THE DEVELOPMENT AND TRANSFERRING PROCESS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN HOME SCHOOLING FAMILIES IN CENTRAL TEXAS

By

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Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Education Doctorate Degree

Liberty University
March 2014
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this systematic, qualitative, grounded theory study is to describe the process of leadership development by describing conscious, subconscious, and intrinsic behaviors in second-generational home schooling students as transferred from first-generation home school parents in the Central Texas area. Through interviews, observations, and survey results of second-generational home schooled students, their parents, and others in authority over the second-generational students, this research explores how these children demonstrate transformational leadership skills. Taking responsibility for their own education, pursuing part-time jobs, caring for siblings, attending political and social events represent a few of the activities that provided leadership development. Family vision, communicated to the children, provided a framework for leadership development and transfer. The theory, grounded in the data, can be stated: Organic leadership development permeated home schooling families in Central Texas as parents transferred leadership through home environments intentionally grounded in Christian worldview, structured within a framework of freedom, and dedicated to producing transformational leadership in their children. A model, Homes of Developing Leaders, further exemplifies the theory.

Descriptors: transformational leadership, home schooling, home education, Texas, grounded theory research, qualitative research
Dedication

This work is dedicated to the men in my life who always encouraged me to keep working and striving even when I claimed I was too young and weak (thanks, Dad) or too old and tired (my husband, sons, sons-in-love, grandsons). Also to the women in my life: my mother who passed away when I still a young girl; my daughters and daughter-in-love who inspire me to stay the course; and my granddaughters for whom I hope to leave a legacy.
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Table of Contents

ABSTRACT 3

Dedication 4

Acknowledgments 5

List of Tables 9

List of Figures 11

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION 12

Background 13

Situation to Self 17

Problem Statement 19

Purpose Statement 20

Definition of Terms 20

Research Questions 22

Significance of the Study 23

Delimitations and Limitations 24

Delimitations 24

Limitations 25

Research Plan 25

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE 28

Introduction 28

Leadership: Field of Study and Practice 29

Theoretical Framework for Transformational Leadership 30
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Review of the Literature</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children and Adolescents as Leaders</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for More Study</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical Framework for Home Schooling</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homeschooling: Relevant Studies</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Question</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Settings</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedures</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researcher’s Role</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Collection</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protocol</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Analysis</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical Considerations</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Questions Results</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generation of Theory</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION</td>
<td>177</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Tables

Table 1: List of Participants..........................................................87
List of Abbreviations

CERES: Consumers for Ethics in Research

CCCU: Council of Christian Colleges and Universities

DOFCBC: Direct Observation Form of Child Behavior Checklist

FQS: Friendship Qualities Scale

ITBS: Iowa Test of Basic Skills

LID: Leadership Identity Development

MLQ: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

MSL: Multi-institutional Study of Leadership

PHCSCS: Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale

PNDLS: Peer Network and Dyadic Loneliness Scale

SCM: Social Change Model of Leadership

SRLS: Socially Responsible Leadership Scale

SSRS: Social Skills Rating System

THSC: Texas Home School Coalition

ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development
List of Figures

Figure 1:
Process of Initial and Axial Coding.............................................169

Figure 2:
Home of Developing Leaders ....................................................174
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

“Leadership attracts universal attention” (Hackman & Johnson, 2009, p. 2). Leadership requires the power to influence the thoughts or actions of other people (Taleghani, Salmani, & Taatian, 2010; Zalenik, 1977/2004). The once evasive character trait of leadership has been defined and studied in countries such as Europe, Australia, Asia, as well as the United States (Taleghani et al., 2010). Warren Bennis (2003), one of several major leadership theorists in America, stated that more research was done in the area of leadership from 1992-2002 than in the 30 previous years. Research shows that the study of leadership reached a zenith around 2002 and has continued to advance in breadth and professionalism since that time. Studies of leadership have produced theories and practices useful for all (Hackman & Johnson, 2009)

Background

Three distinctive styles of leadership are most paramount in the educational leadership literature: transactional leaders, transformational leaders (sometimes referred to as transformative leaders), and relational leaders (Burns, 2003; Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011). Transactional leaders “. . . work within a framework for the self-interests of [their] constituency, whereas the transformational leader moves to change the framework” (Bass, 1990, p. 13). Transformational leaders are viewed as adaptive leaders who work effectively in rapidly changing environments through responding to the challenges that confront themselves and their followers (Bass, 1993).
Relational leaders exhibit a genuine concern for others (Anderson, 1974) as well as social and emotional ties to those with whom they work (Bales, 1958). Relational leaders engage with their followers and are not only morally accountable to them but also to others. These relational leaders view themselves as continuously participating in relational dialogue. They analyze the significance of their relationships and the subsequent daily conversations as opportunities to reveal new possibilities for morally responsible leadership (Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011).

Transformational leaders differ from relational leaders in that transformational leaders are more prepared to challenge followers in the process of problem solving.

Transforming leadership results in mutual stimulation and elevation that “converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents” (Burns, 1978, p. 3). These adaptive transformational leaders work in tandem, not as autocrats, with their followers. This team approach allows the followers to work with their leader to generate creative solutions to complex problems and inspires opportunities for the future. Since transformational leaders allow their followers to deduce unique solutions to problems, followers develop into leaders. This developmental process enables the followers to handle a broader range of leadership responsibilities with each new challenge (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Bennis, 2001; Demille & Demille, 2008).

Educational research, like business research, has included the growing body of work on the topic of leadership. Educational leadership principles have evolved through many theories: one of which is the educational liberation theory of Paulo Freire, one-time Secretary of Education in Brazil (Weiner, 2003). Freire’s (1970/2010) *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* demonstrates how teachers and students should work together as co-creators of knowledge. These co-creators
oppose the historical, authoritarian structure of the classroom (Gutek, 2005). Henry Giroux (2010) and Peter McLaren (2005) incorporated many of Freire’s educational leadership theories into the theories of modern political and critical education. Many educational reforms have aimed at broadening educational possibilities by the implementation of some diverse ideas: teaching to benefit different learning styles, using a variety of locations, and utilizing personalized timing by the students (Wedemeyer, 1981). Home schooling has employed all three of these reforms. However, home schooling may have taken a more radical departure from education than many other modern educational reforms (Bauman, 2002). Researchers and educators in institutes of higher learning might demand evidence of how such radical departure from the norm can positively affect leadership in the future. Since business and academics alike wish to engage leaders, researchers must endeavor to understand what makes leaders more successful and how to train future leaders (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

In academic settings a growing body of work has included literature on the connection between social-emotional learning and leadership skill building (McDowell, 2004; Mezirow & Associations, 2000; Rogers & Freiberg, 1994). Relational and transformational leadership theories have emerged thereby demonstrating the powerful impact a relational or transformational leader can have on the future of learning in one or more students (Bales, 1958; Cunliffe, & Eriksen, 2011). Leadership research, having noted the benefit of social-emotional development in education, has included those who are involved in the home schooling community (Kingston & Medlin, 2006). Home schooling has risen on a large and growing scale in the United States since the 1960s (Bielick, Chandler, & Brougham, 2001). In the last ten years the number of home schooling students has grown every year by 15% or more (Zeiss, 2011), therefore leadership studies have been needed in the home schooling community. Studies
conducted in home schooling show that social as well as academic skills are being transferred in this learning environment (Kingston & Medlin, 2006; Medlin, 2010; Montgomery, 1989; Reynolds & Williams, 1985). However, the studies have focused neither on the attainment of the leadership characteristics, nor on the process of how the leadership characteristics are passed on from one generation to the next. Home schooling is a unique experience and presents a rich environment for educational research (Beck, 2010).

**History of Home Schooling**

Parents have instructed their own children in academic and social skills since the beginning of time (Gaither, 2008). As western civilization developed, monastic schools emerged in Europe, which educated boys for the church and the law, around the 11th century. In aristocratic homes professional scholars were hired to tutor wealthy children in the arts, letters, and humanities. Upon immigrating to America from Europe many families had no choice but to educate their children at home while homesteading the new country (Gutek, 2005). Horace Mann’s public school movement coincided with the industrialization of America (1799-1859) and made home schooling less appealing for families. The addition of specialized skills, which included advanced mathematics and science courses, encouraged parents to enroll their children in public schools. During the 1940s the Eight-Year Study conducted at the University of Chicago described how nontraditional schooling methods accomplished the same academic and social gains as traditional schooling (Aiken, 1942; Kridel, 2012). This landmark study might have sparked a resurgence of home schooling in America had it not been for World War II followed by the Space Race with Russia. With the advancement of technology and scientific innovation following the war, families once again turned to the public schools for regimented rigorous education.
It was not until 1955, with the publication of *Why Johnny Can’t Read* by Rudolf Flesch, that parents questioned the public education system in America, or more specifically the teaching of core curriculum. This book led to a firestorm in public and private schools and eventually to a long line of reforms. These reforms were designed to revive the original goal of the institution of public schooling by educating the nation’s masses in order to compete both at home and abroad. Consequently, home schooling became an acceptable alternative practice in the United States of America during the 1970s with the emergence of the Core Knowledge philosophical theory and practice (Hirsch, 1993). During the 1980s most of the 50 states introduced legislation that made teaching one’s own children, with few restrictions a legitimate practice. With this legal acknowledgement, states accepted home schooling as a reasonable form of education from kindergarten through 12th grade.

**Home Schooling Research**

Home schooling has maintained a reputation of providing adequate to excellent academic education in the United States and abroad (Beck, 2002; Rudner, 1999; Spiegler, 2010). Still, the universal question arising from educational researchers relates to the socialization of home schooling students (McDowell, 2004). Studies have shown a positive correlation between the high academic achievement of home schoolers and their academic self-concept (Medlin, 1994). Others have shown a recorded superiority of home schoolers compared to private and public schooled counterparts in social abilities tests such as the Piers-Harris social skills test (Ray, 2000b). However, these and other studies covered in the literature review of this dissertation have reported that investigation is needed in the social-emotional components of home schooling, especially in leadership development (Bernard, 2006; McDowell, 2004). Wedemeyer (1981) stated that teachers in nontraditional settings of education do not function as information
dispensers with the students acting as passive learners. Instead, in nontraditional learning environments such as home schooling, parents who are interested and involved in their children’s intrinsic motivation nurture their students in social and emotional development. Montgomery (1989) developed a study that linked leadership skills to the home schooling experience. A thorough review of the literature infers that a relationship exists between leadership skills and home schooling. However, no study explains the process by which these leadership skills are developed. This study seeks to fill the gap.

**Situation to Self**

During my graduate studies I worked with the Department of Education in the Center for Education in Inner City Schools, and researched the success of effective and alternative educational forms for students. Carl Rogers and Jerome Freiberg (1994) presented research on social-emotional learning and leadership development through alternative, educational methods, which incited me to further study. Since that time my interest in educational research has remained consistent in this field of study. The foundational theory for this study includes the theory that transformational leadership was not innate but learned behavior (Burns, 2003). Establishing leadership behavior can best be done in an environment that supports and encourages leadership development. From his study of transformational leadership, including the work of Bass (1993) and Burns (2003), Poutiatine (2009) summarized nine principles of transformational leadership as identifiable characteristics, which can be observed in the social and business environments of leaders. Poutiatine (2009) stated that transformation:

(a) is not synonymous with change; (b) requires assent to change; (c) always requires second-order change; (d) always involves all aspects of an individual’s or organization’s life; (e) change is irreversible; (f) change involves a letting go of the myth of
control; (g) change involves some aspect of risk, fear, and loss; (h) change always involves a broadening scope of worldview; (i) is always a movement toward a greater integrity of identity a movement toward wholeness (p.190).

These characteristics are visible within organizations run by transformational leaders and also in homes parented by transformational leaders. One goal of transformational leaders includes the leadership development of their own children (Demille & Demille, 2008). Therefore, activities apparently beneficial in the development of leadership skills could be observed in the home of transformational leaders. The skills including the abilities to: tolerate chaos, inspire others, communicate a vision, search for broader solutions to common problems, and engage human passions were a few of these skills that should be evident in the home of the transformational leader (Zalenik, 1977/2004). If these skills exist in the home school environment, I, as a researcher should be able to view and record these behaviors along with how parents affirmed, nurtured, and transferred the skills to the next generation in the home school.

Home schooling represents one viable educational option, since education can be enhanced in a non-structured environment suited to the individual needs of the student (Beck, 2002; Comenius, 1633; Gaither, 2008; Moore, 1994; Wedemeyer, 1981). Many progressive education scholars point to the Eight-Year Study produced by the Aiken commission between 1930 and 1942 as the turning point in alternative education methods. This study compared traditionally educated students to alternatively educated students (including unschooling, home schooling, and vocational education) over a period of eight-years, which included the high school and college education of the participants. This landmark study, as well as current research, confirmed that students perform equally well in traditional and non-traditional educational settings (Aiken, 1942; Ricci, Laricchia & Desmarais, 2011). Home schooling is the privilege of parents who
chose to embrace this option and therefore includes an educational setting that could be explored on academic and social achievement levels (Sutton & Galloway, 2000).

As foundation for this study my philosophical underpinnings include social constructivism (interpretive theory), which includes the idea that meaning is formed from interaction with others (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). In home schooling children spend time with adults in mentorship along with instruction in unstructured environments. Some significant studies of leadership have revealed that the childhood experiences of leaders have influenced their lives (Barton, 1984; Cox, 1926). Since home schooling involves large amounts of students’ time spent with their parents, and subsequently, home schooling continues as a growing phenomenon, further home school research is needed to describe the process of development and transference of leadership skills as seen in a home school study. Montgomery (1989) stated that home schooling, “. . . may in fact, nurture leadership at least as well as does the conventional system” (p. 11).

Problem Statement

Although research has been done in recent years in the area of academic achievement in home schoolers, much of the literature is well over 5-years old and significant studies may be as many as 20 years old (Kleiner & Lord, 2000). Additionally, there is a lack of research in the area of leadership development in home educating families. I could not locate any studies examining and describing home school graduates as transformational leaders, despite the fact that a significant number of these graduates assume leadership roles in business, politics, and religion each year (Ray, 2004). Moreover, research studies of home schooled graduates, who are educating their children at home are, needed to report the long term and extended effects of this nontraditional form of education (McDowell, 2004; Montgomery, 1989).

With the population of home schooling families increasing by 15% annually in the United
States, the number of students defined as second-generational home schooling families could exceed 7,000,000 by 2020 (Zeiss, 2011). This significant population deserves representation in the research. The emergence of a large population of potential leaders entering higher education or the job market includes both philosophical and practical implications. There are several problems contained in this research study: (a) clarifying that second-generational home schooling students have been or are being trained in the area of leadership development; (b) describing the leadership skills present or lacking in the second-generational home school population necessary for success in business or higher education; and finally; (c) describing how these second-generational home schooled students are receiving leadership skills while being educated in the nontraditional learning environment of their home.

**Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this systematic, grounded theory study (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) was to construct a theory, and then produce a model, describing the process, whereby first-generational home schooled students, now parents, developed transformational leadership skills in their second-generational home schooling students in the Central Texas area.

**Definition of Terms**

- First-generational home schooling parents: Those adults who were home schooled at least seven or more years during their elementary and secondary education. Seven years is the standard of previous research studies examining the behaviors, habits, patterns, and successes of previously home schooled adults (Ray, 2004).
- Grounded theory: A specific methodology developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967) for the purpose of building theory from data. This study will refer to “theoretical constructs derived from qualitative analysis of data” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 1). Grounded theory emphasizes

- Leadership: Leadership implies influencing change in the conduct of others (Nash, 1929). While maintaining the premise that leadership involves influencing the behavior of others, Stogdill (1950) includes the activities of goal setting and goal achievement in his definition. Hemphill (1949) and Bass (1960) both agree that leadership involves a person attempting to influence the behavior and thinking of another.

- Qualitative analysis: Defined as the “process of examining and interpreting data in order to elicit meaning, gain understanding, and develop empirical knowledge” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, pp. 1, 33)

- Second-generational, home schooling students: Those children of parents who are defined as first-generational home schooling parents.

- Transformational leadership: In contrast to transactional leadership, transformational leadership includes mutual stimulations along with evaluation that “. . . converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents” (Burns, 2003, pp. 3-4). Transformational leaders “...seek... to arouse awareness and interests in groups, while seeking to move followers to concerns of achievement and growth” (Yammarino & Dubinsky, 1994, p.790).

    Additionally, four factors are accepted as useful in describing transformational leaders: (a) charismatic leadership (“Share complete faith in him or her,” (Bass, 1990, p. 218); (b) inspirational leadership (“Communicates high performance expectations,” (Bass, 1990, p. 218); (c) intellectual stimulation (“Enables me to think about old problems in new ways,” (Bass 1990, p. 218); and (d) individual consideration (“Gives personal attention to members who seem neglected,” (Bass, 1990, p. 218). All of these observable characteristics and factors have been previously viewed in the homes of transformational leaders.
Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to describe the process by which first-generational homeschooled parents develop as leaders and then pass on leadership development to their children who are also being homeschooled. According to Glaser and Strauss (1967) grounded theory has been selected to best describe a process. Additionally, Glaser and Strauss (1967) explained that grounded theory discovers substantive theory that, more often than not, results with a substantive area on which “research sociologists are motivated to move” (p. 234). Grounded theory research within a changing social structure, means that the primary task is exploration of emerging social structures. The expectation is that in the home school setting, where the social structure may evolve as children mature and parents become more confident in their roles, the social structure is discovered and explored best through qualitative grounded theory study. Grounded theory research best describes the prediction and explanation of behavior. It has often been used in sociological advancement of a phenomenon. As it guides research on a particular behavior, grounded theory has also been usable in practical application (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Grounded theory has sought to answer questions concerning the flux of the world and individuals’ behavior in their changing environment (Bailey, White, & Pain, 1999; McCallin, 2003). In the past, grounded theory researchers sought simply to the answer the question, “What is going on here and now” (Tan, 2010, p. 97)? The following questions guide this study:

Research Question 1: How have home educating parents, who are transformational leaders, passed on leadership skills (Bennis, 2003)?

Research Question 2: What, if anything, in the home school experience appears revolutionary in nature (Anderson & Anderson, 2010; Freire, 1970/2010)?

Research Question 3: As a significant characteristic of transformational leadership, how
have the activities in the home school transformed worldview (Poutiatine, 2009)?

**Research Question 4:** Substantiating a determination to model the way, how have first-generational home schoolers compared their experience to the experience they have been providing to their children (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

**Research Question 5:** How have first-generational home schooling parents viewed their roles as leaders, and how have they communicated this role (Burns, 2003)?

**Research Question 6:** In an attempt to use the participants’ own words in the findings, what word pictures or metaphors can best describe the process by which transformational leadership has been transferred from one generation to the next?

**Significance of the Study**

This systematic, grounded theory, qualitative study provides a model describing how transformational leadership is developed in the home school and how this leadership is transferred from parent to student (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). This framework is significant for both parents and educators as investors in the future of leadership. Additionally, home school researchers will benefit from empirical data concerning practices in the home school environment that foster these primary skills associated with leadership: self-efficacy, determination, and perseverance (Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martinez-Pons, 1992). Qualitative educational research provides home educators with authentic results from empirical data. As home schooling grows and the parents become more educated in their academic pursuits, they will be able to implement these results in order to professionalize their own training as educators. This study will educate home schooling parents in the leadership development of transformational leaders. This study produces a theory and subsequent model describing the process by which parents develop and transfer leadership skills in their own home schooling
environment (Singh, Mido, & Dika, 2005). Although the study was conducted in a home schooling environment, many of the behavioral practices may be apparent in a broader, more global implementation and thus enhances the significance of this study (McKinley, Asaro, Bergin, Auria & Gagnon, 2007). Nemer (2002) stated, “Home schooling research could also be a benefit to those who seek to improve traditional public school systems, form private schools, or establish alternative educational opportunities such as charter or magnet schools” (p. 16).

**Delimitations and Limitations**

**Delimitations**

I delimit study participants to those families who are presently home schooling and where parents had also been home schooled. One challenge was the age of some children participating in the study since I focused on observing leadership traits. These skills can be readily observed in older children; however, I also observed young children, since leadership may be apparent as early as 2-years-old, (Lee, Recchia, & Shin, 2005). Leadership develops with maturity (Bennis, 2003). Therefore, it was more obvious to denote leadership in a 10-year-old student rather than a younger child. Also, since Bandura (1977), Vygotsky (1978), Kohlberg (1969), and Erikson (1975), traditionally used 10 years of age was the age traditionally used by as the age of ethical self-efficacy, I focused my observation on older children. Burns (2003) deemed self-efficacy as fundamental to leadership development.

Additionally, the only families considered in the study included those in which at least one parent who was home schooled for seven years or more. Seven years has been established as a longitudinal, home schooled student in previous studies (Ray, 2004). Parents with a longitudinal experience in their own home school education have been shown to effectively explain the worldview changes and second tier changes which occur in transformational leadership.
environments (Pountatine, 2009).

Finally, families were not considered if the children were not involved in extracurricular activities, since leadership development requires observable social constructs (Heller & Yuki, 1969). The research design included the interview and survey of supervisors who observe leadership in the second-generational home schoolers. Therefore, participation in extracurricular activities was necessary for this study.

**Limitations**

Since the study is concerned with two generations of home schoolers and since home schooling re-emerged as an educational alternative in the United States in the 1980s, one limitation included the age of the current home schooling children and the richness of their interview answers. I sought to observe students ages 10 and older in the study. The ability to obtain a large enough sampling of older, second-generational children could possibly have proven a limitation. However, in Central Texas the number was sufficient since I was willing to drive to the families in rural communities. Fortunately, few children in the study were very young with limited language acquisition, and I did not have to face the limited coding of responses that could have diminished the results. Many studies have shown that leadership development has been observed in toddlers and preschool children (Mawson, 2010) so I was prepared to attempt denoting leadership in many small children. However, older siblings helped me communicate with very young children.

**Research Plan**

My research project incorporated a systematic, grounded theory, qualitative research design. Since my intention in this study was to describe the process by which parents develop and transfer leadership skills, grounded theory presented the best method for describing this
process. Grounded theory, with multiple data collection points, produced a theory through “accumulation of a vast of number of diverse qualitative ‘facts’ on many different situations in the area” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 243).

Corbin and Strauss (2008) emphasized that in grounded theory the methodology guides the research but does not dictate the approach. Glaser and Strauss (1967) revealed that the practitioner of grounded theory must engage in many forms of data collection since the theorist becomes a generator of theories. These theories must be specific enough to apply to the phenomenon but abstract enough to make the theories a “general guide to the multi-conditioned, ever-changing daily situations” (p. 242). Interviews, observations, and surveys generated in vivo codes, used to create themes. These themes evolved into a theory and a subsequent model describing the process of leadership development and transfer in home school students. Parents, children and extra-curricular activity supervisors provided unique and individual perspectives on the activities that contributed to leadership development.

Participants were selected from those who attended the Texas Home School Coalition (THSC) convention, support groups, and friends of these families. In addition, participants were chosen from home school graduates I know who now home school their own children. Following a pilot program, snowball sampling added participants to the original theoretical sampling. Parents and children were observed within their home education environment for approximately two hours at a time. Afterwards I conducted interviews of both parents and children regarding their leadership opportunities and characteristics. Additionally, I observed, surveyed, and interview adults who supervised the second-generational home schoolers in extracurricular activities. These interviews and surveys provided supplemental data and insight to the observational data. Glaser and Strauss (1967) explained that multiple sources of data are
necessary for comparative analysis because personal biases of “particular people and methods tend to reconcile themselves as the analyst discovers the underlying cause of variation” (p. 68).

During analysis, as the themes emerged from my initial coding (Charmz, 2006) I began to write through constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Line-by-line analysis provided initial coding, followed with event-by-event analysis (interview, observation, survey) resulting in theoretical coding (Charmz, 2006). When data had been saturated and analyzed, I formulated a theory and then prepared a model, that described the transfer process of transformational leadership (Glaser, 1978). Data is defined as saturated when repeated interviews only replicate the existing codes and themes without providing new information (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Finally, several participants read my findings to elicit feedback in order to add to other tests of trustworthiness and accuracy. Eventually, I will publish my dissertation to add to the literature on leadership and home schooling (Montgomery, 1989; Ray, 2004).

This systematic, grounded theory, qualitative research plan is designed to add to the literature on educational leadership and home education settings. Through rigorous attention to the research plan, and by incorporating previous grounded theory plans, this project provides a model that can be beneficial toward enhancing leadership development in home school education and mentor-mentee situations.
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

In qualitative, grounded theory research, a thorough review of the literature concerning the studied phenomenon provided the researcher a way to narrow the categories and explained many points of view necessary to build a theory in terms of personal experience (Backman & Kyngas, 1999). In this literature review, I have examined the phenomenon of leadership followed by the phenomenon of home schooling since the study dealt with the development and transfer of leadership in the specific setting of the home school.

Jerome Burns (2003), in his seminal work *Transforming Leadership*, stated that the study of leadership has received more research attention in the past ten years than during the previous 30 years, and much more research is needed. Many scholars quoted Burns (2003) as they proceeded in leadership research, especially in the areas of transformative and transformational leadership. Current leadership studies, particularly those dealing with transformative and transformational leadership provided data from this field. I observed and interviewed children and adolescents. Therefore, studies which examined children and adolescents, as leaders will be discussed.

Next this literature review explained home education as a historic and viable form of education in America. Following this home education theory section, I investigated studies in home schooling academic achievement in order to validate home schooling as a legitimate and productive educational option for families worldwide today. Finally, studies relating to the effective qualities which home schooling provided and the social and emotional ramifications of this form of education have been discussed. The literature review concluded with leadership development as related to the home school environment. This reiterates the theoretical
framework for the study.

**Leadership: Field of Study and Practice**

Leadership has been defined as the ability to influence the conduct of others (Nash, 1929). Kouzes and Posner (2007) explained that leadership involved collaboration between persons who needed to accomplish a task and persons who had a vision for the task. Burns (1978) defined transactional leadership as the encounter which occurred when one person took the initiative in making contact with others for the “purpose of an exchange of valued things” (p. 19) while transformational leaders were those who engaged with others for the purpose of mutual elevation to “higher levels of motivation and morality” (p. 20). However, Bass (1993) disagreed with Burns (2003) concerning transformational leadership. Bass (1993) did not believe that transformational leadership included a moral value. Other distinctions emerged between transactional leaders—those who engaged in influencing and interacting with persons for the means of exchange (Hollander, 1986), and transformational leaders, who asked followers to transcend their self-interests for the good of the group, organization, or society (Burns, 1978). Burns (2003) narrated a long history of leadership including stories of Napoleon Bonaparte and Franklin D. Roosevelt in his influential work. Rost (1993) stated that no formative definition existed by which to judge leadership. Nevertheless, Downton (1973), Burns (1978), and Kouzes and Posner (2007) respected researchers, and their definitions and explanations were adequate and unavoidably included in my study.

Burns (2003) defined change as the product of many men working together toward a common end. Kouzes and Posner (2007) stated that transformational leaders created a shared vision of change for followers, which included the best interest of the followers, as well as the accomplishment of the task.
Instead of focusing on their immediate needs, transformational leaders asked followers to consider long-term needs while developing themselves into change agents (Bennis, 1984). This is how transformational leaders raised followers to become leaders. Bass (1990) modified this delineation between the strictly transactional and strictly transformational leader to demonstrate that a transformational leader used transactional leadership skills to accomplish short-term goals. However, the transformational leader moved beyond these skills to the more life-changing transformational abilities as well (Burns, 2003).

**Theoretical Framework for Transformational Leadership**

Many in the home school community selected home schooling for increased academic achievement and/or positive moral values education (Mackey, Reese, & Mackey, 2011). However, educational researchers may cite a third reason for selecting home schooling: leadership development. Leadership research, noting the benefit of social-emotional development in education, included those who are involved in the home education community (Kingston & Medlin, 2006). Since the 1960s, prolific writers such as Bass (1960), Bennis (1970), and Burns (1978) have written theory and practice on the subject of leadership. Developing strategies for new styles of educational and business management, these leadership theorists boldly wrote on corroboration and community building within an organization. A wave of management training revived industry (Burns, 1978) and educational bureaucracies (Bennis, 1970) that formerly operated with top-down managerial leadership. Downton (1973) devised the term “transformational leadership” to include how leaders lead themselves, others, and their organizations through a process of transformation. Transformational change is a deeper and more sustainable restructuring than mere change (Burns, 2003; Poutiatine, 2009). Burns (2003), unlike Bass (1990), viewed transformational leadership as elevating followers to a higher order.
of values and morals. Conversely, Bass viewed leadership as amoral—similar to the laws of gravity—relating only to the cause and effects of human nature and behavior.

Transformation includes the altering of structure or composition, character, or condition (Merriam-Webster, 2011). Burns (1978) described transformational leadership, not as a set of specific behaviors but rather an ongoing process by which "leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation" (p. 20). Transformational leaders offer a purpose that transcend short-term goals and focused on higher order intrinsic needs (Report, 2007). Mezirow and Associates (2000) stated that transformational leadership called for leaders to engage with superiors, subordinates, and peers on many levels. This strenuous engagement required an investment of time and attention while demanding commitments from those who promote transformational leadership in their environments (Burns, 2003). Just as moral development occurred in a ubiquitous manner, transformational leadership development occurred both as intentional leadership directives and unintentional acts of home, school, and church life each day. Kohlberg (1969) explained that stages of moral development evolved through exposure to experiences and caused the child to think and engage in moral dilemmas. This development took place through maturation, mentoring, learning, and contemplating life.

Likewise, new stages in leadership development reflect these broader viewpoints and experiences toward transformational leadership development. Development of this nature takes time. Home schooling families enjoy a larger amount of time and influence with their children than those who send their children to traditional schools. With a greater number of hours, home schooling parents have the potential to participate in, and enter into, deeper levels of engagement (Schultz, 1998). Additionally, the home school environment acts as a perfect leadership-learning laboratory as boys and girls observe adults accomplishing long-term goals and working through
daily tasks. Montgomery (1989) concluded her research study on the effects of home schooling by stating, "It would appear that home schooling is not generally repressive of a student’s potential leadership, and may in fact, nurture leadership at least as well as does the conventional system” (p. 7).

**Nine Principles of Transformational Leadership**

Children learn leadership just as they learn reading, writing, and math skills. Leadership is taught. Leadership development can also be observed, measured, and replicated (Parks, 2005). Patterns of leadership development can be observed in the home school environment. Poutiatine (2009) developed nine principles of transformational leadership with the goal of “developing a clear understanding of transformation and the transformational process” (p. 192). These principles are not prescriptive but allow educators and researchers to consider how educational environments, methods, and pedagogies enhance the process of transformational leadership development. This article reviews previously validated home schooling studies to reveal that home schooling families exhibit each of Poutiatine’s (2009) nine principles. Observation in the home school setting confirmed transformational leadership development documented through previously published articles, as described in Poutiatine’s (2009) nine principles of transformational leadership. These principles are:

- Transformation is not synonymous with change.
- Transformation requires assent to change.
- Transformation always requires second-order change.
- Transformation involves all aspects of an individual’s or organization’s life.
- Transformational change is irreversible.
- Transformational change involves a letting go of the myth of control.
• Transformational change involves some aspect of risk, fear, and loss.

• Transformational change always involves a broadening scope of worldview.

• Transformation is always a movement toward a greater integrity of identity—a movement toward wholeness (p. 190).

Examples of parents and their students demonstrating these principles provided insight into the process of leadership development. Valid studies revealed home schooling parents and their children manifested these principles in the home school environment. These nine principles categorize the areas in which home school families performed as transformational leaders.

**Principle One: Transformation Is Not Synonymous with Change**

Deciding to home school transfigures the home of the family. Home schooling signified more than a change in educational environments and methods. It transformed the whole life of the home educating students and parents. Although some educators defined change as a temporary altering of behavior, circumstance, or location, transformation means more.

Transformation reflected a multi-level, multi-faceted shift in behavior and attitude (Bennis, 2003). An example of change might include the motivation a student has to raise a grade from a ‘B’ to an ‘A’ in a certain subject. The student’s change of study habits for the course and subsequent higher grade would be viewed as a positive change. However, if the student determined to make financial, social, and academic sacrifices to learn this subject, the outcome would signal more than change. The later example represents the home educating student. For instance, if in home education the student who previously had little knowledge or concern for a subject became motivated to begin a study and at the same time recruited other students to pursue the study with him, traveled to increase study, organized an association for the furthering of the study, and purchased resources for the study, this would be considered transformational.
These practices characterized the activities in which new home school families engaged (Fields-Smith & Williams, 2009; Reynolds & Williams, 1985). Investments of time, energy, and money exhibited transformational change and effort on the part of home schooling families. Additionally, home schooling marked a change in the daily schedule of the entire family as well as the school schedule for the children in the family. Therefore, the decision to home school is indeed interpreted as transformational.

Studies point to the academic excellence of previously low performing students who increased performance through home schooling efforts (Basham, Merrifield, & Hepburn, 2007). Home schooling parents embrace more than just a singular focus on academics. Instead of merely pursuing better grades for their home schooled children, parents traditionally attempted mastery learning in their home—the practice of teaching a subject until the student can score 80% or better on ability testing—before moving on to the next lesson (Brannier, 2007).

Equally as important, home school studies showed that home schoolers possessed significantly higher self-esteem than those in public schools (Taylor, 2006), enjoyed less peer dependence than privately schooled students (Delahooke, 1986), and participated in extracurricular activities that promote leadership (Montgomery, 1989). This multi-faceted shift in a student’s life goes beyond a mere change of venue and pedagogy. The process of home schooling transforms the life of a child. Home educating families do not enter into this form of education and lifestyle by chance; they assent to the change.

Principle Two: Transformation Requires Assent to Change

Home schooling parents voluntarily agreed to home educate their own children, unlike those who academically assisted their children as required through compulsory attendance laws. The very act of removing a child from a structured, traditional school system to organize and
manage a home learning environment provided verification that the home schooling parent actively agreed to this change. Through their case study, Reynolds and Williams (1985) vividly exemplified how when home school families began educating at home, they accepted that their entire lives would be lives of transition and change. Through different seasons of the children’s education, home-educating families adapted their daily, operational schedule, as well as their long-term plans, to accommodate circumstance aimed at a quality education for their children.

Van Pelt, Neyen, and Allison (2009) reported that when home schooled graduates began families of their own, they decided to home school their own children in seven out of 10 cases. This significant statistic, 70% of home schoolers determining to home educate their own children, implied that not only did the parents assent to the pedagogical work of education but that those parents motivated their children to replicate this opportunity in their future homes with their future children.

**Principle Three: Transformation Always Requires Second-Order Change**

Second order change in leadership literature is defined as “deciding to do something significantly or fundamentally different from [what has been] done before. The process is irreversible: once [it has begun], it is impossible to return to the way [things] were before” (Change, 2011). With the change in lifestyle and second-order change, many families who began home schooling for one reason continued home schooling for an entirely different reason such as realizing that the family functions, better in this method of organization (Nemer, 2002). Parents often remarked that they saw positive changes in their children’s personalities after only a short time in the home school environment. Home schooled children scored higher on “tests of empathy and altruism, and use higher levels of moral reasoning than public school children” (Kingston & Medlin, 2006, p.1). These social-emotional developments transpired through
increased time with parents, focused attention, and guidance in handling moral situations and dilemmas (Kohlberg, 1969). Although children can be taught to share through behavioral rewards, altruism and empathy exemplified second-order change: the change in the will and motivation of the child.

Those parents new to home schooling reported adjustment in the daily schedule of home life—cooking, cleaning, and taking care of younger children—while adding the burden of educating children (Fields-Smith & Williams, 2009). However, this change in daily life forced many parents to expect that their older children periodically become tutors and caregivers to younger siblings (Montgomery, 1989). Bass (1960) related that individuals reproduced their primary family experiences in other groups to which they belonged. Therefore, Bass (1960) supposed that future leaders (ignoring situational considerations) come from homes where they were given opportunities to practice problem-solving,

particularly interaction problem-solving; from homes where they have been stimulated and not left to their own devices; from homes where they have been treated as functional of their level of maturity rather than babied or pushed too rapidly; from organized harmonious homes emphasizing positive incentives (p. 198).

Likewise, once content to follow the dictums of public school life, home school parents found their own selves transformed through home schooling. These parents often became mentors of new home schooling parents. Similarly, home education support groups provided training and support in many communities. Veteran home educators initiate and educate new families into the daily routines of home education (Cappello, Mullarney, & Cordeiro, 1995).

**Principle Four: Transformation Always Involves All Aspects of an Individual’s or Organization’s Life**
When parents undertake home education to improve their children’s academic performance, they are prepared to observe changes in academic performance (Montgomery, 1989). However, many were unaware and unprepared for the difference they observed in their children’s social-emotional development. Professional educational interviewers reported that home schooled students conversed alongside adults with more ease and poise on both serious and trivial matters than their public school counterparts (Meighan, 2001). Home educated students appeared to as mature but less peer-dependent than public schooled students of the same age (Delahooke, 1986). Home schooled students also exhibited a higher self-concept than that of conventionally schooled children (Taylor, 2006). These students participated in social activities (Delahooke, 1986), community services projects (Montgomery, 1989), and became socially competent adults (Webb, 2009). Just as parents who removed their children from traditional schooling for academic reasons and found more social benefits of home education, the parents who removed their children from school to alleviate bullying and other social maladies, likewise continued to discover the academic transformational results (Beck, 2008). Home schooling families reported that the experience not only strengthened their family lives but also allowed for more flexibility and creativity in their daily schedules. School life became family life and vice versa. This transforming environment encouraged teenagers to reassess their priorities. Case studies showed that teenagers preferred to go to the movies with their parents and siblings rather than with friends they previously held dear (Cappello, et al., 1995).

This preference for family over friends might signal an inability to adjust to setting without parents. However, this maladjustment was not noted as the home schooled students entered college or university. Home school graduates reported that their training prepared them for adjusting to college. They made good grades and found themselves as well prepared as many
of their fellows at university (Van Pelt, et al., 2009).

Transformational leadership enlightened participants to be aware of their environments, as well as those around them. Furthermore, transformational leadership also added value to the communication and environment (Burns, 2003). For example, home schooled graduates, attending college, reported their enlightened reaction to the amount of profanity used as an acceptable expression in the college environment. Even though they were removed from this culturally acceptable practice in the teen culture, these home schooled graduates did not describe themselves as “numb to the constant bad language and actions that go against [their] ideals” (Meighan, 2001, p. 6). Home schooling provided transformation in the areas of rigorous academics, enriching conversation, mature behavior, and appropriate adult language.

**Principle Five: Transformational Change Is Irreversible**

Change occurred in families who home schooled. Once a family began to home school in earnest, the change was irreversible. The number of parents who returned their children to public school after choosing to begin home schooling would be hard to determine. However, even if parents returned to a traditional schooling, the family dynamic materialized as irreversible due to the experience of attempting a culture-changing activity (Burns, 2003). Parents, formerly engaged in home schooling, relate that their children became better social agents without constant peer dependence (McDowell, 2004). McDowell’s (2004) meta-analysis of studies on socialization of home schoolers corroborated what many home school parents believe: home schooling became an irreversibly positive experience for families. Home schooling edified a person’s life. Home schooled graduates reported that home schooling enriched their adult lives by teaching them self-motivation and self-discipline (Van Pelt, et al., 2009). Relational and transformational leadership theories demonstrated the powerful impact a
transformational leader helped shape the future of one or more students (Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011). For home schooled children, leader's impact may increase because of the extended time and emotional attachment to the person with whom the child emulates (Kingston & Medlin, 2006).

**Principle Six: Transformational Change Involves a Letting Go of the Myth of Control**

Home schooling parents soon realized how little they actually controlled in the development of their own children. Just as children do not walk or talk at the same age, parents became aware that they could not manipulate all circumstances to force their children to learn to read, write, or acquire mathematic skills at the same rate (Moore, 1994).

Believing that a level of control is needed regarding home schooled students, several state governments attempted to set some regulations for home schooling families (Kunzman, 2009b). However, studies concerning these regulations showed they do nothing to improve the quality of education. Slatter (2009), speaking on behalf of Rudner (1999), reported that home schooled students living in states with high regulation (requiring parents to send notification or achievement test scores and/or professional evaluation, plus other requirements) scored at the 87th percentile on nationally normed tests. Students home schooled in states with low state regulation, those with no state requirements for parents to initiate any contact, or state notification only also scored in the 87th percentile (Slatter, 2009). These statistics showed that imposed control over home schooling families did not produce desired results: better educated children. It is a myth that this control is needed. In an environment such as home schooling, which is fosters transformational change, participants released the need to manipulate and control all situations.

Releasing the need for a control over curriculum allowed home schooled students to create
projects, explore outdoor environments, and conduct science experiments at their own paces (Taylor, 2012). Although these transformational changes were positive, the uncontrolled and unknown may create fear or feelings of loss.

**Principle Seven: Transformational Change Involves Some Aspect of Risk, Fear, and Loss**

Through case study interviews, home schooling parents expressed that a fear of litigation elicited apprehension in their decision to home school. Even in less restrictive states, parents used caution in allowing neighbors and community members to know they were home educating (Cappello, et al., 1995). Likewise, in a case study examining the experiences of Black families, mothers reported that they feared rebuke from the Black community. Often seen as a “sell-out” by other Black mothers, home schooling Black families feared being ostracized by their family and friends (Field-Smith & Williams, 2009, p. 386). Field-Smith and Williams (2009) explained the risk in deciding to home school that one mother knew she was taking: she could continue to “sacrifice the education of her children for the good of the community public school system” or sacrifice her friendships (p. 387). Loss of position and friendships threatened many who had begun home schooling.

Home schoolers also expressed fear of interaction between local school authorities and themselves. Although some states and school districts communicated that they wanted to extend assistance to the local home schooling community, the home schooling families feared the “us and them mentality” (Beck, 2008, p. 67). Beck (2008) noted that families expressed anxiety that they would be used as "scapegoats" if they were not successful at home schooling, they asked for educational testing and assistance for their home schooled children (p. 67). These considerations constituted a new and broadened approach to daily life: a broadened worldview.

**Principle Eight: Transformational Change Always Involves a Broadening Scope of**


Worldview

Comenius (1633) advised parents to teach their own children in the free and natural environment of the home. Although families accepted this type of non-structured education in the 17th century, today many educators war against the idea of a liberating education. When parents endeavor a free and more natural form of education, rather than a return to the previous structured environment feels, it feels, as Comenius (1633) would state, “unnatural” (p. 43). Whereas the traditionally structured environment required a huge effort and cost to obtain an educational environment in a relaxed setting could have produced results more naturally (Bruner, 1990). Often educational theorists, who sought to liberate educators, recommended a freer and more natural education; this becomes possible only in an unstructured environment (Gutek, 2005). By liberating their ideas about education, home schooling families became more open to other liberating worldviews as well. “Parents who [chose] to home school their children viewed themselves as diverging from mainstream society. They [considered] their values and beliefs incompatible with standard methods of schooling. Further, many home schoolers [provided] powerful critiques of American schooling” (Nemer, 2002, p.16).

Michael Apple (2000) viewed home schooling as a key element in the populist, neo-liberal, and neo-conservative movements active in American politics today. As parents became active in educating their children, they also became more critical in their own studies (Reynolds & Williams, 1985). In the United States, many researchers have associated home schooling with the conservative Christian movement. Notably, 40% of home educators cited religious or moral convictions as their key motivating factors for home schooling (Bauman, 2002). However, in the United Kingdom, only 4 to 5% of home educators responded that they home schooled for religious reasons (Beck, 2008). Beck (2008) reported that many parents simply wanted to spend
more time with their own children. After a few years, home schooling families became comfortable with a more self-determined life style and often broadened their political and social views. These new views included an identity-oriented philosophy of education (Beck, 2010). Home schooling parents placed a high value on teaching their children values, religious beliefs, and character training (Kingston & Medlin, 2006). Furthermore, as children grew in a homeschooling environment, parents challenged children to determine and communicate their own worldview (Schultz, 1998). Whether for religious, political, or social motivations, home educators nurtured leadership potential through a broadened worldview (Montgomery, 1989; Spitzberg, 1987).

**Principle Nine: Transformation: Movement To a Greater Integrity of Identity—Wholeness**

Self-efficacy and independence have long been viewed as instrumental elements in leadership development among the young (Bandura, 1977). Although most home schooling families in the United States identified themselves as Christian, home educating liberated minds of every persuasion seek self-efficacy and identity. Bertrand Russell, (1950) atheist and distinguished philosopher, stated, “I was glad I did not go to school. I would have had no time for original thoughts, which has been my chief stay and support in troubles.” For many parents motivation to home school, included more time for their children to pursue individual interests (Beck, 2010). Moreover, parents reported that through teaching their own children, they in turn became life-long learners (DeMille & DeMille, 2008). This desire to learn while educating their children demonstrated how home schooling transformed the homes and lives of both the parents and students in home education. Case studies revealed how families related the experience of home schooling to strengthening their entire family and allowing for more creativity and flexibility in their daily life (Cappello, et al.,1995).
When parents allowed freedom in education, children moved toward confidence in their own identity and self-expression. This move toward self-expression fostered transformational leadership. Upon returning to a public school, one home schooler stated, “I had to learn the system and jump through the hoops, and as a home schooler and a free spirit who used my own standards and work and study habits—it was difficult” (Meighan, 2001, p. 5). Van Pelt et al., (2009) reported that home schooling students described the most positive aspects of being home schooled as the rich relationships and individualization of pace and programs. These families characterized home schooling as a superior education and a superior lifestyle compared to traditional schooling.

**Conclusion**

Being authentic or genuine qualified as a primary characteristic in transformational leadership (Report, 2007). Through home schooling families experienced authentic transformation (including restructuring of every area of the families’ lives), second order, and irreversible change. This alteration expanded and broadened the worldview of the family, even though the family may have experienced a sense of fear or loss of friends and the painful letting go of the myth of control. Poutiatine (2009) developed principles for identifying transformational leadership in a learning process. All of these principles have all been observed in home schooling studies throughout the world.

Isabel Lyman (1993) pithily described the American home schooling experience: “Home schooling has produced literate students with minimal government interference at a fraction of the cost of any government program”(p.16). Gotto (1992) stated that an education should make a person a more unique individual, not a conformist; it should furnish a person with such gifts as an “original spirit with which to tackle big challenges . . . values . . . and a spiritual richness” (p.
Home education provides this type of transforming education. Bennis (2003) concluded that all who are interested and nurtured could learn leadership through instruction. Home schooling offered direct instruction with a rich and fruitful education for the individual (Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011), an opportunity for learning delegation of responsibility (Bass, 1960), and experiences of intimate family connections (McDowell, 2004). Therefore, it can be concluded that home school exemplifies a nurturing environment for transformational leadership.

**Review of the Literature**

Leadership efficacy reflects a direct correlation between communication, social-emotional learning, and extracurricular opportunities. Studies indicated that these three factors, independently or combined, affected relational and transformational leadership development.

**Communication**

Trustworthiness, competence, and focused attention were observable traits in transformational leaders (Welsh, 2010). These traits were transferred from leaders to followers, or participants, in both educational (Welsh, 2010) and business research studies (Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011). Observation of these traits in many environments continued to confirm that the innate need to lead, teach, work with, and care for others has been fundamental in a just and moral society (Martinek, Shilling, & Hellison, 2006).

Research in relational and transformational leadership included study in communication between leaders and others in the organization. Interviews and observations have been the most often used forms of data collection when researching leadership. However, Webb (2009) used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to quantify leadership skill in 105 leaders of higher education from the Council of Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU). In this correlation study, Webb demonstrated how college and university presidents retained and
motivated personnel in their organizations through “idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and attributed charisma” (Webb, 2009, p. 29). Presidents were more likely to insure positive emotions and engagement in staff members through positive reward systems that “affirmed desired behavior” (Webb, 2009, p. 28). Followers in the study indicated that one major factor in job satisfaction was the leader’s ability to make followers feel more self-confident. Growth through engagement in the organization or institution was reported to develop self-confidence in the followers. Engaged communication, an observable activity, built self-confidence and thus more leadership potential in those in organizations and educational settings. Open communication environments, that build characteristics equated with leadership have been observed and documented to build research credibility in leadership studies of students and educators. This study supports the premise that the transformational leader influences growth in the individuals through encouraging and positive communication.

Social-Emotional Learning

Through longitudinal and repeated studies, Bernard (2006) and colleagues presented a meta-analysis describing the creation of transformative environments in which students developed open communication and social growth. In a study examining supportive environments, Bernard (2006) reported that teachers who taught positive social-emotional behaviors in conjunction with improved academics enabled students to succeed at a higher rate proportionately than those who did not emphasize social-emotional learning. Bernard (2006) identified five specific foundations of social-emotional health that are supported by 12 “Habits of the Mind” (p. 108). These foundations included confidence, persistence, organization, getting along, and emotional resilience. Since teachers spent at least one hour per week teaching these foundations and reinforcing behaviors throughout the week that encouraged these foundations,
students displayed improved social-emotional perspectives. Improved social-emotional perspectives “directly correlated” into improved academic performance in these studies (Bernard, 2006, p. 111-112). Although this study called for more research, evidence demonstrated that social-emotional teaching led to academic growth and a turning point in the students’ lives.

Taylor (2006) asserted that “teaching for change is an admirable approach to teaching” offering potential for growth for both the student and the educator (p. 91). In Taylor’s view (2006) the process of becoming a transformational teacher provided a more authentic teaching practice. Having worked toward this more authentic practice, a “safe, inclusive and open learning environment” emerged (Taylor, 2006, p. 93). Growing with students in this safe environment became the goal of transformational learning. The safe learning environment and the authentic teaching practice provided a path for students to grow in both their cognitive and affective learning abilities. A genuine interest in both the students and in the students’ world was manifested through “reading their worlds” and by participating with students in group dialogue and discussion (Taylor, 2006, p. 94).

**Extracurricular Activities**

Leaders often attempted to engage followers in organized activities with the aim of igniting a turning-point moment in the emotional growth of the follower. A research study conducted in economically-challenged neighborhoods, showed that this turning-point moment occurred as students engaged in after-school or extracurricular activities (Dawes & Larson, 2011). Dawes and Larson (2011) studied engagement in student leadership development using grounded theory research. They described the turning point in the lives of over 100 youth in socio-economically deprived neighborhoods. Through after-school activity programs, leaders sought to engage these
students to develop social-emotional ties. The focus of the research was the development of a theory concerning how to engage students from other socially or economically depleted environments. Dawes and Larson (2011) studied the “turning point” in the lives of the students. Although a turning point could be noted in some students’ lives, all that was evident in the study was the need for students to find purpose in an activity. The students who responded to surveys and stated that they had found “purpose” in the activities thrived, thus showing social-emotional development through engagement in the activities (Dawes & Larson, 2011, p. 267). This and other studies demonstrated that leadership development was a process and not a singular event. Purposeful involvement in extracurricular activities appeared to lead to a turning-point moment in the life of the follower. These turning points resulted in maturity on the part of the follower.

Following the study of the relational model of leadership building in college students, Komives and Johnson (2009) explored the influence of high school extracurricular involvement on leadership development during college in a study of 52 postsecondary institutions. In the Multi-institutional Study of Leadership (MSL), researchers studied the social change model of leadership development with 56,854 participants. This project produced an outcome proving that extracurricular involvement while in high school was positively correlated to leadership development in college students as long as the students were not overextended in these activities.

Dugan and Komives (2010) expounded on the MSL by using data from 50,378 students that reflected a 90% completion of the core instruments of the previous MSL. A revised version of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) was the “foundation to the MSL” to expand details of the previous study (Komives & Johnson, 2009, p. 36). The MSL also included a measure of self-efficacy for leadership developed by the research team.

A separate, hierarchal, multiple-regression was calculated for all seven areas of the SRLS
plus the measure of openness to change and leadership efficacy. Key findings included that past behavior predicted a great deal of the college students’ current behavior. Each of the MSL regression models generally explained between 27% and 42% of the overall variance for the social change model of leadership development values and leadership self-efficacy. Pre-college student activities predicted many college leadership outcomes, especially those activities that involved community services (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Conclusions included that perhaps working in organizations with diverse populations enabled the students to see opposing viewpoints of others. MSL found that those who participated in college organizations were significantly higher in all leadership outcomes than those who were never involved. However, the breadth of student involvement was negatively correlated to the leadership. In other words, the student who attempted to attend too many organizations did not develop leadership skills.

It is notable that positional leadership roles for a high school student contributed to the student’s continuing leadership self-efficacy but that engaging in too many organizations did not contribute to efficacy for leadership. Komives and Johnson (2009) speculated that “perhaps students were stretched too thin” and thus developed less (p. 37).

**Children and Adolescents as Leaders**

Since the focus of my study concerned leadership development and transfer in children and adolescents, a review of the literature necessitated reviewing studies of children and adolescents as leaders. Many character qualities, including compassion and responsibility, were linked to leadership in children and adolescents (Martinek & Schilling, 2003). Moral development in children was often associated with leadership development (Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006). Burns (1978) described the transformational process of leadership development in adolescents as a balance between the interplay of the needs of the adolescents
and the needs of others. Burns (1978) further recorded the process through which these leadership stages developed as needs based: evolving from the child's need for security in children into a need to be esteemed by others. Self-esteem and other leadership characteristics were observed during research projects involving children as young as 3-years-old.

Lee, Recchia, and Shin (2005) explored children’s leadership styles in toddler and preschool classrooms within a university-affiliated day-care center. In a qualitative, multi-case study, collected data provided holistic descriptions of the children’s leadership behaviors. Two teachers from the toddler room and two from the preschool room each identified two leaders each from their respective classrooms. From the toddler room the teachers selected two girls and from the preschool room teachers selected a boy and a girl. The children all ranged in age from 40 months to 56 months. The children’s learning center provided a natural environment to observe the children. The natural observations consisted of six 30-minute sessions each. Each child was also video recorded twice for 15 minutes each time. Both natural and video-recorded observations were logged in running record format and transcribed as soon as possible. The data was carefully analyzed. The researcher individually interviewed and analyzed the data for the four teachers.

In the discussion section of the Lee, Recchia, and Shin (2005) listed six characteristics as the most common among all children leaders: advanced social and cognitive capabilities, verbal language proficiency, dramatic skills, creativity, imagination, independence, and being the oldest in the group (Lee et al., 2005, p. 143). These findings replicated previous studies mentioned in the article. However, the study also pointed to unique patterns and behaviors of leadership not previously documented. One toddler girl consistently offered new and creative play scenarios and negotiated the scenarios to recruit others to participate. Another girl in the toddler class, also
very creative, preferred prolonged, imaginative, individual play. This independent creativity drew others into her circle resulting in the children invited themselves into her play scenarios. In the preschool room, a bully emerged: the only boy labeled as a leader. The teachers confessed perplexity concerning this young boy's behavior. He frequently challenged their authority but maintained the admiration of the class. Energetic and humorous, he possessed social power. The study provided insight into the early emergence of relational leadership and how children “bring their personalities to life within the classroom, providing a variety of opportunities for engagement with their peers” (Lee et al, 2005, p. 144). Through their unique personalities, children responded to their peers and the peers’ enthusiasm appeared to motivate the leaders to work on maintaining their leadership within the groups. The recommendation from this study included that teachers focusing on play-based curriculums in order for leadership skills to emerge. Lee et al. (2005) concluded with the need for more research on how the context of the home and the classroom played important roles in early childhood leadership development.

Mawson (2010) reported finding gender differences in leadership styles during an interpretivist study designed “to investigate the nature of collaborative play between young children in early childhood education settings” (p. 116). Neuman (2003) defined interpretivist study as “a systematic analysis of socially meaningful action through the direct, detailed observation of people in natural settings in order to arrive at understandings and interpretations of how people create and maintain their social worlds” (p. 76). Mawson (2010) again observed 3-and 4-year-old children in a day-long-care center and children in a morning session of a kindergarten. The day-care center housed 22 children while the kindergarten accommodated 47. Mawson (2010) asserted that a clear difference emerged between gender roles in leadership positions; however, many contextual factors seemed to influence leadership style in young
children. Only seven of the 69 children preferred to work and play by themselves; therefore, 62 children worked and played mostly in groups. There were more occurrences of mixed-gender play in the day care center than the kindergarten. Three reasons for this difference were postulated: first, more open space existed in the kindergarten allowing boys and girls segregated play, while the day care’s smaller areas required that the children play in close proximity to each other; secondly, the staff of the day care center had been trained in and adhered to a more cooperative methodology and directed children to interact more; third, the extended time of the day-care also offered more opportunities for experimenting with different children in a play-group.

In the kindergarten leadership was typically contested. Two sets of boys evolved as leaders, with one set resorting to physical force more often than the other set of boys. Conflicts among the boys arose over possession of toys and direction of play scenarios. A male leader with a distinct speech impediment often resorted to violence. On the contrary, two leaders within the girls emerged, both employing literacy and fantasy themes. The two girls negotiated for leadership more often than the boys; boys tended to reject a challenging leader. The girls, when challenged often switched games to play a classroom or family-setting scenario. However, contextual differences in the settings should be noted: several of the observed female leaders in the day-care center had been at the center since birth, thus feeling a sense of belonging and confidence. Interestingly, children were more transient in the kindergarten class, coming and going throughout the year. This transient behavior, paired with the larger physical space, resulted in the group being fragmented.

Next, 25 children comprised a five-month interpretivist study. Mawson (2011) observed these 3- and 4-year-old children to determine that cultural experiences and contextual factors
played a greater part of children’s leadership in early childhood than gender-focused explanations suggested. This interpretivist study conducted at a childcare facility in New Zealand, focused on children’s leadership in a collaborative play setting. Mawson (2011) spent one morning per week observing 15 boys and 9 girls. Mawson (2011) noted that no opposition to adult authority occurred, although this character trait had been viewed as a developmental leadership behavior in earlier studies (Corsaro & Elder, 1990; Lee et al, 2005). There was no observed occurrence of opposition to adult authority in the 18 mornings of observations.

Mawson (2011) observed the children as they played in groups of two, three, and four. During the five-month period, children participated in 135 episodes of pair play with 64 incidents that involved individual leadership (47%) and 71 episodes that included shared leadership roles. In shared leadership roles, children offered suggestions and negotiated the direction of the play. Mawson (2011) observed a greater proportion of mixed-gender play within the threesome play than the groups of two. In these groups a greater proportion of individual leadership (71% of the episodes) occurred rather than shared leadership. In the episodes of larger group play, which involved four to seven children, 82% facilitated individual leaders rather than shared leadership. In the 29 episodes of larger group play, 18 mixed-gender groups accounted for over half (62%) of the playgroups. Of the eight students identified as assuming leadership on more than eight occasions, one boy, named Olson, assumed leadership on 29 occasions. The child identified as second in presenting leadership role qualities was also a male. Male leadership among the children was always hierarchal. If Olson was in the boy-only group, he always took the leadership role. However, of the nine girls in the group, the four who were identified as assuming leadership roles often shared the leadership position or took turns in the role.
Leadership in a mixed-gender group was only slightly more likely to be held by a boy than a girl. In the larger mixed-gender groups both toys associated with girls (Disney princess figure) and the toys associated with boys (Mobilo construction material) were incorporated into the play as children created scenarios. In the larger mixed-gender groups often noise and conflict often brought a teacher to intervene without allowing the children time to resolve the conflict themselves.

Two possible reasons presented for Olson’s leadership development included his ethnicity and his family background. As one of the only two non-European children in the group, Olson’s home background may have provided him more “funds of knowledge” (Mawson, 2011, p. 336). Moll, Amanti, Neff, and Gonzales (2001) defined “funds of knowledge” as the “historically accumulated and culturally developed bodies of knowledge and skills essential for household or individual functioning and well-being” (p. 133). Additionally, Olson’s nonaggressive disposition allowed him to work through conflict in ways that were favorable for all children and this increased his popularity. The leaders of both genders attempting to use aggression were rejected as they tried to enter an existing playgroup. Mawson (2011) concluded the article with two interesting facts: (a) a strictly gender-based explanation of the children’s relationship styles neither allowed sufficient space for consideration of a child’s disposition nor the context in which children “express their interactions with other children” (p.336); (b) although there were many children and a wide variety of groupings, only a small group of children emerged as leaders. Mawson (2011) concluded, “Providing leadership opportunities for a wider range of children is an ongoing challenge facing early childhood educators” (p. 336). In a home school setting, siblings perform the roles of friends and allies. Leadership behaviors may emerge early as children work to resolve conflict during playtime. Observation of children developing
leadership abilities, while playing at home would fill the gap in the literature on early childhood leadership. Additional studies indicating that leadership development began in early childhood called for more research and a review of the early-childhood lives of established leaders.

**Childhood of Adult Leaders**

Madsen (2007) found that female university presidents exhibited characteristics associated with leadership in children at an early age. Madsen (2007) stated that the presidents had been “obedient, reflective, observant, smart, self-directed, competitive, and moderately to highly confident” (p. 99). These women were involved in a variety of personality and leadership developing activities. University presidents also remembered recognizing and valuing the concept of leadership even in their childhood experiences.

Likewise, Cubillo and Brown (2003) found that early leadership influences in the lives of women leaders could be traced to both those in their families as well as to other leaders in their lives. Cubillo and Brown (2003) indicated that influential people motivated the women to aspire to higher education and “role achievement” (p. 289). In various studies the women leaders pointed to childhood events and activities responsible for their success toward leadership attainment. These studies reiterate Burns’ (1978) view that adolescents developed into leaders through needs-based leadership, followed by role-based leadership in activities and home life. This study reiterates that leadership development organically evolves as the person matures. Influential persons, meaningful activities, and encouragement all prove essential for this development.

Influential persons often filled the role of mentor in the lives of the women leaders. Mentors often inspired leaders in their early life. Cohen, Blanc, Christman, Borwn, and Sims (1996) reported mentors playing an essential role to a sense-of-self in adolescents. Over a
decade later through a research study, Komives and Johnson (2009) noted the importance of adult mentors and sponsors in the high school years for the development of leadership.

**Leadership Development**

Historically, the study of leadership development in adolescents has followed research substantiating leadership development as a process occurring in stages rather than single event. Van Linden and Fertman (1998) identified three stages of leadership development in adolescents: “awareness, interaction, and mastery” (p. 39). Within each of the three stages, they categorized five dimensions occurring in leadership development stages: “(a) leadership information, (b) leadership attitude, (c) communication, (d) decision making, and (e) stress management” (Van Linden & Fertman, 1998, p. 39-40). Two drawbacks noted from observing adolescent leadership included the lack of developmental leadership programs and visibility of leaders in the lives of young people. The absence of a visible mentor presented a factor in the lack of leadership development. Van Linden and Fertman (1998) asserted that family, community, school, and work associates fostered consciousness for leadership in young people at various points in the adolescents' lives. Some of the intervening points fostering leadership development in adolescents included family members interaction. Leadership opportunity activities included “vacations, hobbies, holidays, and family celebrations, as well as chores such as babysitting and cooking meals” (Van Linden & Fertman, 1998, p. 47). Van Linden and Fertman (1998) recommended that young people aged 15- to 19-years-old participate in lessons, clubs, sports, youth groups, volunteering, student government, and service organizations. At this age, Van Linden and Fertman (1998) also stated that at this age adolescents needed to find a job to broaden their “base of experience” (p. 53-57). According to Van Linden and Fertman (1998), adolescents move through the stages of leadership development much as they move through the
stages of moral development presented by Kohlberg (1969). The stages were not fluid but sequential, and each stage included both transactional and transformational leadership skills (Van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Leadership development studies concerning young leaders' skills and confidence acquisition, as well as studies concerning how young leaders identified themselves as leaders, provided groundwork for examining how leadership developed in adolescents.

Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, and Mainella (2006) constructed a stage-based model of leadership identity development (LID) following a grounded theory research project. The purpose of the project was to “understand the processes a person develops in creating a leadership identity” (Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, & Mainella, 2006, p. 403). The LID model emphasized the relational leadership in college students. This model presented the culmination of LID in these students and focused on the influence of their high school experience. A transition period introduced each stage of development and marked a new level of acceptance toward identity in leadership. The six cyclical stages resembled a helix model, allowing for the stages to be experienced repeatedly, and “each return [was] experienced with a deeper and more complex understanding and performing of the stage” (Komives, et al., 2006, pp. 404-405). The stages were “awareness, exploration/engagement, leader identified, leadership differentiated, generativity, integration/synthesis” (Komives, et al., 2006, pp. 404-405). Komives et al. (2006) emphasized the importance of relationships as foundational to establishing personal identity. Quoting Brungardt (1996), Komives et al. (2006) described how leadership developed “throughout the span of a lifetime” (p. 91). Komives et al. (2006) stated:

Both life span development and leadership education need to be linked to help leadership educators understand educational interventions that make a difference across the life span of leadership development. The LID research links development with the process
of leadership to assist educators in their facilitation of student leadership development (p. 403).

From their research Komives et al. (2006) produced the following LID stages of development:

**Stage one: Awareness.** Children began by seeing leadership as disenfranchised from themselves. Adults were paramount in this stage by providing children the support they needed through serving as role models and encouragers. The parents played a critical role in teaching norms, building confidence, and serving as a “building block of support” (Komives, et al., 2006, p. 406). Through nurturing statements such as, ‘You are going to be something great some day,’ the children began to consider leadership as a personal reality. This marked a transition to the second stage of leadership development.

**Stage two: Exploration/engagement.** In this stage students experienced interaction with others through various interest groups. Adults, especially parents, set high expectations for students. Holding students to high standards provided an opportunity for the students to take responsibility for growth. Adults sponsored and affirmed the developing leaders in meaningful activities. Through involvement in activities and hobbies, the students began to consider their influence in some area of life. This new consciousness marked the transition toward the next stage of development.

**Stage three: Leader identified.** During this stage observers noted that students considered the person holding a leadership position to actually be the leader in any given situation. Therefore, if a student was not in a leadership role, he assumed he must be a follower. Students equated this follower status to all others in the organization not in the leadership position. In this stage students looked to older peers, as well as adults, to model leadership styles. The students attempted many leadership styles with the goal of accomplishing certain
tasks. Adults continued to act as mentors, guides, and coaches in this stage. As the complexity of this stage increased, students began to recognize that they could not accomplish all the tasks necessary in an organization by themselves. Therefore, they began to depend on others for assistance and cooperation. Reflective learning and dependence on older peers as mentors and sponsors marked the transition to the next stage.

**Stage four: Leadership differentiated.** Students began to see leadership as an individual responsibility instead of only a positional role and began to assert themselves as “leader[s] without a title” (Komives et al., 2006, p. 409). Students started forming communities within groups and reaffirmed their commitment to engage other members of the group. Same-age peer mentors became paramount as influencers in this stage of development. As they learned the necessity of teamwork, students created environments that supported interdependence, as they learned the necessity of teamwork. Students not only coached younger peers but they became increasingly concerned about those who followed in the organization. The transition from this stage occurred when students became aware of commitment to some broader goal or purpose.

**Stage five: Generativity.** Students began accepting the role of mentor and advisor for other students in this stage of development. Their commitment to some purpose transcended their own interests as they became increasingly more interested in the welfare of others. Adults were sought out as “meaning makers” (Komives et al., 2006, p. 411). Essentially, during this stage students spent time reflecting with peers. This reflection provided vital feedback for the developing leaders. As self-acknowledged leaders of the group, these students became more responsible for the development of others. During the transition period from this stage, many students communicated a greater commitment to personal integrity and values-based leadership.

**Stage six: Integration/synthesis.** Students identified themselves as leaders, whether they
held a leadership position in any organization or not. They communicated the value in processing experiences with others. They also acknowledged the need for continual personal growth.

This detailed study thoroughly explained the developmental process of student leadership using mentorship and activities. Overall, the process of LID demonstrated that the relationship model of leadership became increasingly more pronounced as the students moved from personal awareness to more interdependence. Mentors, parents, and other adults were crucial to challenge and support the developing leader. Educators were not able to make people change, but they provided an environment in which leaders could determine to change; thus, leadership development flourished. Unique environments that fostered leadership development provided settings for successful leadership development studies. Knowledge of the process of leadership growth in adolescents provided additional frameworks for my understanding of the developmental process of transformational leadership in my intended study population: homeschooled children ages 3 to 18.

Development of Relational Leadership

Relational leadership, contrasting to transactional leadership, focused on the development of a relationship between leaders and followers. Similar to transformational leadership, character qualities signified as indicators of leadership growth.

Haber (2011) evaluated a number of leadership development programs. She asserted that leadership theory emerged in the past 30 years to become more “relational, process-oriented, service-directed, and systems-focused” (Haber, 2011, p. 66). Again reflective of Kohlberg’s (1969) moral development theory, Haber (2011)—quoting Komives, Lucas, and McMahon (2007) and Komives, Wagner & Associates (2009)—stated that emergent leadership perspectives
included “working toward or serving a greater good beyond oneself” (p. 67). Haber (2011) stressed the importance of adolescent leadership development in peer relationships, which indicated a need for observing children within group environments to assess their leadership development and abilities. The Social Change Model of Leadership (SCM) emphasized positive social change, thus observation of group interaction was inherent in the model and “particularly stressed in the group values of the model” (Haber, 2011, p. 68). In the SCM, change was defined as “believing in the importance of making a better world and a better society for oneself and others. Believing that individuals, groups, and communities have the ability to work together to make that change,” (Wagner, 2006, p. 9). The SCM and the Leadership Identity Development (LID) model focused on the interaction of adolescents during group settings. Although the focus of the research by Haber (2011) targeted adjustment to college life, many references in the theory addressed adolescents as well. Haber (2011) concluded her meta-analysis with a suggestion that peer education needs to be integrated into leadership programs. Haber (2011) asserted that leadership development programs within colleges would “enhance the overall mission of the university” and the lives of the peer educators, as well as the leadership development program attendees (p. 74).

Need for More Study

Bennis (2003) defined leadership as learned behavior. But how has that behavior been learned or transferred? What is the process by which leaders of one generation teach and transfer leadership to the next generation? More research in the area of the process of leadership development in children, adolescents, and families would fill this apparent gap in the literature. Since leadership traits such as self-efficacy, determination, integrity, honesty, forward-thinking, and competence have been associated with other observable leadership behaviors in the home
school setting (Kouzes & Posner, 2007), research should be set in the home school setting to observe these behaviors. Finally, further literature concerning social-emotional leaning in home school settings would benefit those who research alternative-educational settings as well as those who study the home school educational environment (Bernard, 2006).

**Theoretical Framework for Home Schooling**

Freire (1970/2010) believed that education offered students not only a means for self-improvement but also a means for a self-managed life and a “critical agency” (Giroux, 2010, p. 154). “The concept of agency implies an active organism, one who desires, makes plans, and carries out actions” (Lewis, 1990, p. 279). Some home schoolers, following the liberating views of Freire (1970/2010), viewed education as a path to social justice rather than an end in itself (Kunzman, 2009a; Welner, 2002). Kunzman (2009) gave several examples of social justice motivation in the home schooling movement, such as the Home School Legal Defense Association’s *Generation Joshua* project, in which thousands of students engaged in an all-inclusive civics program. *Generation Joshua*’s founder Michael Farris proclaimed, “America’s in a culture war. A few good soldier(s) can make a difference. Equip yourself and come join the battle” (Kunzman, 2009a, p. 103). Other home schooling accounts repeated this intensity for culture changing (DeMille & DeMille, 2008; Gaither, 2008; Ray, 2004). Home school graduates claimed to be motivated to school at home by the desire to escape bureaucratically structured education (Ray, 2004). Home schooling parents exhibited transformational leadership by taking risks and enlarging their worldview with the ideologies of others.

Although Lubienski (2000) asserted that home schooling might have been a flight to noninvolvement in public policy, Ray (2004) explained that home school families believed that they have had an “active voice” in politics (p. 76). Smith and Sikkink (1999) found that home
schoolers were civically involved and felt a connection to public policy, political structures, and platforms affecting them. Although sometimes seen as outsiders, the home schooling family created an educated, critical-voting populous through their freethinking mentality (Ray, 2011).

Shields (2010) stated the desire for change motivated the development of a transformational leader. Following Freire (1970/2010), Shields (2010) stated transformative leaders made schools and home schools “places of inclusion, socially just, and academically successful” (p. 560). A desire for change in ideology and action motivated home schooling families. This desire resonates as a change in worldview and behavior.

Dewey (1934) referred to the need for change in worldview and status quo by stating, “If the artist does not perfect a new vision in his process of doing, he acts mechanically and repeats some old model fixed like a blueprint in his mind” (p. 50). Welner and Welner (1999) related that many home schoolers followed Dewey (1934) and Freire (1970) and attempted to create a new vision rather than repeat the old model of education (Ray, 2004). Many home schoolers held deep-value conflict with the ideology pervasive in public education (Beck, 2008). Apple (2000) challenged that home schoolers placed themselves in a stateless situation due to the secular humanism prevalent in public education. However, Marzluf (2010) reminded readers that since a majority of home schoolers chose to attend higher education, the students eventually adapted their ideology and submitted to traditional educational patterns in college and university. Marzluf (2010) added that the years of developing literacy in home school education initiated a significant “frontier” mentality that enabled graduates to challenge the status quo of higher education with a more unstructured educational approach (p. 21).

Carl Rogers (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994) explicated the benefits of unstructured education obvious in the home school movement. Rogers (1922) included social and emotional growth as
major benefits of less-structured academics. Aiken (1942), in the Eight-Year Study, followed traditionally schooled and non-traditionally educated students demonstrating that students from unstructured learning environments academically achieved as much as those students who were taught in structured learning environments. However, a balance between the role of the school as community builder and the demand for students’ personal freedom must be maintained (Bauman, 1997; Beck, 2002;).

The concern for community building through the public education system appeared crucial in areas where the public voice instigated social change. Fields-Smith and Williams (2009) reported that community leaders and neighbors alike criticized Black parents when these parents decided to educate their children at home. This research described how local Black families felt a sense of abandonment when leading parents removed their students from the educational system. In this study, although local schools depended on the advancing test scores of leading families to secure funding, Black families removed their children to home educate. “Black families sought home schooling in order to foster their children’s thinking abilities, rather than just improving test scores,” (Fields-Smith & Williams, 2009, p. 379). Black mothers pointed to the tremendous sacrifice they made for their children to receive a better education. These mothers desired a level of education for their children that the local school could not provide. Acknowledgment of parental sacrifice reoccurred in case studies with White parents as well (Van Schalkwyk & Bouwer, 2011). Goals of education in an American society always included benefiting students academically, along with communal benefit of a civically conscious society. When examining the effect of home schooling on leadership, the benefit to the individual child versus the benefit to the local society or culture must be weighed.

Leadership development often occurred in the home school environment in the same
manner it occurred in community organizations. The culture of the individual home school frequently included the practice of older siblings mentoring, teaching, and coaching younger children (DeMille & DeMille, 2008). Likewise, Martinek, Schilling, and Hellison (2006) studied students in athletic clubs and stated that teaching was an important “precursor to more advanced leadership. With peer teaching the youth participants’ decisions and actions had a direct bearing on the experiences of their fellow club members” (p. 144).

**Homeschooling: Relevant Studies**

**Unstructured Academics May Benefit Students**

When considering the benefits of an unstructured or home education one only need look at a listing of famous home-educated individuals. A few include: George Bernard Shaw, Charlie Chaplin, Claude Monet, Thomas Edison, Andrew Carnegie, The Wright Brothers, Agatha Christie, Noel Coward, Margaret Mead, Pearl Buck, C.S. Lewis, John Stuart Mill, and Bertrand Russell (Meighan, 2001). It would appear that these brilliant and creative minds benefited from the act of home schooling.

Glanz (2007) resounded with the ideas of Freire (1970/2010) when he summarized that educators needed to “proactively confront bureaucratic policies that do not serve the best interests of students and teachers and take responsibility for our own work to break through taken-for-granted notions of what is feasible and what is not” (p. 127). Ray (2004) cited that parents chose to home school their children, because “they wanted to provide their child[ren] with a better education” (p. 27). Some parents contended that public schools geared activities toward crowd control rather than education, thus failing to meet parents’ expectations of individual instruction (Lyman, 1993; Van Galen, 1988). Studies pointed to the fact that students received either a more personal academically beneficial education at home (Bannier, 2007;
Welner, 2002) or an escape from herd mentality through home schooling (DeMille & DeMille, 2008; Fields-Smith & Williams, 2009; Schalkwyk & Bouwer, 2011).

Throughout the mid-to-late 1980s, several research studies in the United States focused on daily operations of the home schooling experience, including self-concept development (Delahooke, 1986; Reynolds & Williams, 1985; Taylor, 1986; Wartes, 1987). During this period, many state legislatures aimed to validate the legitimacy of home schooling, which enabled researchers found more willing, communicative participants for study. Due to the significant discoveries of these early findings, they are not only often quoted, but have become the landmark studies used in further research today. For example, Delahooke (1986) stated that home schooling children appeared less peer-oriented than private schoolers of the same age and gender. Ray (2000a) referred to this phenomenon by quoting a 1986 study on psychological development:

Dr. John Wesley Taylor focuses on self-concept as one significant aspect of the psychological development of children. His nationwide study revealed that the self-concept of home-school [sic] students was significantly higher than that of public school students for the global scale and all six subscales of the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale. (p. 35)

Obviously, since this golden age of home schooling and the subsequent home schooling research were primarily conducted over 20 years ago, many studies need to be repeated. The gaps in the literature have included such topics as methodology used in home schools, social adjustments by students, and leadership development in the home school. Studies conducted concerning best practices and academic achievement provided results asserting the positive effect of home schooling.
Brannier (2004) identified four practices demonstrated by home educators and suggested that professional developmental educators practice: (a) frequent use of varied assessment materials, (b) encouragement of complete mastery of topics, (c) evaluation of curriculum for each child, and (d) sharing, adapting, and practicing techniques between all educators. Likewise, Wedemeyer (1981) associated similar practices to the constant interaction between teacher and student in the home school stating, “The new model will not work unless the teacher is seen as the developer of learners, preserving their integrity—responsibility for self-direction. It assumes intrinsic motivation in active learners, and an equal emphasis on all three stages of learning” (p. 43).

Rudner (1999) conducted a study of 20,760 K-12 home school students using the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS). Although not a controlled experiment, the study showed that the median achievement test scores of the home schooled group were exceptionally high: in the 70th-80th percentile. Additionally, this group of students pursued academics one or two grade levels ahead of their peers in public and private school. Since this study did not constitute a controlled experiment, the test did not demonstrate the ultimate superiority of home schooling. However, it did suggest home schoolers achievement at the time. Replicated by other organizations and individuals, concerned with academic achievement of home schoolers (Ray, 2000a; Welner & Welner, 1999), home school students continued to outperform public and private schoolers on standardized tests. Slatter (2009) reported that in nation-wide testing (including all 50 states and using 15 independent testing services) comprised 11,739 home schooled students, the males performed in the 87th percentile and the girls in the 88th percentile. These numbers were even more dramatic than Rudner's (1999) a decade before. Additionally, the studies noted that home schooling children benefited from families that were unified in
relationships, as well as purpose. In addition to current high scores, these students were more successful when graduating and attending rigorous schools of higher education (Cavanagh & Fomby, 2012).

Medlin (2010) found children were “active agents in their own development and in reciprocal interactions with their parents” in the home schooling environment (p. 9). In conjunction with the responsible-agency factor, Wedemeyer (1981) commented that non-traditional education added more responsibility to children in this open and liberal style of education. Wedemeyer (1981) further stated the difficulty of sustaining student motivation and determinism in traditional schooling. Thus, the recommendation for a more open form of independent education was validated (p. xxi). Wedemeyer (1981) suggested that the longer the child was educated in this environment, the more harmony existed between the child’s learning preferences and the instructional style of the parent. Edmond (2007) and Farkas (2007) recommended that when the study was replicated the extent children can influence conditions of the learning process are critical for academic success of home schooling (Edmond, 2007; Farkas, 2007).

**Studies Relating to Social Skills and Socialization in the Home School**

Vygotsky (1978) stated that a child’s education is enhanced through learning with others in close proximity to those who have more ability with certain educational skill. This theory is called the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). DeMille and DeMille (2008), home-educating parents and educational specialists, agreed with Vygostky’s ZPD theory for adults but not for children. Rather than be forced into structured environments or enticed to play and learn in unfamiliar environments, DeMille and DeMille (2008) believed children should be allowed creative play, transforming into self-education. DeMille and DeMille (2008) stated that the first
10 years of life were best spent in the home with parents as primary educators, nurturing and motivating children. Similarly, Sheffer (1995) remarked that the simple task of spending extended amounts of mother and child time together built “trust and mutual respect in the relationships” (p. 58). Schalkwyk and Bouwer (2011) reported that home schooling parents generally took an individualized approach to learning and therefore, spent more time with each child than they had previously reported in personal interviews during a qualitative study. This underestimation of individualized time appeared in the many types of activities that parents provided for their children: directly correcting the child’s mistakes, redirecting effort, and teaching concepts on which the child could build future knowledge. Likewise Beaven (1990) found that although children needed time to interact, their largest interaction need emerged within the communities they lived and less time in large same-age peer groups. Taylor (2012) recounted times during her un-schooling that she and her siblings spent months working on a particular project that interested them without threat of being labeled or hurried by other teachers or students. This kind of freedom Taylor (2012) equated with this kind of freedom with self-efficacy and independence. These two developmental characteristics mark leadership development as well as maturity in children and adolescents.

Although dated, a striking study reported that Shyers (1992) observed 70 home schooled children age 8- to 10-years-old and matched these students to 70 public school children of the same age, education level, and gender. As the children played together, they were video-recorded and rated by two independent observers using the Direct Observation Form of the Child Behavior Checklist, (DOFCBC). This checklist of 97 problem behaviors—arguing, disturbing other children, or showing off—tracked signs of maturity, empathy, and cooperation. The mean problem behavior score for the public school children was eight times higher than the mean score
of the home schooled students. Shyers (1992) described the traditionally schooled children as “aggressive, loud, and competitive” in contrast to the home schooled children who acted in “friendly positive ways” (p. 6). A more positive self-concept could attest as one explanation for this more peaceful behavior in the home schooling children (Hedin, 1991). According to Hedin (1991), home schoolers consistently scored higher on the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale (PHCSCS) as demonstrated in her comparison study of children who attended the same church but were home, private, or public schooled. In these studies the idea of self-concept related to socialization and social-emotional skills. Self-concept and social-emotional skills were addressed in the home schooling research literature review. Several of the studies were performed at the end of the last century. Obviously, these studies need repeating and updating.

One continuing concern educators raised about home schooling involved a home schooling student’s ability to participate in extracurricular activities. McDowell (2004) cited 24 different research studies dating from 1985 to 1999 that related home schoolers' involvement in community service, extracurricular activities, and political-action campaigns. More recently, McKinley et al. (2007) compared home schooled, public schooled, and private schooled students regarding their involvement in and satisfaction with social interaction. This study compared 53 home schooled, 49 private schooled, and 48 public schooled children between the ages of 8- and 12-years-old, as well as their parents, in social skills—as measured by the Parent and Student Forms of the Social Skills Rating System (SSRS). Students in the study represented the same geographical location and demographical statistics. The group members' satisfactions with social relationships were compared using the Peer Network and Dyadic Loneliness Scale (PNDLS), the Loneliness and Social Dissatisfaction Questionnaire (LSDQ), and the Friendship Qualities Scale (FQS). There were significant differences between the home schooled children
and private schooled children on the SSRS-Student Form and between home schooled children and the public schooled children on the FQS. Although home schooling students reported closer and more affective bonds with their close associates, the home schooling students were significantly lonelier. Both private and public schoolers experienced more conflict than home schoolers in their relationships. The study suggested that one reason parents enrolled their children in the private school was to offset loneliness. Consideration needs to be given to the parents’ motivation for selecting a certain form of schooling in this and similar studies that compare home schooled students to privately schooled students.

Sheffer (1995) also cited loneliness by some adolescent girls in a longitudinal study. Sheffer (1995) interviewed 55 adolescent girls from 49 different families for over one year. Despite loneliness, girls confirmed that they chose to remain in the home school and thus, different from their peers. This choice often kept them from peer groups but the study related that the girls would not compromise their sense-of-self for inclusion in peer groups. Gabriella, an 11-year-old in the study, remarked,

I am going to remain outspoken. I guess that’s one thing I’m sure of, that I’m not going to let what people think I ought to be influence what I’m going to be, any more than . . . I’ve tried sometimes to hide what I am and to change it, and I’ve been miserable. I’m not going to do it (Sheffer, 1995, p. 146).

Wedemeyer, (1981) quoted Dewey (1939) who stated, “Education is not an end in itself but a means to a larger end, and the individual has the right and the responsibility to determine the purpose to which he gives his life” (p. 52). As one home school graduate who attended Hunter College in New York said,

I think I’m sincerely interested in finding out as much as I can about as many things as I
can, instead of simply attending classes and doing enough work to get an acceptable grade so that I can get a degree. (Kleiner & Lord, 2000, p. 55)

These feelings of independence, determination and maintaining self-efficacy were repeated often in home schooling literature (Kingston & Medlin, 2006; Kunzman, 2009b; Ray, 2004).

However, Kunzman (2009a) expressed concern over the home school students who did not: (a) share these feelings of independence, (b) feel self-criticism (c) feel family criticism, or (d) possess academic competence. Although home educating parents and students felt comfortable and competent about their social interaction and involvement, school administrators sometimes felt differently. Cappello, Mullarney and Corderio (1995) conducted a case study of four families who were involved in 25 outside, extracurricular activities. Although the families felt content with the amount of socialization their children received, the local school administrators still believed that the students were short-changed and did not “receive enough socialization” (p. 33). Studies such as this one point to the fact that traditional expectations may not be appropriately applied to home schooling families since many of these families have undergone a complete worldview transformation (Sheffer, 1995; Taylor, 2012).

**Worldview, Values, and Leadership Factors in Home Schooling**

Issues of education have challenged and demanded a balance between the role of community obligation and personal freedom. This idea of balance presents a worldview or paradigm difference. Ray (2004) reported that of 5,354 respondents in a nation-wide survey, 73.5% of parents included their motivation to home school the desire to teach their children specific “values, beliefs and worldviews” (p. 29) in their motivation to home school. Beck (2002) also credited the rise in the number of home schoolers in Norway to “religious reasons” (p. 28). Kunzman (2009a) believed that parents narrow the exposure of differing worldviews by
teaching their own worldview and values to their own children without the possibility of other influences. Kingston and Medlin (2006) compared home schoolers with their public schooled counterparts and found that home schooling parents were more concerned with teaching their children values and religious beliefs, than the public school parents. Additionally, home school parents were more “convinced that their children’s education reinforced this endeavor, than public school parents” (p. 8). These parents were also more confident that their children had embraced the values encompassed in their education. However, home schooling parents did not differ from public schooling parents on the value of children determining their own value and belief system in adulthood. Kingston and Medlin (2006) concluded, “Compared to public school parents, home schooling parents reported slightly more pro-social behavior in their children” (p. 8).

Kunzman (2009a) addressed concerns surrounding home schooling families: the tendency toward dominance by, and adherence to, the religious beliefs of the ruling power, as well as the adherence to family norms and values. This adherence stood as the paramount factor in the decision to home school by several parents that he interviewed. According to Kunzman (2009b) the primary purpose of education included developing critical citizens and an emancipated young adult. The goal of developing discerning students can also be examined in light of the goal of leadership development in students.

**Home Schooling: Lab for Social Activism**

Shields (2010) discussed the difference between seeking equity and seeking emancipation in an educational leadership context. Shields (2010) asserted that transformational leaders in education included liberty, justice, and equity in their goals for education, while the transformative leader in education added the potential for positional and hegemonic leadership.
Working within the context of social activism, the environment surrounding this transformative leader, whether in the home school or the public school setting, exuded tension and challenge. The transformational leaders—charismatic and inspirational leaders—created a more positive environment with “common purpose and motivation of followers” (p. 563). Shield (2010) affirmed the findings of Palrecha (2008) who found that a monoculture society supported a local leader with a blend of transformative and transformational styles. Transformative leaders demonstrated communication and management skills that offer alternatives to problems in an environment. These skills are foundational in an educational environment which values student self-efficacy. Additionally, the transformational leaders tended to go beyond the daily operations of a situation to “develop an appreciation of our own culture and the associated privileges and powers” (Taylor, 2006, p. 92).

Although many, such as Kunzman (2009a), associated home schooling with the religious-right in America, Beck (2010) showed that many Norwegian home schoolers chose this course because of the increased hours of schooling and academic rigor, as well as the changing knowledge-base in Norway. Beck (2010) stated that “religiously motivated home education could be on a decreasing trend and socially motivated home education [could] be on an increasing trend” (p. 79). When given a choice, 40% of the parents acknowledged that there were problems with the school when surveyed concerning motivation to home school. Also, in a survey with five choices for home schooling motivation, 46% of the parents responded that they wanted more time with their children. This study, in which 86% of parents selected home education for reasons other than academic achievement, included both Norwegian and German home schools. Researchers could consider the implications such as (a) what have been American motivations for home education? (b) have American public school experiences been
similar to those of Norway and Germany? (c) will social motivation for home schooling exceed the previous religious motivations of parents to home school? These questions are important to determine since the motivation other than religion or academic excellence are factors in a large population choosing to home school. This information, concerning motivation to home school, could be applied to the educational experience in the United States which might help improve public and private school, as well as inform home education researchers.

A benchmark research project performed in the late 1980s investigated leadership development in the home school. In a quantitative-correlation study, Montgomery (1989) investigated the leadership experience of home school students. Among other findings Montgomery (1989) queried as to what in the environment of home schooling adequately compensated for the lack of extracurricular activities and leadership opportunities in home schooling. In her study Montgomery (1989) reported that 80% of home schoolers were running their own business. She explained, “We can conclude that it is not IQ scores, socio-economic status, or grade point average that are most predictive of a student taking on leadership roles in adulthood, but rather his or her leadership experience while in school” (p. 3). Far from being isolationists, home schooling families were actively involved in political campaigns, civic action committees, and public duties. As Smith and Sikkink (1999) noted,

The home school approach to public life relies instead on a more Tocquevillian view of civic engagement, which suggests that American democracy thrive on the widespread participation of its citizens in a host of different kinds of associations that mediate between the individual and the state, often even when those associations are not manifestly political or liberal; that the experience of association and participation itself tends to socialize, empower, and incorporate citizens in ways that stimulate democratic self-government, even if they involve
some particularity and conflict in the process. (p. 2-3). Obviously, home schooling parents are approaching the study of civics as an interactive education, with students participating in, while learning about, the legislative process.

“With the homeschool [sic] movement, we’ve only seen the tip of the iceberg so far. In another ten or fifteen years, we may see a disproportionate number of home schoolers in positions of highest leadership,” claimed Ned Ryun, founding director of *Generation Joshua* (Kunzman, 2009a, p. 103). Kunzman (2009b) stated that most home school families visualized education as more than academics. As one Virginia parent explained, “It’s not just schooling; it becomes your whole way of life” (Kunzman, 2009b, p. 315).

**Summary**

My review of the literature included findings detailing the performance of home schooled students in intellectual pursuits, in political campaigns, and in participation of social events. Studies revealed that parents endeavored to include their home-educated children in extracurricular events and group activities. Social-emotional learning enhanced academic performance (Bernard, 2006). During the last century, Montgomery (1989) reported styles of leadership skills developed in the home school. Her recommendation for further study in the areas of leadership, leadership development, and leadership traits in the home school present a gap in the leadership literature in home schooling. The additional gap in the leadership literature existed in comparing these leadership traits to how the skills are learned and transferred within families from one generation to the next.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

This chapter details the research design, sampling, data-collection, and data analysis procedures for the systematic, grounded theory, qualitative study conducted in Central Texas. Through this qualitative, grounded theory research study, I developed a theory and then provided a model to describe the process by which transformational leadership characteristics are developed and transferred within the homes of first and second-generational home school students.

Introduction

The concept of transformational leadership began as a comparative study in leadership styles among individuals who influenced the lives of others (Bass, 1993). My research questions, based on the major transformational leadership theorists Bass (1993), Bennis (2003), Burns (2003), and current extensions of the theory through Poutiatine’s (2009) delineation of nine pervasive qualities of transformational leaders guided the collection of data. The best method of research on transformational leaders emerged as a study using grounded theory research methods. Bass (1990), quoting from Glaser and Strauss (1967), stated, “If a theory of leadership is to be used for diagnosis, training, and development, it must be grounded theory—grounded in the concept and assumptions that are acceptable to and used by managers, officials, and emergent leaders” (p. 37). Grounded theory can be defined as “the discovery of theory from data” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Glaser and Strauss (1967) stated that grounded theory aimed to generate theory by grounding the theory in data rather than quantitative research. Although transformational leadership is a well-established leadership theory, much research in this phenomenon needs to be conducted in various sample populations and applications of the theory. The development of new leaders, and specifically how leadership skills are developed in the
home and transferred from parent to child has not been well documented. Additionally, although much has been written concerning transformational leadership and the traits associated with this phenomenon, the development of transformational leadership in children has not been thoroughly explained. Subsequently, transformational leadership studies need to be conducted in home schooling populations since these families represent leaders in many areas of industry and community life (Ray, 2004).

Grounded theory research has best described the prediction and explanation of behavior. It has often been used in sociological advancement of a phenomenon. As it guides research on a particular behavior, grounded theory is usually applied to practical phenomenon (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In this grounded theory study, I formulated a theory based on particular behaviors in home schooling environments and the leaders’ lives, concerning leadership development in their children (Denscombe, 2003). Consequently, I created a model describing my theory. Through exploring new territory in the area of transformational leadership in the home schooling family, I produced a grounded theory concerning leadership development and transfer of leadership skills in the home schooling family.

**Design**

Qualitative, grounded theory research has involved a “highly developed rigorous set of procedures for producing substantive theory of social phenomena. This approach to the analysis of qualitative data simultaneously employs techniques of induction, deduction, and verification to develop theory” (Tan, 2010, p. 98). The purpose of this qualitative, grounded theory study was to describe the process of leadership development in the second-generational, home schooling students as developed by and transferred from first-generational, home schooled students, who are now parents, living in Central Texas. The aim of the study centered on
description of emergent leaders and the process by which they appeared to obtain leadership skills. Grounded theory research established an appropriate choice for the study since leadership exists as a relevant theoretical abstraction (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Yammario and Dubinsky (1994) defined transformational leadership as the ability to arouse awareness and interests in groups, while seeking to move followers to a concern for achievement and growth. The phenomenon of transformational leadership included observable transformational leadership traits explained with anecdotes, stories, and events. As an inductive study with an emergent design, this design best exemplified the home schooling community: a growing and changing population. I pursued a relativistic ontology in this study. Corbin and Strauss (2008) communicated that relativistic ontology did not signify that the researcher believed the entire world relativistic with no known truth. Instead, relativistic ontology defined the world, or current setting, as complex and constantly changing. The home schooling community changes and grows continuously (Zeiss, 2011). Additionally, within leadership literature there has been a growing body of work concerning educational leadership. Researchers have continued to understand more of this phenomenon each year. I presented transformational leadership as an emergent phenomenon. My research discovered the process of a phenomenon, thus qualitative in nature. The phenomenon consisted of developing leadership abilities, not merely recognizing the existence of leadership or quantifiable measures of the trait (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Qualitative research has been designed to reflect the ontology of the researcher. For me, a changing reality of the phenomenon of transformational leadership exists and can be better understood. Reality for participants has emerged as they lived the experience and has been known as social constructivism (Vygotsky, 1978). Wedemeyer (1981) explained social
constructivism as the phenomenon related to those in any educational system:

Our perceptions of teaching, learning, schooling, and knowledge are all undergoing change. It is possible to delay change, to influence change, even (for those who can control their immediate activities) to deny change momentarily, but the trends toward change continue, with important implications for teaching, learning, schooling, and knowledge at all levels and in all methodologies. (Wedemeyer, 1981, p. 44)

In qualitative research the researcher constructed concepts and theories through interaction with participants. These concepts have made sense of the experiences, both for the researcher and the participants (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). As a complex and constantly changing environment, home schooling families have developed and transferred power and abilities regularly (Ray, 2000b). Therefore, rich description has been chosen to express this concept better than numerical expression, though both would have been empirical data (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Most home schoolers have not considered academic success the only motivation for home schooling. Quantitative studies provided comparison in academic achievement between and within certain groups, but when considering a group that may have many and varied motivations for their participation, qualitative research presented the most acceptable data (Schalkwyk & Bouwer, 2011).

Epistemology, the study of knowledge, wisdom, and learning, laid a foundation for a grounded theory qualitative study. Natural learning, or unstructured schooling, has effectively taught and trained children allowing them to enjoy learning while living. Learning in their own environment with caring parents and adults has produced a love for understanding and a social disposition that has benefited society (Comenius, 1633). The experience of learning, knowing,
and comprehending cannot be divided from the knowledge. “The reality of the operative perspective of knower cannot be separated from reality—this perspective enters all we search for and our conclusions about events” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p.4). Although knowledge has never been completed, this was not a radical relativistic epistemology. Rather this philosophy presented the best knowledge of the subject with the partial understanding of the time (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 18). Educational pragmatism, as presented by John Dewey (1902), stated that knowledge arose through the acting and interacting of self-reflective beings. Pragmatism utilized interaction with subjects and brought knowledge to a phenomenon with a self-reflective researcher. Self-reflective researchers operated best in qualitative research, especially grounded theory. This is one more reason why I chose grounded theory research.

The meaning attached to the action of others “builds our knowledge of behavior” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 19). Grounded theory also incorporated the Kantian theory that man is “governed by autonomous principles which man prescribes to himself” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p.63). Observation and leadership analysis concerning behaviors in home schooling families revealed the motivation and consequences of the actions of others and “enhance my own understanding” of myself and my world (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 65).

My problem, describing the development of transformational leadership and transfer of this quality from one generation to the next generation of home schooling families for the purpose of replication and study, was best solved through grounded theory research.

“Systematic techniques and procedures of analysis enabled the researcher to develop a substantive theory that meets the criteria of doing ‘good science’: significance, theory-observation compatibility, generalizability, reproducibility, precision, rigor, and verification” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 31). Glaser and Strauss (1967) explained that substantive theory was
"developed for a substantive or empirical area of sociological inquiry such as patient care, race relations, professional education . . .” (p. 32).

Moreover, I produced a model in which other educators (home, private, and public school educators) were able to replicate, in order to explain the development and transfer of transformational leadership among one generation of leaders and their students and mentees. This represents a noble work: one with ethical and intrinsic importance to a society or culture in which I live (Rogers, 1922). Seeking a model that others can replicate, I used a systematic approach in my collection and analysis of the data. I conducted a structured study to establish protocol in the field where more research is needed. Accordingly, others are able follow this systematic trail to attempt this research study within their own population (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

My description was explanatory as I discovered and explained patterns in the research of leadership development and transference (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). I created a rich, comprehensive description of the experience home school families were developing and transferring through transformational leadership qualities in their homes. Afterwards, I created a model to explain the process (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

**Research Question**

Bass (1990), in defining transformational leaders, used a conceptual list of attributes rather than strict definition. These traits included demonstrating charismatic and inspirational leadership, and exhibiting “intellectual stimulation” and individual consideration for followers (p. 218). These attributes, along with other characteristics gleaned from additional works guided me in the research study to accumulate examples of the “emergent theory” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 27).
My primary research questions were: What characteristics of transformational leadership in the home school setting in Central Texas can be observed during the development of leadership in second-generational home schoolers? How are these characteristics developed? What is the process by which first-generational home schoolers transfer leadership to their children, second-generational home schoolers?

In order to develop a theory or create a model which clearly described the process of leadership development and transfer in the home school setting in Central Texas, I collected data answering these questions through student interviews, parent interviews, mentor/supervisor interviews, mentor/supervisor surveys, and parent/student observations in the home schooling and extracurricular setting. The following sub-questions guided my study:

**Research Question 1:** How do home educating transformational leaders pass on leadership skills? The path to leadership development in children and adolescents needed to be studied (Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006). Leadership qualities were often transferred in a mentor-mentee relationship (Palrecha, 2008). Participants best described their own learning experience, including how they learned leadership abilities (Sheffer, 1995). Therefore, interview questions targeted the experience in the language of the second-generational, home school students (Bennis, 2003). Interview questions directed toward the parents, first-generational home schoolers, included questions concerning both conscious and subconscious acts, which promoted aspects of leadership development including self-determination and confidence, aspects of leadership development (Davis, 2006).

Observations in home school settings revealed effective behaviors that supported and encouraged self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Behaviors promoting clear communication, self-efficacy, and self-determination emerged as patterns in the homes of those who are home
schooling. These traits, as well as others, became obvious as students completed schoolwork and chores while developing leadership abilities. Observational notes detailed behaviors identified by Bandura (1977) and Vgotsky (1978) as those classified with leadership characteristics. In previous leadership studies, behaviors, feelings, and experiences have not been interpreted in isolation. Therefore, observers witnessed the phenomenon of leadership development and transfer in the natural environment of the home school (Schalkwyk & Bouwer, 2011).

**Research Question 2:** What in the home school experience is revolutionary in nature (Anderson & Anderson, 2010)? Transformational leadership has included challenging the typical processes accepted by many in the general population. The skill of challenging the process of the status quo was seen as a trait of leadership (Collins, 2001; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Poutiatine, 2009). Many first-generational, home schooled students (now parents) embraced liberation theorists such as Paulo Freire (1970/2010), John Holt (1981), and Raymond Moore (1994). These parents shared their thoughts and experiences in their own interviews. Subsequently, their behaviors as educators revealed their worldview paradigm. The voices of the second-generational home schooled parents resonated with understanding of the transformation occurring in the hearts and minds of these students (Schalkwyk & Bouwer, 2011).

**Research Question 3:** What in home education transforms worldview (Poutiatine, 2009)? Conversations and dialogues in a rich transformational leadership environment led to detailed narratives and responses from both generations involved in the study. These exhibited patterns of revolutionary, trend setting, and transformative beliefs (Dantley, 2010). Worldview, the sum of thoughts and perspectives on one’s culture (Schaeffer, 1976), revolutionized day-to-day life in a transformative environment (Montgomery, 1989). The second-generational, home schooled parents shared their worldviews as they recounted acts challenging the status quo (Kouzes &
Posner, 2007). Additionally, observations revealed acts that demonstrate transformational worldview in the home educating environment. These observations and interviews framed the emergence of themes in the development and transference of the leadership process.

**Research Question 4:** How do second-generational home schoolers compare their experience to their parents' experience (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)? The transfer of leadership denotes a purposeful act (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Transfer of leadership, as observed and described by DeMille and DeMille (2008) and Vygotsky (1978), occurred on both the conscious and subconscious levels. The direct quotes from the families engaged in leadership opportunities provided the best understanding of the leadership skills, activities, and behaviors. Parents related the similarities and differences from their own experience as home schooled students. Although most situations portrayed similar portraits of home school life, these verbal images provided the path to hear the voices of those involved in the home educating experience, which includes the development and transference of leadership skills and qualities (Schalkwyk & Bouwer, 2011).

**Research Question 5:** How do first-generational home schooling parents view their role as leaders and how do they communicate this role (Burns, 2003)? Clearly, the parents of home schooling students communicated their leadership roles and abilities to their children in everyday life (Joiner, 1987). Interviews, surveys, and observations of leadership abilities communicated how second-generational home schoolers explored the phenomenon of leadership development and transfer. As the parents enacted their daily tasks, leadership development was pervasive in their behavior, speech, and thought. Leadership development was an inescapable part of the growth of the second-generational home schooling students (Bass, 1990).

**Research Question 6:** What word pictures or metaphors can best describe the process by which transformational leadership is developed and transferred from one generation to the next?
This question allowed the participants to visualize and communicate images, which evolved into a model, illustrating the grounded theory. The data utilized the words of the participants as I allowed them to tell their own story of how this transfer and development took place. Although the answer to this question did not lead to the theory or model, the exact words of the participants did lead to the grounded theory and its subsequent model.

These research questions guided my research design, including the description of these constructs. My research design followed the systematic, grounded theory approach including such characteristics as triangulation in data gathering and triangulation in data analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Like most qualitative research designs, interviews were the primary resource form for data collection. Data analysis occurred simultaneous with collection. Glaser and Strauss (1967) referred to this method as constant comparison.

Distinctive to grounded theory research, a theory was formulated which described the process of the phenomenon (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). This process described the development and transfer of transformational leadership in second-generational home schoolers. Following the development of the theory, I, with assistance from a professional graphic artist constructed a model. This visual representation enhances and clarifies the rich expository description I produced in the data analysis section of my study.

Participants

The first set of participants consisted of first-generational, home schooled, adults who were home schooled at least seven years of their education (any seven years between grammar school through high school graduation). Seven years has been documented as an adequate number of years to impart and sustain the “dynamics of home schooling” (Ray, 2004, p. 23). Since the study concerns how these parents have transferred leadership skills to their home schooling
students, the second set of participants contained second-generational home schoolers, students who are currently educated at home. The study focused both on the attitudes and behaviors of the parents and their children. Additionally surveys and interviews were conducted with the extracurricular supervisors of the students in the study. Observations of the students, both at home and at their extracurricular activities, finalized the triangulation of the data. Grounded theory research has always been emergent and open to an “ongoing inclusion” of participants and new ideas (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 50). The target age range for the children in the study was 6- to 18-years-old, the age of identity according to Erik Erikson (1975). Erikson (1975) cited children ages 6 to 11 pursued industry, which is a skill essential to leadership. The study also documented many leadership development characteristics such as “self-determination” which I witnessed during observation of the home school (Bass, 1990, p. 218). However, since leadership development has been documented and observed in children as young as 3-years-old, children younger than 10-years-old participated in the observation and interview stages of this study. Charmz (2006) and Glaser and Strauss (1967) warned against using rules that limit the theory development. Most young children demonstrated leadership characteristics during the observation period of the study, but some were resistant during the interview portion.

Glaser and Strauss (1967) emphasized that the use of two or more groups in a study adds a comparative aspect to data coding and analysis. Glaser and Strauss (1967) stated three reasons for the importance of comparison groups: (a) they provide “control over two scale(s) of generality” (p. 55); (b) they increase population scope; (c) they provide “simultaneous maximization or minimization of both the differences and the similarities of data that bear on the categories beings studied” (p. 55). A researcher must continue to control similarities and differences of data, while analyzing for “categories and theoretical properties” (Glaser & Strauss,
Creswell (2007) stated that grounded theory research might involve “20-30 interviews or 50-60 interviews” (p. 67). Glaser and Strauss (1967) explained that the researcher in grounded theory research cannot “cite the number and types of groups from which he collected data until the research is complete” (p. 50). However, when obtaining consent and assent forms, my original goal involved securing 10-12 families qualified to participate in the study. I planned to interview only two-parent homes and anticipated 40-72 participants. In reality 15 families participated in the study. A breakdown of the number of parents, supervisors, and ages of the children can be found in Table 1 below.

Families in the study included only two-parent homes. As seen in Table 1, I interviewed and observed children from 3- to 18-years-old. Often both parents were interviewed, as well as, supervisors who observed the children in extracurricular activities.

Table 1

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<th>Participants</th>
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<th>Supervisors</th>
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I conducted the study in the state of Texas because the home schooling climate has been favorable. Therefore, I anticipated little resistance as I asked for participants. Home schooling
has been a legal, educational alternative in Texas since 1987. Traditionally, families in Texas have not hesitated to cooperate with an inquiry on home schooling. Additionally, THSC, a statewide organization, has conducted public conferences and published monthly magazines since the early 1990s. Since I have been a member of the state organization, I was given access to solicit members through these conferences and magazines. I created a business card-sized to use as a push card that asked for participants and served as an advertisement for the monthly magazine. This business card advertisement solicited possible participants. A copy of this card and ad can be found in Appendix G.

The nature of the research necessitated that the setting include extra curricular activities in which home school children could participate. In Central Texas home schoolers have participated in spelling and geography bees, science fairs, Christian Youth Theater, YMCA sports, Joyful Sound Home School Choir, Instruments of Praise Orchestra, Houston Christian Youth Association Sports, Student Athletes of Texan Christian Home Educators, and Excelsior Dance Company. In addition, there were at least 30 other organizations and opportunities where home school students have displayed leadership skills in extracurricular settings. Through the availability of these activities I was able to observe the children in leadership capacities. Consequently, Central Texas fulfilled the criterion for a setting that appeared open, relaxed, and full of opportunity for observation.

Parents and children participated in interviews and observations in their own homes in Central Texas. Cities included a 300-mile radius around the Houston metropolitan area. Of the 15 families, two were Hispanic while 13 were Caucasian. The families represented 63 total children, but some were not old enough to be interviewed. Also, three students, who were still living at home were removed from the study because they had graduated from high school and
were no longer home schooled. Family sizes ranged from a family with 10 children to a family with one child. The average family size in the study was four children. Eight of the families lived in suburban communities within an hour drive of a large metropolitan city. Three families lived in rural communities on ranch property. One family lived in university housing since both parents worked on doctorates. The remaining four families lived in rural communities. Ages of the parents included: two sets in their 20s; four sets in their 30s; and nine sets in their 40s. All fathers held full time jobs, except for one whom was a full-time student completing his dissertation. Four fathers owned businesses, three worked in professional careers: accounting and law. Two of the fathers were civil servants, one a policeman and one a fireman. Two dads were salesmen, two were pastors, and one was the director of a Christian camp. One mother was a full-time student at a seminary. Three of the mothers held part-time jobs either teaching piano or supervising a home school co-op. All the others described themselves as stay-at-home mothers. Of the 30 parents, 13 of the mothers and five of the fathers had been home schooled, and in five of the households both parents had been home schooled. All parents interviewed said they planned to home school their own children until high school graduation. All children interviewed said they enjoyed home schooling, although a few children stated they wished they had more friends. Some of the children expressed curiosity about what occurred in a public school; however, no child interviewed stated an interest in attending public or private school on a regular basis.

Observational data was collected in the homes of the students, as well as sites of extracurricular activities. In order to observe the children in extracurricular activities, I traveled with the families and observed students taking music lessons, playing in playgroups, and supervising children at Christian camps. I also recorded them participating in some after-
school Bible clubs and study groups. Students also took ballet lessons, engaged in tutoring sessions, enjoyed riding lessons, took part in speech and debate clubs, played sports, babysat, and attended Boy Scouts or American Heritage Girls organizations. I recorded all of these activities on a Flip video and stored the video on my laptop computer. The computer was password protected and locked each day. I transcribed all the observational data within 48 hours of collecting data. I stored the transcriptions on my password-protected laptop, which was locked each night.

I conducted most of the parent interviews in their homes. Twice, phone interviews with mothers followed initial observational visits. A father, who was working out of town, agreed to a Skype interview. All interviews were audio recorded and noted using a Livescribe pen.

Procedures

Unlike ethnography, I attempted a “theoretically relevant” data bank (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 58) rather than the widest possible field of data. I purposefully collected data using homogenous sampling (selecting families who shared the same phenomenon being second-generational home schoolers). I selected the participants from friends, friends of home schooling families, and families who I met at the Texas Home School Coalition Convention.

I conducted a pilot study of one family with five children. I interviewed the mother and three of the five children observed the children during the home schooling day, and traveled to two extracurricular activities with them. Afterwards, I interviewed both extracurricular activity supervisors and left them with surveys, which they returned within a week.

After the completion of the pilot study, I began contacting parents who had expressed interest in my project. I continued gathering data for 11 weeks. Using the snowballing effect, I received referrals for more participants from the first group of participants (Glaser & Strauss,
1967). I intended to stop taking new participants when the emergent quality of phenomenon became significantly apparent, and the themes in the data began repeating with no new themes in the data. However, although no new themes emerged in late April 2013, I had already scheduled two families who were excited to participate. Since saturation occurs when no new themes emerge from new participants (Charmz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967), I saw no harm in collecting data from the last two families to ensure the data thoroughly saturated. Since the interviews of the last two families yielded no new themes I knew the data was saturated (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Participant selection played a crucial part in the data collection process. Therefore, before interviews I recorded memos on how the participants were selected and contacted along with their initial responses (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In this manner the thorough analysis of my memos, with the subsequent analysis of the interviews, prompted me to determine when I needed to add a different city or region, a different family, or adjust the age limit of the children in the study. For instance, although the younger children were eager to be interviewed, I learned that their interviews did not yield many new themes in the data, due to their limited communication skills. I adjusted my interview age to 5-years-old rather than 3-years-olds. Grounded theory incorporated the constant comparative method of collecting and analyzing the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Through constant comparative analysis I determined that the themes had been saturated, and thus, the ideal number of participants reached.

Referrals for participants came through state and local home schooling organizations, online home school blogs, and friends of other participants. All referrals were contacted and qualified through phone interviews. I engaged in discriminate sampling, thereby choosing persons, sites, and documents to enhance the comparative analysis to saturate categories and
complete the study (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Two families were observed and interviewed but eliminated from the study because during analysis as they failed to meet the criterion of either living in Central Texas or home schooling their children for more than 50% of their education.

**Contacting the Participants**

Initially, I contacted families to be part of the study from those whom I had met through THSC. I also contacted families based on friends’ referrals. After interviews with participant families, I asked for referrals of other families for the study. Snowball sampling added to the theoretical sampling as new participants were added. Ideal sample size was achieved when theoretical saturation was achieved (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

**Delimiting the sample.** The sample was intentionally delimited by the theoretical standards that one or both parents had been home-educated and currently home schooling their own children. Additionally, these parents self-identified themselves as leaders in business, school, or community. Also, during the referral process I asked for verification that parents held a leadership role in business, church, or community. All the participating children actively engaged in some extracurricular activity outside the home environment. I deemed this step necessary since a portion of data collection included interviews and surveys of supervisors of the children. This step evaluated the children’s leadership characteristics and behavior outside the home.

**Internal Review Board Approval**

I contacted the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Liberty University to insure that I had received express permission to conduct this educational research on home schooling students. Prior to my data collection, I gained IRB approval for my study. Lists of my semi-structured interview questions for both parents and students were included in my IRB application. Since I
intended to interview children (under the age of 18) in their own home regarding their educational experiences, I provided parents with a list of my interview questions prior to the interview. I allowed parents to read transcripts of their children’s interviews after the event.

My observations of home schooling students were completed while they were in the process of home educating, therefore my data collection occurred in the privacy of their homes or at their extracurricular activities. IRB stated that the home setting typically ensured privacy for individuals. Therefore, I included an explanation in my IRB application why my research necessitated that the observations must be done in a natural, casual, and familiar educational setting. This type of setting achieved the correct interpretation of the information gained from observations of interaction between parent and children (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

I obtained a consent form from all parents who participated in the study for themselves, as well as an assent form for their children under 18-years-old. All participants completed these forms. Likewise, I gained IRB approval for video-recording the observations of the home schooling families and audio recording the interviews.

Following IRB approval I employed open sampling using a theoretical sample of home educating families in the Central Texas area. THSC leadership responses from my business cards, advertising, and conference contacts assisted me with creating a list of possible candidates for participation. From these initial, potential participants, I received the names and contact information for approximately 50 possible families, which I began to contact in mid-February 2013. A theoretical sample size of 10-12 families became my aim (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

**Researcher’s Role**

In qualitative, grounded theory research, ethical protocol requires researchers to account for their own position, validating their direct relationship between the quality of the contact, the
researcher, and the “empirical site” (Tan, 2010, p. 98). As the human instrument in this study, I often evaluated my ideas, thoughts, and relationship to the data. Denzin and Lincoln (1994) stated, “Interpretive research begins and ends with the biography and the self of the researcher” (p. 510). I am well suited to conduct this study since my 25-years of experience with the Texas educational community has allowed me to establish a school, create curriculum constructs, publish a book, lead writing groups, speak at conferences, and conduct teacher-training events. My experience with home schooling began when I started home schooling my daughter in 1989.

My philosophical assumptions included the social constructivism theory, which states that researchers' understanding of meaning is formed through interaction with others (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). In other research social constructivism allows the educator to interact with the students for shared experience and meaning to emerge for the learner and teacher. Vgotsky (1978) in his Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), stated that children grow into the “intellectual life around them” (p. 88). Parents nurture their children academically, socially, and spiritually. Parents who may extend the ZPD theory into daily practices in the home school family included social-emotional learning as well as academic skills (Moore, 1994). Since education was enhanced in a non-structured environment suited to the individuals' needs, home schooling has been encouraged for those with skills to pursue the task (Aiken, 1942; Schultz, 1998).

In qualitative research, values of the researcher guide the choice of study, the interactions with subjects, the summary and the conclusions gained from the data. In my approach to education, I value freedom and liberation (Freire, 1970/2010) as well as the ability to train leaders in the home through interaction (Morton et al., 2011). I also consider hearing the voices of the participants as a vital part of authentic research to insure that both the voices of the
participants and the researcher are adequately incorporated into the study. This inclusion is another reason I chose grounded theory design as the best approach for my study (Charmz, 2006; Creswell, 2007). Additionally, in planning the design, I valued the rhetoric as heard from the voices of the participants (Creswell, 2007). I recorded the actual words and included the exact diction of participants. From the recordings quotations, word codes, categories, and themes emerged, which pointed to a theory describing how home schooled students learn leadership skills from their parents (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Concerning leadership, my assumptions included that leadership is taught (Burns, 2003) and is recognizable through facets of character and personality traits (Bernard, 2006). Subsequently, Poutiatine (2009) established nine principles of leadership through synthesizing Bass (1993) and Burns (2003). These principles include that:

(a) transformation is not synonymous with change; (b) transformation requires assent to change; (c) transformation always requires second-order change; (d) transformation always involves all aspects of an individual’s or organization’s life; (e) transformational change is irreversible; (f) transformational change involves a letting go of the myth of control; (g) transformational change involves some aspect of risk, fear, and loss; (h) transformational change always involves a broadening scope of worldview; (i) transformation is always a movement toward a greater integrity of identity—a movement toward wholeness (Poutiatine, 2009, p.190).

All nine of these characteristics have been observed in the lives of transformational leaders. I observed these behaviors in the home schooling environment, when transformational leaders, as parents, guided the home school process.
Data Collection

After an initial phone conversation with participants and the receipt of signed consent and assent forms, I set up observations and interviews with the home schooling families. I gained permission to observe, survey, and interview at least one person who held a leadership role over each child in the study while that authority was engaged in an extracurricular activity with the home schooling child. Often the parents obtained the permission from the extracurricular supervisors for me, which helped with the logistics of the study. In order to increase validity, all of these efforts began after the completion of the pilot study. At the completion of the pilot study I adjusted some of the data collection approaches, including the length of the student interview, by combining some of the questions (Creswell, 2007).

Protocol

Since this is a grounded theory research design, I collected, coded, and analyzed data simultaneously. Therefore, during these interviews, observations, and coding sessions, I developed a protocol for collecting, coding, and analyzing data continuously using descriptive and reflective notes (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). The process of sorting, diagramming, and integrating memos became an “inter-related process” (Charmz, 2006, p. 115). Some of the preliminary protocols included:

• Each parent signed the consent form prior to being interviewed.
• The parents were informed of the protocol for reporting child abuse should this emerge in the interviews, although this was not the topic of discussion
• Each parent interview transpired in a casual discussion lasting 40 to 60 minutes.
• These semi-structured interviews were conducted in the home of the parents.
• Following a time of gathering demographic information, I asked questions concerning parents’
leadership positions (at work, church, or in community service organizations) attitudes, habits, motivations, and worldviews.

- Each student signed an assent form before the interviews.
- Each student interview ensued for 25 to 40 minutes.
- Each scheduled family home school observation continued no more than two hours.
- At least one child per family was observed in one outside extracurricular activity.
- Surveys were delivered to and collected from supervisors of the extracurricular activities during the observation week.
- Those in authority over the home school children were interviewed.

Glaser and Strauss (1967) addressed the protocol of collecting and analyzing data from many sources as viewing “slices of data” (p. 65).

**Interviews of Parents**

My IRB application, found in Appendix A, expressly details my interviews with the parents, found in Appendix D. Interviews with parents began within two weeks of the pilot study. The interviews, conducted in the homes of the participants, were followed by interviews with the students. During the interviews, I recorded the audio while writing memos with a Livescribe pen. In this manner, when listening to the recording of the interviews I was able to read the memos I had taken simultaneously. From these memos, I constructed conceptual theories, which emerged into the “analytic framework” for my study (Charmz, 2006, p. 91).

All interviews and observations of the home schooling families were scheduled during their regular school days. Concurrently, I scheduled the observation of the extracurricular activity and interview with the supervisor. At the close of each parent interview, I scheduled a follow-up appointment in order for them to read the transcripts of the observational notes and
interviews. I included this procedure to check for coding validity. Several families declined this step in the protocol but most agreed and the follow-up validated the transcription and coding.

**Parent interview questions included:**

- What are the schedules/routines/constructs in your home as you are home schooling (Poutiatine, 2009)?
- How do you feel you are passing on leadership qualities on to your children (Burns, 1978)?
- How do you model leadership for your children in your home schooling environment? In your home (Shields, 2010; Kouzes & Posner, 2008)?
- What do you feel is revolutionary about home schooling? How do you convey this to your children (Freire, 1970/2010)?
- In what ways do you attempt to challenge your children (Vygotsky, 1978)?
- In what ways do you take risks in front of your children? How can risk taking demonstrate leadership in your home school (Joiner, 1987)?
- What is different about your approach to home schooling your children, than the way you were home schooled? What is the same? Why have you made these decisions to change or continue as your parents did (Ray, 2010; Poutiatine, 2009)?

**Student Interviews**

My list of questions for student interviews is attached as Appendix H. I conducted these interviews in the homes of home schooling students before, during, and following a two-hour observation of their home schooling experience. Interviewing minors could have presented ethical issues, including the possibility of reporting of child abuse, but none of these concerns materialized during data collection. Schalkwyk and Bouwer (2011) reported that when the voice of the home schooling student is missing from research, only half of the home schooling...
participants are represented. Schalkwyk and Bouwer (2011) explained that considerable data, including their interpretation of the experience could only be gained from “hearing their voices” (p. 186). I used in vivo coding and analysis, which means I used the words of these homeschooling students to determine the categories and codes with which to express their experiences. A few parents listened to some of their children's interviews. During the interviews, I recorded the audio while taking memos with a Livescribe pen. In this manner, I was able to construct conceptual theories that emerged into an analytic framework for my study (Charmz, 2006).

**Student interview questions included:**

- How long have you been home schooling?
- What is your typical day like?
- Can you share the most exciting times in your home school experience?
- What is the first thing you think in your mind when you enter a group of peers or students you have never met (Renzulli-Hartman, 2004)?
- Do you see yourself as a leader or follower? Why (Renzulli-Hartman, 2004)?
- How can you be counted on to do what you promised (Renzulli-Hartman, 2004)?
- How do you feel when your grandparents or others ask to see your schoolwork?
- Give me an example of when you had to adjust to a new situation (Bandura, 1977).
- Tell me when you are happiest: alone or with people. Why (Bernard, 2006)?
- When you join a team or group that needs to win a game or complete a project, and no one has a plan, what do you do (Renzulli-Hartman, 2004)?
- Tell me what social activities you participate in and what role you play in those situations (Renzulli-Hartman, 2004).
- Name some of your friends whom you consider leaders. Would you consider yourself in that
group of leaders? Why or why not (Schalkwyk and Bouwer, 2011)?

I noted behaviors and words of the participants as they demonstrated transformational leadership characteristics in their interviews (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Poutiatine, 2009). Some of these behaviors included: (a) self-discipline when a younger sibling interrupted; (b) empathy when asking me if I was comfortable or needed to take a break; (c) self-reflection when I asked a question they needed to ponder; (d) taking risks by speaking to me even though some admitted that interviewing made them afraid.

**Observations of Children in Extracurricular Activities**

Glaser & Strauss (1967) included comparing data against all forms, and from all sources: known as the *constant comparative method*. Charmz (2006) also recommended constant comparative methods. This recommendation not only included comparing early interviews with later interviews but also comparing words of interviews, and surveys with observational material (Charmz, 2006, p. 54). I incorporated my own observations of the children with the interviews and surveys of those in authority over them. These observations gave rise to new categories and themes and then widened and deepened the categories (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Using a combination of the Martinek, Schilling, Hellison (2006) youth leadership characteristic scale and the Renzulli-Hartman (2004) checklist as guidelines, I observed at least one child from each family during one extracurricular activity. I combined these two checklists and attached it in Appendix F. Following my observations of the children in their extracurricular activity I interviewed the supervisor of the event. Afterward, I delivered surveys to the supervisors of the children in these activities. This triangulation of data added credibility to the observation portion of the study (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).
Supervisor Surveys

Glaser and Strauss (1967) recommended proportional viewing of a phenomenon from different sources (p. 68). Variations of the data came from a triangulation of views and enriched the data. People who worked with the children’s behavior outside the home proved instrumental in both forming potential leadership skills and recording demonstrated leadership skills (Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006). Therefore, besides the views of the children and parents, I sought data from non-family members. In the sample selection, I asked parents for names and contact information of adults who maintained authority or held leadership positions over their children outside the home. These adults included Bible club teachers, sports coaches, musical instructors, mentors, and others who observed the students during group activities. After contacting them these adults also completed the consent form. I gave each one a modified form of the Renzulli-Hartman (2004) survey of giftedness, which recorded leadership development in children. This survey scores as a highly reliable tool for authorities, coaches, and teachers in charge of gifted children. Thousands of studies have used the survey since 1971, and the test continues to maintain credibility and reliability in identifying leadership qualities in children (Hadaway & Marek-Schroer, 1992). Supervising adults completed the survey within 15 to 30 minutes following a rehearsal, practice, or event that I observed. In this manner, following each of my own observations of the children in an outside activity, I compared my observations notes and memos to the information I obtained from the supervising adults. As I compared these notes, I sorted and diagramed my themes and categories while integrating my notes in this interrelated process (Charmz, 2006, p. 115). Some supervisors, due to time constraints, desired to email me their surveys within the week.
Supervisor Interviews

Following the survey I asked the supervising adults the following questions:

• How is the child empowered to take leadership in your organization (Madsen, 2007; Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006)?

• How do you provide this child an opportunity to make authentic choices in this organization (Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006)?

• Have you witnessed this child moving beyond looking out for his/her own needs to looking to the needs of others? Can you describe that incident (Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006)?

• How do you see this child as an effective teacher of the other children (Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006)?

• When, if ever, have you witnessed the child becoming reflective about his/her role as a leader (Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006)?

• Can you describe a time when the child exhibited compassionate leadership, caring for the ethical concerns of other children (Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006)?

Hellison (2003) developed the Personal and Social Responsibility Model to reflect five major goals of coaches and mentors in dealing with children in sports and extra curricular activities. These goals included: (a) self-control and respect for the rights and feelings of others; (b) trying one’s best and teamwork; (c) self-direction; (d) caring for and helping others; (e) applying these goals outside the gym (Martinek, Schilling, & Johnson, 2001, p. 31).

Observations of Families at Home

I will further observed each family in their own home during home educating time noting activities that characterize leadership behaviors (Bennis, 2003). Corbin and Strauss (2008) noted that observation represented a powerful tool in qualitative research because often participants did
not report all of their behaviors regarding a phenomenon. Additionally, participants have stated that they did one thing, but behaved differently.

Bales (1950) produced a widely used checklist for behavioral categories of leadership traits. I referred to this checklist before observation, as well as during analysis, to ground the theory and model previous data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Additionally, Haythorn, Meirowitz, and Lanzetta (1951), Mann (1961), and Komaki, Zlotnick, and Jensen (1986) developed observational procedures, including how supervisors interacted with their subordinates and how this interaction developed management characteristics in these subordinates. Diagrams and procedures from the above mentioned studies proved helpful in guiding the coding relationships during my study.

Observations were video recorded for accuracy. I met with an inter-rater researcher twice during data collection and initial analysis and axial coding phase to validate my notes of the video recordings. As I coded and analyzed the data, I sought credibility for the study by allowing the parents of the home educating families to view notes as I immersed myself in the data.

**Data Analysis**

Analysis required a thorough examination of leadership qualities in the home school environment to comprehend its “properties and functions, then using the acquired knowledge to make inferences about the whole” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 45). My research project included a thorough evaluation and analysis of the data. Background research, personal experience, and thorough immersion in the data contributed to a complete analysis of data. Corbin and Strauss (2008), Creswell (2007), and Glaser and Strauss (1967) all recommended analyzing the data while collecting it. Glaser and Strauss (1967) referred to this as the constant comparative
method and explained:

If the analyst wishes only to generate theoretical ideas—new categories and their properties, hypotheses and interrelated hypotheses—he cannot be confined to the practice of coding first and then analyzing the data, since in generating theory, he is constantly redesigning and reintegrating his theoretical notions as he reviews his material (p. 101).

An assistant, a Liberty student, and I transcribed interviews and observations within 72 hours of intake including “theoretical memos and sketches of settings where all data was collected” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 30). My original intent was to have all the transcriptions and initial coding within 48 hours of collection. However, the volume of data in the larger families made this impossible. Each day I composed theoretical memos to describe details. Many of these memos became “core categories” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 67). The first step in analysis generated categories from the data and instituted initial coding. Comparing the data from the interviews with the data from observations, against the data from the surveys, I analyzed the data line by line (Charmz, 2006). As I found instances of the same category code I refined my ideas about the category. Then, I wrote memos of my ideas in these categories (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Glaser and Strauss (1967) stated that collection and coding must be accomplished in tandem with time for the researcher to “take respite for reflection and analysis” (p. 72). Therefore, data collection and analysis included a time of gathering, transcribing, and coding followed by a respite for reflection. I attempted to maintain a schedule that included two weeks of data collection and coding with four days for respite, rereading, and reflection before the next series of observations, interviews, and surveys began. This proved difficult in scheduling family interviews with the extracurricular observations and surveys. I conducted some observations and
supervisor interviews during the weekends, but most family interviews mandated that a weekday schedule be utilized; thus, the four days of respite were not always concurrent between groups of families. With the profusion of data from 15 families, as well as the outside authorities, I formulated many possibilities from the data before the grounded theory emerged. Corbin and Strauss (2008) have used the metaphor of a sculptor who must remove or refine pieces of art to describe the researcher in refining the data analysis until the “right story is told” (p. 47).

Glaser and Strauss (1967) asserted that the formal theories and codes could not be pre-established for obvious reasons:

Indeed it is presumptuous to assume that one begins to know the relevant categories and hypotheses until the ‘first day in the field,’ at least are over. A substantive theory generated from the data must first be formulated; in order to see which diverse formal theories are, perhaps, applicable for furthering additional substantive formulations (p. 34).

On the first evening of collecting data, I transcribed the interviews, surveys, and observations alongside my transcription assistant to verify that we transcribed the exact words of the participants. On the second evening of collecting data, I began coding from transcriptions prepared by my assistant and me. As I read the transcriptions of observations and interviews for the day, I began initial coding of the categories in the data. My assistant continued to transcribe my observations, surveys, and interviews each day as I continued coding. This became our protocol for the two weeks of data collecting for each cycle. After six weeks I employed a Liberty student to aid us in transcription and categorizing of the codes. He combed the coded transcriptions for coding matches and made spreadsheets of the codes and direct quotes from the transcripts of the interviews. I assembled the spreadsheets, adding my memo notes into the categories, and reviewed the transcriptions for accuracy with the in vivo codes.
From the initial coding of categories and integrating categories, I wrote themes, which became proposed theories, as they began to emerge. After initial coding, while still conducting interviews, I continued recording memos on my responses as more categories emerged. Through these memos, while collecting data, I developed themes that became conceptual categories. These surfaced as the analytical framework of the study as I collected more data (Charmz, 2006).

The next step included delimiting the theories with a set of higher-level concepts. I accomplished this through comparing all incidents of a memo or note to the categories I formed from all data. Through constant comparison I removed irrelevant details from the proposed theories. I also eliminated several proposed theories as too specific believing they did not encompass enough of the general population of the study. This delimiting provided a more general theory and greatly reduced the number of categories. This crucial step, reducing the categories and delimiting the theories, took four weeks. However, if this step had not been undertaken through the inductive process, my study would be a description of the participant’s experience—similar to a case study—not a grounded theory study. Unlike phenomenological research, my theory deals with the causal relationships within the participants and their social situation (Tan, 2010).

Joint collection of data, coding, categorizing, and analyzing pervaded the process of this grounded theory research (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p.43). The procedure for analyzing the data included method from Charmz (2006):

(a) memo during interview; (b) use open coding to define the various categories; (c) explicate the similar properties of all categories in an attempt to form the axial or central code (d) specify the conditions under which the category arises, is maintained, and changes (e) show how each category relates to other categories (p. 92).
Charmz (2006) used the term “open coding” while Glaser and Strauss used the term “initial coding” (1967). Charmz (2006) assumed a more unstructured approach in this beginning stage of analysis, while Glaser and Strauss (1967) preferred a more documented approach. However, the analysis steps were similar. I used the Glaser and Strauss (1967) three-step process in analyzing the data.

Substantive coding compared incident to incident from interview and observational data. Although I attempted to structure a procedure for analyzing data, Denzin (1998) stated, “Interpretation is an art that cannot be formalized” (p. 338). Therefore, I remained sensitive and reflexive to the data and participants as I gathered and analyzed information (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). I continued to listen to the voices of the participants during this stage as they read transcriptions and clarified some of their comments. Their reflection on their own words proved helpful as well.

During observations I wrote memos regarding the interaction and responses of parent and student with regard to the nine principles of transformational leadership (Poutiatine, 2009), as well as the leadership characteristic checklists (Buckingham, 2011; Carter, Haythorn, Meirowitz & Lanzetta, 1951). The guidelines provided a framework for observing the interactions and reactions of participants, rather than a checklist (Charmz, 2006). Appendix F provides a culmination of characteristics of leadership documented in the study.

The survey data collected from the authorities supervising the home schooling students in extracurricular activities was compared to the codes and themes that emerged from interviews and observations. Comparisons in the coding added depth to the understanding of the process of transference of transformational leadership.

Coding
I used *in vivo* (emergent codes) rather than *a priori* (existing codes). Glaser and Strauss (1967) stated that the use of a priori codes and assumptions forced the researcher to make “connections that may not be substantial” (p. 27). My initial coding enhanced the analysis of interviews and observations to additional collection and transcription (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 31). Glaser and Strauss (1967) warned that initial coding must continue for depth in theoretical coding. I continued to add themes while collecting data. During the last two family interviews, observations, and surveys, no new themes emerged, thus I concluded theming as saturated.

Initial theoretical coding with constant comparative process added the structure needed in this systematic, grounded theory approach, as opposed to a less constructed approach (Charmz, 2006). However, I followed the “abductive inference” approach in coding which considers “all possible theoretical explanations for the data, forming hypotheses for each possible explanation, checking them empirically by examining data, and pursuing the most plausible explanation” (Charmz, 2006, p. 104). Axial coding followed this initial coding as themes emerged from the original coding. Finally, I used selective coding, obtained from the themes including direct quotes to form the necessary patterns for constructing a model to describe the process of my phenomenon (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Because I used *in vivo* coding, I included many quotes in the results section of the study. The guide to understanding who submitted each quotation is as follows: Capital alphabetic letters denote participating families in the study. Fifteen families in the study are coded A-0. If the quotation came from a parent interview, then the quote is noted with a P. Further, if the information was gained from an interview, a letter I follows the letter signifying the family. For example, quotes from the interview of mother of a family may be designated: API or BPI according to the family letter. Numbers according to birth order denote children in the family.
Therefore, an interview quote from a child may be noted: C3I or E2I. Supervisory survey quotations that are marked with an SS denote supervisors in authority over the children. For example: GSS allows the reader to know that the quote was taken directly from a survey submitted by supervisor in authority over the child (ren) in the G family.

**Minimizing and Maximizing**

At the completion of each interview and after transcription, I coded the interview data—minimizing differences between comparisons groups—to establish the conditions under which young, transformational leaders developed (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The existence and the condition of the phenomenon lead to coding of the type and degree to which the phenomenon existed in this environment: new, more general codes emerged. By minimizing the differences between the groups of participants I established basic categories and properties. Analysis progressed to the point that I could maximize the differences between the groups. This established the “widest possible coverage on ranges, continua, degrees, types, uniformities, variations, causes, conditions, consequences, probabilities of relationships, strategies, process, structure mechanism, and so forth, all necessary for elaboration and theory” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 57). This process broadened, not qualified, the theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

**Writing the Theory**

Grounded theory development became an inductive, rather than deductive, approach to my research. Through careful categorizing and coding, as well as constant comparison I at last wrote a new developmental, substantive theory. Other researchers will be able to utilize this theory to form new hypotheses and research projects. Glaser and Strauss (1967) stated: When the researcher is convinced that his analytic framework forms a systematic substantive theory, that is it is a reasonably accurate statement of the matters studied, and that it is couched
in a form that others going into the same field could use—then he can publish his results with confidence. (p. 113)

My goal for this published, grounded theory is that it would be: (a) focused on the transfer of leadership in the home schooling environment (b) understandable by laymen in both leadership research fields and home schooling arenas (c) general enough to apply to many home schooling situations and other educational environments where leadership is transferred or developed with mentors (d) communicated in such a way that the future users of the theory are allowed some control over the application of the theory as daily conditions change over time (adapted from Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

**Trustworthiness**

To insure trustworthiness of my study, I used triangulation of data then triangulation of analysis. Glaser and Strauss (1967) advised using a multiple of comparison groups to improve credibility of the results. Because I worked with families and an outside authority who all supervised the children, I compared a triangulation of data sources. Following the student interviews, parent interviews, authority interviews, authority surveys, and observations, I included debriefing to check for agreement with the codes and themes.

Also, an inter-rater researcher checked for validity in my observational and interview recording and reviewed my protocol and codes. Furthermore, some of the extracurricular supervisors (who completed the surveys concerning the home schooling students) read the codes and theories assigned to their surveys and interviews for authenticity.

Following the data analysis, while developing the theory, I answered questions of credibility raised by Charmz (2006):

(a) Was my research intimate familiarity with the setting or topic? (b) Was the
data sufficient to merit my claims? Consider the range, number, and depth of observation contained in the data. (c) Did I make systematic comparisons between observations and between categories? (d) Did the categories cover a wide range of empirical observations? (e) Were there strong logical links between the gathered data and my argument and analysis? (f) Did my research provide enough evidence for my claims to allow the reader to form an independent assessment—and agree with my claims? (p. 182)

Charmz’s (2006) questions of originality are also helpful in establishing trustworthiness and credibility of the study:

(a) Are the categories fresh? Do they offer new insights? (b) Does my analysis provide a new conceptual rendering? (c) What is the social and theoretical significance of this work? (d) How does my grounded theory challenge, extend, or refine current ideas, concepts, and practices? (p. 182)

With an additional list of questions from Charmz (2006) I evaluated the usefulness of the study:

(a) Does my analysis offer interpretations that people can use in their everyday worlds? (b) Do my analytic categories suggest any generic processes? (c) If so, have I examined these generic processes for tacit implications? (d) Can the analysis spark further research in other substantive areas? (e) How does my work contribute to knowledge? How does it contribute to making a better world? (p. 183)

A thorough evaluation of my data and analysis for usefulness, credibility, and originality increased the resonance and thereby the contribution to the literature on leadership.

Transferability has always been desirable in any study; therefore I added descriptive data so that
others can replicate my study in different sociological settings (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lincoln & Guba, 1996).

Using the constructivist position, readers of the study will gain insight as the questions raised in the study become more specific and the answers become clearer (Charmz, 2006, p. 185). Attempting to establish dependability of the work, I produced an audit trail in all my data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2007). This audit trail will provide “transparent description of the research steps taken from the start of a research project to the development and reporting of findings” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 319). These records establish trustworthiness and also provide a path for another researcher to follow in future research. Trustworthiness was established through my external auditor, who read and critiqued my study before publication (Creswell, 2007).

**Ethical Considerations**

Ethics provided moral framework for my research study. Humans created in the image of God have always deserved respect, trust, and honor (Colossians 1:15). Researchers have worked to assure that human beings were protected from deception and abuse during studies. Ethically, scientific research has not negated the possibility that the researcher will, at times, engage in a personal and meaningful relationship with participants. Participants in research deserve the right to connect with the researcher personally and professionally (Long & Johnson, 2007). Persons who participated in research deserve privacy and security. Safeguards against loss of personal identity and privacy must be taken into account every study.

Consumers for Ethics in Research (1994) (CERES) provided the following advice for researchers who have determined to pursue ethical research. CERES recommended asking questions before proceeding with the research, which I have asked and answered in my
preparation for study. These include:

(a) Who is this for? This research is for home schooling families and those who work with home schooling families. (b) What might they want to know? They might want to know how to incorporate the best of their everyday home schooling education activities into the best in leadership training in the home school. (c) The hoped-for benefits? Hoped-for benefits might include daily, naturally occurring practices, which positively contribute to leadership development. (d) How will participants be contacted? As stated earlier in the research design and will be communicated in writing to the participants. (e) Will I be told the research results? Each family will receive a personal visit and written report to check for authenticity. Then they will receive a second opportunity to read the final report. This will be communicated in their written consent. (f) Do I have to decide at once? Do I have to say yes? Families will have up to two weeks to decide whether or not to be part of the project. They will be reassured that they will not have to commit to this project to further the cause of home schooling and research within the home schooling movement. (Consumers for Ethics in Research, 1994)

Anonymity is very important to those participating in the research study, so I provided pseudonyms for site and participants in the study. I included a confidentiality clause within the consent forms so that all participants felt safe within their privacy rights. Dealing with children is especially a vulnerable situation. Therefore, I abide by the Medical Research Council of 2004: by including children only when the relevant knowledge cannot be obtained through research in adults; by involving children after their informed consent; by acknowledging a child’s upset behavior during the research as a legitimate refusal to continue to participate in the study; by involving parents in the decision to participate when their child is incompetent to consent; by obtaining consent through a continuing process rather than a
one time process; by taking into account the cumulative social consequences of the study.

(Long & Johnson, 2007, p. 60)

Although the children in my study were members of families with consenting parents I asked each child to sign an assent form following their educated consent to participate. Those who could not read the form were read the form by a parent or sibling. I did not assume that every child in a family would desire to be part of the study, even if the rest of the family participated. I honored the wishes of each individual child in the family reminiscent of what Long and Johnson (2007) stated, “Even at an early age, however, children show the ability to discriminate between options and to express preferences as to what they should do or what others should be allowed to do with or to them” (p. 51). Participants were all assured of their right to leave the study at any time. For example, in one family a daughter did not participate, and in another a young son declined.

Safeguarding my subjects, I kept all my data, including the audio and video recordings in locked drawers within my home-office desk and locked in the trunk of my car while traveling. Additionally, my computers have safe-assigned passwords on them.

To show my appreciation for the sacrifice of their time and effort in this endeavor, I delivered gift cards for a bookstore to the participating families. Also, I gave each family a copy of my biography, which detailed my own home education journey. I provided the biography so that the parents would know that they would be represented fairly by another home schooling parent.

Corbin and Strauss (2008) required that a researcher focused attention on nuances such as “emotions, body language, and situational cues” from the research participants in order to correctly interpret the words and actions of the participants, without insulting or offending the
participant (p. 32). In qualitative research, researchers desire sensitivity even more than objectivity between researcher and participants. In quantitative study, researchers desired to find answers in data without the insight of the researcher. However, in qualitative research, researchers found the best results by hearing the data speak through the experience of the researcher, both in the past and in the current situation (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). I practiced sensitivity in dealing with personal subjects of my participants within their homes.
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Research Questions Results

This chapter reports the results of the data collection and analysis of this qualitative grounded theory research study. After an introduction to the results and findings, a restatement of the six research questions that guided the study will be explored. The triangulation of data produced codes, categories, and the evidence of the themes; all these will be detailed in the next section of the chapter. Finally, the generation of the new theory grounded in the data will be discussed, along with a model depicting the theory.

Introduction

This study drew focus to the development and transfer of transformational leadership in second-generational home schooling families. Transformational leadership focused on higher order intrinsic needs (Burns, 1978), including the benefit to all participants, not just completion of a project (Maxwell, 2005). The transformational leaders in this study home schooled their children in the Central Texas area. Both the home schooling parent and also the home schooled children participated in this study. Additionally, outside observers who supervised the children during extracurricular activities stipulated insight on the topic. The study provided an understanding of behaviors and activities that contribute to transformational leadership development and transfer from parents to children.

Previous works have shown that certain practices build leadership in children and adults (Hackman & Johnson, 2009; Kouzes & Posner, 2007). This study documented that many of these practices occur during the daily routine and lifestyle of home schooling families. The second-generational home schooling families participating in this study interacted in such a way that their daily routines promoted transformational leadership development. Often, families
regarded themselves as typical, when, in fact, their family practices could be described as counter-cultural; risky, challenging, and even revolutionary—all phrases used to describe principles of transformational leadership development (Poutiatine, 2009).

Most parents in the study likened their home schooling experience to that which occurs when a family business is handed down from father to son. Families exhibited pride in the legacy they passed to their children. Several families quoted Deuteronomy 6:6-8 as their call to daily discipline of their children. In the same way many men and women pick up a family mantle to carry on a family business out of respect for family and tradition, so home schooling families take up the mantle of educating their children at home. Most husbands and wives discussed the option of home schooling their children before or immediately after marriage. One mother commented that she and her husband discussed home-schooling even before seriously dating since she knew, should he not agree to homeschooling, it would be a “deal-breaker” in their relationship.

Founded on leadership and home school literature studies, six primary research questions provided the framework for data collection. These questions guided the interviews of parents, interviews of children, interviews and survey of the supervisors: (a) how have home educating parents, who are transformational leaders, passed on leadership skills (Bennis, 2003)? (b) What, if anything, in this home school experience appeared revolutionary in nature (Anderson & Anderson, 2010; Freire, 1970/2010? (c) As a significant characteristic of transformational leadership, how did the activities in the home school transform worldview (Poutiatine, 2009)? (d) Substantiating a determination to model the way, how did first-generational home schoolers compare their experience to the experience they are providing their children (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)? (e) How did first-generational home schooling parents view their role as leaders and how
did they communicate this role (Burns, 2003)? (f) In an attempt to use the participants’ own words in the findings, what word pictures or metaphors can best describe the process by which transformational leadership has been transferred from one generation to the next?

Additionally, nine principles, aiding the understanding of transformational leadership, directed the observations and interviews with parents and supervisors. These nine principles are (a) transformation is not synonymous with change, (b) transformation requires ascent to change, (c) transformation always requires second-order change, (d) transformation always involves all aspects of an individual’s or organization’s life, (e) transformation is irreversible, (f) transformational change involves a letting go of the myth of control, (g) transformational change always involves some aspect of risk, fear, and loss, (h) transformational change involves a broadening of the scope of worldview, (i) transformation is always a movement toward a greater integrity of identity—a movement toward wholeness (Poutiatine, 2009).

Capital alphabetic letters denote participating families in the study. Fifteen families in the study are coded A-0. Next, if the quotation came from a parent interview, the quote is noted with a "P." If the quote comes from a child the birth order number for that child is used in the quotation. Further, if the information was gained from an interview an "I" follows the letter signifying the family member. For example, quotes from the interview of mother of a family may be designated: API or BPI according to the family letter. Therefore, an interview quote from a child may be noted: C3I or E2I. "S" denotes supervisors in authority over the children. Supervisory survey quotations are marked with an SS. For example: GSS allows the reader to know that the quote was taken directly from a survey submitted by supervisor in authority over the child (ren) in the G family. If the information was obtained during an observation, an O is used to designate the data from the observation.
Research Question 1:

How have home educating parents, who are transformational leaders, passed on leadership skills (Bennis, 2003)?

Home educating parents in this study approached leadership, and its development and transfer, as builders approach building a house. Every activity appears teleological. A foundation is laid and a framework is erected which supports and sustains the development of leadership, just as a frame of a house supports the other building materials. The supports to passing on leadership skills included: structuring their schedule for freedom, working with younger siblings while completing daily chores, acquiring part-time jobs, encouraging risks and challenges, and allowing fathers to be daily involved with their children.

**Structuring for freedom.** Chores, duties, and sacrifices all make up the structure of the home school family. A mother of two explained that a small homeschooling family might not be forced to impose a rigid family structure with “buddies,” as a large family structure would dictate. However, “a schedule makes life more enjoyable for everyone. That is our goal.” Structured family schedules created an environment of a better life for the entire family. Structures varied from rigid to relaxed, but the organized schedules allowed more freedom for all and provided more family time together. A former daughter of missionaries, now a home schooling mom recounted how her parents would take her and her sister out into the villages at night to minister. “We would be out late night and she would let us sleep in and we’d start [school] later. I do that now. I feel like they won’t get sick if I let them rest.” In the observational data collection, I noticed that parents often made their home schooling routines work around the needs of the family. Although they maintained an ideal schedule, flexibility in
the schedule allowed for the children to participate in activities with their parents and siblings, regardless of school hours.

Eight of the families reported that the children woke early to start school every day in order to be finished with the primary academics in time for social, extracurricular, and independent activities. Middle school aged children in five families all told stories of “going out on our own and just exploring.” One mom, married to a computer programmer and parenting two teen boys, admitted, “I never know what is going to come up at dinner because I am not sure what they are discovering today!” A mother of younger children explained that she loved the structure in their home, "so, we can get school done and go play!” When asked if they would consider returning to a more traditionally structured environment, one mother gave a response often repeated by others:

OPI: No. No. I cherish too much what we’ve, what we’ve been able to do and, just, um, in that that, um, as imperfect as we’ve done things, you know over the years, I...I just cherish that we’ve been here together as the primary influences on our kids’ lives.

The home school structure set the framework for all the other activities that developed leadership in these homes. Without a unique structure, children would not have time to help with younger siblings and babies, pursue part-time jobs during school hours, take risks and challenges offered by parents and ministry organizations, or spend long hours with fathers who desired family time. This unique framework kept the other leadership building activities intact within its walls.

**Working with younger siblings while completing daily chores.** During observations, home schooling students clearly moved seamlessly between schoolwork and home chores, which included aiding younger siblings. All families with more than three children, except one,
displayed a system in which older children took responsibility at some time for younger children. Two families assigned younger “buddies” to older children. The older child took responsibility for helping the younger child in regard to designated chores, some school, or social activities. Often, taking responsibility for younger siblings constituted a key component of a larger chore chart. In one family, an older sister reported, “I wash me and [young sibling buddy’s] clothes every Wednesday...Yes, on my laundry day, I wash all of our clothes, then the kitchen towels and anything that has to do like that.” Three more families reported that, at some point in the day, an older child would be responsible for helping educate a younger child. Two mothers displayed charts showing how two to three older siblings worked with the two to three younger children at least twenty minutes each three times per day. “This makes the day go smoother, and nobody feels left out or mistreated.” Even one family, whose oldest child was seven, enforced a strict laundry schedule in which the three-year-old child took laundry from the washer and transferred it to the dryer, then to his own bin where he could retrieve his clothes for later.

During the observation of home schooling families, all families had some form of daily chore routine. These chore charts became habit-formers, not merely "to-do lists." Children pursued family chore time as well as taking care of younger siblings, not with drudger, as a rite-of-passage in the homes. Several of the families even had “promotion days” and ceremonies when parents promoted a child from menial tasks to advanced tasks, such as preparing all family meals. Although the routines varied depending on family size and age of the children, 100% of the parents attributed responsibility and leadership building to the daily chore routine. Twelve of the 15 families displayed formal chore charts, or schedules, showing parental expectations for children in following a set standard of daily chores.
In addition to doing their own laundry and cleaning their own rooms, children in the study also performed random chores in and outside the home. The mother of two middle-school aged children stated, “We don’t have a lot of children like many home school families, so they just know that each morning I will write down a few things for them to do like sweep the stairs or fold the laundry.” The 9-year-old son of the family reported:

Most of our chores we do whenever we wake up. Friday is our real clean the house day. Mom will just make us a list of what we need to do, and we will go down the list cleaning. It says stuff like sweep the stairs, blow off the porch.

This same 9-year-old boy told of another routine responsibility decision he made for himself, “I figured out that since we both need to do our own laundry, it was better if I did mine at the first of the week so my sister could do hers at the end of the week.”

Family chore time represented a time when the family worked in community, acting as citizens of the home. As citizens, children made beds they did not sleep in (such as for parents) and washed laundry they did not wear (such as for younger siblings). Clearly, unlike tourists who expect to be served, these children see themselves as citizens—paying for roads on which they will not drive and for services they will not use in a society.

Structuring family life including the children’s education around ministry and service opportunities is revolutionary in a world where children are seen as consumers of knowledge, fashion, and parents’ time. Although the families spent hundreds of hours with their children each month, the children felt more like citizens in their homes than tourists. Children contributed to the welfare of the family rather than merely taking from other family members.
“As soon as you become the big brother you know it is time to get to work. Nobody has to tell you when someone in the family needs your help. You have eyes,” explained an 11-year-old boy with four younger siblings.

“We all have our baby we get to take care of. It shows my mom and dad trust us and makes me feel that much better about myself,” beamed a 13-year-old girl in the middle of the birth order of eight siblings. Children as young as 3-years-old, in eight of the homes performed daily routines such as putting on their own clothes, making their beds, and putting away their pajamas. Moms trained children to perform these tasks, even in families with only two children.

“Responsibility builds leadership in you,” said the 11-year-old boy. This young boy had a part-time job on Saturday mornings unloading trucks and selling produce a local farmer’s market.

After recounting a disastrous day of child-care with his 18-month-old sister and 3-year-old brother, wiping marker off furniture, changing endless diapers, and cleaning up a whole gallon of spilled milk, another 11-year-old boy smiled and said, “You can’t get this kind of entertainment just anywhere!”

**Acquiring part-time jobs.** Working with home responsibilities and providing care for younger siblings encouraged parents with teenage children to allow these students to have part-time jobs. These jobs provide another avenue of leadership development. In her study, Montgomery (1989) reported that 80% of home schoolers were running their own business. She explained, “We can conclude that it is not IQ scores, socio-economic status, or grade point average that are most predictive of a student’s taking on leadership roles in adulthood, but rather his or her leadership experience while in school” (p. 3). Children in four of the families worked with mom or dad in a family business. One mother of a large family reported that her normally shy son was the best salesman they had. Another mother described a time when her 9-year-old
son and 10-year-old daughter took charge of babysitting five children under 3-years-old during a staff meeting of the family-owned Christian camp.

[My husband] asked [the children] and another little girl to take care of five little children under the age of three. So they brought the children down here [to a recreation area], and they had games, and they gave them snacks. I have full confidence that they could take care of them during the two-hour meeting and take care of whatever needed to happen. I knew they would come get us if there had been an emergency, but if there had not, I felt like they would take care of any problems that the little children might have. I see that as a great leadership skill.

Other part-time jobs included caring for horses, cleaning houses, helping with a farmer’s market, teaching piano lessons, tutoring reading, caring for others’ pets, raking leaves, and delivering newsletters. Montgomery (1989) listed part-time jobs as one opportunity where home school children demonstrated leadership skills without the plethora of extracurricular activities of public school children. Part-time jobs provided the opportunity for the students to work with and be influenced by other adults. Vygotsky (1978) explained that through the Zone of Proximal Development students would achieve more by working alongside those who possess more knowledge and ability that they do. By these young students working with adults they developed more adult skills. Increase of skills lead to self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Another benefit of working outside their homes so early included the opportunity for more adults to mentor and influence the students. Cohen, Blanc, Christman, Borwn, and Sims (1996) explained that adults working with students on joint projects produced a mentorship mentality in the participants. Mentorships played an essential role in developing sense-of-self in adolescents. Komives and Johnson (2009) noted the importance of adult mentors and those who would voluntarily work
with high school students.

Exposure to other adults also increased the opportunity for the students to broaden their own worldview, another characteristic of transformational leadership (Poutiatine, 2009). None of the children who held these jobs were old enough to have a driver’s license, so they often had to make provision for their own transportation as well. Three of the students walked a mile or more to their weekly jobs. Most of the students were saving their incomes for something in particular, such as a car. However, one 10-year-old responded, “Well, life is expensive. I need to have my own money, so I don’t have to ask mom and dad for everything.” Part-time jobs demonstrated the students' desire to mature and grow outside their own comfort zones. Displaying ability for delayed gratification, these students proved they were developing a “greater integrity of identity” (Poutiatine, 2009) and that their home schooling leadership development involved “all aspects of their lives” (Poutiatine, 2009).

**Encouraging challenges.** Vygotsky (1978) showed that challenges grew a child emotionally and mentally. This maturation enabled leadership development. Therefore, one of the parent interview questions dealt with the issuing of challenges by parents. Parents in the study challenged their children physically, mentally, and spiritually. During interviews, all parents responded that challenges presented good tools for leadership development. Parents cited scripture (James 1:2 quoted by HPI) and biographical examples of great men and women whose self-sacrificial acts encouraged children to accept challenges (George Mueller by DPI; Hudson Taylor by GPI). Parents supported their children in challenges dealing with academics and spiritual maturity. Overcoming difficulties built leadership and character in the children. Many of the parents urged their children to broaden their adolescent experiences through musical
performance or public speaking. One example of such a challenge ensued when one mother asked her children to participate in a book review project:

CPI: It’s a public library project . . . And they are really pushed outside their comfort zone for that class. They have to speak aloud. They have to read a book and have to stand to make a presentation. This is something they’re not totally comfortable with, but they do this every time . . . I see this as a significant challenge for them.

Referring to a class in which her oldest daughter had to make oral presentations defending her faith, another mother elaborated:

KPI: That class has been good, because it is challenging; and she has responded well. It was leadership development but also a spiritual development for her.

In two independent interviews, mothers described how they challenged their 5- to-7-year-old daughters attempting to climb tall rock walls or approach zip lines, which older peers had declined. These mothers described, in their separate interviews, how they challenged their daughters to be brave, put fear aside, and take the physical challenge. Additionally, one mom of three children challenged her 7-year-old to overcome her fear of the dark by telling her, “I really want you and God to talk about this in the night.” Three challenges parents recognized occurring in their homes included overcoming fear of the dark, dread of public speaking, and apprehension concerning physical tests. Parents identified children’s fears as hurdles to overcome. Parents regarded obstacles to development and maturity as mere challenges to hurdle in the race they were training their children to run.

Subsequently, in more than one situation, the student's extracurricular supervisor recounted how parents challenged their children without realizing that they were issuing a
challenge. For example, a counselor for a children’s program described how a family with children ages 8, 9, 11, and 13 made an annual public presentation promoting the family business. Although in their private interviews, all four of these children denied that their parents presented them with challenges, their outside supervisor reported otherwise. The supervisor submitted that the children overcame a significant challenge each year through their participatory work at that presentation event. Although the children were terrified to speak to unfamiliar people, they energetically described how much they enjoyed introducing themselves and the product to new customers. Neither the parents, nor the children categorized this story as a challenging opportunity; but the extracurricular supervisor immediately categorized the event in that manner.

In a homogenous culture, the citizens do not know if they are unique in relation to the rest of the world. Many of the students' friends came from other home schooling families. Additionally, the students reported that many of their extended families were home schooling as well. Without a contrasting frame of reference, these students and parents felt that their daily activities, including daily challenges, represented the norm. The act of issuing and fulfilling daily challenges builds leadership and self-efficacy. This act occurred as status quo within these homes in Central Texas.

**Taking risks.** Closely related to confronting challenges, taking risks builds confidence and thus promotes leadership in developing young leaders (Bass, 1990). I observed many risk-taking occurrences by the parents and students in the study. Additionally, the data provided substantive anecdotes of both parents and children taking risks in their daily lives. One mom, who described herself as, "not the risky challenging type," later agreed with her children’s extracurricular supervisor that she and her husband did take risks and did encourage risk taking in their children. She concurred that her children’s willingness to help dad leave one job to start
his own company, encourage mom to go back to school, and give up their home if necessary to
benefit the family as a whole, indeed portrayed risk taking.

One large family reveled in taking risks. Their 11-year-old, fourth-born daughter spent
six weeks in Peru on a mission trip with a mission organization in 2012. This young girl raised
almost $3,000 to support this risky endeavor. When interviewed the mother of the young
missionary stated:

I told her, you will be homesick, you will cry in your pillow. You might get sick and
have to let someone else to care for you. Is that a risk you are willing to take? It is a
tough thing for a mom of a young girl, but I did it and I know she will be so glad she did
it.

Another family also sent their daughter on a three-month mission trip to Bulgaria when
she was 14-years-old with similar instructions. However, these two families and others
embraced opportunities to take risks while at home because of the inherent benefits in building
leadership, independence, and trust in God. One young mother of a child with physical
disabilities, explained:

We take risks when we go new places. Strangers may stare or say something hurtful. We
just have to get out there and do it. We are teaching her funny responses and to use her
sense of humor to outweigh the risks.

Although every day is a risk for many families, these families approached risk taking as
an enjoyable challenge, not in a fool-hearty manner but with excitement about the possibilities.
Most did not display fear about the outcomes of these risk-taking adventures but believed that
should an unfavorable outcome occur they could handle it.
Involving fathers. “We want our kids to be leaders and not just wait for life to happen,” one dad explained in response to my inquiry concerning his goal for home schooling his six children. Maintaining the primary influence over their children’s lives emerged as a recurring theme throughout the parent interviews. “I think that we are both involved equally in her education and that is revolutionary,” commented one mom concerning the responsibilities of their home schooled daughter. One dad, home schooled during his own middle school and high school years, equated his life calling with sustaining a primary influence over his daughters’ lives. Because of this desire to influence their children, several fathers had changed professions or switched schedules to be at home during the day, with the intention of spending more time with their children.

“This wouldn’t work if we had a traditional schedule,” explained one mother when describing her husband’s arrangement of sleeping during the morning hours, because of irregular law-enforcement schedules, in order to participate in lunch and afternoon activities with his daughters. Likewise, another mom of young children reported her husband made plans and goals for their home: “So whenever we go out for coffee or something a lot of times, we will go over our plans and goals.” Nine of the mothers confirmed that an involved father played a significant role in making the schedule of the home more flexible and the curriculum of leadership more intentional.

“I guess I have been more instrumental with her [referring to his wife] input . . . in putting the curriculum together,” stated a fireman who schedules time off to transport his children to music lessons, as well as speech and debate clubs.
It is so hard for our kids . . . when you get into like . . . like with family devotions . . . I have a book I am going through with [the oldest son] and one with [the oldest daughter]; and pretty soon, I will start with [the second-born son].

He continued by saying that he intentionally chose curriculum with “the end game in mind. We want to teach them the gospel. In a sense, we see everything is the gospel,” he acknowledged. His wife recounted how their family talks focused on their children “standing alone” if necessary in order to resist the desire to “be one of the crowd but [rather, leading] the crowd by their example.” Fathers specified that conversations about the qualities of leadership, needs for leadership, and Christian virtues distinguished the discussions they conducted with their children during these extended times of involvement.

**Summary.** The structure for freedom, including chore charts and child-care expectations, allowed more time for parents to work with children, even in large families. All environments were neat, clean, and well stocked with school materials. However, the chore duties and sibling-watching emphasis did not seem to focus on creating a spotless home or securing more free time for mom, but rather seemed intentionally to provide additional time for individuals to pursue personal goals or family recreation. Most families adhered to a similar daily schedule, although the times of rising and resting seemed to revolve around the fathers' schedule. This flexible structure allowed for more interaction by the fathers in the study. Fathers spent this time training their children in virtue, character, and godly behavior; all qualities that built leadership through character development (Poutiatine, 2009). Clearly, families were constructing a personalized framework to build leadership into their own homes. This structure, built for more family and individual freedom, included doing chores, taking risks, issuing challenges, securing part-time
jobs, and involving fathers. These concepts provided solid walls supporting a sturdy framework for leadership development.

**Research Question 2**

What, if anything, in this home school experience appeared revolutionary in nature (Anderson & Anderson, 2010; Freire, 1970/2010)?

BPI: I just have nothing to compare it to . . . I thought everyone did this.

FPI: I came home from [an event] and could not believe my husband did not make the kids clean the kitchen. He always says they are so little, but they do it for me every day without complaining.

KPI: I wanted more freedom for my children than I ever had. I wanted a change.

These are just three of the many statements that revealed how home schooling families are revolutionary, in their thoughts, actions, and expectations, even though sometimes they do not realize it. Although only five classified their home and life in such an innovative way, revolutionary acts and attitudes prevailed in each of the 15 homes. Parents gave children as young as 3-years-old daily choices and responsibilities in the home. Children as young as 9-years directed their own education and study time. Many of the children had gone on extensive foreign mission trips without their parents, for as long as 14 weeks. Most families exhibited much more freedom in school schedules, free time events, and choice of extracurricular activities than would be afforded them if the child were in a structured school system. Families exemplified revolutionary thoughts and actions in three major areas: (a) life of service emphasis; (b) responsible children; (c) second order change—which can be defined as an unexpected change that occurred from another initial decision—in this case the initial decision was to home school.
**Not allowing academics to negate a life of service.** Most parents in the study viewed academics and a life of service as a balance beam on which the whole family walked each week. All mentioned at least one form of service project they participated in each week. However, none were willing to put academic excellence aside for service projects.

KPI: My parents trained me for ministry, and I am training mine for opportunities in the world.

HPI: We are doing more than academics in home schooling.

Nine parents responded that their home school was structured to place equal focus on academics and service or ministry projects. One 15-year-old female student made reference to her two previous 14-week mission trips and gave her plans to take another extended mission trip before her graduation from high school (May 2013). Although in some states, she was too young to own a driver’s license, this young woman served orphans on three continents before going to college. Her mother explained the philosophy of home schooling in her family:

HPI: Learning to minister to others, learning to serve other [people, that was our] home schooling, and that is what we have passed on to our kids. They are still experiencing that through my mom and dad, through [service to senior citizens] and their other mission projects.

Having been reared as a missionary child, another mom considered the summer months of ministry with equivalent importance as those in the academic year. When asked if her children ever did school in the summer she responded, “I never wanted to tie up our summer and make it just like the school year. We go on family mission trips, visit relatives, and do some summer camps.” In addition, their family assists in an after-school tutoring program, helping non-English speaking students from low socio-economic environments with school subjects, free
of charge. This mom found this service program while searching for other ministry opportunities for her children:

OPI: It’s our responsibility I feel. I can’t wait for them to volunteer, or look and find things themselves. I have to go look for them. I find those opportunities because they are not always going to be, you know, tuned into that.

Many Christian parents commit to service projects with their school-aged children. However, these parents focused on service and ministry projects, not as an "add-on" to the academic curriculum but as a dual focus in their home. This is revolutionary thinking in the day of high stakes testing for those students enrolled in traditional public school settings.

GPI: We have time to take meals to people, have people over to minister to them over dinner, make cards and deliver them to sick neighbors. This is why we are homeschooling.

Parents unanimously agreed that academics were very important. No interviewed parents diminished the need for academic pursuit, and all acknowledged that learning took effort.

LPI: You don’t learn your multiplication facts through osmosis. That takes work.

However, the families’ approaches to academics varied greatly and often appeared revolutionary. According to one dad, education should emphasize skill over data:

I think of education as there is knowledge and there are skills . . . skills such as math is a skill; communicating is a skill; reading is a skill . . . I feel we can teach the skills then the knowledge will come. I think the greater focus for us is on the skill part.

His family’s skills include speech, debate, musicianship, sports, and mechanical crafts; all of which they used in Christian service projects each week. Most parents wanted their children to have the opportunity to attend college, however, neither parents, nor children mentioned the goal of attending a particular university or school of higher learning. Neither
parents, nor children mentioned a college scholarship as a goal. The discussion of attending
college reoccurred in the data collection of research question four, and can be read below.

**Responsibility for life decisions.** In a home with 10 children present, children engaged
in completing schoolwork, watching younger siblings, preparing meals, doing laundry, and
practicing instruments. Children made their own schedules for the day which included
schoolwork, playtime, helping with the baby, and chores. Sisters took the baby to mom when the
baby became too fussy or needed feeding. The children proved that they could self-mange and
assumed responsibility for the order of the home by completing their own school and chore
duties.

Likewise, in another home, five children all found their favorite places to do their
schoolwork and proceeded to complete assignments. Some of the children sat on the floor, while
another went to mom’s bedroom and piled her schoolbooks on mom’s large bed. Two older
children went to a room with two desks and proceeded to work independently. The oldest
daughter explained that planned service projects in the afternoon motivated the family's diligence
on that particular morning. In five other homes, after brief instruction from mom, students went
to their own rooms, or found a quiet location in the family room to school at their own paces.
These students exhibited an ability to govern and monitor their own work with the goal of
completing tasks they had set for themselves. Education represented a responsible decision with
consequential significance for life. These children appeared to believe that their education was
their responsibility, not the responsibility of their parents.

CPI: When I get up at 7 a.m., [my daughter] is usually already up doing her math so she
can get ahead or so she can go play earlier.

EPI: They have to be responsible for their own decisions. They have to own it.
The mother of four boys saw owning their own education as vital. “Their older brother did not [take responsibility for his actions and education], and he tells his brothers not to do what he has done. He has thrown these years away.” When I inquired about choices her sons, ages nine and 11, made each week, the mother-of-four explained one of the family’s weekly routines. Every Monday, she took the two youngest boys to the library where they checked out 30 books. Of these books, three or four books signified schoolwork, and had to relate to a topic prescribed by mother. All other books characterized pleasure reading; the only stipulation from mom was that the books remain consistent with, or exceed, their own reading level. Both avid readers, the boys explained how they enjoyed learning a variety of skills and subjects each week, as well as reading classic literature. Active involvement in home-remodeling projects with their father accompanied the skills and knowledge acquired from the library books. In addition, the boys took piano from their grandmother and enjoyed many outdoor activities with their grandfather. Clearly enjoying their fully orbited education, the boys exhibited concurrent responsibility in making real-life decisions concerning their education and daily life.

In nine of the homes, children 9-years-old and older completed schoolwork on their own with little or no involvement from a parent. Parents had provided scope and sequence material, lesson plans, or weekly schedules for the children. The children placed completed (and sometimes graded) work in designated locations for parents to view. Although, children in public and private schools accomplish work independently, these home schooled students moved seamlessly from one subject to another, helping younger siblings if needed, without distraction or interruption throughout the day.

Additionally, students made decisions about which extracurricular activities to pursue and how to pioneer involvement; obviously, they did not attend a public school where these
activities were provided but programmed. One 15-year-old girl detailed her journey to take tap
dance lessons. Her parents assigned her the job to find the dance studio, register for classes, pay
for the classes, buy her costumes and shoes, and find transportation to the lessons, if she wished
to attend. This endeavor initiated a part-time job search so she could pay for the lessons.
Consequently, she and her sister began cleaning a house for a family friend one day per week.

This same girl, with a recognizable ability to self-evaluate and govern, approached her
parents when her method of learning Spanish proved inadequate. Her parents again told her to
find a way to provide an alternative. She found a class at a local community college and then
went through the process of registering for classes, buying materials, and seeking transportation
to the class. Concerning this teen-aged girl, a supervisor in an after-school Bible club remarked,
“She is far more responsible than other children her age.”

Responsibility favorably characterized all students in this study. Outside supervisors
repeatedly noted these home schooled students were more mature and responsible than any of
their peers. A supervisor in a Bible club told the story of courage and maturity exhibited by a
13-year-old girl in the study. The supervisor observed that the girl chose to stay with adults
during a camp-out rather than participate with younger girls in an inappropriate activity. The
supervisor observed and expounded on this girl's integrity on two separate occasions.

Repeatedly, parents allowed their children to choose extracurricular opportunities from a
wide range of options. Children included scouting, sports, music lessons, theater, debate, and
dance lessons as just a few of the beneficial choices they had the opportunity to pursue. In some
cases, mom and dad stipulated on decision-making, such as “only one sport per semester;” but on
the whole, parents set few limitations. Such decision-making clearly made consequential impact
on the entire family since all the opportunities required a commitment of time and money. A few
families envisioned goals for their children, such as, “we want all our children to play an instrument;” but most left these choices completely up to the children. This attitude demonstrated significant trust placed in the children by the parents. Spending all day with their children also gave parents insight for assessing their children's motivation for choosing particular activities. Not all choices ended well. One mom admitted that she allowed her young son to play a sport, which she knew, "will only last one season." However, she allowed the boy to make that choice and learn from his decision. Trust in the decision to allow the 9-year-old son to take this responsibility demonstrated the mother's willingness to allow her son to fail: also seen as a leadership building skill (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994).

Students also made decisions concerning mission trips and mission opportunities. Several of the students in the study independently earned money for mission projects that interested them. Two of the girls in the study chose to attend mission trips on other continents and earned their own support.

Many life decisions were made entirely by the children, not in a nonchalant manner, but as an extension of the parents’ trust in the individual. One mother’s remarks concerning what her vision was for her family, supported the revolutionary nature of home schooling and the extent of the family’s commitment:

In some ways I shy away from the idea of the family legacy. I don’t have a view of my family as this perfect family picture with all of us together all the time. I don’t have a picture that, at 80-years-old, I’ll have all of these grandkids wrapped around me; and we’ll all be together in a nice and peaceful life. Although, that would be a wonderful thing, I want to know that someday I’ll be standing before The Throne in heaven, and I will see my children there, even if I haven’t seen them in 20 years. And I will be able to
say, ‘You fought the good fight [as if looking in the direction of one child] . . . and you fought the good fight [as if looking in the direction of another child] . . . and you fought the good fight [as if looking in the direction of another child].’ And I may not have had my hands in your life but you had your hand in the Lord’s hand, and now we have all met back together in heaven.

This mother’s oldest child was 13-years-old and her youngest was six months at the time of the interview. Allowing her children to make life decisions and trusting how those decisions affected the children, trusting their future to their own decisions—these actions revolutionize culture. Although this mother articulated the limitlessness of her trust in her children's responsibility, most parents shared this commitment.

**Second order change.** Second order change can be defined as performing a task or holding an idea significantly or fundamentally different from the past; second order change is viewed as irreversible: once you begin, it is impossible to return to previous habit (Change, 2011). Although several families stated that they began homeschooling for academic reasons, they did not realize that the decision would change their entire lifestyles. Five parents related how dads had changed jobs or locations to be more available to their family after the home school experience began. When discussing her husband’s decision in this area, Mrs. J expounded,

JPI: He realized that spending eight-hours per day away from us is not instilling what he wants in his kids. This is a commitment to a way of life, not just an academic decision.

Another young mom stated, “I don’t think I could pull this off in another lifestyle,” referring to a labor-intensive dairy-free, gluten-free diet she was attempting for her five small children. In favor of increased home schooling productivity for her children, the young mother
chose to improve the diet of her family. Since their lifestyle of home schooling enabled her to provide a menu of home-cooked and home-prepared foods, the children benefitted from a foundational physiological change. This change would not be possible, if they children were away from home for morning and afternoon snacks and lunch. The decision to educate at home facilitated this secondary healthy lifestyle change. Healthy eating signified as a second-order change for this, and three other families in the study.

Describing the second-order change in her home, another mother elucidated, “I am home schooling because I don’t want good enough . . . For them to reach their full potential takes a lot of input. So they are talking about it, they are living it, they are breathing it.” Her comments reflected her decision to home school with a wholehearted commitment of time, not a regulated number of hours exacted by traditional schooling. This commitment involved her entire life. The mother of 10 committed to home educate, believing that she would pursue this decision for six to eight hours per day, only to realize that the experience was pervasive and affected every hour of her day.

In the participating families of this study, home schooling permeated all aspects of living. More than merely a form of education, this decision penetrated all levels of life. “I think my husband just realized that this is the only way we can really raise our own children,” explained Mrs. B.

Several families admitted that they anticipated "bringing school into our living room" (BPI). However, after a few months of educating in the home, the parents found that their own standards of academic success and character development had evolved. The parents saw the potential for more knowledge and better character and leadership development. When this revelation occurred, the parents began creating an entire new culture in their homes. Previously,
one family had anticipated a home schooling environment in which the children merely completed tasks in the easiest method and then returned to playtime. However, when the actual work of schooling occurred, this family saw the opportunity for character training more than completing assignments. In discussing actions to take if students grumbled about how long schoolwork could take, Mr. K enthusiastically declared, “I tell them we are going to keep [working at sanctification] until Christ is formed in us . . . constantly chiseling away in us. It is just teaching, emphasizing that, and praying.”

Families reported changes in vacation schedules, ministry opportunities, eating habits, ecological commitments, family duties, birthing location choices, exercise routines, and family travel as a few of the new lifestyle changes after the decision to home school occurred. Second order change typified each home in this study; however, every second-order change appeared unique to the individual family.

**Summary.** When asked if she saw her home as revolutionary, Mrs. H responded affirmatively:

Not like my mother who had to home school with the shades down; but we are revolutionary. The way we do things here at home is completely differently from the way they do that very same task at school. No one prepared the way for them to learn. They have to get it on their own. No one cooks their meals and puts it on a tray. They all have to work together on that. They have to know when to stop school and start working on lunch. It is not like anything else.

Whether the families acknowledged their revolutionary lifestyle or not, the evidence revealed a distinction in every home. Culture changing revolutions begin in small action steps camouflaged as simple differences in daily activities. These activities become habits and these
habits build the character traits and leadership development on which these students grow. Operating much like a home air purification system, unseen elements changed the atmosphere in the homes. These intangible differences occurred each day in these homes, setting the tone and permeating the surroundings of the family. The unique atmosphere in each home highlighted many common features such as independent learners leading lives of service, young decision-makers working independently, and second-order changes benefitting the entire family. These characteristics epitomized revolutionary changes in the homes, although many of the families described these changes as mere consequences of their home schooling endeavor. Second-order changes appeared as ordinary decisions within the homes, however, these changes could have revolutionary results in another generation.

**Research Question 3:**

As a significant characteristic of transformational leadership, how did the activities in the home school transform worldview (Poutiatine, 2009)?

**Worldview equals leadership development.** Worldview is a significant characteristic but not synonymous with transformational leadership in all areas of research. However, many parents in the study equated the development of worldview with the development of leadership characteristics. In a majority of interviews these two terms because interchangeable among the participants. This assimilation of the term occurred as parents, students, and supervisors discussed leadership behaviors and attitudes that ran counter-culture to the current population group. Worldview, the sum of thoughts and perspectives on one’s culture (Schaeffer, 1976) has been revolutionized through day-to-day life in a transformative environment (Montgomery, 1989). Therefore, although transformational leadership does not equate with worldview transformation, transformational leadership does promote a transformation in worldview.
The parents of the second-generational home schooled students shared their worldviews as they recounted acts challenging the status quo (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). "I am constantly telling them if they have problems in life, they have a problem with the gospel. Our problems are not out there but in here (points at his heart),” explicated Mr. K. This sentiment exemplifies what most parents in the study stated about their goals in homeschooling. Worldview training and leadership development were synonymous with most parents interviewed. Parents believed that the transforming worldview would exercise itself in the current culture through the leadership, which was developing in the home.

Worldview teaching infiltrated my conversations with the children, and interviews with the parents. Parents also utilized outside authorities and influencers to support the family's worldview positions. Parents transported their children to hear respected speakers on topics such as abortion rights, same sex marriage, gun control, aid to the poor, and the war on terrorism. They also participated in events that helped build citizenship and patriotism. All other activities, academic, sports, and ministry, appeared to rest on the foundation of worldview development. Poutiatine (2009) stated that transformational leadership was a broadening of worldview. In these families, parents sought to deepen, not necessarily widen, the worldview perspectives presented to the children. Some diversity training and alternative opinions on traditional values became part of the worldview training in these families. However, for the most part an indoctrination of worldview, rather than broadening of worldview was present. It should be noted that 100% of the parents in the study identified themselves as Christians. This identification meant that the term worldview translated Christian worldview. In most educational literature, broadening of worldview would mean an acceptance of, or an embracing of, other cultures and belief systems. The students understood their own Christian worldview,
but were not open to embrace the religious belief system of others. Regardless of this apparent inconsistency in contrast to educational literature, children emerged as confident leaders in the social settings where worldview was discussed.

In their personal interviews, parents, students, and observers spoke of personal worldview and how their worldview had expanded. Students developed a broadened worldview, or deepened their current worldview, through four activities: (a) discussing worldview, (b) observing others model, (c) attending activities, and (d) building community. These topics are all discussed in this section.

Demonstrating a broadening of worldview, students displayed two attitudes consistent with expansion of a broadening worldview. These attitudes demonstrating a broad expansion of worldview were selflessness and a greater integrity of identity. Poutiatine (2009) refers to behaviors of selflessness and greater integrity of identity as second order change. Both attitudes are consistent with diversity and broadening of worldview not typically found in adolescent students.

**Discussing worldview.** Eight families reported an intentional focus on teaching worldview. The focus on worldview occurred during discussions of literature, table talk around a meal, Bible study discussions, and current event talks. The mothers of the G, L, and N families all emphasized that they were “training their children for life.” Similarly, Mr. K spelled out a purposeful weekly worldview reading schedule with his two oldest children. Following a time of focused reading, Mr. K engaged in lively discussions with these teen students.

“Think of a bigger picture,” Mrs. D reminded her children when “more occurred than visible to the naked eye.” She suggested that her classical curriculum guided her focus on
utilizing worldview as a broader way to view topics of study. Three other moms viewed their selected curriculum as an avenue to enlarge worldview.

Most parents viewed teaching worldview as a discipleship method with their children. “We regularly put Christ in front of them and ask them to relate to the situation as He would. We put God in everything. We want to identify our worldview in all activities,” retold one mother of five children. Identifying the family's worldview, defining the terms of belief, culture, and value occupied large amounts of this family's day. Children articulated their own ideas about these subjects and were expected to listen and participate. "You can't just go to sleep in the car because Dad is going to ask you what you think about what the guy on the radio is saying. You can't fake him out,” explained an 8-year-old boy.

“We talk about what this person is doing, and why [he is doing it]. We talk about what [the children] think that means,” answered Mrs. E when asked how she implemented worldview training. Likewise, Mrs. F included worldview training while teaching leadership and cultural change. Explaining why she followed her mother’s leading in teaching worldview, she said, “Every one of her eight kids [as adults] wants to serve [Christ] with [his or her] whole life.” As parents focused on worldview in their children’s lives, they assessed progress in spiritual and emotional development, as well. Parents in the study communicated their belief that the worldview training directly correlated to leadership development in their children. Worldview training appeared to be the academic or mental knowledge for the practical expression in the children's behavior. Character training could never be disassociated from worldview training. In this study, parents could not disenfranchise worldview or leadership training from character development, since character development was anticipated as the evidence of the worldview training. Often these terms and ideas were intertwined.
Repeatedly, parents expressed that it was not enough for their children to know correct academic answers or behave well in public. Parents communicated they desired their children to exhibit a deeper commitment to true morals and ethics. Parents expressed that adherence to an inner motivation outlined worldview development. For example, speaking of her seven-year-old son’s stellar public behavior, Mrs. L revealed, “He is going to have to learn that you can’t just keep the rules all the time. You have to depend on the Spirit.”

Focusing on worldview provided parents a lens, which they used to view the transformation in their children’s lives. Daily discussions concerning literature, talks about current events, explaining Bible stories, and engaging in family situations all centered on producing these leadership skills and impacting worldview in the study’s families.

**Observing others modeling leadership.** As a significant characteristic of leadership development, families gave examples of how they modeled worldview understanding and leadership for their children. Contrary to a “don’t do what I do—do what I say” attitude, these parents made a concerted effort to model leadership that included a desire to study and a willingness to serve others. Students in these homes saw their parents willingly sacrifice for the family, as well as study for college degrees proving that the transformational leadership process continues into adulthood. Leadership development included mental, spiritual, and emotional growth in these families. The parents demonstrated willingness to grow in all these areas and the students benefitted from this modeling.

As parents modeled leadership, the older children in the homes took note and followed in the example of their parents. Consequently, young children acknowledged this modeled behavior. “I watch [my older sisters]. I see them as leaders,” evaluated the third born daughter in the H family. Mrs. G encouraged her seven-year-old daughter to cook, clean, and do laundry
by having the 5-year-old do these tasks as a mother-daughter team effort. During observation, I listened as Mrs. G repeatedly said, “Do it with me, now.” Home schooling allowed the parents to work alongside their children, providing more opportunities for parents to model leadership behaviors for the children.

Modeling godly, unselfish, worldview-transforming behavior, the L family, focused on leadership. Some of the quotes from their interviews and surveys included:

LPI: Mr. L is especially good about explaining what he is doing and why he is doing it. That way he is modeling how to do something [while] the kids [watch].

LC4I: I follow Jesus and [the five-year-old sister] follows me.

LSI: She is always teaching others. Her sisters are great students of their big sister’s modeling.

LC3I: I always see Mommy reading. I think she likes to read. I hope someday I will like to read as much as she does.

LPI: I want them to see me reading. Every night before I lay my head on the pillow I try to read a little, even if it is just a few lines before my eyes close.

Likewise, other moms and dads wanted to model positive behavior for their children.

I hope my children are seeing positive things. I hope they see, um, by my, my looking for opportunities for us to serve as a family, um and for them to serve. I hope I’m modeling that people matter; you know, they matter to God, and they should matter to His children, and we should be reaching out and serving . . . and uh, so we can make a difference, and we can be salt and light (OPI).
Mrs. D also said she modeled “always learning” by conscientiously having a book in her hand. Mr. and Mrs. A, Mrs. B, Mr. G all model reading, studying, and preparing for tests while home schooling since they pursue bachelors’ or advanced degrees in graduate school.

API: I am working so hard on this degree. I want to transfer that [work ethic] to her.

All saw the positive benefits of doing homework late in the evening as a family. Mrs. C felt filling out forms to complete their family’s adoption process modeled diligence and work ethic. She sincerely believed this transferred to the children’s positive attitude toward their schooling.

In addition to modeling academic pursuits, Mrs. G felt the importance of modeling service to her young daughter. “She sees us helping which allows us to show God’s love to people in need.” Mrs. C and Mrs. I both used modeling as the method to transfer a broader worldview to their children. These parents gave illustrations of children accompanying them on ministry and service opportunities in order for the children to see the adults working hard on projects.

CPI: I want them to see that I am cheerfully working at home. So, I’m always moving around in the morning making breakfast, cleaning the kitchen, working with them at their school.

Parents reiterated how modeling taught their children more than just skills but attitudes toward work, as well.

DPI: The kids see me evaluating teachers at our home school program. They [observe] that I maintain a standard of excellence even for adults.

HPI: It is through what daddy does and though what I do; they want to emulate that. It is through their whole home life.
In contrast, this mom, Mrs. H described what she saw in the home of non-homeschooling families as she led a bible study for college students. Often, when she interacted with the parents of those students, she became distraught about the parents’ lack of transferring leadership and worldview to their children. Obviously, Mrs. H believed the development and transfer of leadership needed to happen early in life, not in middle age:

HPI: They seem to be putting off having their children grow up and become leaders. By the time they are in middle life, they are handing off their leadership to the next generation. It doesn’t work that way.

Transformational leadership distinguishes itself by the focus on development of others, as well as accomplishing a task. Transformational leadership was developed and transferred in these homes as parents focused on personal development in others. Modeling correct leadership with his children, one dad explained,

KPI: In a sense, leadership is really learning how to get along with others and motivating someone to do something, not for your end, but for their highest good.

In addition, students picked up on the art of modeling and watched older brothers and sisters for instruction in social and physical skills. The K family's teenaged children act as leaders in the home, helping Mom get younger children prepared to go to extracurricular activities. Children watch older siblings for cues to social behavior:

DC2I: I just watch [my big brother] so I can do it just like him.

Living, studying, working together in proximity for the majority of the day, the families are continually modeling for everyone else in the family how to study diligently, work heartily, serve unselfishly, and think deeply. This lifestyle provided an opportunity for moment-by-moment modeling of leadership and worldview development. Clearly, in a family, disputes and
disruptions emerge. However, an expectation of leadership and cooperation materialized in every home. Worldview development, as a significant characteristic of leadership development, existed as more than an idea: it presented as a lifestyle everyone modeled.

**Attending activities.** All of the parents in the study attended a church where the pastor and parishioners expected life changes, according to the students' interviews. Hearing a different voice built a stronger worldview foundation in the students because the outside voices reinforced values and principles that children heard at home or opened discussion concerning specific aspects of their worldview.

DPI: They hear their Sunday school teacher, the preacher, their [children’s leader] call them to a higher way of following Christ. We can talk about not just what they hear us saying, but what they hear others tell them, as well.

In addition to attending churches where groups question and discuss worldview attitudes, seven of the families also attended political or community service events on a regular basis. During these events, speakers expressed a need for citizenship and dedication to serving others. I attended these events with families and observed the students participating, including carrying the flag for the flag ceremonies at two of the events.

Students developed a feeling of partnership with the citizenry. Hearing these speakers and discussing issues such as respect for the flag and the Affordable Care Act gave students a greater sense of the world around them. During my observations, four of the students participated in civic ceremonies at American Heritage Girls and Boys Scouts. Eight of the students participated in a local candidate’s political campaign after which ensued richer, humanitarian, less self-focused conversations among the students. Conversations with the students were richer and deeper following these engagements. Focusing attention on the world
in which the students lived exposed the children to broader ideas and similar, but different cultures. Understanding that the students lived in a broader and more diverse community than merely their family, aided in augmenting their worldview. Enlarged worldview emerged as a significant characteristic of leadership development as a consequence of these activities aiding in the growth of leadership knowledge and skill. Although the activities and discussions were not contrary to their parents, new insights and perspectives were offered which allowed the students to engage with other points-of-view.

**Building the community.** “So are you good at making friends?” I asked a five-year-old in one family.

“Yes, I am . . . and I have tons of friends!” she affirmed.

Home schooling families placed a high value on community. “I see cooperation as a virtue,” pointed out a 15-year-old girl. Desiring to be a commercial chef, she spent much time in the kitchen where she practiced cooperation. In this large family, other members said they built cooperation on the sports fields. However, this young chef reported that the only sport she was interested in playing was family baseball. “I love it because we laugh so much while playing!”

The primary relationships occurred in the home; most families perceived their family solidarity as unique compared to other forms of education.

**OPI:** What I see, what I really cherish, is the fact that we’re able to do more as a family.

However, just because the families held intimate relationships, their relationships demonstrated variety and not exclusivity. As opposed to the myth that home schoolers exhibit anti-social behavior, all the families in the study reported close and meaningful friendships with others from their churches, support groups, neighborhoods, and extracurricular activities. The bonds of community even extended to children that the study's home school students babysat.
One supervisor added comments to his survey regarding his experience with two of the students baby-sitting his younger children:

CSI: All of our children love [the home school students] because they spend genuine time with our kids. They are not just cordial in general, but actively play with our kids . . . [they] value and esteem them.

Living in community described the lifestyle and worldview of the families. They described their relationships with their neighbors, friends, and church family as community environments:

Our view of church . . . you are going to live in community. That is what church is meant to be. Life is about learning to live in the community with other believers . . . just being up here and thinking . . . just being here . . . different ages and different environments you have to put up with...it’s necessary.

Families presented the idea of community building as significant in their church and neighborhood, but also a growing sense of obligation to the large community. Seven families actively participated in civic organizations. Serving the community through various organizations, several of the children raised money to help local children with physical needs. The love of the community extended beyond their local friends. Ten of the families told stories of their students raising money for service projects sponsored by mission organizations that benefited a global community. When their friends moved to a foreign country as missionaries, one family spoke excitedly about their regular Skype dates to stay in touch. Cotillions, study groups, playgroups, Bible studies, and park outings, contributed to the families' goal of community building. Most of the parents perceived that rearing their own children and providing for their children’s education constituted the minimal investment a parent should make
toward service to their community. When asked why they sensed a need to serve their community while home educating their own children I received interesting responses all similar to this one:

FPI: We live to serve others. That is the way we were raised, and that is the way I am raising my children.

In addition to the activities that built worldview development, a significant characteristic of leadership growth, two attitudes emerged which identified that worldview development was taking place: selflessness and greater integrity of identity. Both of these attitudes can be viewed as a move toward maturity in the individual—a development toward wholeness (Poutiatine, 2009).

**Selflessness.** “I don’t want somebody to tell me I should care about [him or her]. I just want to see what somebody needs and take care of that,” revealed a 10-year-old boy during our interview.

“When they are eating lunch, I just sneak in the girls’ room and clean it up for them,” confessed a 14-year-old girl while explaining the daily chores in her home, which included every child cleaning her own room.

“So, while I was cleaning up my room, I cleaned up [little sister]’s room too,” reported a very proud 5-year-old girl.

I heard stories from children as young as 4-years-old who demonstrated empathy when someone felt hurt or left out. Some children told tales of having given up special treats and computer playtime without hope for reward for the sake of others. “We could just do what she wants to do, and I would be happy with her,” an unselfish 7-year-old told me when asked about resolving a conflict over what game to play with a friend. This same child gave up her right to
select the movie for family night (a coveted privilege) because her choice would upset her brother. One 5-year-old boy declined his turn at an I-pad game because he enjoyed his sister's playing so much. A few minutes later, the 4-year-old sister turned to the brother and said, “Here, your turn for fun,” without coaxing from an adult.

“The little people [referring to his younger brothers and sisters] just need help sometimes. So, you just help them a little bit,” one 10-year-old boy explained. Selflessness became an expectation for these families, and when someone demonstrates selfishness, consequences occurred.

“Sometimes we don’t want [a cousin] to play with us . . . we like her to play with us when she cares for others; but sometimes she doesn’t care for others, and we can’t play with her,” said the 11-year-old girl. Another 11-year-old girl sacrificed her free time to raise money for a Haitian orphan camp.

All parents desire the character trait of selflessness in their children. However, a pervasive environment of selflessness characterized the household. Just as familiar sights on a well-traveled freeway become invisible to the daily traveller, so selflessness has become invisible to the parents in these homes. The parents seldom described their children as selfless, but could recount the exact instances when a child demonstrated selfishness, because of their rarity. Surprisingly, the children recognized the unselfishness of their siblings. One young girl recognized magnanimity in her 13-year-old sister.

CC5I: [My older sister] is teaching me to swim. She would drown herself before she would let me drown.

**Greater integrity of identity.** Poutiatine (2009) reported that transformational leadership's component, integrity of identity, involved a move toward wholeness by an
individual. In the home school family, this move toward wholeness included spiritual, physical, emotional, and mental development. Parents and supervisors recognized this move toward wholeness, or greater integrity of identity, in many of the students. Older children acted as leaders in the home helping younger siblings with problems they had, but also modeling a sense of responsibility for their own work and behavior. I observed one young teen male making cookies for an extracurricular event without his mother asking him to do so. On another occasion, I saw a young man pack the car with water bottles and diapers for the family to use at an activity without the mother even knowing he was engaged in this act. Adolescent students felt proud of their ability to discern household needs without being told. They communicated that they received a sense of accomplishment and self-discipline when they fulfilled these tasks.

CSI: He is head-and-shoulders above the other kids his age in terms of spiritual maturity. He respects authority, is kind to others, has a higher biblical literacy level, and is overall just more stable.

CPI: Little children flocked to her. We can always see the image of her quickly organizing a game for them to play . . . these are some of the ways she keeps them occupied and happy.

KPI: I have to make sure she is willing to stand alone. Most importantly I want her stand up for something [she] believes in!

Growth toward greater integrity of identity includes distinguishing traits that build integrity. When interviewed, the students listed skills such as honesty, kindness, attentiveness, listening, encouragement, communication, and service as necessary in a leader. Children in the study repeatedly defined leadership as a positive trait they wanted to develop. Identifying with
these characteristics in their own lives showed that the students desired to develop a greater integrity of identity.

DC3I: I try hard to be a leader.

CC1I: I think it is exciting to be a leader.

HC2I: I am not the one to come up with a plan. That would be [my sister].

HC1I: I see myself as the kind of leader that just puts everyone in his or her right place, kinda like a puzzle. Everyone needs to feel like they fit.

DC1I: I am not there yet, but I expect to be a leader. I am learning that.

IC1I: If I am in a group and no one steps up, I will step up and lay out a plan. It comes natural now.

FPI: Sometimes I have to mediate but they are learning to self-govern.

**Summary.** Although they began their home schooling experience for educational reasons, one family communicated their worldview transformation.

NPI: It is a lifestyle with us now . . . My husband tells me all the time that if he had to get three jobs so I could home school the kids, he would do it.

Clearly, the activities in the home school transformed worldview for the student, as well as the parent. Parents confirmed they could never return their children to traditional school, because they would miss the lifestyle that afforded them the opportunity to focus on worldview. Regardless of why they began home schooling, all the parents saw home schooling as a way of life that transferred values, character, and leadership, while expanding their own Christian worldview.

JPI: Home education is so much a part about being set apart in your goals and motivations.
Worldview expansion, a distinct component of transformational leadership, lay at the foundation of the home schooling experience for these first-generational home schooling parents and their second-generational home schooling students. With a solid foundation in worldview development, the activities, discussions, and modeling continued to build a structure of leadership development.

**Research Question 4:**

Substantiating a determination to model the way, how did first-generational home schoolers compare their experience to the experience they are providing their children (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

Most parents in this study continued to replicate the philosophical beliefs and values of their parents in home schooling. All, except one parent, said their home schooling experience had been positive.

Desiring to replicate the result of her own home schooling experience, one young mom stated, “I asked my mom, what did you do to make us excel? We were expected to excel, and we just did it. That is exactly what I want.” However, several of these former home schooled adult children altered their approach to academics from that of their trailblazing parents. Some adults who had engaged in a less rigorous standard as students now devoted much more time and energy to scholasticism in order to better equip their children for college or advanced degrees. Conversely, some who had experienced rigid structure now preferred a more relaxed approach to studies. These parents demonstrated purposeful modifications based on a desire for more involvement in ministry than their parents had shown.

All, but one of the parents interviewed conveyed the same desired outcome as the other families: increased family ties, more leadership development, and increased pursuit of personal
and family goals. The one dissenting mother explained that she departed from the goals her parents chose in home schooling because of her desire for her sons to have freedom to spend their days at a more leisurely pace. Academics and ministry opportunities were the only two areas parents and supervisors consistently addressed in the interview and surveys.

**Very similar academics.** A family with a small daughter stated they wanted both the academic excellence and the community-mindedness that the wife’s parents had provided for her in a classical home education co-op. “My mom finally found the right way. We want the academic excellence, you know, that comes with something like [the classical co-op name],” explained the young mother. Another young mother acknowledged similar feelings about following the same academic pattern her mom had undertaken with her:

I wouldn’t say that [the method I use to home school my children] is that very different [from the way my parents home schooled us] because, we were exposed to a lot of missionaries and their missions in the world. And we grew up thinking that was what was important at a very early age; that is what they taught us.

These families followed a pattern of familiar curriculum choices for their children's home school experience. This familiarity with curriculum allowed parents to focus on modifications, including more science and math instruction for some of the students, more literature for others. However, these six families did not veer far from the path of their parents.

**More academics now.** Five of the families employed a mastery of skills approach in their home schooling. Mastery of skills approach includes that the child master a certain set of skills before the child can move on to the next assignment. This approach is rigorous and places importance on academic achievement. In these homes, a mastery of skills concentration in academics contrasted with the ministry-minded home schooling approach of their parents.
KPI: None of us went to college. It was too expensive. I want my children to be prepared to go to college if they want. I disagreed with my mother that women didn’t need to go to college. I want [my daughter] to have that experience if she wants it.

Mrs. L remembered that her mother’s justification for home schooling was the Christian influence. Having grown up in a home that emphasized ministry service over academic pursuit, this mother of ten was more determined to focus on academic abilities, “Just living in the environment was going to be better for us. However, you don’t learn your math facts by osmosis.”

One mother coyly told the story of her teen years when her mother decided to home school her:

I was a wild child. She was trying to save me from myself. She needed some serious help with me and [my younger brother], being so ingrained in the school system. She couldn't just do it by herself. But I think that it was fine when it was just the two of us. It is totally different from what I am doing. I have five very busy students that I work with every day all over the house all day long.

**Fewer academics now.** “We had a lot more work to do. We had to double our lessons so that when the crops came in we could work outside all day,” explained one mother of five small children. Her present lifestyle is much more relaxed with a greater allotment of time devoted for her children’s independent-reading and play-related projects.

Mrs. B described herself as “not the teacher-type; I am just raising my kids. We have our lessons all over the house. They don’t even like to go into the [school room]. We just learn all day long with our books and papers.” Although these first generational home schoolers may
have appeared to continue an educational philosophy similar to that of their parents, these parents articulated detailed, intentional, practical, nontraditional academic expectations.

“So as far as a foreign language, I feel like it needs to be useful. I feel that it is more important than just checking off a box thing that we took a foreign language,” stated one mother with two children. Seeking to adopt children from Haiti, this mother was pursuing the Creole French language spoken in Haiti. This foreign language choice appeared more practical than traditional Latin, preferred by many first generational home schooling parents.

A mother who lived in a very rural area started out utilizing a curriculum similar to what her mother had used with her: a rigid, pre-packaged, self-contained curriculum. Having lived in three states, this mom of four sons now enjoyed the rustic life which provided her boys with free time to explore the forest and lakes near their home. She referred to their current curriculum as classical in approach with more time for reading and thinking than completing workbook assignments. The boys remarked that they thrived on experiencing classic books such as *The Chronicles of Narnia* by C. S. Lewis and *White Fang* by Jack London while living more of their school days out-of-doors.

**Ministry focus.** Mrs. J grew up in a family who thrived on involvement in ministry and service projects. While she and her children participated in several ministries, she focused on a different aspect in her home education:

Right now, the number one thing I think about . . . um . . . this might be a little hard to say, so . . . um, I want to stress to my children is their relationship with Jesus Christ. So, I don’t know that was definite—I don’t know that [relationship] was a thought in my parents raising us. I don’t know if that’s um, something that was kind of not, kind of overlooked in that era—not necessarily because of my home or my parents. But, just
in that—so there was a lot of living out principles and rules, and not of a lot of relationships. So, for me, yes I was very mission-driven, but you know there was a lot of outward focus . . . When I think about doing something different that is the big focus.

Mrs. J continues to participate in many service projects while educating and mentoring her children at home. Service projects became a repeated theme with two additional families: while the activities were similar to those in which their parents engaged, the current home schooling parents demonstrated the inclination to process the philosophy behind the service. For these families, the intellectual benefits of pursuing apologetics, philosophy, and discipleship drove participation in service projects. Serving in the community, or in the local church, seemed to be an extension of a determined focused and thoroughly discussed objective, rather than merely an obligation to church or club membership.

The emphasis on understanding the motivation for ministry did not seem to alleviate the desire for any of the families to serve others, “Ministry is very valuable to our family. But, I obviously have two hands. So my goal is to have a whole bunch of hands. So it is very important for us that they serve,” explained Mrs. H. Service proved vital, intentional, and purposeful in these families.

**Summary.** “The best difference is that my boys have more freedom to fail. We are not worried that someone is peering over our shoulder and judging us,” admitted Mrs. E when comparing her home schooling experience to that of her own childhood. Because her parents feared losing their children to Child Protective Services based on the stigma attached to home schooling in previous decades, Mrs. E. recounted that her parents saved her from the consequences of her own actions. Mrs. E held no such fear and, therefore, felt free to home
schooled in a manner that provided time for character training, academics, ministry, and relaxing.

Although differences existed in the way the current students were receiving their home school education and the way their parents were home schooled, it appeared that comparing the 1980s-1990s home school limitations to 21st century freedoms accounted for most of the contextual discrepancies. Additionally preferences rather than philosophical disagreements more accurately describe the differences. Any modification would clearly alter the appearance of the home schooling—just as a contemporary home furnishing gives a dramatically different appearance than a traditional living room set. However, the primary focus of the home schooling did not change: to provide the students an academic education and an opportunity to serve the community. In the home schooling environments I observed, the function of the home schooling was markedly similar, although some methodology differed.

**Research Question 5**

How did first-generation home schooling parents view their role as leaders and how did they communicate this role (Burns, 2003)?

“'We have a high construct to teach responsibility and pass on that leadership,' explained one mother as she instructed her sons to load her vehicle for an all-day extracurricular activity. Even parents of young children expressed that they saw their role as someone who modeled leadership in their home. “The boys see us taking risks by moving across the country, buying land, starting a new business. I think we show them we are leaders more than tell them we are,” confirmed Mrs. E concerning her role of leadership. Parents often spoke of leadership in their homes and modeled leadership decisions including a determined work ethic. The communication of a family vision, the transfer of a diligent work ethic, and delegation of
responsibility to children proved to be the core family values held by these home schooling parents. These values will be discussed in this section.

**Family vision.** Evident throughout all interviews, parents cast a vision for their children’s future. They communicated their vision verbally, as well as intentionally by placing their children in leadership-building experiences. In most of the homes, the extracurricular activities correlated to leadership skill-building activity. “Even though she is three, this gives her an opportunity to show she knows how to self-check and self-control,” explained the ballet teacher for one home schooling child whose parents wanted this baby-of-the-family to have an opportunity to interact in a social setting. Pressing children to self-check and become more responsible appeared to be the on-going focus of mothers in the study. Mrs. K regarded this effort as a change of worldview:

> We have to train our minds to look back and say, ‘what is one more [positive] thing I could do in that situation?’ I think that can be frustrating if we don’t know those things about ourselves, especially when you get married and have a spouse.

Equally important, older children in families reported that their parents communicated the leadership goal for their family through the books the parents selected for the children to read as well as the way parents handled family business. Within each family at least one child and one parent mentioned that leadership building embodied a goal of the family, signifying that parents communicated the goal of leadership through their own words and actions.

“She is really good at taking control of situations in our family,” volunteered one 14-year-old daughter describing her mother’s leadership ability. Parents regarded the way they took control of situations and defused crises as leadership skills. “She encourages us and shows us
that we have to always care about the other [person],” asserted an insightful 11-year-old explaining how her mother modeled leadership for her.

**Work ethic.** Parents repeatedly identified themselves as leadership role models for their children. Standardizing a commendable work ethic, several parents emphasized that they encouraged their children to work hard:

We are leaders. We own our own company. I teach, carpool, and work in my parents’ business. My husband works in his family business, too. They are always around people making decisions and going into action. They know leaders do not sit around.

Children translated this sound work ethic into an admonition that they, too, needed to work hard. The eight-and-ten-year-old sons of the family completed jobs to earn money for a goal they developed. They reported that they were saving up for tablets or other personal electronic items. This sentiment resonated with a 13-year-old girl from another family. She cleaned houses and stables to make extra money acknowledging, “I have a job because I am saving up for a car because we have to buy our own car. But work is good for you.”

**Responsibility.** One of the fathers demonstrated leadership to his son by taking responsibility as the adult club leader for a debate club. Each week, this young son witnessed his father organizing groups, making recommendations, and evaluating speakers. On one occasion, this father called just as the debate club meeting commenced, “Son, the airline delayed my flight. You are going to have to lead the meeting. I know you can do it.” Immediately, the 15-year-old proceeded to the podium, welcomed the 100 members in attendance, and began the meeting. First by demonstrating leadership, then transferring responsibility to his son, this father communicated confidence in his son’s leadership development. In another town, a mom asked
her 8-year-old daughter to ride with me to navigate the 12-mile route, one with many turns and
distractions, from grandmother’s home to her home. At the end of the day, the same little girl
guided me from her home to an extracurricular activity in another town. The mom’s complete
confidence in her young child's ability proved that the mother had been training her to speak
respectfully to adults and to navigate a driver. This responsibility encouraged and complimented
this young girl.

Demonstrating responsibility was not always pleasant for the children. When a child
demonstrated giftedness for a skill, the child was expected to take this responsibility seriously.
One mother confided when she would not allow her 11-year-old daughter to quit her cello
lessons, “I had to tell her, I am not going to let you quit because you are too good at this.” The
daughter recounted the situation to me, admitting that she resisted this perseverance at first, but
that her mother had been right. This child appreciated the directive to finish well; and was
pleased when she had done so at the end of the year. After the recital, the young girl realized her
giftedness and decided to continue with the lessons.

Summary. As a result of speaking with the second-generational home school children, I
developed a list of character traits the children accredited to their parents: Kindness, honesty,
listening, cooperation, ability, responsibility, and encouragement were all mentioned at least four
times by different students. The ability to recognize leadership traits gave further evidence that
the first-generational home schooling parents were communicating identifiable leadership traits
to their children. Additional validation was provided by the ability to recognize the leadership
traits parents communicated with their family vision to the children. Family vision, work ethic,
and delegating responsibility exemplified just three passageways parents used to transport
leadership in their home schooling structure.
Research Question 6

In an attempt to use the participants’ own words in the findings, what word pictures or metaphors can best describe the process by which transformational leadership has been transferred from one generation to the next?

When I asked parents to provide word pictures, or metaphors, to describe the transformational leadership process, most parents hesitated putting this process into words. After having time to consider, most parents offered traditional metaphors describing leaving a legacy or transferring leadership:

API: My mom worked really hard to light this flame of educating our own children. All I have to do is keep the flame going.

CPI: We were passed a ball and we just keep the ball in play.

HPI: It is like a ladder. We train them on the lower steps, and they move up the ladder as their responsibility.

JPI: I do consistently envision my children as little soldiers I'm preparing for battle. Not knowing whom they will meet, or what they will contend with, I am compelled to train them diligently and carefully: To be wise as serpents and harmless as doves.

NPI: This is a great big seesaw. First we are too heavy in academics, and we push off for a while and become too strong in playtime. But that is what I have learned from my dad—enjoy the ride of home schooling.

Even those parents who could not think of an artistic metaphor did agree that this generational legacy was a continuation of a rich tradition. All parents emphasized they hoped their children would carry on the tradition of home schooling. One development clearly emerged: the parents considered their responsibility to continue in the tradition of home
schooling, not only as a desire for their parents' approval, but because this educational model constituted the best decision for their own families.

**Generation of Theory**

The study was a qualitative grounded theory study. Thus, the purpose of the study included gathering data from a particular phenomenon, home schooling, which could generate a particular theory concerning one aspect, leadership development of the children, of the phenomenon. Specifically, the study attempted to generate a theory explaining how second-generational home school students were developing leadership, as their parents, first generational home schoolers transferred this leadership to them. This section explains how the theory, grounded in the data, was generated. The coding, analysis, and theming process will be described.

**Coding and Theming the Data**

The purpose of this qualitative, grounded theory study was to generate a theory describing how parents who were first-generational home schooled students were developing and transferring leadership in their second-generational home schooled students. This theory was grounded in the data collected from three sources: interviews, surveys, and observations as prescribed by the research design (Creswell, 2007). Grounded theory methodology guided the process of data collection and analysis. The first-cycle coding produced approximately 150 codes (and their coded data), which were categorized in second-cycle coding. The second cycle coding consisted of a re-reading and analysis with more information gleaned from new data from more interviews, surveys, and observations (Saldana, 2009). Initial coding (the breaking down of qualitative data into discrete parts, closely examining them, and comparing them for similarities and differences) (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 102) provided information concerning
the students’ attitudes toward leadership and their estimation of themselves and others as leaders. Initial coding also provided a link to the consistency supervisors witnessed in the leadership development among students, although the supervisors did not know all the students in the study. Writing memos is the technique whereby a researcher makes personal notes concerning the context of the data during collection and analysis (Saldana, 2009). Continuing data collection and analysis while memo writing, I categorized these initial codes into approximately 75 axial codes. Axial codes extended the analytical work by grouping similar ideas and concepts into a larger theme. Then the larger themes were broken down into different codes. Thus, the researcher was able to compare similarities and differences between the participants in various behaviors and attitudes (Saldana, 2009). Axial coding added cause and effect concepts, as well as consequential ideas to the analysis.

The analysis process produced themes: outcomes of coding, categorizing, and reflecting on the data. Saldana (2009) recommends “extended thematic statements” rather than short codes for the continued analysis of the data (p. 139). Since the phenomenon of leadership development was complex, themes extended the understanding more effectively than single word codes. Axial coding described the concepts (this term is interchangeable with the word “themes” at this point in the analysis) “properties and dimensions and explores how the categories and subcategories relate to each other” (p. 151). Axial codes answer the questions, “if, when, how, and why” for a researcher (Saldana, 2009, p. 159). Since initial coding produced results that confirmed that leadership development was occurring in the homes, I used axial codes to answer the questions, “If students are developing as transformational leaders, how is this development encouraged by parents?” and “When is the transfer of leadership happening?” “Where do parents seek help in this training?” Parents encouraged leadership development through their
discussions of literature, scripture, and family dilemmas. Students were urged to participate in family planning sessions concerning vacations, adoptions, and end-of-life issues concerning grandparents. Parents transferred leadership through delegating responsibilities for daily tasks such as planning, cooking, and serving meals. They also transferred leadership by including their children, beginning around age 11, in the selection process of curriculum. In several homes students took responsibility for younger siblings' studies, chores, and well-being. Young people in these homes felt valued and responsible.

Figure 1 (below) shows how the observational, survey, and interview data was coded to validate the phenomenon of the development and transfer of transformational leadership. The data was analyzed within the context of the home schooling families. Extracurricular supervisors’ surveys and interviews added to the intervening conditions, which fostered the leadership development as more codes emerged. I wrote the correlation between the action of the parents, the larger community, and the interaction with students with memos calling for more insight into the phenomenon.
Finally, these codes, through constant comparison method, led to the themes. DeSantis and Ugarriza (2000) defined a theme as “an abstract entity that brings meaning and identity to a recurrent [patterned] experience and its variant manifestations. As such, a theme captures and unifies the nature or basis of the experience into a meaningful whole” (p. 362). Themes such as “Christian worldview,” and “structured for freedom” emerged from all parts of the triangulated data: interviews, surveys, and observations. Eventually, the theory of how the parents were developing and transferring leadership to the second-generation home schooling students developed.

Analytical notes, such as “involved dads” and “discussing worldview” overlapped and intertwined, as seen in the answers to the research questions above. Approximately 12 overlapping categories appeared. Themes such as “giving responsibility” were apparent both in the category of “family vision” as well as the subtheme of “work ethic.” Themes such as
“building community” and “modeling” permeated throughout the interview, surveys, and observations making it difficult to determine where one application ended and the next one began. Concepts such as “allowing children to be their own decision makers,” were coded and tracked throughout the parents' and supervisors' data. Major categories, predominant themes, and subthemes were identified and organized, linking their properties to frequency of occurrence.

The prevailing categories included family vision, worldview, changing in second order ways, and structure of freedom. The category of family vision continued to pervade and influence many of the other intertwined themes and subthemes. The category of developing worldview incorporated six themes (a) discussing worldview topics, (b) developing a greater integrity of identity, (c) cultivating selflessness, (d) modeling leadership, (e) attending events/hearing other voices, and (f) building community. The category of changing in second order ways involved (a) modeling leadership and (b) redefining family routines as two subthemes. Five pervasive themes evolved from the category of structures: (a) chore charts and sibling care, (b) involved fathers, (c) responsibility for decisions, (d) work ethic, and (e) balance of academic and service life.

Northcutt and McCoy (2004) assert that in qualitative analytical work, the participants often aid the researcher through their quotes in interviews. “Respondents will often describe how one [category] relates to another in the process of discussing the nature of one [category]” (p. 242). Many of the respondents in this study analyzed their own answers and related topics to answers they had previously given. Students, as well as their parents, felt their ideas were consistent with their logical thinking and therefore often referred to prior answers when answering interview questions.
Theory Defined and Illustrated

The theory can be stated: Organic leadership development permeated home schooling families in Central Texas as parents transferred leadership through home environments intentionally grounded in Christian worldview, structured within a framework of freedom, and dedicated to producing transformational leadership in their children. The entire lifestyle of the home school families supported the leadership development of their children in every aspect. Instead of finding one method or experience which parents utilized to guide leadership development, the total environment of the second-generation home school student constituted a lab school of leadership.

Just as the foundation of a home gives stability to all parts of the home, Christian worldview likewise provided a firm foundation for leadership development. The purposeful discussion of cultural, moral, political, and spiritual ideas expanded the diversity of understanding for all the students in the homes. Not only did the students understand and articulate their personal worldview, but they also appeared to understand the diversity of worldviews in others, although they might not agree or sympathize with those worldviews. Empathy, selflessness, and mission-orientation were three apparent traits in the children and students, validating that transformation was taking place in the lives of the offspring. Even though the families demonstrated discipline in their lifestyles, including church attendance and home maintenance schedules, the freedom to pursue personal interests flourished in each home. The structure of the home included freedom on one hand, and responsibility or discipline on the other. This purposeful family structure acted as strong beams supporting the leadership development in the home environment. The structure for freedom supported the security the children felt inside the homes where leadership training prevailed. Freedom in the homes
included opportunities for the students to make their own learning and work schedules, take risks and pursue challenges, and earn money for their own interests. The freedom in home schooling allowed parents to balance academic life and ministry opportunities. Thereby, parents regularly challenged students and observed students taking risks. This controlled structure allowed for more freedom in family interaction and trust building, which consequently built self-esteem and thereby leadership.

Furnishings add beauty and distinctiveness to a home. The second-order changes could be seen as acts of beauty and personal preference within each home schooling family. Families made second-order changes, such as job deviations, extended mission trips, and new health habits implementation within the domicile of home schooling leaders. Parents noted unexpected advantages through the decision to home school; some of these benefits included giving older siblings the opportunity to attend births of younger siblings, providing income-producing opportunities for very young children, and scheduling spontaneous grandparent visits. These examples represented a few of the many second-order changes that these families enjoyed. Although these beneficial options were not listed as reasons for home schooling, the events provided pleasurable family experiences that enhanced the home environment. Each home displayed unique second-order changes, which exhibited that transformation was occurring. Although no two families exhibited the same second-order change, each family communicated that the second-order changes were made possible through the increased freedom they felt to direct their families' activities as well as their education. In the words of one father, "The biggest change in our life, compared to our friends, is that we have control of our time. You can't put a price on that."
Finally, a roof that covers the entire structure protects the home and, therefore, safeguards the activities within the home. Through a communicated family vision, the parents provided a ubiquitous leadership development environment. Family vision provided the protective covering for the home schooling families. Without this protection many outside distractions, diversions, or invasion of outside influence would decelerate the leadership development and transfer.

Faced with so many choices of schedules, curriculum, and extracurricular opportunities, the families utilized their family vision, or mission, as the plumb line to keep them on track pursing goals that led to leadership development in the home. One family reported that when faced with an option to move out of town for a better business opportunity, they decided to keep their local home in order to stay connected to their local home school support group. The family knew they did not want to give up their home schooling community since their family vision involved their students' involvement in that community. Other decisions such as a mother returning to college, children attending leadership camps, and students taking part-time jobs revealed the implementation of the family vision setting parameters on family activities.

From this purposeful construction, a home of leadership development emerged. While analyzing the environment, interviews, surveys, as well as listening to family discussions, I generated a theory, grounded in the data. The theory can be asserted: Organic leadership development permeated home schooling families in Central Texas as parents transferred leadership through home environments intentionally grounded in Christian worldview, structured within a framework of freedom, and dedicated to producing transformational leadership in their children. The model, Homes of Developing Leaders, displays the theory illustrated on the next page:
Summary

Just as one beam, carpet, or light fixture makes a home neither secure nor lovely, no one element in the homes of these parents predominated as the key element in the development and transfer of leadership. Families displayed diversity regarding how they approached academics, how they structured chores, and how they spent their recreational time. Conversely, families did not vary in their approach to leadership and responsibility. All families purposefully implemented activities within the home that they felt developed leadership in the second-generation home schoolers. All parents concurred that leadership development in their home did not randomly or casually evolve. Parents in these homes endeavored to teach leadership development as purposefully as they taught mathematics or reading. Parents intentionally implemented their family vision, which included leadership development. When one accounted for the money and time spent on ministry opportunities, worldview discussion, and event
attendance to hear opinions on contemporary topics, it can be stated: more energy and resources appeared to be spent in the development of worldview as a foundation for the character and leadership development of the children than spent on either academic acumen or sports abilities.

Freedom appeared in many forms throughout the study: children choosing when to get up in the mornings to begin the school day, children as young as three selecting what clothes to wear and activities to pursue, children making their own school and chore schedules for the day or week, and moms and dad choosing which month of the year to take extended vacations. Children selected their own curriculum, spent long hours in creative play, and explored forests and streams. These activities all demonstrated a framework of freedom in the home school for children. Parents chose to go on long vacations during regular school terms, participate in family theater plays and rodeos, and by-pass standardized testing for their children.

Unique to each home was the distinctive of second-order change. Second-order change, a change in an organization not anticipated by the original decision to change, and is often irreversible (Bergquist, 1993). Several parents had not anticipated a complete change in family routines, family values, and family habits, even though they had been home schooled as children themselves. The close family ties; the intense concern for siblings; the relaxed manner of the family life; and, primarily, the pervasive joy in the home displayed second-order change in the atmosphere of the homes.

All these elements developed self-confident young men and women, clearly becoming transformational leaders. As an observer and interviewer, I witnessed this organic growth in each home. Supervisors concurred that this growth occurred over the course of the months and years they had been acquainted with the family. Just as the parents expected for the children to grow physically and mentally each year, so parents also held an expectation that the children
would also grow in leadership development. The homes fostered this growth as parents instructed and delegated responsibility. The parents, students, supervisors provided insight for the theory to emerge, grounded in the data. The theory can be asserted: Organic leadership development permeated home schooling families in Central Texas as parents transferred leadership through home environments intentionally grounded in Christian worldview, structured within a framework of freedom, and dedicated to producing transformational leadership in their children. The model, Homes of Developing Leaders (Fig. 2) illustrates the theory.
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

This qualitative, grounded theory, research study seeks to explain the process of how first-generational, home schooling parents are developing and transferring leadership skills in their second-generational, home schooling students. Grounded theory research best describes a process, action, or interaction and thus provides the best method of research for this phenomenon of transformational leadership in home schooling homes (Creswell, 2007). Transformational leadership included mutual benefit that “converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents” (Burns, 2003, pp. 3-4). Equally important, the philosophical framework provided the necessary ontology of the study. Relativistic ontology explains complex and constantly changing settings (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). The setting for the study, the homes of second-generational home schoolers, changes and grows continuously (Zeiss, 2011). Qualitative grounded theory provided the structure for the scientific evaluation and insight required of a study of this dynamic phenomenon in an emergent setting. “Systematic techniques and procedures of analysis enabled the researcher to develop a substantive theory that meets the criteria of doing ‘good science’: significance, theory-observation compatibility, generalizability, reproducibility, precision, rigor, and verification” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 31). This chapter restates the research problem, defines terms, reviews methodology, reports findings, and suggests implications from this study. The major sections of this chapter include a summary of the findings, discussion of the findings, and the implications in light of the relevant literature and theoretical framework. The chapter also outlines the study's limitations, recommendations for future research, and conclusion of findings.
Research Problem

The purpose of this qualitative, grounded theory, research study focused on how previously home schooled parents in Central Texas promoted the development and transfer of transformational leadership in their second-generational, home schooling children. By way of definition, transformational leadership can be described as those who “... seek ... to arouse awareness and interests in groups while seeking to move followers to concerns of achievement and growth” (Yammarino & Dubinsky, 1994, p.790). Additional literature on transformational leadership gave depth to the phenomenon, especially as witnessed in home school situations: a moral or ethical context, focused on the well-being and benefit to the followers, as well as advancement of the leader’s agenda (Maxwell, 2005).

For this study, the term Central Texas included those areas within 300 miles of the metropolitan Houston area. This location was selected because parents can legally home school in Texas, provided they are taking responsibility for 50 percent of their children's educational instruction (THSC, 2011). This statute has been in place since 1987, therefore, the home schooling climate in this area of the state is nonresistant and stable. Since the study required two generations of home schoolers, the legality of home schooling needed to be established at least two generations ago. Those children who began home schooling in Texas 27 years ago are of age to have children of their own, thus making them eligible for the study. This is not true in many states. Also, since the study called for the interview and survey of supervisors over the home schooling children, a metropolitan area appeared advantageous.

Qualitative, grounded theory, research design provided structure for the data collection of the study. Grounded theory research best applies within a changing social structure when the primary task includes exploration of emerging social structures (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The
expectation included that grounded theory research would best explore the changing home school setting, where the social structure evolved as children matured. Six data points comprised the triangulated data in this qualitative grounded theory study including interviews of the home schooling parents, interviews of students, and interviews of supervisors along with observations of the students in their home school setting as well as observation during an extracurricular activity. Finally, surveys of the supervisors of the home schooling students completed the data collection process. From the beginning of the study, students and parents eagerly engaged in lively discussions of philosophy and worldview, as well as their requirements for daily routines. Supervisors described the attitudes and actions of their students through narrative interviews and copious survey entries, often emailing more details after the initial interviews. Parents engaged in interactive lessons in the home and spent hours in lengthy interviews. Maturation and growth emerged as some of the first themes from all data sources. From the initial data collection, parents' interest focused on character and leadership development in their children. Development of a new worldview, or deepening understanding of worldview signified a transformation in the individual. This development also resulted in a greater “integrity of identity,” which characterized the transformation (Mezirow & Associates, 2000; Poutiatine, 2009, p. 198). Although parents emphasized educational excellence, clearly broadening of worldview, character formation, and leadership development rose to the forefront of each day's families' goals.

A theory emerged, grounded in the data, during the analysis stage of the qualitative grounded theory research study. The theory can be asserted: Organic leadership development permeated home schooling families in Central Texas as parents transferred leadership through
home environments intentionally grounded in Christian worldview, structured within a framework of freedom, and dedicated to producing transformational leadership in their children.

**Summary of Findings**

In this qualitative grounded theory research study, the distinctive home environment promoted second-order change and an over-arching family vision. This environment allowed parents to model leadership while children thrived in development of self-esteem, empathy, maturity, and growth (Burns, 1978; DeMille & DeMille, 2008; Gaither, 2008; Ray, 2004). The stated theory, grounded in the data, asserted that home school families, purposeful in intent to produce transformational leadership in their children, established home environments which laid a foundation in Christian worldview, supported a structure of freedom, promoted second-order change, and cast an over-arching family vision.

**Transferring Leadership**

Since the theory stated that the children were emerging as transformational leaders from their home schooling setting, substantive data validated the transfer and development of transformational leadership within the home. Shields (2010) stated that the desire for change motivated the development of a transformational leader. Following Freire (1970/2010), Shields (2010) stated that the transformative leaders made learning environments “places of inclusion, socially just, and academically successful” (p. 560). Observational data reported that the home reflected inclusion, a sense of justice, and a desire for all to learn academically and socially.

Research questions guided the collection of data in all interviews, observations, and surveys. The questions were (a) How have home educating parents, who are transformational leaders, passed on leadership skills (Bennis, 2003)? (b) What, if anything, in this home school experience appeared revolutionary in nature (Anderson & Anderson, 2010; Freire, 1970/2010)?
(c) As a significant characteristic of transformational leadership, how did the activities in the home school transform worldview (Poutiatine, 2009)? (d) Substantiating a determination to model the way, how did first-generational home schoolers compare their experience to the experience they are providing their children (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)? (e) How did first-generational home schooling parents view their role as leaders and how did they communicate this role (Burns, 2003)? (f) In an attempt to use the participants’ own words in the findings, what word pictures or metaphors can best describe the process by which transformational leadership transferred from one generation to the next? A summary of the answers to these questions follows this introduction.

**Research Question 1:**

How have home educating parents, who are transformational leaders, passed on leadership skills (Bennis, 2003)?

Parents in this study purposefully passed on leadership skills. Their lifestyle of fostering leadership development included structuring children's schedule for freedom. Some of the activities parents encouraged students to perform included working with younger siblings while completing daily chores, acquiring part-time jobs, encountering risks and challenges. Additionally, as students performed tasks around the home, including child-care responsibilities, fathers were allowed to involve their children in leisure activities, as well as educational pursuits. Each home enforced an integrated schedule of academics, ministry, and daily chores. The data revealed that parents delegated home responsibilities to their children as early as 3-years-old. In addition to daily tasks and chores, students demonstrated independence in guiding their own educational goals. Testimonies portrayed that students felt empowered to guide their own education. Observational data verified that adolescent students chose, and financially provided
for, extracurricular activities; the desire for these activities motivated several young teens to acquire part-time jobs. Students accepted challenges offered by their parents in areas of physical ability, as well as academic and musical performance. Fathers led the students in discussions of philosophy and worldview, often making curriculum decisions in the homes. All of this evidence validated the theory that parents purposefully focused on leadership development and transfer in all areas of home life.

A pervasive vision of launching children as leaders emerged in the majority of the parent interviews. Supervisors who observed the children in extracurricular activities substantiated the theory that these children were emerging as leaders at a young age. In the observational data, children directed their academic and social efforts. The theme of self-direction in daily tasks and academics emerged in every setting.

**Research Question 2:**

What, if anything, in this home school experience appeared revolutionary in nature (Anderson & Anderson, 2010; Freire, 1970/2010)?

Parents in the study valued individual leadership development in the lives of their children and sought to transfer leadership skills. Families exemplified revolutionary thoughts and actions in three primary areas: (a) life of service emphasis; (b) responsible children; (c) second order change—which can be defined as an unexpected change that occurred from another initial decision—in this case the initial decision was to home school. Although most parents did not label themselves as revolutionary, many of their actions such as home birthing, denying vaccinations, and refusing standardized tests denote their non-traditional family choices. These families did not categorize enjoying off-season vacations, taking extended trips to family members during school terms, or putting aside academics for several weeks in order to
participate in service projects as revolutionary activities. Instead, the families referred to these events as benefits of a homeschooling lifestyle. These decisions and engaging in a continual balance between academic and service life demonstrated second-order change in the life of these home schooling families.

Research Question 3:
As a significant characteristic of transformational leadership, how did the activities in the home school transform worldview (Poutiatine, 2009)?

According to most parents in this study, the term "worldview development" symbolized leadership or character development. All parents communicated their Christian worldview with emphasis on applying biblical principles to the world and local issues. Parents directed transformational leadership development, including the establishment of foundations in worldview through their efforts and resources. The four themes that continually emerged from the data concerning transformation of worldview included: discussing worldview, observing others model, attending activities, and building community. Discussion of Christian worldview and participation in civic activities broadened worldview ideals. Evident manifestations of broadened worldview included empathy for others, selfless behavior, and second-order change in the homes. The literature relates these traits to leadership development, but some authors and parents also associated these characteristics with broadening of worldview (Kingston & Medlin, 2006).

Supervisors witnessed students conducting themselves maturely by attempting to include all parties in extracurricular activities. These behaviors motivated the supervisors to assess the students as transformational leaders, caring about the welfare of others, as well as their own interests. Similarly, students reported siblings' selfless acts, which occurred during social
activities. In their homes, students expressed acts of empathy and selflessness. Second-order changes (those changes which occurred in the family due to, but not anticipated from, home schooling) attributed to the counter-culture lifestyles of families in the study. Some second-order changes included healthier eating habits and restructuring daily activities to allow for more engaging time with their families. Second-order change signifies as a distinguishing trait in broadened worldview and transformational leadership (Poutiatine, 2009)

**Research Question 4:**

Substantiating a determination to model the way, how did first-generational home schoolers compare their experience to the experience they are providing their children (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

Although three parents in this study differed from their parents regarding implementation of academics and ministry, all the participating parents agreed that the lifestyle of homeschooling benefited each member of the family. Ten of the families reported that home schooling embodied an irreversible lifestyle; they could not think of any circumstance that would force them to put their children into a public school. As children, these parents had experienced this counter-cultural educational choice, and subsequently had chosen this system for their children. With the decision to home school, these parents identified themselves, not as trailblazers like their parents, but as advocates for an alternate educational system and lifestyle. Revisiting the schedule of their parents, the current home schooling families balanced a schedule of academic pursuit with ministry opportunities. Nonetheless, first generational home schooling parents emphasized teaching to the heart of their children—a decision which several families thought was overlooked in their own education.

**Research Question 5:**
How did first-generational home schooling parents view their role as leaders and how did they communicate this role (Burns, 2003)?

Parents embraced their role as leaders and sought to cast a family vision, model leadership through responsible work ethic, and delegate responsibility to their children. Communicating their roles as leaders, parents articulated the goal for their home environments and their children's growth through family mission statements. In like manner, parents felt they modeled leadership before their children through demonstrating a determined work ethic. Parents agreed that transformational leadership included hard work and accepting responsibility. By assuming leadership roles outside the home, parents exemplified leadership. Through modeling, parents conveyed the ability to develop trust in others and earn trust for themselves. These consistent activities transferred transformational leadership from one generation to the next.

**Research Question 6:**

In an attempt to use the participants’ own words in the findings, what word pictures or metaphors can best describe the process by which transformational leadership has been transferred from one generation to the next?

Through traditional terms of transfer such as "passing the baton," "putting the ball in play," or "keeping a flame burning," participants related transfer of transformational leadership from one generation to the next. Families portrayed loyalty to the home schooling experience just as a son might portray loyalty by carrying on a family business. Home schooling symbolized tradition and honor to 14 of the families. One set of parents, who had experienced a dysfunctional home life with a mentally ill parent, struggled with traditional honor in the home. However, even these first-generational home schoolers understood the benefit of the
educational system of home schooling and thus pursued this educational lifestyle with their children. All the metaphors the families employed the ideas of honor and loyalty through the images of transfer.

**Discussion of Findings**

The constant comparative method of collecting and analyzing data consumed six months; but, the process resulted in a qualitative grounded theory concerning the development and transfer of leadership in the home schooling setting in Central Texas. From the triangulated data and theoretical framework themes emerged and were analyzed until the data was saturated (Creswell, 2007). The theoretical model, Home of Developing Leaders (See Figure 2) symbolized the synthesized data gathered from parents, supervisors, and students. The stated theory, grounded in the data, can be stated: Organic leadership development permeated home schooling families in Central Texas as parents transferred leadership through home environments intentionally grounded in Christian worldview, structured within a framework of freedom, and dedicated to producing transformational leadership in their children. Nine elements can be extrapolated from this theory for review (a) organic development, (b) permeation of the phenomenon, (c) location of Central Texas, (d) parents transferring leadership, (e) home environments, (f) intentional grounding in worldview, (g) structure of freedom, (h) production of transformational leaders and (i) children.

**Organic Development**

The site of this study included the home and surrounding environments. The organic environment, rather than an institution or contrived environment, nurtured and encouraged maturation and growth in children in the home schooling environment (Wedemeyer, 1981). Organic environments stimulate slow and deliberate growth occurring over an extended period of
time. Leadership development in these homes permeated daily routines as the leadership development incorporated many daily activities. Parents in this environment utilized such tools as providing children regular responsibilities around the house, letting children direct their own studies, and holding high expectations for children’s behavior. These attributes were apparent both in this study and an in previous home school literature (Groover & Endsley, 1988).

Organic growth signifies that parents depend on natural growth, maturation, and development for their children to cultivate leadership skills. Beck (2010) reported that spending more time with their children constituted a primary parental motivation for choosing home schooling. My data indicated that fathers spent these extended hours discussing worldview and leadership and the development of both. Mothers in the study also reported targeted lifestyle changes in order to attend to the spiritual and leadership development of the children. Haber (2011) suggested students enrolled in extracurricular leadership development programs went on to demonstrate transformational leadership while in college. However, the leadership development skills attained in the natural home environment of this study produced similar results without the enrollment in a formal leadership development program outside of the home. In these homes older students took responsibility for their own education and engaged in home management duties and modeled leadership for younger siblings just as mentors model for apprentices (Komives, et al., 2006). Findings of the study asserted that children and young adults develop transformational leadership in the natural organic environment of the home without formal programs and institutions.

Permeation of the Phenomenon

Activities within the setting of the home school uniquely developed individual leadership strengths. No one family practice in regard to leadership development proved exclusive in the home schooling environment. Contrarily, activities present in the home school environment such
as delegation of chores, acceptance of responsibilities, and discussion of worldview appeared to work together synergistically to build a culture of leadership within the home. The phenomenon of transformational leadership development and transfer permeated the homes just as home schooling permeated the daily routine. It could be said that each home acted as a lab school for transformational leadership development. Poutiatine (2009) listed nine characteristics of transformational leadership:

(a) is not synonymous with change; (b) requires assent to change; (c) always requires second-order change; (d) always involves all aspects of an individual’s or organization’s life; (e) change is irreversible; (f) change involves a letting go of the myth of control; (g) change involves some aspect of risk, fear, and loss; (h) change always involves a broadening scope of worldview; (i) is always a movement toward a greater integrity of identity—a movement toward wholeness (p.190).

Indeed, all these characteristics were observed, recorded, and analyzed in the homes in this study. An appearance of any one of these characteristics could indicate that transformational leadership was being developed in this environment. However, the occurrence of all characteristics denotes the permeation of the phenomenon of transformational leadership in each of the homes in the study.

**Location of Central Texas**

The location of Central Texas as the site of the study and subsequent findings must be noted. Parents have enjoyed unrestricted home schooling privileges in the state of Texas since 1987 when Leeper vs. Arlington provided judicial precedent. In Texas, parents do not have to submit a full narrative describing the content of every subject area to the state board of education, as in Vermont, in order to home school (HSLDA, 2013). Nor do parents have to
register their children with the local school district for the privilege of home schooling, as in Indiana (Homeschooling, 2013). Parents in Texas have more freedom to pursue personal choices in curriculum and daily activities. This unfettered environment extends parental jurisdiction over the educational decisions for their children. This study portrayed how that this freedom allowed the participants to engage in informal and pervasive teaching of responsibility, worldview, and leadership skills. Furthermore, such freedom alleviated any fear from a family of teenaged children that the civics curriculum they had chosen would not be approved by the state; therefore, the civics curriculum they selected included participation in local campaigns, worldview discussions, and speech and debate opportunities rather than a mere review of the branches and operation of government. Participation in, rather than mere study of, events is one more way that this lifestyle builds leadership (Bannier, 2007).

Parents Transferring Leadership

Kouzes and Posner (2007) state that transfer of leadership characterizes a purposeful act. Transfer of leadership, as observed and described by DeMille and DeMille (2008) and Vygotsky (1978), occurred on both the conscious and subconscious levels in the environments where parents and their older and younger students work closely together. As parents, the first-generational home schoolers held a primary interest in the welfare and education of their children (Schultz, 2002). As home schooling families, participants spent between eight and 18 waking hours together each day during each week. The dedicated time and allotted interest intensified the delivery method and available time for the transfer of leadership skill. Instruction regarding how to make wise decisions, how to resolve disputes through communication, and how to deal with unpleasant situations described a few of the conscious ways parents transferred leadership skill. Chore charts, which trained children in self-discipline as well as home management skills,
exemplified one strategy where parents in this study expected self-governance. Several families exhibited systems whereby children advanced in their responsibilities and leadership development as they got older. In these homes, leadership skills were transferred from parents to older children, then from older children to younger siblings. Trustworthiness, competence, and focused attention are observable traits in transformational leaders (Welsh, 2010). These types of characteristics were noted in the observational data and referred to by the supervisors in their surveys.

During their interviews, parents communicated their decisive intents to train their children in leadership and responsibility as their offspring matured. This unique calling on the lives of parents correlated to the Christian worldview obvious in the parent interviews. Observation of leadership traits such as trustworthiness and competence confirmed that the innate need to lead, teach, work with, and care for others has been fundamental in a just and moral society (Martinek, Shilling, & Hellison, 2006). This validation of a Christian worldview, as foundational in the home, transferred leadership beliefs and skills (Welsh, 2010). Although some concerned teachers and instructors may feel a calling to assist young people in maturity and leadership, the unique relationship evident between parent and child strengthened the results of this study.

**Home Environments**

The inimitable environments of the homes in this study provided training grounds for young leaders. Because students in the study felt comfortable in their home environments, they related their adventures of leadership development in relaxed conversations. Additionally, this relaxed atmosphere allowed students, second-generational home schoolers, to attempt risks and challenges without fear of failure or embarrassment (Poutiatine, 2009). Taking risks on a regular
basis builds leadership confidence and ability (Burns, 2003). Peer dependency diminished in the nurturing home environment, due to the absence of antagonistic forces from peers who might not be supportive of the students (Delahoucke, 1986; Ray, 2000a). The familiarity with the home, the relaxed atmosphere, and the loving support to succeed enable students to risk and accept challenges as well as provide a favorable environment for leadership transfer and development (Van Schalkwyk, & Bouwer, 2011)

**Intentional Grounding in Worldview**

Kunzman (2009a) noted the intentional indoctrination of worldview in the homes of Christian home schooling families. Although Kunzman's concern rose out of his desire for a more critical expression of worldview and family values, he did concede that home schooling families, more than other families, expressed a concentrated desire to pass on their own beliefs. This intentional focus became apparent after two family interviews in this study. Wedemeyer (1981) reported that the interaction of parents with students one-to-one allowed for more personal attention and thus more intentional grounding in values and beliefs. Beck (2008) articulated that many parents described their motivation to home school as a desire to spend more time with their children. In the same study, Beck (2008) cited that many parents noted a religious or philosophical motivation to home schooling. Combining these factors, apparent intentions by current home schooling parents included the desire to transfer philosophical beliefs. In this study, these beliefs can be categorized as Christian worldview.

**Structure of Freedom**

Although some home schooling families may pattern their home schools similarly to public or private schools with traditional holidays and study periods, the families in this study structured their school schedules based on the foundation of freedom for the family. In his
famous, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, Freire (1970/2010) demonstrated how teachers and students could work together as co-creators of knowledge. In one home during this study, a mother practiced upcoming Algebra problems that her daughter would encounter the next week since the mother desired a co-learner endeavor with this daughter. Another father discussed how he wanted to explore various thesis and speech topics for his teenage daughter in order to challenge the whole family as they all engaged in researching the possible topics. The freedom allowed in the home school environment was not shackled with prescribed assignments or deadlines, and this allowed families to enjoy learning together. This freedom owed its luxury to the structure of home management systems in place in every home. The extended time that could be spent learning and improving skills existed only because of the structure of home management and self-discipline scripted by the parents in the homes in this study. Advanced learning and skill development improved self-efficacy (Vygotsky, 1978). Self-efficacy built confidence and thus leadership development advanced. Just as educational research connects social-emotional learning and leadership skill building (McDowell, 2004; Mezirow & Associations, 2000; Rogers & Freiberg, 1994), so this study linked the two forms of maturity and growth.

**Production of Transformational Leaders**

In this study, the experience and welfare of the students, offspring of the first generational home schoolers, appeared paramount in all interviews, surveys, and observations. Kouzes and Posner (2007) stated that transformational leaders created a shared vision of change for followers, which included the best interest of the followers as well as the accomplishment of the task. Although parents nurtured and cared for their children, these parents obviously sought improvement in their children in the areas of academics, behavior, and attitude. This desire for improvement obviously initiated much of the activity in the home. For Burns (2003) change
could be defined as the product of individuals working together toward a common end. Parents, students, and supervisors communicated leadership traits as purposeful goals for the students. Transformational leadership, as opposed to transactional leadership in which a task may be accomplished without personal growth of the followers, emerged as either the spoken or unspoken desire of each parent or supervisor in the study. Although no parent in the study proclaimed expertise in leadership development, several had read books on leadership and sought to implement the strategies they had learned.

Even with children as young as 5-years-old, the empathy and self-sacrifice of transformational leaders could be seen (Kingston & Medlin, 2006). Kohlberg (1969) constructed a hierarchy of moral development. Moral development in children has been associated with leadership development (Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006). A hierarchy of moral development, similar to a hierarchy of transformational leadership development, could be constructed by observation of the homes in this study. As the students matured, they expressed more concern for their siblings and others in the community.

The goal of transformational teaching by the parents in the home schools provided a path for students to grow in both their cognitive and affective learning abilities. Taylor (2006) noted that when a teacher acquired a genuine interest in both the students and the students’ world, the students grew in leadership ability. Taylor (2006) provided research within group settings outside the home and instructed educators to focus on students and “reading their worlds” (p. 94). Within this study, the parents lived in the same world and thus expressed genuine concern for the world of the student participants. This shared interest and investment in the world of the students established exceptional grounds for leadership development.

Children
Including young participants in this study verified a profitable design decision. Often the children younger than 8-years-old demonstrated the most obvious signs of empathy, responsibility, and self-efficacy: all characteristics of transformational leadership (Kingston & Medlin, 2006; Poutiatine, 2009; Vygotsky, 1978). Komives et al. (2006) noted the importance of studying the leadership development over the life span of the leader. This study validated that leadership can be identified in young children. Children added data to the study through their interviews and observations. Supervisors remarked on leadership skills in children as young as 3-years-old. One ballet teacher noted how a 3-year-old checked herself when she misplaced a foot or hand. This young girl did not communicate any knowledge of her own leadership skill, yet the teacher adamantly identified her in this manner. Children too young to articulate their desire to lead nonetheless demonstrated leadership skills, including the desire to discern the needs of others above their own needs. Parents of young children expected self-discipline and care of personal needs from young children. These expectations could be achieved because the children in a home schooling environment, were allowed time to complete complicated tasks such as washing and drying laundry or preparing a meal. As opposed to children who experienced a more rushed lifestyle due to school schedules, these children enjoyed time to explore, take risks, and grow (Shyers, 1992). Children in the study learned from close proximity to parents throughout the day. This close proximity learning represented the adaptation of Vygotsky (1987) that DeMille and Demille (2008) advised. DeMille and DeMille (2008) recommended that children experience more freedom and creative play in early developmental years in an attempt to allow the children to grow in an organic manner, rather than contrive academics or social emotional learning that would not produce leadership.
Burns (1978) described the transformational process of leadership development in adolescents as a balance between the interplay of the needs of the adolescents and the needs of others. Burns (1978) recorded the process through which these leadership stages developed as needs-based leadership and compared the need for security in children as evolving to a need to be esteemed by others. Haber (2011) deemed essential the observation of adolescents during group situations to assess leadership skills or deficiencies. The supervisor data in this study reiterated the interview and observational data, which demonstrated transformational leadership growth during adolescence in the home environment (Sheffer, 1995). Including children in this study also validated the practice of qualitative research, which includes hearing the voices of the participants. The authenticity of the children and adolescents validated their experiences through their own words.

**Implications**

Initially this data impacts those investigating the possibility of home schooling their own children and those desiring to research the phenomenon of home schooling. Traditionally, parents seek to home school to protect their students from less favorable environments (Bauman, 2002) or increase academic ability (Ray, 2004). Montgomery (1989) implied the home schooling environment developed independence and leadership. This study furthers that premise and establishes a theory that other researchers can follow. Potential home schooling parents can now add leadership development to the list of benefits to this educational approach. Home schooling advocates can direct investigators to this study to validate this alternative educational choice.

Furthermore, many of the activities occurring in the environments of the home schooling families could transpire in families pursuing other forms of education. Parents could formulate a
family vision, the overarching characteristic of this study, regardless of their chosen educational delivery systems. Clearly, parents who stated the mission of their family proved successful in developing and transferring leadership within their homes. This family vision casting provided a basis for family discussions and activities. The family vision protected the members from distracting activities and worldviews. Discussions focused on worldview ideals while activities centered on home management and individual development. Plainly, the activity of assigning chores and responsibilities to children can be implemented in any home with children. Additionally, systematically adding duties to children in order to foster responsible growth can also be accomplished within any home management framework.

As parents take risks and issue challenges to their children, those children participate in advantageous activities promoting leadership (Mezirow & Associates, 2000). Challenges, risks, and duties enhance the rate of maturity and leadership development in students. Although parents mourn the end of childhood, rooted in a sense of loss as children grow and develop more responsibility, the rite of passage plays an instrumental part in leadership development. All of these activities can be conducted in the homes of home, private, or public school age children.

Regardless of the form of education—home, private, or public schooling—parents can allow children more freedom in selecting extracurricular activities. Parents can also require children to organize and pay for these activities since the data displays this requirement provided leadership development. Concurrently, families can evaluate appropriate emphasis between academic and service focus. Service projects provided venues for maturity and leadership development.

From data gathered during observation in the home schooling environments and parent and student interviews, this study implied that parents who organize family reading and
discussion centered on worldview topics develop leadership in the home. This data reverberated with Dantley (2010) that these transformational activities lead to a greater integrity of identity. These discussions broadened understanding. Likewise, parents and civic-minded individuals can attend citizenship-building events with their children. Citizenship directed focus outside the child, building a community-focused child. Christian worldview, as the foundational ideal of the leadership development, involved determination by parents focused on their children's growth.

Although a less academic form of leadership development, student choices and acceptance of the consequences of these choices characterized the atmosphere in these homes. Making choices required the children to take responsibility for their lives. These choices included clothing selections, extracurricular activities, and pleasure time reading. As much as possible, families who desire to build leadership must allow for more freedom of choices.

Undoubtedly, many of the leadership development practices discovered in this study can be implemented in the homes of home, private, or public schooling students. Parental involvement and student responsibility, two essential components of this study, create a framework for leadership development and transfer. Implementing these two elements is not limited to the home school experience. Additionally, organizations such as parent-teacher organizations, scouting organizations, and civic-leadership clubs can develop involved adults and responsible students. The study provides vision, foundation, and structure for those committed to developing transformational leadership within families or organizations. The strategies encompass best practices exhibited by the families within this study. Parents and other leaders interested in facilitating leadership can implement these practices in a variety of environments. Clearly, if home schooling parents can construct a framework of leadership development, a precedent can be set for other organizations and institutions. Boarding schools and extended-
hour care providers can create environments simulating the home experience. Adults and students can practice responsibility and duties within similar nurturing atmospheres to develop and transfer transformational leadership within the ranks.

Additionally, Christian schools that share the same ideology might implement the requirements of attending community events, including hearing other social and political voices. Engaging in these activities fostered leadership development in home schooling students, and, therefore, could promote similar maturation in other students (Kingston & Medlin, 2006). If private or public school civics classes required students to attend political meetings or discussions of social events these students might also broaden their own worldview and thus establish more leadership in these areas.

Furthermore, any family who reads together could implement the discussion and broadening of worldview, another of the characteristics of transformational leadership (Poutiatine, 2009). The implementation of a daily reading plan, including fathers and students, provided another delivery system for growth in this area, and can be applied in homes, study groups, or small group settings. Even more, mentors and teachers could establish reading groups including books on leadership, worldview, and ethics. These reading groups could establish strong ethical standards within the students and promote leadership development.

Correlating to releasing the myth of control (Poutiatine, 2009) mothers with small children could transfer substantial responsibility for younger children to older siblings; this form of transfer signified trust in this study. Trust-building activity benefits those in mentor-mentees environments as well as the home situation (Hellison, 2003). As teachers, mentors, principals delegate true responsibility to students; these students will increase in self-efficacy as well as confidence.
The study demonstrates that parents could work toward fostering and building trust in older children, which could lead to those children taking more responsibility at home or even in part-time jobs at early ages. Jobs promote responsibility and accountability to an outside source in middle school aged children (Montgomery, 1989). Finally, even children who spend hours at a private or public or school could benefit from a daily home chore schedule in an attempt to make these students more involved in the daily operation of the home. In this manner, the children will become more like productive citizens, rather than tourists in their own homes (Seago, 2012).

**Theoretical Framework**

**Grounded theory.** Grounded theory research provided structure and boundaries for the qualitative study (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Leadership development denotes a process. Although home schooling has been studied as an educational alternative, the process by which leaders develop in the environment deserves attention. Glaser and Strauss (1967) developed methodology for building theory from data. This study used grounded theory research to provide “theoretical constructs derived from qualitative analysis of data” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 1).

**Home schooling.** Home schooling in the state of Texas includes all forms of parent-led education (online, correspondence, and tutoring) where the parents are responsible for 50% or more of their children's education. Meta-analysis research in home schooling concludes that, although non-traditional, the educational method proves successful both for academics and social development (McDowell, 2004). As Smith and Sikkink (1999) noted, “With the homeschool movement, [sic] we’ve only seen the tip of the iceberg so far. In another ten or fifteen years, we may see a disproportionate number of home schoolers in positions of highest leadership,” claimed Ned Ryun, founding director of Generation Joshua (Kunzman, 2009a, p. 103).
Leadership research within the home school setting continues to appear rare, but promising. Montgomery (1989) developed a study that linked leadership skills to the home schooling experience. A thorough review of the literature infers that a relationship existed between leadership skills and home schooling. However, Montgomery (1989) failed to specify a particular style of leadership, nor mention the process by which leadership developed. This current study extended Montgomery (1989) to fill the gap in the literature concerning leadership development and transfer between parents and their home schooled students.

**Transformational leadership.** Transformational leadership can be contrasted with transactional leadership—the traditional leadership style associated with business tractions (Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership included mutual stimulation in order to “converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents” (Burns, 2003, pp. 3-4). Moreover, transformational leaders “. . . seek . . . to arouse awareness and interests in groups, while seeking to move followers to concerns of achievement and growth” (Yammario & Dubinsky, 1994, p. 790). Since the parental relationship infers an interest in the well-being and social maturity of the child, transformational leadership emerged as the most appropriate style of leadership to investigate concerning home schooling families. Home schoolers do exhibit transformational leadership (Seago, 2012).

Although leadership development can never be reduced to a checklist of character traits, leadership philosophy can guide research in the phenomenon through observation (Mendez-Morse, 1992). Poutiatine (2009) lists nine characteristics of transformational leadership. These nine principles include (a) transformation is not synonymous with change; (b) transformation requires ascent to change; (c) transformation always requires second-order change; (d) transformation always involves all aspects of an individual’s or organization’s life; (e)
transformation is irreversible; (f) transformational change involves a letting go of the myth of control; (g) transformational change always involves some aspect of risk, fear, and loss; (h) transformational change involves a broadening of the scope of worldview; and (i) transformation is always a movement toward a greater integrity of identity—a movement toward wholeness (Poutiatine, 2009). The homes of the second-generation home schoolers provided evidence of each of the characteristics. Recording and analyzing the existence of the nine transformational leadership characteristics provided the framework for the observational data in this study. The unique environment of the home school required sensitivity during observation and interviews, but this sensitivity fostered open communication and rich narrative answers to interview questions (Dey, 1993).

Limitations

Mentioned in Chapter 3, as the human instrument I could be considered the greatest limitation in this qualitative grounded theory (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). I continually evaluated my position and used memo writing to bracket my thoughts during the home schooling observations. Human nature, prejudice, and preconceptions can cloud perspective, for this reason I used the in vivo coding approach (Saldana, 2009). In vivo coding, using the words of the participants, contributed to a more reliable narration of the events and factors promoting leadership development and transfer. Since participants identified with me because of my previous home schooling experience, they would often ask questions concerning curriculum choices or child discipline. Consistently, I made appointments to discuss individual home schooling matters after the data collection and analysis were completed. Separating myself as a researcher from my role as a home schooling mother added professionalism without adding rhetorical distance between the participants and me (Wilson & Wilson, 2011). In an attempt to
gain reliability through data analysis, I employed an inter-rater researcher to view the de-identified data, my coding, and analysis. My inter-rater researcher validated that the analysis was reliable based on his work with other research studies. Moreover, member checks sustained my analysis of the process of leadership development and transfer. Nonetheless, human error could have limited the study.

**Design**

Not only my presuppositions, but also the presuppositions of the participants could limit the reliability of the data. The study included interviews of parents and students who self-reported their own behaviors and ideas. Self-reporting data persistently limits the nature of qualitative research (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). However, the design of the study includes the voices of the participants; therefore, participant interviews are necessary (Schalkwyk & Bouwer, 2011). In an attempt to minimize the possible limitation of self-reporting observational data was obtained. Observations in the study validated words of the self-reporting interviews in these cases, and yet some inconsistencies occurred. One mother submitted that her sons were modeling leadership through their self-directed behavior; however, the observation of their academic work habits showed some disruptions and interruptions.

Similarly, another adjustment in the research design would include the scheduling of interviews and observation of home schooling families. As participant sampling snowballed, family observations and interviews began to overlap. Hence, future design of this study should schedule longer data collection and analysis. The constant comparison method of collection and analysis required the researcher to collect and analyze data at the same time (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). This method proves useful in qualitative grounded theory research; therefore, researchers would benefit by scheduling only one to two families per week to interview and observe in an
attempt to transcribe and analyze one families' data before the next family interview and observation.

Added to that, the design of delivering surveys at the time of the supervisor interview proved problematic. Often the interviews occurred immediately after the extracurricular event. Scheduling for convenience for the supervisor may prove limiting. In the future, surveys should be emailed or delivered prior to the supervisor interview. Surveys can then be collected following the supervisor interview. This change in protocol should garner broader more in-depth examples of the studied phenomenon.

Sample

The population of the student is ethnically homogeneous with only two Hispanic families. Thirteen Caucasian families participated. Studies with larger minority populations may differ; nationally approximately 15% of all home schoolers are Hispanic (U.S. Department of Education, 2013). Secondarily, the study occurred in two-parent homes. Families that do not live together may be more challenged to formulate and transfer a family vision with solidarity.

Furthermore, legal home schooling emerged as a relatively recent phenomenon in the state of Texas. The court case of Leeper vs. Arlington in 1987 decided that parents could pursue home schooling without fear of prosecution. This qualitative grounded theory study ensued in an area that has only enjoyed the legal freedom home school for 27 years. Therefore, there existed a limited number of possible participants for the theoretical sample. If a parent (a first-generational home schooler) in the study began home schooling at 5-years-old child in 1987, when the state declared home schooling as a legal option, that the parent would be 32-years-old now. The pool of participants in the study diminished due to the brevity of legal home schooling. This also limited the number of older adolescents, or young adults, in the second-
generation population (offspring of first-generational home schoolers) in the study. Having older students participate in the interviews might have clarified and broadened the interview data based on more mature students and better communication skills. A larger number of young adult students in the study might have enhanced the data based on an older child's ability to evaluate his own environment more effectively.

Another limitation of the study lies in the design of the study itself. All parents were first-generational home schooling families. This means that the mother was home schooled, father was home schooled, or both parents had been home schooled. For these parents, home schooling was not a new adventure, nor even an educational choice. Home schooling represented an extension of the lifestyle choice these parents experienced as children. Therefore, the determination to homeschool and intended purpose of the experience might be distinguishable from those engaging in this educational adventure for the first time. This fact limits the transferability of the study to some extent. The home schooling parents in this study might not be representative of that population of home schoolers who identify academic achievement or exit traditional education options for social reasons such as bullying as their motivation to home educate (Ray, 2011).

Transferability

The study occurred in Central Texas, the heart of the Bible Belt of the United States, where most parents ascribed to a biblical worldview. In an environment where Christian worldview is not a prevalent norm, the results may be different. The terms "worldview" and "leadership" interchanged during the interviews. Parents and students associated the broadening of worldview with leadership development. Owing to observing Christianity as a foundation for thought and action, parents held children to a measurable standard in each home. Additionally,
parents felt a responsibility to pass on worldview, biblical philosophy, to their offspring. The worldview training provided a foundation on which to build leadership behaviors. Such purposeful training in worldview and leadership development might not be as evident in homes without a biblical or Christian foundation.

A final limitation of the study's transferability would be extended hours of home schooling. The families in the study all enjoyed time together, 12-16 waking hours with family members on some days. In the modern educational culture, students participate in many activities away from their family members for long hours each day. Thus, the implementation of the family vision and the replication of this extended family-time pattern may be more difficult.

**Credibility and Dependability**

As a fellow home schooling mother and researcher of the study, I carefully examined the data and employed credibility checks throughout the study. Six data sources provided varying perspectives. *In vivo* coding ensured hearing participants' voices. Triangulation of data included interviews from three sources, observations in two settings, and surveys. All student, parent, and supervisor interviews were recorded using a Livescribe pen, rather than audio recorder. Using a Livescribe pen enabled me to memo during the interview with a minimal amount of interruption or loss of eye contact. Transcriptions of the observational data and the interview transcripts contained three columns for original data, memos, and coding. A FLIP video recorder digitized images of home school and extra curricular activities. Transcriptions of these video recordings included the hand-written memos taken during the observations. These transcripts, along with the audio transcripts from a Livescribe pen, were presented to the inter-rater researcher for validity during the data collection and analysis.
Recommendations for Further Research

Further studies in the home schooling community concerning leadership development and transfer could be beneficial. This study included only second-generational home schooling students, but a desirable study would bridge the gap in the literature concerning leadership development in the first-generational home schooling students—those who are beginning their home schooling journey for the first time in their family's history. Home schooling family entering the journey for the first time may differ greatly from those who have previously embraced this lifestyle. This study bears repeating in a new generation population.

Although much literature exists concerning transformational leadership, development of this phenomenon within children has not been thoroughly explored. Subsequently, transformational leadership studies need to be conducted in more home schooling populations since these families represent a significant number of future leaders in areas of the industry and community life (Ray, 2004).

Consequently, using this study's design, a research study needs to be conducted within families who do not share a Christian worldview. Since the homeschooling population is growing by 15% annually in the United States (Zeiss, 2011), much research needs to be done concerning leadership development in this growing population of students. As seen in the limitations of the study, future researchers need to consider the role Christian worldview plays in leadership development of homes in America.

Additionally, researching families from different states across the country would yield more narrative and descriptive examples of how leadership developed and transferred in different environments. States, other than Texas, may exhibit more resistance to home schooling. Currently the public education system in Texas is ranked 37th in the United States while
Massachusetts ranks number one. Culturally, political, and environmental differences also exist between these two states. A study of home schooling families transferring leadership in their children in these states might contrast to this study. The comparison would prove interesting.

Subsequently, variations on this study would include leadership development and transfer of leadership within the home school among female students, young children, and students with learning differences. Also, a study of leadership development and transfer within pre-school children in the home school could enhance the leadership literature concerning early childhood education (Mawson, 2010).

Finally, families may select to focus on the transfer of transformational leadership regardless of the form of education for children each day (Shultz, 2002). A particular population of private or public school students engaging in leadership development within their own homes and working with mentors at school would formulate ground breaking data on this phenomenon (Komives and Johnson, 2009). Studies concerning leadership-building parents and their children contain abundant possibilities.

Unlike studies focused on relating the acceptability of home schooling because of academic or social-emotional needs, this study targets the potential for leadership development and transfer in the home schooling environment. Hopefully, parents and educators will seize the opportunity to explore new avenues of growth as leadership coaches and transfer agents.

**Summary**

This study described the process of leadership development and transfer in second-generational homeschooling families in Central Texas. A review of the literature, including a brief history of leadership development and a brief overview of home schooling in the United States, provided support for the study. Observation of student and parent interaction identified
this developmental process within the homes. Student, parent, and extracurricular supervisor interviews voiced the purposeful attention given to leadership development and transfer within each home. Observation of students during home schooling and their extra-curricular activities confirmed that the students exhibited leadership both in and out of the home environment.

The qualitative systematic grounded theory research project exemplified a traditional design others could follow. Following recommendations from Creswell (2007) on grounded theory, data from interviews, observations, and surveys thoroughly saturating the themes found in the coding. Constant comparative analysis produced categories and themes for the project. Through the process of constant comparison (Corbin & Strauss, 2008), data analysis proceeded in stages. In vivo and open coding provided categories about the phenomenon by "segmenting information" (Creswell, 2007, p. 67). In axial coding, the logical paradigm of the causal conditions related to leadership development emerged. These causal conditions related the intricate working of the worldview development and the overarching family vision in each home. Finally, through selective coding, a narrative story could be told by selecting quotes from each family, displaying that the leadership development construction resembled the structure of a house. The theory, grounded in the data, could be stated: Organic leadership development permeated home schooling families in Central Texas as parents transferred leadership through home environments intentionally grounded in Christian worldview, structured within a framework of freedom, and dedicated to producing transformational leadership in their children.

A model of a house portrays a visual image of the theory established in this study, entitled Homes of Developing Leaders (Fig. 2). Just as a reliable roof shelters a domicile, so family vision shelters all members of a home schooling family. This family vision shelters all family members from counterproductive distractions to the Christian worldview and the
fulfillment of that mission. The Christian worldview lays a foundation for the development and transfer of leadership in the homes. A worldview, "fundamental cognitive orientation of an individual or society encompassing the entirety of the individual or society's knowledge and point-of-view, including natural philosophy; fundamental, existential, and normative postulates; or themes, values, emotions, and ethics" (Palmer, 1996, p. 118), creates a reliable precipice on which other philosophically adiaphorous matters can rest. A structure of freedom supports the family through integrated chores including sibling responsibilities, employment, and flexibly structured schedules. Just as pervasive as the clean air from a purification system, so leadership development emanates from families in this study. Never could one element stand alone as the key to the leadership development; but all elements of the home and home school working together to provide a pleasant and productive leadership-building environment.

Although each family displayed unique characteristics, all homes in the study promoted leadership development both intentionally and unintentionally. Overt acts of delegating responsibility to children occurred often. In addition, subliminal messages confirming responsibility's reward and leadership's valor prevailed in family discussions and parents interviews. These homes in Central Texas producing competent, mature young men and women, provided examples of the development and transfer of leadership in the home schooling environment.
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http://EBSCOhost.


Appendix A

IRB Code Number: 1530.020713

1. APPLICATION INSTRUCTIONS

To submit a protocol, complete each section of this form and email it and any accompanying materials (i.e. consent forms and instruments) to irb@liberty.edu. For more information on what to submit and how, please see our website at: www.liberty.edu/irb. Please note that we can only accept our forms in Microsoft Word format.

In addition, please submit one signed copy of the fourth page of the protocol form, which is the Investigator’s Agreement. Also submit the second page if a departmental signature is required for your study. Signed materials can be submitted by mail, fax (434-522-0506), or email (scanned document to irb@liberty.edu). Signed materials can also be submitted via regular mail or in person to our office: Green Hall, Suite 1837.

Please be sure to use the grey form fields to complete this document; do not change the format of the application. You are able to move quickly through the document by using the “Tab” key.

Note: Applications with the following problems will be returned immediately for revisions: 1) Grammar/spelling/punctuation errors, 2) A lack of professionalism (lack of consistency/clarity) on the application itself or any supporting documents, 3) Incomplete applications. Failure to minimize these errors will cause delays in your processing time.

BASIC PROTOCOL INFORMATION

Protocol Title:

Principal Investigator (PI):

Professional Title: Johnnie K. Seago School/Department: Liberty University/School of Education

Mailing Address: 12345 Lake Vista Dr. Willis, TX 77318

Telephone: 713-5451435 LU Email: jkseago@liberty.edu

Check all that apply: Faculty Graduate Student Undergraduate Student Staff

This research is for: Class Project Master’s Thesis Doctoral Dissertation

Faculty Research Other (describe):

Have you defended and passed your dissertation proposal? No

If no, what is your defense date?
Faculty Advisor: Dr. James Swezey
School/Department: School of Education
Telephone: LU Email: jaswezey@liberty.edu

Non-key Personnel:
Name and Title:
School/Department:
Telephone: LU Email:

Consultants:
Name and Title: Lucinda Spaulding
School/Department: School of Education
Telephone: 434-592-4307 LU Email: lsspauldaing@liberty.edu

Liberty University Participants:
Do you intend to use LU students, staff, or faculty as participants in your study? If you do not intend to use LU participants in your study, please indicate “no” and proceed to the section titled “Funding Source.” If yes, please list the department and classes you hope to enlist, and the number of participants you would like to enroll.

No

Department Class(es)

In order to process your request to use LU participants, we must ensure that you have contacted the appropriate department and gained permission to collect data from them. Please obtain the original signature of the department chair in order to verify this.

Signature of Department Chair Date

Funding Source: If research is funded please provide the following:
Grant Name (or name of the funding source):

Funding Period (month/year):

Grant Number:

**Anticipated start and completion dates for collecting and analyzing data:**

December 2012 start date and March 2012 end date

**OTHER STUDY MATERIALS AND CONSIDERATIONS**

**Does this project call for (more detail will be required later):**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
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<tr>
<td>Use of voice, video, digital, or image recordings?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Participant compensation?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Advertising for participants?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<td>More than minimal psychological stress?</td>
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<td>Confidential material (questionnaires, photos, etc.)?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<td>Extra costs to the participants (tests, hospitalization, etc.)?</td>
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<td>More than minimal risk? *</td>
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<td>Alcohol consumption?</td>
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<td>Waiver of Informed Consent?</td>
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<td>The use of protected health information (obtained from healthcare practitioners or institutions?)</td>
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<td>The use of other fluids that could mask the presence of blood (including urine and feces)?</td>
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<td>The use of <strong>Radiation or Radioisotopes?</strong></td>
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*Minimal risk is defined as “the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research are not greater in and of themselves than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests.” [45 CFR 46.102(i)]

**INVESTIGATOR AGREEMENT & SIGNATURE PAGE**

BY SIGNING THIS DOCUMENT, THE INVESTIGATOR AGREES:

1. That no participants will be recruited or entered under the protocol until the Investigator has received the final approval or exemption email from the Chair of the Institutional Review Board.
2. That no participants will be recruited or entered under the protocol until all key personnel for the project have been properly educated on the protocol for the study.
3. That any modifications of the protocol or consent form will not be initiated without prior written approval, by email, from the IRB and the faculty advisor, except when necessary to eliminate immediate hazards to the participants.
4. The PI agrees to carry out the protocol as stated in the approved application: all participants will be recruited and consented as stated in the protocol approved or exempted by the IRB. If written consent is required, all participants will be consented by signing a copy of the approved consent form.
5. That any unanticipated problems involving risks to participants or others participating in the approved protocol, which must be in accordance with the **Liberty Way** (and/or the **Honor Code**) and the **Confidentiality Statement**, will be promptly reported in writing to the IRB.
6. That the IRB office will be notified within 30 days of a change in the PI for the study.
7. That the IRB office will be notified within 30 days of the completion of this study.
8. That the PI will inform the IRB and complete all necessary reports should he/she terminate University Association.

9. To maintain records and keep informed consent documents for three years after completion of the project, even if the PI terminates association with the University.

10. That he/she has access to copies of 45 CFR 46 and the Belmont Report.

Johnnie K. Seago
Principal Investigator (Printed)  electronic signature Johnnie K. Seago
Principal Investigator (Signature)
Date

FOR STUDENT PROPOSALS ONLY

BY SIGNING THIS DOCUMENT, THE FACULTY ADVISOR AGREES:

1. To assume responsibility for the oversight of the student’s current investigation, as outlined in the approved IRB application.

2. To work with the investigator, and the Institutional Review Board, as needed, in maintaining compliance with this agreement.

3. That the Principal Investigator is qualified to perform this study.

4. That by signing this document you verify you have carefully read this application and approve of the procedures described herein, and also verify that the application complies with all instructions listed above. If you have any questions, please contact our office (irb@liberty.edu).

Dr. J. Swezey
Faculty Advisor (Printed)  d
Faculty Advisor (Original Signature)
Date

*The Institutional Review Board reserves the right to terminate this study at any time if, in its opinion, (1) the risks of further experimentation are prohibitive, or (2) the above agreement is breached.

PURPOSE

1. Purpose of the Research: Write an original, brief, non-technical description of the purpose of your project. Include in your description: Your research hypothesis or question, a narrative that explains the major constructs of your study, and how the data will advance your research hypothesis or question. This section should be easy to read for someone not familiar with your academic discipline.

The purpose of this systematic grounded theory study is to develop a model describing the process, whereby first-generational home schooled students, now parents, (who are currently home schooling their own children) developed and transferred transformational leadership skills in their second-generational home schooling students in the central Texas area. The development and transfer of leadership skills is an important phenomenon. Information concerning how this process takes place will benefit parents, mentors,
teachers, and anyone interested in developing leaders within an organization. Data collection includes interviews, observations, and surveys. Data analysis will be carried out according to the systematic grounded theory approach protocol.

I. PARTICIPANT INCLUSION/EXCLUSION CRITERIA

1. **Population:** From where/whom will the data be collected? Address each area in non-scientific language. Enter N/A where appropriate.

   The inclusion criteria for the participant population including gender, age ranges, ethnic background, health status and any other applicable information: Provide a rationale for targeting this population.

   The exclusion criteria for participants:

   Explain the rationale for the involvement of any special population (Examples: children, specific focus on ethnic populations, mentally retarded, lower socio-economic status, prisoners).

   Provide the maximum number of participants you seek approval to enroll from all participant populations you intend to use and justify the sample size. You will not be approved to enroll a number greater than this. If, at a later time, it becomes apparent you need to increase your sample size, you will need to submit a Change in Protocol Form.

   **For NIH, federal, or state-funded protocols only:** Researchers sometimes believe their particular project is not appropriate for certain types of participants. These may include, for example: women, minorities, and children. If you believe your project should not include one or more of these groups, please provide your justification for their exclusion. Your justification will be reviewed according to the applicable NIH, federal, or state guidelines.

   Participants in the study will be home schooling parents who were also home schooled for at least seven years of their grammar school or secondary education. The second group of participants will be the home schooling children of the first group of participants. The third group of participants will be coaches, mentors, or supervisors who act in a supervisory role over the home schooling children in an extracurricular activity. All participants will live in the Central Texas region, since home schooling has been legal in this state longer than surrounding states and the population needs to include both parents and children to hear the voice of those young leaders themselves. Adult participants will be between 30 and 60 years of age. Children will be between three years of age and 18 years. Children ages 10 and above will be targeted for inclusion in the interview and observation, but the younger siblings will not be excluded from the study since children this young have been studied and shown to exhibit leadership ability. Children must be included or the research will only reflect thoughts and activities of the parents and not represent the ideas and impressions of the second-generation. Both male and female participants will be included. No ethnic limitation will be involved. No participants will be included who do not have children participating in outside-the-home extracurricular activities due to the fact that the leadership skills need to be observed in a group settings and an outside voice needs to be included in the data. No participants will be included who do not have a signed consent. The maximum number of participants for the study will be 100. This number represents a maximum of 10 families with a hypothetical two parents, four children, and 40 adult supervisors who observe the children. Grounded theory design recommends seven to
25 participants until data saturation is achieved.

2. **Types of Participants:** Check all that apply:

- Normal Volunteers (Age 18-65)
- Minors (under age 18)
- Over age 65
- University Students
- Active-Duty Military Personnel
- Discharged/Retired Military Personnel
- Inpatients
- Outpatients
- Patient Controls
- Fetuses
- Cognitively Disabled
- Physically Disabled
- Pregnant Women
- Participants Incapable of Giving Consent
- Prisoners or Institutional Individuals
- Other Potentially Elevated Risk Populations

I. **RECRUITMENT OF PARTICIPANTS**

1. **Contacting Participants:** Describe in detail how you will contact participants regarding this study. Please provide all materials used to contact participants in this study. These materials could include letters, emails, flyers, advertisements, etc. If you will contact participants verbally, please provide a script that outlines what you will say to participants.

Since I am a home schooling parent and native to Central Texas, I will ask acquaintances and friends to recommend participants for the study. Recommendations will be accepted if those recommended are adults who were home schooled for at least seven years and are currently home schooling their own children, with some children at least 10-years-old. Also, participants must have children enrolled in an extracurricular activity with a supervisor who is willing to participate. The initial request will be made via personal communication to friends and acquaintances via email, telephone, and face-to-face at local home school conferences. I will have business cards with my contact information on them to give to friends to give to others who may be interested. I will issue a blanket request to Facebook friends who are home schooling, asking for recommendations. Friends and acquaintances will be asked to make contact with the possible participants, securing permission for me to contact them personally. If more participants are needed, I will run an ad in the state home schooling magazine asking for participants.

2. **Location of Recruitment:** Describe the location, setting, and timing of recruitment.
Recruiting will be done online, on the telephone, in the Texas Home School Coalition magazine, and at the Marriott Hotel in The Woodlands, Texas. The timing will be late November, 2012 after securing IRB approval.

3. **Screening Procedures**: Describe any screening procedures you will use when recruiting your participant population.

   I will screen participants, when I call to set up appointments, to insure that they meet the qualifications of the study. Participants must have been home schooled at least seven years. They must be currently home schooling their own children. They must have their children involved in extracurricular activities. They must have contacted the supervisors of their child(ren)’s extracurricular activity and been given permission for me to observe and interview them.

4. **Relationships**: State the relationship between the Principal Investigator, Faculty Advisor (if applicable) and Participants. Do any of the researchers have positions of authority over the participants, such as grading authority, professional authority, etc.? Are there any relevant financial relationships? If yes, please answer number 5 below.

   The investigator has no position of authority over the participants. There are no financial relationships.

5. **Safeguarding for Conflicts of Interest**: What safeguards are in place to reduce the likelihood of compromising the integrity of the research? (Examples: Addressing the conflicts in the consent process, emphasizing the pre-existing relationship will not be impacted by participation in research, etc.).

I. **RESEARCH PROCEDURES**

1. **Description of the Research**: Write an original, non-technical, step-by-step description of what your participants will be required to do during your study and data collection process. Do not copy the abstract/entire contents of your proposal. (Describe all steps the participants will follow. What do the data consist of? Include a description of any media use here, justifying why it is necessary to use it to collect data).

   Participants will be asked to participate in observations and interviews. Participants (home schooling parents and their children) will be asked to allow investigator to observe two hours of home schooling in their own home. This observation will be video-recorded on a small flip video recorder. Adult participants will then be asked to participate in a 45 minute-one hour interview. Children will be asked to participate in a 30 to 45 minute interview. All interviews will be audio recorded with a LiveScribe pen. Children will be asked to be observed in one extra curricular activity. The adult supervisors of these activities will be asked to complete a short survey and answer participate in a brief interview. The video and audio recordings are necessary for the researcher to review while data analysis and coding for grounded theory is completed.
*Also, please submit one copy of all instruments, surveys, interview questions or outlines, observation checklists, etc. to irb@liberty.edu with this application.

1. **Location of the Study:** Please describe the location in which the study will be conducted (Be specific; include city and state).
   The study will be conducted in cities and towns surrounding Houston, Texas. These towns include Magnolia, Montgomery, Spring, Navasota, Austin, Brenham, and College Station.

1. **Will participant data be collected anonymously?** Describe.
   Participants will be provided anonymity through the process of providing pseudonyms in data analysis and reporting. Due to observations and interviews in the participants homes, data will not be collected anonymously.

I. **DATA ANALYSIS**

1. Estimated number of participants to be enrolled in this protocol or sample size for archival data: 35-50 with not more than 100.

2. Describe what will be done with the data and resulting analysis:
   The data will be analyzed using qualitative systematic grounded theory research methods. The resulting analysis will be reported in chapters four and five of my dissertation.

I. **PROCESS OF OBTAINING INFORMED CONSENT**

1. **Consent Procedures:** Describe in detail how you will obtain consent from participants and/or parents/guardians. Attach a copy of all Informed Consent/Assent Agreements. The IRB needs to ensure participants are properly informed and are participating in a voluntary manner. Consider these areas: amount of time spent with participants, privacy, appropriateness of individual obtaining consent, participant comprehension of the informed consent procedure, and adequate setting. For a consent template and information on informed consent, please see our website. If you believe your project qualifies for a waiver of the signature requirement on the informed consent document, note that here and describe how you will provide participants with the informed consent document. Then go to section X, and answer its questions.

   Adult participants will read the informed consent and be given the opportunity to ask questions. They will be asked to sign the form if they feel comfortable. Child participants will be read the assent form and given the opportunity to ask questions. They will then be given a copy of the informed assent form to read for themselves. They will be asked to sign the form if they are comfortable.

1. **Deception:** Are there any aspects of the study kept secret from the participants (e.g. the full purpose of the study)? **No**
XI. PARENTAL PERMISSION*

1. Does your study require parental permission? Yes
2. Does your study entail greater than minimal risk, without potential for benefit? No

*Please refer to the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) regulations (45 CFR 46.408) to determine whether your project requires parental consent and/or child assent. This is particularly applicable if you are conducting education research.

XII. ASSENT FROM CHILDREN AND WITNESS SIGNATURE

1. Is assent required for your study? Assent is required unless the child is not capable (age, psychological state, sedation), or the research holds out the prospect of direct benefit that is only available within the context of the research. If the consent process (full or part) is waived, assent may be also. See our website for this information. Yes
2. Please attach assent document(s) to this application.

XIII. WAIVER OR MODIFICATION FOR REQUIRED ELEMENTS IN INFORMED CONSENT PROCESS

1. Waiver or modification for required elements in informed consent is sometimes used in research involving a deception element. See Waiver of Informed Consent on the IRB website (link above). If requesting a waiver of consent, please address the following:
   Does the research pose greater than minimal risk to participants (greater than everyday activities)?
   Will the waiver adversely affect participants’ rights and welfare? Please justify.
   Why would the research be impracticable without the waiver?
   How will participant debriefing occur (i.e. how will pertinent information about the real purposes of the study be reported to participants, if appropriate, at a later date)?

XIV. CHECKLIST OF INFORMED CONSENT/ASSENT

1. Attach a copy of all informed consent/assent documents. Please see our Informed Consent materials and Informed Consent template to develop your document.

XV. WAIVER OF SIGNED INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

1. Waiver of signed consent is sometimes used in anonymous surveys or research involving secondary data. This does not eliminate the need for a consent document, but it does eliminate the need for a signature(s). If you are requesting a waiver of signed consent, please address the following (yes or no):
   Does the research pose greater that minimal risk to participants (greater than every day
activities)?
Does a breach of confidentiality constitute the principal risk to participants?
Would the signed consent form be the only record linking the participant and the research?
Does the research include any activities that would require signed consent in a non-research context?
Will you provide the participants with a written statement about the research (an information sheet that contains all the elements of the consent form but without the signature lines)?

XVI. PARTICIPANT PRIVACY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

1. **Privacy:** Describe what steps you will take to protect the privacy of your participants. Privacy refers to persons and their interest in controlling access to their information.

   All data will be physically contained in a locked desk in my home. Digital data will be password protected. All participants will have pseudonyms; there will be no document linking actual names and pseudonyms. Access to the locked desk will be will be by the researcher.

1. **Confidentiality:** Please describe how you will protect the confidentiality of your participants. Confidentiality refers to agreements with the participant about how data are to be handled. Indicate whether the data are archival, anonymous, confidential, or confidentiality not assured and then provide the additional information requested in each section. The IRB asks that if it is possible for you to collect your data anonymously (i.e. without collecting the participants’ identifiable information), please construct your study in this manner. Data collection in which the participant is not identifiable (i.e. anonymous) can be exempted in most cases.

   **Are the data archival?**
   No (please skip to 3)

*Please note: if your study only includes archival data, answer no to 2-b, 2-c, 2-d, and leave 2-e blank.*

   **Are the data publicly accessible?**
   Yes (Please answer below)
   Please provide the location of the publicly accessible data (website, etc.).
   No (Please answer below)
   Please describe how you will obtain access to this data and provide the board with proof of permission to access the data.

   **Will you receive the data stripped of identifying information, including names, postal addresses, telephone numbers, email addresses, social security numbers, medical record numbers, birth dates, etc.?**

   Yes (see below)
   Please describe who will link and strip the data. Please note that this person should have regular access to the data and he or she should be a neutral third party not involved in the study.
No (see below)
If no, please describe what data will remain identifiable and why this information will not be removed.

**Can the names of the participants be deduced from the data set?**

No

**Please provide the list of data fields you intend to use for your analysis and/or provide the original instruments used in the study.**

**C. Are the data you will collect anonymous?** (Data do not contain identifying information including names, postal addresses, telephone numbers, email addresses, social security numbers, medical record numbers, birth dates, etc., and cannot be linked to identifying information by use of codes or other means. If you are recording the participant on audio or videotape, etc., this is not considered anonymous data).

No

1. **Can the names of the participants be deduced from the data?**

No

* If you agree to the following, please type your initials: I will not attempt to deduce the identity of the participants in the study:

1. **Are the data you will collect confidential?** (Confidential data contain identifying information and/or can be linked to identifying information by use of codes or other means). Please note that if you will use participant data (such as photos, videos, etc.) for presentations beyond data analysis for the research study (classroom presentations, library archive, conference presentations, etc.) you will need to provide a materials release form to the participant. **No**

   Yes (see below)

   Please describe the process you will use to collect the data and to ensure the confidentiality of the participants. Verify that the list linking codes to personal identifiers will be kept secure by stating where it will be kept and who will have access to the data.

   **No**

1. **Will you assure confidentiality in the study?** (For example, will you handle and store the data in such a way as to prevent a breach in confidentiality?) Please note that if you will use participant data (such as photos, videos, etc.) for presentations beyond analysis for the research study (classroom presentations, library archive, conference presentations, etc.) you need to provide a materials release form to the participant.

   Yes (see below)

   No (see below) **No**
1. **Please describe how you will maintain confidentiality of the data collected in your study.** This includes how you will keep your data secure (i.e. password protection, locked files), who will have access to the data, and methods for destroying the data once the three year time period for maintaining your data is up.

All collected data will be maintained under pseudonyms, with no document linking actual names to pseudonyms. Data will be stored in a locked desk with only researcher having access to the documents. Digital data will be stored on password protected equipment. Data will be stored for three years in the researcher’s home. Storage will be in a home office. Once the data maintenance period of three years has passed all paper documents will be shredded, all digital data will be deleted. All digital recordings will be erased.

1. **Media Use**: If you answer yes to any question below, in question VI (1), **Description of Research**, please provide a description of how the media will be used and justify why it is necessary to use the media to collect data. Include a description in the Informed Consent document under “What you will do in the study.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Will the participant be audio recorded?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will the participant be video recorded?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will the participant be photographed?</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will the participant be audio recorded, video recorded, or photographed without their knowledge?</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1) If yes, please describe the deception and the debriefing procedures: Attach a post-experiment debriefing statement and a post-deception consent form offering participants the option of having their tape/photograph destroyed.

e. If a participant withdraws from a study, how will you withdraw them from the audiotape, videotape, or photograph? Please include a description in the Informed Consent document under “How to withdraw from the study.” **If a participant withdraws from the study all data from that participant will be erased and destroyed.**

*Please note that all research-related data must be stored for a minimum of three years after the end date of the study, as required by federal regulations.*

I. **PARTICIPANT COMPENSATION**

1. **Describe any compensation that participants will receive.** Please note that Liberty University Business Office policies might affect how you compensate participants. Please contact your department’s business office to ensure your compensation procedures are allowable by these policies.

Participants will be given a small token of appreciation consisting of a gift card to a local home school book store.

I. **PARTICIPANT RISKS AND BENEFITS**
1. **Risks:** There are always risks associated with research. If the research is minimal risk, which is no greater than every day activities, then please describe this fact. **There is no risk greater than every day activities.** **Participants will be observed in their own homes voluntarily.** **Supervisors will be interviewed voluntarily at the places where they supervise children.**

Describe the risks to participants and steps that will be taken to minimize those risks. Risks can be physical, psychological, economic, social, legal, etc.

Where appropriate, describe any alternative procedures or treatments that might be advantageous to the participants.

Describe provisions for ensuring necessary medical or professional intervention in the event of adverse effects to participants or additional resources for participants.

1. **Benefits:** Describe the possible direct benefits to the participants. If there are no direct benefits, please state this fact. **Possible benefits include:** enjoyment of sharing life experiences with an interested investigator; opportunity for children to interact with adult in an educational pursuit; opportunity to read an investigator’s preliminary report (during analysis and reporting) of children’s developing leadership skill.

Describe the possible benefits to society. In other words, how will doing this project be a positive contribution and for whom (keep in mind benefits may be to society, the knowledge base of this area, etc.)? **The benefit to the greater society and home schooling community is the perspective and understanding gained from the study.** The model and theory the study will produce will benefit home schooling parents, educational mentors and teachers in ways that leadership is developed and transferred in their activities.

2. **Investigator’s evaluation of the risk-benefit ratio:** Please explain why you believe this study is still worth doing even with any identified risks.

**This study has limited risks and great benefits.** Home schooling parents want the opportunity to know that their children are being trained in a holistic manner, not just academically. This study provides that potential for understanding. Further, outside the home school world, in Christian schools, youth groups, and even public schools educators desire to know how to develop leadership traits in the students they mentor. This study provides the opportunity for a broader understanding of that phenomenon.
Appendix B

Informed Consent Form for Parents

Consent Form
The Development and Transferring Process of Transformational Leadership in Home Schooling Families in Central Texas

Johnnie K. Seago
Liberty University
School of Education

You are invited to be in a research study to understand how leadership is developed and transferred in the homes of parents who were home schooled and are now home schooling their own children in Central Texas. You were selected as a possible participant because you were home schooled and are now home schooling your children and have those children enrolled in at least one extracurricular activity. We ask that you read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

This study is being conducted by Johnnie K. Seago, Liberty University, School of Education.

Background Information:

The purpose of this study is to understand how transformational leadership is developed and transferred in the homes of home educating families where the parents were home schooled and are now home schooling their children.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to do the following things:
1) Allow the researcher to observe, and video record, a two hour block in which you are home educating your children.
2) Allow the researcher to interview you concerning your home schooling experience and how you are home schooling now.
3) Allow the researcher to record this interview with a Livescribe pen.
4) Allow the researcher to interview your children from a list of questions that you may see in advance.
5) Allow the researcher to record that interview with a Livescribe pen.
6) Allow the researcher to observe your child(ren) in an extracurricular activity. This will not be video recorded.
7) Allow the researcher to interview the coach, instructor, adult supervisor of the extracurricular activity concerning your child's leadership behavior.
8) Read de-identified transcripts of interviews for accuracy

Risks and Benefits of being in the Study:
The study has several risks: First, information gathered which indicates child abuse, adult abuse, or self-harm will be reported. Second, self-reflection in any social or educational setting may be painful. If you experience undue distress, which is unlikely, participation may be terminated.

The benefits to participation include: First, self-evaluation of how procedures are affecting your child(ren)’s leadership abilities; Second, you may benefit from future networking possibilities with other home schoolers; Lastly, the benefit to the Central Texas home schooling community concerning developing and transferring transformational leadership within home educating families.

**Compensation:**

There is no compensation for this study. However, you will receive a gift card ($25) to a local home school bookstore (The Homeschool Store in Houston, Texas) or Amazon.com for the future of school materials that would benefit your family in appreciation for your time.

**Confidentiality:**

The records of this study will be kept private. In any sort of report we might publish, we will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject. Research records will be stored securely and only researchers will have access to the records.

All families’ names and locations will be de-identified with pseudonyms and fictional locations. All recorded events and transcriptions of interviews and observations will kept in a locked desk in the researcher’s home. There is no anticipated further use of the data. However, if future projects would benefit from this data, you would be asked to submit an additional consent form for the data to be used again. Computers will contact password projection. Only the researcher will have access to the research data. All electronic data will be erased after three years complying with federal regulations.

**Voluntary Nature of the Study:**

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting this relationships. If you decide to withdraw from the study, please contact the researcher through email (jkseago@liberty.edu) or phone (713-545-1435). Upon your withdrawal from the study all data collected from you will be erased and/or destroyed.

**Contacts and Questions:**

The researcher conducting this study is Johnnie K. Seago. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you are encouraged to contact her them at jkseago@liberty.edu or 713-5451435. The student’s advisor is Dr. James Swezey. Dr. Swezey
can be contacted at jaswezey@liberty.edu

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher(s), you are encouraged to contact the Institutional Review Board, Dr. Fernando Garzon, Chair, 1971 University Blvd, Suite 1837, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at fgarzon@liberty.edu.

You will be given a copy of this information to keep for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

____ I consent to being video-recorded in my home observation.

___ I consent to being audio-recorded in my interview.

Signature: ____________________________________________ Date: ________________

____ I consent to my child(ren) being video-recorded in our home observation.

___ I consent to my child(ren) being audio-recorded in the interview.

Signature of parent or guardian: ______________________________ Date: ________________

(If minors are involved)

Signature of Investigator: ______________________________ Date: ________________

IRB Code Numbers: 1530.020713

IRB Expiration Date: February, 2014
Appendix C

Assent Forms for Students

Assent of Child to Participate in a Research Study

What is the name of the study and who is doing the study?

The Development and Transferring Process of Transformational Leadership in Home Schooling Families in Central Texas

Johnnie K. Seago
Liberty University
School of Education

Why are we doing this study?
We are interested in studying how transformational leadership is developed and transferred in the homes of home educating families where the parents were home schooled and are now home schooling their children.

Why are we asking you to be in this study?
You are being asked to be in this research study because your parents were home schooled and are now home schooling you. You live in central Texas where the study is being conducted. You participate in an extracurricular activity where you can be observed and your coach or supervisor can be interviewed.

If you agree, what will happen?
If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to do the following things:
1) Allow the researcher to observe, and video record, a two hour block in which you are home schooling with your parents.
2) Allow the researcher to interview you concerning your home schooling experience.
3) Allow the researcher to record this interview with a Livescribe pen.
4) Allow the researcher to observe you in an extracurricular activity. This will not be video recorded.
5) Allow the researcher to interview the coach, instructor, or adult supervisor of the extracurricular activity concerning your leadership behavior.

Do you have to be in this study?
No, you do not have to be in this study. If you want to be in this study, then tell the researcher. If you don’t want to, it’s OK to say no. The researcher will not be angry. You can say yes now and change your mind later. It’s up to you.

Do you have any questions?
You can ask questions any time. You can ask now. You can ask later. You can talk to the researcher. If you do not understand something, please ask the researcher to explain it to you again.

Signing your name below means that you want to be in the study.

_______________________________________________  __________________________
Signature of Child                                  Date

(If your participant is not capable of reading the prepared assent form, it may be read to them in the presence of a witness other than the principle investigator. If this is the case with your study, please remove the above “Signature of Child” identifier provided below the signature line and replace it with "Witness.")

Johnnie K. Seago
jkseago@liberty.edu
Candidate
Dr. James Swezey
Faculty Advisor
jswezey@liberty.edu
Liberty University Institutional Review Board,
Dr. Fernando Garzon, Chair,
1971 University Blvd, Suite 1837, Lynchburg, VA 24502
or email at fgarzon@liberty.edu.
Appendix D

Parent Interview Questions

This will act as the guide for the semi-structured interview questions for the parent interviews.

1. What are the schedules/routine/constructs in your home?

2. Is there anything in your schedule/routine/construct that you believe would lead to the transfer (Poutiatine, 2009)?

3. What other ways are you passing on leadership qualities (Burns, 1985)?

4. How do you model leadership in your home schooling environment?

5. How do you model leadership for your children when you are not home schooling in your home (Shields, 2010; Kouzes & Posner, 2008)?

6. What do you feel is revolutionary about home schooling? Consider political, cultural, and social implications.

7. How do you convey your desire for revolutionary in your home (Freire, 1970/2010)?

8. In what ways do you attempt to challenge your children (Vygotsky, 1978)?

9. In what ways do you take risks in front of your children?

10. How can risk taking demonstrate leadership in your home school (Joiner, 1987)?

11. What is different about your home schooling than the way you were home schooled?

12. What is the same in the way you were home schooled and the way your children are being home schooled?

13. Why have you made these decisions that you have made concerning how to home school your children (Ray, 2008; Poutiatine, 2009)?
Appendix E

Supervisor, Authority, Coach Interview Questions

The following questions will be semi-structured interview questions for the authorities over the home school students who participate in extracurricular activities:

1. How is this child given the opportunity to make authentic choices in this organization (Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006)?

2. Have you witnessed this child moving beyond looking out for his/her own needs to looking to the needs of others? Can you describe that incident (Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006)?

3. How do you see the children as effective teachers of the other children (Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006)?

4. When, if ever, have you witnessed the child becoming reflective about his/her role as a leader (Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006)?

5. Can you describe a time when the child exhibited compassionate leadership, caring for the ethical concerns of other children (Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006)?
Appendix F

Observational Guidelines

This list will act as a guide during student-parent home schooling observations.

How do the students display the following aspects of transformational leadership?

1. Transformation is not synonymous with change
2. Transformation requires assent to change
3. Transformation always requires second-order change
4. Transformation always involves all aspects of an individual’s or organization’s life
5. Transformation change is irreversible
6. Transformational change involves a letting go of the myth of control
7. Transformational change involves some aspect of risk, fear, and loss
8. Transformational change always involves a broadening scope of worldview
9. Transformational change is always a movement toward a greater integrity of identity—a movement toward wholeness (Poutiatine, 2009, p.190).
APPENDIX G

Business Card and Advertisement

Used as Advertisement for THSC annual program and monthly newsletter

[Image of a business card and a stack of books]

Home School Research Project
Would you be interested?
Johnnie K. Seago
Doctoral Candidate Liberty University

Conducting observations and interviews this fall.
More info:
713 545 1435
www.pceinfo.org
jkseago@gmail.com
www.callmom.co
Appendix H

Student Interview Questions

This will act as the scripture for the semi-structured student interviews with second-generational home schooling students.

1. How long have you been home schooling?

2. What is your typical day like?

3. Can you share the most exciting times in your home school experience?

4. What is the first thing you think in your mind when you enter a group of students you have never met (Renzulli-Hartman, 2004)?

5. Do you see yourself as a leader or follower (Renzulli-Hartman, 2004)?

6. Why do you see yourself as a leader or follower (Renzulli-Hartman, 2004)?

7. How can you be counted on to do what you promised (Renzulli-Hartman, 2004)?

8. How do you feel when your grandparents or others ask to see your schoolwork (Ray, 2008)?

9. Give me an example of when you had to adjust to a new situation (Bandura, 1977).

10. Tell me when you are happiest: alone or with people (Bernard, 2006).

11. Why are you happiest alone? or Happiest with people (Bernard, 2006)?

12. When you go into a team that needs to win a game or a group that needs to make a project and no one has a plan what do you do (Renzulli-Hartman, 2004)?


14. Name some of your friends you consider leaders (Schalkwyk and Bouwer, 2011)?

15. Would you consider yourself in the group of leaders? Why or why not (Schalkwyk and Bouwer, 2011)?
Accompanying Manuscript for Publication