cohesion and communication amongst followers (see Clarkson et al 2020, Blanton et al 2014). Furthermore, evidence suggests that both charismatic and transformational leadership styles are conducive to both leader and follower positive affective expressions. Indeed, evidence suggests that contagion effects are greater when there is congruence between leader and follower affective states (Clarkson et al 2020 p. 70), with leaders who express positive emotions generally perceived by followers to be more effective by their followers. In turn, evidence suggests such positive relationships increase performance (Clarkson et al 2020).

Finally, relationship-based characteristics and contextual variables related to environmental features are also crucial in defining the effectiveness of leadership, according to this general approach (Turnnidge and Côté, 218, Arthur et al 2017). At such levels, evidence also suggests that transformational leaders can influence better influence their followers' perceptions of their environment. This is because transformational leaders tend to value followers learning from challenging situations, suggesting a learning orientation focused more upon learning from a task than performance outcomes. Nevertheless, focus upon whether these aspects of transformational leadership are common is less well-developed in psychological approaches to leadership, which tend to focus far more on the individual and interpersonal levels of analysis. Consequently, there are several criticisms of this model that scholars have made, some from within psychology itself, and others leading to different approaches in predominantly management and sociological models of leadership.

Critical perspectives to transformational leadership as a trait

More critical perspectives have cast some doubt about the validity of the theory of transformational leadership (Arthur et al 2017). For example, almost all research in this field is cross sectional and uses questionnaire data. Such studies are often precluded upon establishing causal interpretations which render recommendations for applied practice and policy tenuous due to the tendency to omitted variable bias (i.e. failure to measure variables correlated with both the independent and dependent variables measured). There are other pitfalls too, including the concept of simultaneity bias in which the tendency for performance to drive measures in sport is assumed to indicate causal relationships. Finally, several fundamental problems with the way transformational leadership is conceptualized have been outlined. For example, there is a tendency to describe transformational leaders in relation to what they do, not what they are (which is tautological with the concept itself). This also prevents the construct of transformational leadership from being measured as an independent variable, which in turn makes it difficult to conceptualise how leaders come by positive results themselves. Put differently, we only really see the impact of transformational leadership on followers or team performance, not on leaders (and their actions). It would therefore be more useful to conceptualise behaviours of leaders (i.e. what they do) from attributed characteristics (i.e. traits that depend upon behaviours or other causes), than in assuming the two factors are the same.

A second critical point is that transformational leadership studies tend to use largely quantitative, cognitive psychological methods, and therefore focus upon individual traits, actions and responses using an etic, interactional perspective. That is, humans are considered to be predictable, rational beings who respond to a specific set of actions in predictable ways. This is problematic for multiple reasons; as humans are neither predictable nor rational (nor are they totally unpredictable or irrational), and outlining patterns of behaviour does not necessarily lend itself to prediction of behaviours. In so doing, transactional leadership can sometimes appear to be presented as the way of effective leadership, even if blended with elements of other leadership styles.

This makes it rather inflexible and difficult to incorporate group, organizational and social cultural factors. What's more, it says little about the power relationships within which such factors that influence leadership styles exist. Indeed, the complete absence of any concept of power in cognitive psychological approaches to leadership is notable as, after all, the exercise of power (or the ability of one person or group to affect the actions, beliefs and perspectives of another person or group) is basically what the process of leadership entails.

Such observations have led to the development of other (less common) leadership concepts, including authentic leadership, which relates to a style centred upon a leaders' self awareness of their moral values and commitment to behave in relation to these values, and spiritual leadership, which relates to the creation of inspirational visions for followers. In addition, servant leadership is focused upon follower development, and contains five dimensions including altruism, emotion, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006, Mills, Fleck, & Kozikowski, 2013). Finally, chameleon leadership is also highlighted, in which the blending of leaders into multiple cultures is essential in enabling leaders to maintain good relationships with multiple personalities, abilities and roles in an organizational or team-based situation (Arthur-Williams et al., 2011). Such an approach can be achieved by blending leadership styles into any given situation, rather than advocating for a single leadership style. The efficacy of each of these specific leadership styles is far less established than that of transformational leadership, however, although we could tentatively suggest that spiritual leadership was the most dominant form of leadership enacted for the millennia preceding our more secular age. Once again, however, many of these styles focus upon the actions of individuals and groups – or more 'leader-centric' approaches, and fail to account for socio-cultural and organizational level factors which influence leadership. Therefore, we now turn to conceptualisations of leadership which focus upon these factors.

Theorising Leadership: Multi-level and organisational approaches

The multi-level and multidimensional nature of transformational leadership has been recognized in the literature outlined above, and several key authors call for a multi-level approach to understanding leadership. Yet at the same time, many such studies, books and programmes which seek to promote transformational leadership still place the leader, and particularly the leader's skills and traits, at the centre of their frame of reference. Other approaches do exist, however, which conceptualise leadership as a shared or social phenomenon, particularly those that focus upon leadership as a shared or social phenomenon (e.g. about social justice as well as individual competence). These approaches are important, even if they are in the relative minority and are rarely cited or discussed in the literature outlined above. Yet they often seek to build upon cognitive psychological approaches in several ways.

Yammarino's (2013) definition of leadership highlights this shift in relation to sport management:

Leadership is a multilevel (person, dyad, group, collective) leader-follower interaction process that occurs in a particular situation (context) where a leader (e.g., superior, supervisor) and followers (e.g., subordinates, direct reports) share a purpose (vision, mission) and jointly accomplish things (e.g., goals, objectives, tasks) willingly (e.g., without coercion).

Indeed, Peachey et al (2015) highlight how there is a need to incorporate multilevel investigations into understanding sport-related leadership. Similarly, Pearce and Conger (2003) argued that increasingly leadership occurs and is shared across all organizational levels, and is fundamentally affected by organizational cultures and assigned roles. Indeed, whilst leadership theory is constantly evolving, there has been a significant shift in the last 10 years away from consideration of formal, assigned leaders (e.g., chief executives) toward the social construction of leadership (Dee et al, Grint 2005, see figure 1).

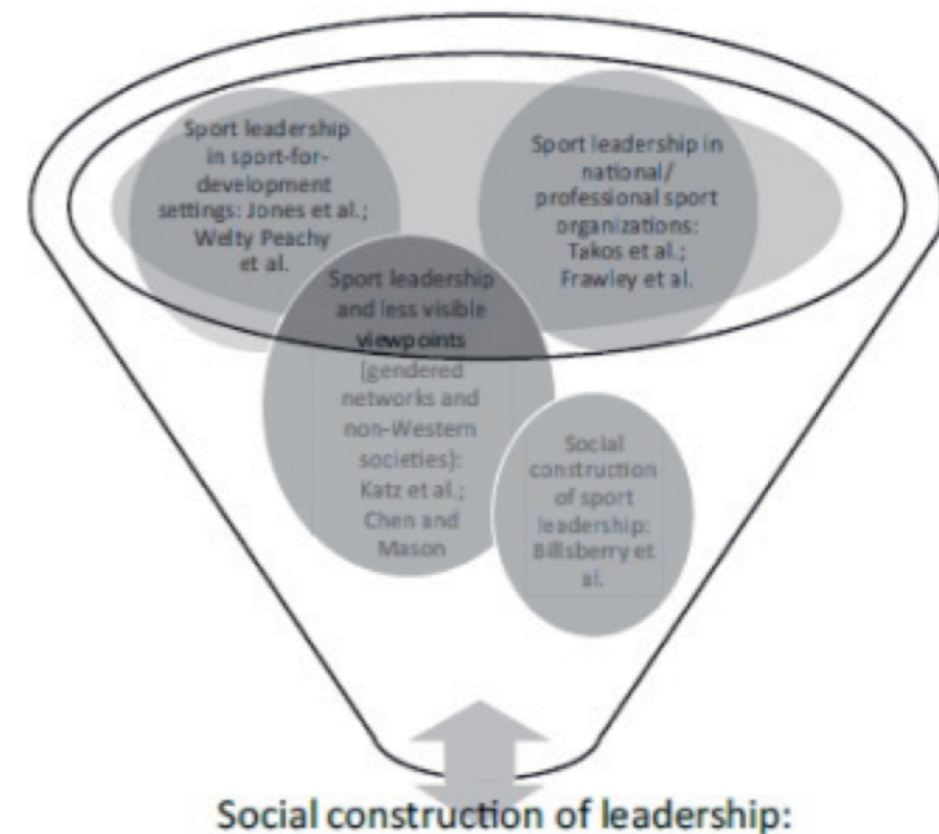


Figure 1: Social construction of leadership, (after Ferkins et al 2018)

In such perspectives, therefore, leadership is viewed as a collaborative process, garnered through relationships and relational experience; leadership emerges from the interactions of people in a given context (Dee et al., in press; Grint & Jackson, 2010; Kihl, Leberman, & Schull, 2010; Ospina & Foldy, 2009). According to such authors, leadership is a collective achievement, not something that 'belongs' to an individual (Cullen-Lester & Yammarino, 2016).

Hence, whilst sport psychology has traditionally concerned itself with on-the-field and team aspects of sport leadership, sport management based approaches have centered upon leadership in conventional off-the-field aspects (e.g., a club director or board member). In the late 20th century, such research highlighted how effective managerial leadership was complex, and that a general, 'ideal' form of leadership in sport organizations simply did not exist (Peachey et al., 2015). Such observations drew Chelladurai (2007) to point to the need to proceed with studying leadership in sport management while acknowledging that "it is time to build on that tradition by consolidating the findings and developing refined models of the pursuit of excellence" (p. 131). In management studies, therefore, a 'multi-frame' approach was adopted that examined the structural, human resource, political and symbolic aspects of leadership, and which demonstrated that it is the structural frame that is often best attuned to the roles and experiences of athletic directors. This approach saw the integration of social constructivist approaches to leadership which examined the lived experiences and perceptions of leaders in sport. Such research highlighted how leaders perceptions can be very broadly defined, going beyond leadership styles (although transformational leadership was still favoured by both leaders and followers), and instead being related also to organizational processes, power relationships, practices and cultures.

This multi-frame approach has been summarized by Peachey et al (2015), who provide a model which outlines this perspective of leadership.

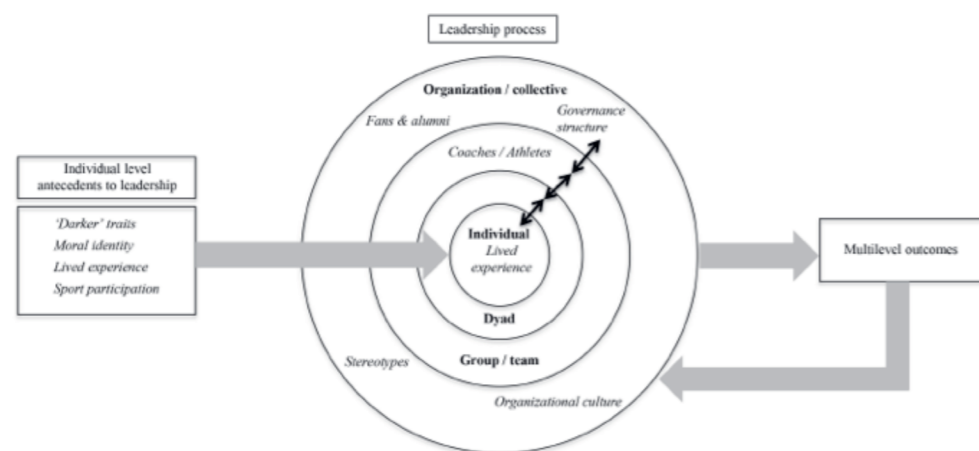


Figure 2: Multi-frame leadership (After Peachey et al 2015)

Indeed, the shifts away from the 'trait' oriented approach to leadership have facilitated a reexamination of the darker traits associated with leadership such as hubris, narcissism, social dominance and Machiavellianism (Judge et al., 2009). Accounting for such traits draws into question the overwhelmingly positive image of leadership inherent in many psychological approaches (Yammarino 2013, Judge et al 2009). Similarly, the importance of ethical and moral development of leaders is another important factor, and scholars have called for a greater understanding of how ethical and moral development influences sports leadership (Peachey et al 2015). Such developments are closely related to lived experience and how this influences the self and the process of leadership, and of participation in sport. Both are influenced by contextual factors which differentially affect leadership styles, decision making and processes (Yammarino 2013). Finally, the relationship between leaders and external and internal stakeholders, coaches and athletes and their position within governance structures and the organizational culture and stereotypical constraints on leadership (such as gender, race/ethnicity and age) are all considered vital considerations in this model of leadership.

Hence, this multi-frame approach expands on a foundational bias in research towards examining leadership as a trait, or a characteristic of individual leaders. It calls into question the leader-centric focus (which often constructs the leader as a heroic, inspirational figure), and goes beyond idealized leadership styles by incorporating others into the leadership process. For example, organisational cultures have also been examined from this perspective, and significant light has been shed on leadership as a gendered, politicized and racialized concept. Consistently, evidence has found that leadership has traditionally perceived to be a gendered concept, often associated with stereotypically masculine traits, behaviours and networks (e.g. Evans and Pfister 2021). Similarly, the impact of cultural contexts on the governance of sports organisations has found to be important in sport, highlighting the interdependent nature of leadership with local, national and sporting cultures. In turn, such considerations can affect the way organisations (and their leaders) act, influence their goals, and set limits and possibilities on the actions of leaders and their followers (Arnold et al 2012; Ferkins et al., 2005; Fletcher & Arnold, 2011). Such, multi-frame approaches advanced theories such as authentic and servant leadership Avolio & Mhatre, 2012; Greenleaf, 1998; Parris & Welty Peachey, 2013). Consequently, a more expansive view of leadership theory is suggested, which incorporates social constructionist perspectives (i.e. a reality is constructed through the views and interpretations of a group, organization or culture, not just the ideologies and beliefs of the individual) (Ferkins et al 2018).

As a consequence of inclusion of socio-cultural and power-relations into their model of leadership, studies have examined the effect of governance on leadership in sports organisations. Studies have pointed to the power balance that exists between leaders, boards and management teams in sports organisations, and how these often favour paid executives over others in decision-making processes, irrespective of competencies (Ferkins et al 2005). Such processes can marginalize young people, women, and racialised groups, for example.

Moreover, awareness of such inequalities has led scholars in sport management to begin to examine ethical leadership as a model. Indeed, scholars argue that it is critically important to ensure leaders act ethically in the sports context (e.g., Staurowsky, 2014; Sagas & Wigley, 2014), pointing to the efficacy of servant leadership (Parris et al 2013). This approach refers less to a specific or idealized leadership style, and positions leadership more as a way of life. It suggests leaders put the needs of others first, and suggests the focus on the leader is made upon follower development rather than in achieving specific organizational objectives (although the latter is still considered important). Emotional intelligence is also a factor that is of importance in such an approach (Schneider 2012), as is developing and maintaining an awareness of social justice, of promoting inclusion, and in knowing how to challenge inequalities (Evans and Pfister 2021). Such an approach, by definition, also recognizes the darker traits of leadership, as well as highlighting antecedents of leadership such as moral identity, lived experience and participation. In short, power is at the centre of such a model of leadership.

What is also clear from this body of research is that the promotion of shared leadership takes conscious effort, however, along with actions explicitly designed to support its development (van Dalen et al 2020). For example, Mertens and colleagues (2020) outlined how, typically, the skills prevalent in a team or organization might be mapped and competencies, strengths and shortfalls highlighted. These competencies might be situated within a network model whereby both leaders and followers are included in larger groups, shifting our focus away from managing dyadic leader-follower relationships towards thinking about a whole organization or team. This shifts 'I's' into 'we's' in leadership. In such a model, team members can consider how to represent and advance a shared social identity, defining which roles specific leaders should fulfil, and developing the leadership skills of those appointed to specific roles. There is, however, mixed evidence about the effectiveness of such strategies on outcomes such as sporting performance in teams – perhaps as a result of the more limited amount of research that takes this approach. Nevertheless, many variables can be positively influenced, including social cohesion, commitment to team goals and perceived identity leadership skills (Mertens et al 2020). Moreover, awareness of the complex and multilevel nature of leadership has also translated itself into the way in which leadership programmes in general, but particularly those which target youth, are designed and implemented. With this in mind, we now move to the second half of this review, in which the nature and impact of leadership programmes for young people will be outlined.

Youth Leadership programmes in sport: Central goals and assumptions

As noted above, there is consensus that leadership can and should be taught, and that it can be intentionally facilitated through sport in tandem with other activities (although not through sports participation alone) (Extejt and Smith, 2004, Gould and Voelker 2012, Voelker et al 2011, Bean and Forneris 2016). Similarly, consensus exists that leadership is linked to early development and traits, such as temperament, parenting styles, learning and gender, and many suggest that intentional leadership training should begin at an early age (Murphy and Johnson 2011). Moreover, there is increasing recognition that group, organizational and socio-cultural factors can influence how effective leadership can be.

Hence, leadership programmes which target youth are fairly common, and are based upon several interdependent and very common assumptions. These include:

- the notion that Youth leadership must be developed in stages (Gould and Voelker 2012, Hellison and Martinek 2009, Gould and Voelker 2010, see Table 3),
- that all young people can be leaders if taught (Peachey et al 2015),
- that young people can be leaders in the present (not only in the future), and
- that youth leadership is a social good, leadership is a skill and programmes should be concerned with social justice (Kress 2006, Taylor 2016, Dempster et al 2011, Libby et al 2006).

Again, transformational leadership is typically viewed as the gold standard on many leadership courses for young people (Gould and Voelker 2012). Hence, many youth leadership programmes are based on the assumption that leadership has the potential to give voice to young people, and equip them with the necessary tools with which to work towards a fairer and more just society (Dempster et al 2011, Evan and Sendjaya 2013). In short, leadership programmes are assumed to offer young people the opportunity to mobilise their agency, albeit through the support of adults initially.

Table 4.1 Stages of leadership development

<i>Stages</i>	<i>Description</i>
Stage One—Learning to take responsibility	Students learn to respect others, participate and persevere, be a team player, become more self-directed, and begin to explore leadership roles.
Stage Two—Leadership Awareness	Students begin to see themselves as leaders and begin thinking of larger responsibilities of leadership.
Stage Three—Cross-age Leadership	Students are ready to teach physical activities and responsibility values to younger children from community agencies. Planning, teaching, managing behavior problems, and evaluating lessons are now part of their roles.
Stage Four—Self-actualized Leadership	Students are ready for “outside the gym” opportunities to help them reflect more on personal interests and possible futures.

Table 3: The stages of youth leadership development (After Hellison and Martinek, 2009).

Indeed, young people who are well supported by adults and parents are also likely to have better perceptions of the young peoples’ leadership skills (Hancock et al 2012). Two specific types of adult support are considered most vital to support the development of adolescents’ capacity for agency (Larson & Angus, 2011; Larson & Hansen, 2005; Larson, et al., 2014). These include 1) directive assistance such as setting deadline and benchmarks and establishing working norms designed to help young people structure, control and steer their work, and 2) providing young people with autonomy such that young leaders can retain control and make decisions over their work.

Having said this, consensus strongly suggests that it is also important to listen to the voices of young sports leaders, both in relation to their experience of leadership, but also in relation to their expertise (MacPhail et al 2003). As noted, because promotion of transformational leadership is often a stated aim of such programmes, the notion is that educational programmes can enable others to be empowered and inspired is very common. According to Gould and Voelker 2012, this empowerment can support young people to achieve things that they might not have considered possible. The process of education about leadership is therefore intended to help current and potential leaders to define their values and goals, and then achieve them (Northouse 2010).

According to Gould and Voelker (2012), therefore, youths must learn to be empathetic, to learn optimism and be inspirational, to promote problem-solving, foster acceptance and group goals, and encourage teamwork in order to develop into transformational leaders. These are, admittedly, high expectations of any person, and require that young people learn to be role models and provide support for others.

Youth Leadership programmes: For whom, by whom?

As noted above, education programmes on leadership in sport often focus upon coaches, teachers and young captains. And yet the increasing emphasis upon giving voice to young people in the literature, together with the importance placed upon social justice and cohesion, has meant that many leadership development programmes for young people have become an increasingly common type of activity intended to support psychological needs and promote development, such that young people can deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life (Klau et al 2006, WHO 1999). Such programmes are often delivered in schools (e.g. Bean et al 2018, Leberman 2017), Universities (e.g. Whitley et al 2017, Blanton et al 2014), and in community settings (e.g. Monje et al 2004, Taylor 2016). Such courses can lead to the promotion of a variety of ‘life skills’ that are associated with effective leadership, including increased responsibility, conflict management, initiative, communication, decision-making and empowerment (Boyd, 2001; Bruce et al., 2006; Garst & Johnson, 2005; Kress, 2006, Monje et al 2004). Conversely, there are millions of courses ‘out there’ which are less clear on these aspect or their goals, which often do not consider these key elements of course construction. A detailed account of the content of these course goes beyond the scope of the present review; however, we can discuss some of the more common factors associated with programmes in peer reviewed research on the topic.

What’s more, although the vast majority of leadership programmes are quite open to all ‘youth,’ many programmes also deliberately target marginalized communities, such as ‘underserved’ or deprived youth (e.g. Boyd 2001), ethnic minority, indigenous and other racialized groups (e.g. Walsh et al., 2019), and, given historically stereotypical views of leadership as masculine, sometimes target groups of women and girls (e.g. Cain 2012). Still, such programmes are in the minority in relation to youth leadership. For example, few programmes focus specifically upon younger women, although many focus upon women in the workforce or University (Leberman 2017, Rickabaugh 2009). Yet research suggest gender is a factor in learning to be a leader; an observation driven by awareness of the ways women are often treated in wider society in relation to leadership roles (e.g. Evans and Pfister 2021). Often, women are penalized for their approaches to leadership regardless of their skillset and approach, and programmes for younger women need to take account of such gendering processes and cultures (Evans and Pfister 2021).

Kelinsky and Anderson (2016), for example, highlights how such programmes which focus upon the socio-cultural influences upon leadership should take a transformational approach to leadership and promote awareness of such issues as gender (and selfhood), and supplement this with interaction and integration with a more androgynous style of leadership. Similarly, Taylor highlights how leadership programmes can contribute to the number of women leaders in the community, both by developing those with existing leadership skills, and increasing opportunities for others to attempt leadership, particularly when programmes have an open and inclusive recruitment policy.

Leadership programmes in schools which aim to support women have grown in prevalence (e.g. Barr-Anderson et al., 2012; Taylor, 2014), although evidence suggest that they are mainly accessed by young women who fit the 'positional leader' label (i.e. a team captain, head of student council etc.). According to Leberman (2017), such women are often confident and outgoing, and more introverted women are often excluded (Cain 2012). One example of a programme where this is not the case is the Young Women in Leadership programme in New Zealand, which aims to promote young women's abilities to exercise leadership in different ways according to their passions, abilities and values. The goal of this programme was to support young women to learn that leadership is not based upon position, and to give them experience of delivering a project themselves (Leberman 2017).

Still, many programmes with an emphasis upon inclusion still seek to enhance young women's agency, rather than addressing broader structural issues which can lead to patriarchal (and other unequal) systems in sport. This suggests many programmes are perceived to exist in a socio-cultural vacuum, and fail to acknowledge that skills and qualities are not neutral (Moreau and Leathwood 2006). As outlined by Rauscher and Cooky (2016), the vital thing is to prepare young women and other marginalized groups (e.g. in relation to class, ethnicity, age and disability) for the unequal environments they will negotiate, whilst simultaneously challenging those in power to support structural change (Leberman 2017). Interestingly, such awareness can be lacking in women leadership themselves (Evans and Pfister 2021, Leberman 2017) because of the predominance of approaches designed to 'fix the woman and stir' (Pike et al 2018).

Even less common are programmes which seek to foster leadership in racialized communities (who are often also associated with the intersectional problem of social deprivation). Nevertheless, some programmes do exist. For example, Walsh et al (2019) describe how, in an indigenous leadership programme in Australia, harnessing student voice and experience was essential in engaging with, and supporting, disengaged or marginalized students from racialized communities. Such voices can be mobilized and strengthened through such programmes, such that leadership education can be transformed into a more inclusive endeavor. This suggests that support for authentic, culturally sensitive and confident voices is important in both courses and in connecting to the wider community beyond leadership programme settings.

Yet barriers still exist to the enactment of leadership by such groups, including the traditional structural inequalities and stigmatizing ideologies which marginalized them in the first place. Indeed, some postcolonial scholars have pointed out that programmes designed to empower racialized groups or women through sport are often paradoxical because sport is, in and of itself, based in a system of structural, Euro-American, white male privilege. The danger in such cases is that such leadership programmes become seen as charitable (Adair, 2013). This rather bleak picture of leadership programmes which target young people from under-represented groups is perhaps fair insofar as it highlights the relatively sparse number of programmes which explicitly seek to overturn such social inequalities. Yet, as outlined below, there are signs that things could change for the better if programme coordinators pay due attention to the lived experiences and voices of their participants, whatever their background. Having outlined these basic principles, we now focus upon evidence relating to the most effective content of youth leadership courses.

Effective contents of youth leadership programmes: Common themes and active ingredients.

There are literally thousands of leadership programmes in existence, many of which are based upon the principles outlined above. Again, the majority of these programmes promote a leader-centred approach (i.e. upskilling and educating potential leaders as individuals). Consequently, many of these programmes are primarily psychological and mobilise cognitive psychological methods to obtain cognitive psychological objectives (i.e. encourage or develop certain traits, behaviours and skills in individual leaders). Typically, this means that leadership development programs are offered by sport psychology professionals, who is often a guest expert, to facilitate leadership training in a particular settings (usually a school, university or other educational or community setting). Elsewhere, leadership programmes might focus upon a given organization of institution, (e.g., Blanton, Sturges, &Gould, 2014). Of course, some organisations or communities might struggle to fund such programmes, although research does suggest the value of community-based learning is considerable (Monda et al 2016) and can be the most productive methods amongst marginalized communities.

Programmes and courses commonly draw upon the idea of intentionality; that is, the deliberate teaching of life skills in a leadership programme (Petitpas, Cornelius, Walker et al., 2005). These processes are often paired with strategic planning and provision of opportunities in partnership with other agencies (Walker et al 2005, Monda et al 2016) and are delivered in conjunction in relation to a specific philosophy or set of principles – typically transformational leadership (Gould et al 2012, Blanton et al 2014). Conversely, in some contexts (e.g. amongst deprived youth populations), it has been suggested that youth development can be most effective when programmes do not explicitly state they will develop skills and instead adopt an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style (i.e. encourages participants to take the perspective of others) (Iachini et al 2016).

Moreover, because leadership programmes often rely on the premise that all people are born with the capacity to lead, programmes often seek to foster an innate need to lead (Bean et al 2016). This action is based upon the assumption that such individuals-as-leaders will contribute to society in a positive way. Put differently, the tacit assumption is that participants will use their new leadership skills for the good of all. As a consequence, adolescents are often the target population of youth leadership programmes, as they are considered to be at the age when negotiating the transition from youth to adulthood is common. Consequently they are often considered to require support to develop preventative coping strategies that can be particularly crucial during this phase of their lives (Astin & Astin, 2000; Bowers et al., 2016; Hodge, Danish, & Martin, 2013). Hence, leadership programmes are considered to be of higher quality when intentionally structured, and support the basic needs of youth participants. Specifically, young people's needs are often assumed to include relatedness (e.g. building trust and nurturing an inclusive environment), autonomy (e.g. maximizing choice and negotiating youth voice, particularly amongst marginalized groups) and competence (e.g. fostering a task-oriented climate, and providing intentional opportunities for skill-building).

Hence, leadership programmes for young people often seek to build upon students' own experiences by providing theoretical, conceptual, applied and experiential knowledge (Bean et al 2016, Whitley et al 2017). The overarching aim remains to ensure that young people understand what leadership is, how leaders lead and how to become a leader (Snook, et al., 2012), and to develop their own leadership philosophy (Rickabaugh 2009). Moreover, there have been calls to ensure that leadership education emphasizes individual responsibility, takes a long-term perspective and seeks to sustainably develop working capacities (Allen et al 1998). Moreover, scholars have highlighted how understanding leadership requires understanding how task accomplishment and relationships among people (i.e., consideration) contribute to achieving a vision (Badshah, 2012). Nevertheless, a paucity of empirical research has been conducted which demonstrates what an effective leadership curriculum should include, and many of the factors above remain debated (Allen et al., 2014).

Hence, many programmes are based upon adult perceptions of what young people need, and take adult frames of reference as their points for departure (Lebeman 2017 p119). Despite this, numerous scholars highlight how careful consideration of young people's personal experiences are also crucial. Experiences provide students heterogeneous starting points for learning (Haber-Curran and Tillapaugh 2013) and help to construct their pre-existing beliefs (Rosch, 2013), who they think leaders are and what leaders do, and their personal definitions of leadership and motivation for participation in a leadership programme (Haber, 2012). What is clear is that young people, as in any other group, are highly likely to view leadership in different ways, including more traditional, hierarchical, and leader-centric perceptions (Haber, 2012). A key consideration, therefore, is how to reflect upon, challenge and even 'unlearn' these perceptions, which can be more challenging than learning new information (Diamond 2008).

Such 'ground clearing' can be important because, according to some authors (e.g. Bean et al 2018) leadership understanding can remain elusive where individuals have alternative beliefs and preconceived notions about what is it and how it is learned. Indeed, Snook and colleagues (2012) contend that,

Upon closer scrutiny, it is clear that some of us have been largely teaching about leadership (informing our students about the nature of the phenomenon); others have been teaching how to lead (equipping students with a set of skills and capacities enabling them to lead more effectively); and still others have focused primarily on helping our students actually become leaders (assisting students to gain access to and acquire the identity of a leader). (p.xiv)

Thus, it is clear that ideas about the content of such courses are wide and varied, and often focus upon a student-centred, experiential perspective is often promoted. This approach can help young people to experience leadership in situations and contexts they find meaningful and empowering (Blanton et al 2014, Gould and Voelker 2012). One consequence of this is that youth leadership programmes are likely to require significant flexibility, both in terms of the actions of course instructors, and in terms of the learning contexts in which learning takes place. The latter should be structured to resemble the contexts in which young people will perform their leadership skills (Shaikh et al., 2019). Indeed, several authors note that agreed leadership was learned by doing, with understanding theory occurring through practice (Shaikh et al 2019, Buschlen and Guthrie 2014, Albertyn and Frick 2016, Hartman et al 2015, Monda et al 2016, Douguay et al 2016).

Conversely, a lack of practical application has been highlighted as a gap in leadership education (Conger 2013). For example, Allen et al.'s (2014) curriculum design contains four elements, including: "Know: Obtaining declarative knowledge of terms, concepts, facts, and theories. See: Identifying and recognizing the concepts in others or the environment, and Plan: Integrating existing knowledge to develop a plan of action. Do: Intervening skillfully when carrying out the plan of action" (p. 30). Moreover, Haber-Curran and Tiullapaugh (2013) advocate enabling students' construction of their own knowledge through action inquiry, which "invites students to make meaning of their experiences and shape their own learning and the learning of their classmates" (p. 95). Such experiences can be at the personal, context-related and work-related levels, and Albertyn and Frick (2016) recognize three key elements that facilitate such learning; i) contextual knowledge, gleaned from the specific context, ii) collaborative partnerships which are mutually beneficial, and iii) having a common vision.

Other examples of ideas for curricula include that of Friedman (2008), who emphasizes five elements: Student identification of personal values, promotion of lifelong learning, engagement with current leaders, integration of social media in the educational process, and experiential experiences, especially through conversations with alumni.

Conger (2013), also suggests that leadership education should include four essential pedagogies and interventions including: (1) cognitive components such as lectures, case studies, and videos; (2) practical and skill-building experiences, designed to utilise practicing specific skills; (3) for a, discussions and gaining feedback from peers and others; and (4) reflection on personal motivations, passions, aspirations and values to focus upon personal growth. Conger (2013) and White and Guthrie (2016) also recommended spending at least half the time available upon skill development, reflection and self-assessment. Indeed, White and Guthrie (2016) highlight that the reflection on experiences generate the most learning Roberts (2008) concurs, suggesting that it is metacognition, or thinking about thinking, along with reflection that increases individuals' awareness of personal beliefs, values and attitudes.

Effective reflections take work and practice, however, and are likely to involve coordination of multiple methods, both personal, group and with instructors. For example, Roberts (2008) suggests combining a learning journal with group dialogue, discussion and guiding questions. Weese and Beard (2012) concur, suggesting that a combination of "teaching and learning pedagogies and learning activities that promote deep learning, critical thinking skills, heightened student engagement, and life-cycle learning and engagement" (p. 6) are most effective. Such effects are enhanced when conducted in a safe space (Bean and Forneris 2012). Bean and Forneris (2012) also highlight the importance of learning from experts, developing critical thinking skills, being lifelong learners, identifying personal values, and learning through experience. Further, Blanton et al (2019) also used flipped classrooms in their leadership courses designed to enhance leadership in athletes, including use of power posing techniques, the use of handouts and worksheets to enhance recall of key terms and concepts, asking athletes to explicitly utilize the information imparted on the course, foster creativity and assess learning.

Lumpkin and Achen (2019) also studied the effectiveness of a leadership programme based upon a student-centred leadership course where students completed 7 written assignments and an oral presentation (Barkley and Major 2018). This programme promoted active learning processes aimed at reflection, helping them to make connections with their prior knowledge and assumptions and stimulate critical thinking. Such processes included buzz groups, circles of voices, debates, case study analysis, Lino, Poll Everywhere, snowballing, guided notes and rotating stations, amongst a mixed group of youth and adults (mean age 25 years). Use of a pre-post test design, in which mixed methods were used (e.g. a 28 item questionnaire on leadership attitudes and beliefs scale, then an open questionnaire) demonstrated how students were aware how important systemic thinking is, i.e. more focused upon ethics, long-term thinking and the need for organizational learning, yet learned relatively little. Barkley and Major's (2018) study suggests a very individual-focused course, and yet students still learned more about hierarchical thinking. Hierarchical thinking relates more to the perceptions of upper-level leaders who exert control, which is apparently a common tendency in the sport industry in the USA. Participants in this programme also learned about leadership theories, characteristics and applications, including moral leadership and personal growth.

The importance of reflection was again underlined, and use of interviews or questionnaires could aid in engendering further reflections. The need to highlight styles more common in sport was also advised, as was the need to focus on real-world advice and experience.

Finally, considering the importance of relationships with others in the community has been highlighted as an important factor in leadership programmes. For example, Howell and Annansingh (2013) suggest that knowledge sharing amongst partners, including those in the community, is essential if past experience is to be leveraged and innovative practices employed by youth leaders. Indeed, incorporating multiple perspectives into a course can help develop common knowledge about 'what matters' in the object of an activity (Edwards 2011). Awareness of such partnerships is vital for leaders who wish to assure alignment of all towards common goals (i.e. be organized), provide direction (visionary leaders), build commitment (inspirational, empowering leaders) and face challenges (being a resourceful problem-solver) (Risher and Stopper 2002).

Broadly, therefore, there is general consensus that a diversity of technique should be employed in leadership courses to reflect the multifaceted nature of leadership. Such methods might include observational and experiential learning, mentorship, trial and errors and formal education. Examples of good leadership should be conveyed, discussions with young people should be promoted, and participants should be allowed to learn from their own mistakes. Further, the opportunity to encounter 'real' experiences of leadership should be supported, which suggests that 'true' leader effectiveness depends upon reciprocal interactions between the leader, the community or team and others in wider contexts. To supplement these observations, research suggests that a youth-centered focus should be taken, enabling young people to take control over their own experiences, without adults dominating the course or contexts in which leadership is demonstrated. In so doing, patience and mindfulness of the developmental level of the young people on the course is probably required of the instructors. Indeed, adult leaders could hold youth leaders accountable to adopting the principles and strategies taught, and keep track of progress (Gould and Voelker 2012, Hellison and Martinek 2008, Gould and Voelker 2010, Shaikh et al 2019).

EXAMPLE COURSES AND CURRICULA:

- NORDIC INTERNATIONAL LEADERSHIP EDUCATION
- THE IOC YOUNG LEADERS PROGRAMME
- IOC 'NEW LEADERS' PROGRAMME
- THE WOMEN'S SPORT LEADERSHIP ACADEMY (UNIVERSITY OF CHICHESTER)

The final section of this report outlines several examples of sports leadership programmes as a frame of reference. Several of these curricular are informed by scientific evidence, but this is by no means the case for all sports leadership courses for young people.

Nordic International Leadership Education

A cooperative course between sports organisations in Finland, Norway, Sweden and the Netherlands (from 2013), designed to support their international leadership education, by enhancing the talents of sport leaders at the top level, with a view to getting those individuals elected to top positions in international federations.

They have two target groups: A primary group includes;

- Domestic sports leaders already placed on board or executive committees, who seek elections to the board of their international or European sport federation, or
- Sports administrators at executive level who have the backing of their national board to be elected to international sports federations, or
- 'Talents' identified in sports organizations who have strong personal competencies and have the backing of their national federation.

The programme also has a secondary target group who include:

- Leaders already elected to international or European federations, who feel the course would strengthen their skillset.

According to the course brochure, the programme includes several skill areas directly related to leadership including:

- Goal-setting
- Defining, developing and delivering informative and persuasive communications
- Cross-cultural awareness and understanding
- Relations building, motivation and avoidance
- International lobbying for sport – planning, strategy and execution
- International sports policy
- International sporting events

More specific details are available in the attached brochure. Notably, however, the programme also aligns with the Olympic programme and values in some ways, including understanding the Olympic family and interpersonal dynamics inventory.

The IOC Young Leaders Programme

The following is based upon a mixture of course content, but also (given the brevity of available information), three interviews with previous participants in the programme.

The programme began in 2016, but has been revised several times, and has had several names (including Young Ambassadors+ and Young Change Makers). The goal is to empower young people to become social change makers, particularly by educating them in Olympic values. The programme targets young people aged 18-30 years, who are successful in a 6 week 'learning sprint' focused upon the Olympic value system and sports business development.

The programme claims to encourage delegates (previously nominated, now with open application) to design and implement a sport project which promotes Olympic values including respect, tolerance, peace and gender equality, as well as addressing a specific social problem. The programme now takes 4 years, and is geared towards developing the concept for a programme, design, launch, scaling and execution of said project. As well as a mentoring scheme, the programme claims to have the following key features:

- A strong focus on supporting exceptional young people to solve local problems through grassroots sports initiatives and sustainable business models
- A four-year programme with each year concentrating on a specific stage in the phases of developing a solution
- A mandatory six-week learning sprint to provide an online introductory education (based upon Olympism, rather than leadership per se)
- A blended learning approach with monthly learning activities and in-person events
An emphasis on leadership development

The latter point is key, yet vague. Given the lack of explicit focus upon leadership development, we must assume this claim relates to recent changes. Notions of leadership education are largely absent from the descriptions of course content, and were totally absent from the interview data. Our previous participants all emphasized that the programme focused almost entirely upon sports development, the Olympic values, and entrepreneurialism. Indeed, the majority of formal education occurs in the initial 6 week learning sprint, which claims to cover the following:

- Olympism 365: What does it mean? What is its history? What are the different programmes around Olympism in Action? How does it connect to the Olympic Movement?
- Sport & Social Business: How can social business models and approaches be used to solve problems in and through sport?
- Problem solving 101: What are the different approaches used to solve problems? What are some examples of problem-solving approaches used by social businesses?
- Phases of developing a solution: What are the phases/steps in developing a solution? What kinds of tools are required? What are some examples from social businesses?
- Purpose-driven communication & engagement: How can we communicate in a purpose-driven way? How do we use communications tools and platforms to share our problem solving and solutions? Examples of successful communication campaigns
- Fundamental project principles: What principles must be considered in developing projects and programmes in and around sport? How do sustainability, gender equality, rights-based approaches and inclusion tie into sport-based projects?

There is no evidence of focus upon teaching leadership specifically as a concept, skill nor relationship. The content of the course (attached) also appears to underline this lack of a core educational component relating specifically to leadership as a concept, skill or relationship. According to our interview participants, this may reflect the many changes of name that this course has had.

IOC 'New Leaders' Programme

This programme is a new leadership programme (from 2019) designed to strengthen opportunities for both women and men in sport, with the specific emphasis on closing gender gaps within their own organisations. The programme is jointly coordinated by the NOC of Finland, the IOC, EOC, NOC of Lithuania, NOC of Ireland and one other NOC: The programme has several objectives, including to:

- Strengthen leadership skills and knowledge of decision-making in sport to attain good governance
- Create a network of value-based modern leaders
- Increase the number of female decision-makers on local, regional, national and continental levels
- Implement the IOC Gender Equality Recommendations

The programme encourages participants to develop a personal action plan, to facilitate implementation of the IOC gender equality recommendations, and the close the gender gap at the European level. The programme targets both women and men who work in national Olympic committees, the Olympic movement or in national sports organisations. They also look for Olympians seeking a career transition, are aged 23-40, and who would like to work towards good governance. 30 will be selected in total, and applications are open within the conditions outlined above.

The programme contains three workshops and a conference, and contains explicit reference to leadership training (including goal-setting, strategic leadership, conflict management, inclusive organizational culture, intercultural competence, persuasive communication, lobbying and public speaking and strategic action planning). It also contains a mentoring programme.

The Women's Sport Leadership Academy (University of Chichester)

The programme runs several development opportunities for women leaders, based at the University of Chichester. Although not based specifically on youth leadership development the programme does have several analogous goals and objectives to such a programme, and has been included here due to its very robust philosophy and evidence-based content. Goals include:

- Leadership competencies – supporting female leaders to further develop their leadership competencies or behaviours, consolidate their own leadership style, empower them to be who they want to be and navigate the challenges that are part of leading an organisation
- Confidence – encouraging female leaders to identify their strengths, pursue goals, take opportunities and progress their career path. They will be confident to champion themselves and others going forward
- Be aware of their impact on others
- Be able to communicate more effectively
- Develop greater self-awareness
- Produce a Personal Development Plan with clear goals
- Develop career strategies
- Participate in regular networking
- Improve intercultural understanding
- Gain better knowledge and understanding of the global women and sport movement and the relevance to them
- Acquire access to the international WSLA Alumni network and extended their own network

The programme is particularly relevant due to its leadership competency framework based upon sound evidence and research. This has three central pillars, as follows:

Drives self: For example – awareness of own behaviour on others; how to reflect on own performance; managing own wellbeing; embracing uncomfortable situations; seeks out learning opportunities; how to be resilient; accepting challenging feedback.

Develops excellence: For example – has a clear leadership philosophy; is a role model with leadership behaviour; applies principles of coaching to help others develop; translates strategic direction into effective plans; makes tough decisions; develops a high-performing culture; empowers others to operate at their best.

Executes effectively: For example – builds strategic relationships; connects with a range of networks; brings people with complementary skills together; consults with widely varied audience; leads meaningful communication to share vision; expresses thoughts, feeling and ideas in a clear succinct and compelling manner.



SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

To summarise the report above, several key points arise from the present report with regards to the AIYL project. These include:\

- That leadership is a ubiquitous term, and yet is most often used in relation to the notion that leadership is a trait that can be taught, including to young people.
- This notion can be problematic, as the 'trait' model of leadership can downplay or even ignore the socio-cultural contexts within which leadership skills are enacted (or resisted).
- Transformational leadership is a very prevalent concept in leadership literature, and yet has been challenged by multi-frame approaches in recent years which incorporate leadership styles into broader models which include reference broader inequalities, cultural norms and expectations, organizational configurations and to interpersonal relationships.
- Sport is a key field in which leadership skills can be developed and supported; yet this must be an intentional act, and sport in and of itself is rarely enough to promote the development of leadership skills amongst young people.
- Leadership education programmes are common, and yet rarely standardized. Whilst many youth leadership programmes do exist in sport, not all are informed by good practices and scientific evidence, and not all are clearly associated with leadership per se. Instead, notions of leadership are often employed in a very broad manner and to programmes which also seek to engender sports development or project-based work, rather than to support people to become leaders.
- Points of consensus concerning the best content are possible to determine however, and most researchers and practitioners suggest a leader-centered approach is most effective when it comprises a mixture of theoretical and practical experience is best, particularly when the experience of leadership is encountered in similar settings to that which it will be enacted in most commonly.
- Also key is an approach which empowers young people and supports their reflection about what leadership means to them, and what might be meaningful in their leadership contexts.
- Cross-sectorial partnerships can be helpful in facilitating such actions.
- Finally,



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