Impact of networking and business environment on student leadership style

By: Ramo Palalić, Veland Ramadani, Dianne H. B. Welsh, Alina Dizdarević, and Arnela Đilović

Palalić, R., Ramadani, V., Welsh, D.H.B., Dizdarević, A., & Đilović; D. (2019). Impact of networking and business environment on student leadership styles. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*. DOI: 10.1007/s11365-019-00610-8

This is a post-peer-review, pre-copyedit version of an article published in *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*. The final authenticated version is available online at: http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11365-019-00610-8

*****© 2019 Springer Science+Business Media, LLC. Reprinted with permission. No further reproduction is authorized without written permission from Springer. This version of the document is not the version of record. *****

Abstract:

The study explores transformational and transactional leadership styles among 173 university students. The results show that different leadership styles are impacted by students' backgrounds. Consequently, leadership styles are influenced by either networking or the business environment. The importance of the leadership courses at universities is highlighted and provides a template for universities to follow. Implications are discussed.

Keywords: Leadership | Networking | Business environment | Students | Education

Article:

Introduction

The literature on leadership and leadership styles include a variety of theories and definitions (Nahavandi 2009). Some researchers define leadership as a process through which the activities of an organized group can be influenced (Stogdill 1950). For others, it is a process, which involves developing and communicating a vision for the future, motivating people, and engaging them (Armstrong 2009). The process of engaging followers to do defined tasks requires certain leadership styles. In this context, Kippenberger (2002) defines them as the styles that the leaders adopt in dealings with their followers. Similarly, leadership style is the point of interaction between the leader's character type, the followers' character types, and the situation (Kets de Vries 2001). Lewin et al. (1939) were among the first to identify different leadership styles when they claimed that there are democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire styles. Gatzels and Guba (1957) identified nomothetic and idiographic styles of leadership, while Goleman (2000) claimed that there are six basic leadership styles, namely: coercive, authoritative, affiliative, democratic, pacesetting, and coaching. However, some authors (Bass 1985; Burns 1978; Jung and Avolio 2000; Rowold and Heinitz 2007) distinguish between transactional and transformational leadership as the two main styles of leadership.

The first one who made the distinction between transformational and transactional leaders was Burns (1978), which was later modified by Bass (1985), and known as the Full Range of Leadership Theory (FRLT). This theory of leadership is constituted of transformational and transactional leadership. Transformational leadership aims to eventually transform followers into leaders through its dimensions of *idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration*. Meanwhile, the transactional leadership is based on a performance-reward basis reflected in contingent reward (CR), management by exception (MBE), which is active (MBE-A) and passive (MBE-P), as well as Laissez-Faire Leadership (LF) (Bass and Riggio 2006, p. 7–8).

The FLRT classifies leaders as transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire, represents one of the latest theories of leadership (Bass 1985).

Importance of the study

Leadership, in general, was rarely examined among students in higher education institutions, and most of the studies were concentrated on a relationship between leadership and employees' performance in organizations and public institutions. For instance, Khan et al. (2011) studied the leadership styles of educational professionals in higher education institutions. Islam et al. (2012) focused their research on the impact of the transformational and transactional leadership styles on the motivation and academic performance of the university students. For others, leadership in education was focused on teaching members (Bodla and Nawaz 2010).

One of the interesting articles published by Harvard Business Review (HBR) in 2017 is that young people who had already somehow established leadership were more paid in the market by 33%.[1] This shows a gap in the literature regarding the leadership styles of the students and the relationship between their styles and factors that can affect their leadership. Moreover, there are no studies related to the leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and students conducted in the region, especially in Bosnia and Herzegovina (B&H). In that regard, the study fills the gap in the literature on youth leadership, as well as extending the literature on leadership in education. Also, this will significantly contribute to profiling the education system, which can be a starting point to investigate more on how to prepare young persons for future challenges in the market and the society itself. Leadership intentions may not be improved as it was in the case of entrepreneurship courses (Chen et al. 2015), rather students may know the value of this phenomenon and whether they pursue a leadership career or not.

Why the student's population? It is because students are the generation that will take a lead in society soon, if not already. They will fulfill the labor market, trying to add value to organizations. Some of them, will run and lead businesses (firms and big organizations). While others will play the key roles in leading society. In this context, it is important to examine youth' leadership through transformational and transactional leadership styles, what can affect the styles while they are studying, and how to moderate those factors, through education or by other means. Moreover, analysis of the leadership styles in higher education institutions can be useful

[1] Harvard Business Review. Retrieved from: https://hbr.org/2017/02/research-how-leadership-experience-affects-students. Accessed on 15.08.2019.

for determining the appropriateness of the organizational culture and environment for the development of beneficial leadership practices.

Networking is identified as an important factor in the entrepreneurial intentions of students in previous studies (Taatila and Down 2012; Palalic et al. 2016). Youth can establish their networks while they are studying, to create a future hub for their professional career. Yet, building networks that will bring values to stakeholders is the one that all leaders do. Thus, we propose that networking can be one of the important factors influencing the leadership intention of students.

The business environment represents a surrounding in which youth, in this case, students, build leadership competencies. It is a community that surrounds students in which they are active (Rutten and Boekema 2007; Wright et al. 1998). The study considers the business environment as important because of the beliefs, values, attitudes, and behavior (Díaz-Casero et al. 2012) of individuals, private and public entities that in their aggregate can influence an intention of students to build and polish their leadership styles, or otherwise and to leave such environment. Previous research showed that the business environment can influence the entrepreneurial intention of students (Palalic et al. 2016), so we assume for the leadership too.

The main objective of this study is to analyze the impact of networking and the business environment on leadership styles among the students. Based on this objective, the study will discuss the following questions:

1. What is the general tendency of the leadership styles among university students?
2. Does networking have an impact on students' leadership style?
3. Does the business environment has an impact on students' leadership style?

To reach the objectives, and to answer the questions, the research included undergraduate and postgraduate students of the IUS.

This paper is organized into five sections. It begins with the introductory section which provides the basic information about the research problem, objectives, and significance of the study. The second section focuses on the existing literature on the topic of leadership, leadership styles, and the dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership, as well as the proposed hypotheses. The following section explains the method and design of the research and collection of the data. The fourth part discusses empirical results followed by the concluding remarks section with the educational implications and limitations of the study.

Literature background and hypotheses

Leadership is a phenomenon that was present from ancient times and yet is still being studied. The term leadership is not yet precisely defined, and its origin comes from the "common vocabulary and incorporated into the technical vocabulary of a scientific discipline" (Yukl 2010, p. 2). Since it is not precisely defined, which creates ambiguity, thus almost every researcher gave their definition (Yukl 2010). The definition of leadership is given by Weber (1947), who sees leadership through charisma. Others like Bass and Riggio (2006, p. 2) study leadership in

general terms, emphasizing that leadership is necessary to be at the "state-level" but it may happen to be "at all levels and by any individual". Leadership is a notion that is nowadays used in many areas of everyday life, such as economy, management, politics, sport, religion and so forth. Kotter (1990) says that leadership includes a strategic vision and ability to inspire and motivate others through the organization's system, processes and culture. Nahavandi (2008, p. 4) defines a leader as "a person who influences individuals and groups within an organization, helps them in establishing goals, and guides them toward the achievement of those goals, thereby allowing them to be effective." Swindall (2011, p. 6) stresses the importance of "a culture of engagement", suggesting that leaders must motivate and engage employees, and he finds that "the engagement of employees is never as high as the leaders believe it is". Though the leadership is not easy to define, some of the above authors agree to define leadership as the ability to influence and motivate others "and that one is seen as "charisma". Due to its complexity, and the area that covers, the leadership cannot be too precise but given a much broader term. In this context, we define *leadership as a genuine art and science, that paves the way peers towards the set objectives and goals, for which they are willingly ready to accomplish*. It is art because it requires virtuosity and mastery while dealing with human beings to perform tasks. It is science because it needs certain skills and techniques, and wisdom to lead people.

The leadership has been applied in various sectors in business environments. For instance, it has been studied and proved that different leadership styles had affected the performance of military services, firms, and other public institutions. Implications of these studies were a mostly positive relationship between transformational leadership and performance (Bass 1985; Bass and Avolio 1994a, 1996, 2000; Chandrakumara et al. 2009; Rao 2012; Yang 2008). Conversely, transactional leadership mostly did not affect performance in these sectors (Bass and Avolio 1994b, 1997, 2002).

This study sees that there is an opportunity to investigate, which leadership styles university students are into, and try to develop an educational strategy in this field that will develop a good future human capital (human resources) for non-government, government and private sector.

The full range of leadership theory

The FRLT evolved from transactional/transformational theory and represents one of the latest leadership theories (Antonakis and House 2002). The model comprises of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership as the three distinct leadership styles. The styles are represented by nine distinct factors of leadership using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) as the survey instrument (Bass 1985). Among the nine factors of leadership, there are five transformational leadership factors, three transactional leadership factors, and one laissez-faire leadership factor (Bass 1985). The full range of leadership implies that leaders are likely to display some or all the transformational-transactional characteristics and that an effective leader usually displays more of the active and less of the passive behaviors (Sosik et al. 2002). According to Antonakis and House (2002), leaders should display transformational behaviors most often, then transactional behaviors, while laissez-faire leadership should be practiced seldom or should be completely avoided. Namely, the laissez-faire leadership style is considered as the most passive and ineffective form of leadership since it implies that leaders avoid taking positions, making decisions, and using their authority (Bass 1985).

Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is a leadership style whereby a leader motivates his/her followers to perform better and beyond their expectations by transforming their values and priorities (Yukl 1994). It implies that people follow a person who inspires them and that they accept the values he/she expresses (Jung and Avolio 2000). The leaders practicing transformational leadership encourage their followers to go beyond their interests for the sake of the organization (Yukl 1999). They use the enthusiasm and energy to motivate their followers and are characterized by setting more challenging goals than transactional leaders do (Bass and Avolio 1994a, b). Bass (1985) argues that transformational leadership is a superior leadership performance and that it occurs when leaders broaden the interests of their employees when they generate awareness and acceptance of the collective mission, and when they inspire them to look beyond their interest for the interest of the group. Bass (1985) further claims that to achieve these results the transformational leaders should rely on charisma to inspire their followers, should meet the emotional needs of each employee, and should intellectually stimulate them. Thus, the transformational leadership theory consists of four dimensions: individualized consideration (IC), intellectual stimulation (IS), inspirational motivation (IM), and idealized influence (II) (Bass 1985).

Individualized consideration dimension implies that a leader pays attention to an individual follower and to his/her needs instead of treating all followers as having the same needs (Avolio et al. 1991). The leaders that rank high on the individualized consideration assume that each follower has different needs and tend to diagnose them to develop each follower's optimum potential (Avolio et al. 1991).

The intellectual stimulation dimension involves a leader who stimulates the followers to be innovative and creative by encouraging them to think through issues for themselves (Kirkbride 2006). Followers are encouraged to develop their own ideas and concepts, to try new approaches, and to think about the old problems in new ways (Sarros and Santora 2001). As a consequence of being intellectually stimulated by their leaders, followers develop their own skills and capabilities and can recognize, understand and solve future problems. Thus, leaders who rank high on intellectual stimulation are capable of making their followers aware of problems and sensitive to other followers' thoughts and imaginations (Avolio et al. 1991).

Inspirational motivation is the transformational leadership style whereby the leaders behave in the ways that motivate and inspire their followers to superior performance (Bass and Riggio 2006). Leaders that rank high on the IM dimension exert a high degree of enthusiasm and optimism. Also, they articulate an attainable vision of the future, clearly communicate it, and demonstrate a commitment to the goals (Bass and Riggio 2006).

Idealized influence is the transformational leadership style whereby a leader is regarded as a role model that possesses unusual competencies and exert high morality, honesty, integrity, trust, and purpose (Kirkbride 2006). It is sometimes associated with charismatic leadership (Yukl 1999). Leaders who exert high idealized influence are also high on emotional stability and control (Sarros and Santora 2001). Therefore, they can rise above their inner conflicts, but also, they

demonstrate high optimism, self-esteem, self-determination, self-confidence, and confidence in their followers (Sarros and Santora 2001).

Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership has been characterized as an exchange process governed by an explicit or an implicit contract (Bass 1985). Transactional leadership, therefore, implies a contractual agreement between a leader and his followers (Penn 2015), in which each side expects that the other one will fulfill the agreed terms of the transaction (Dartey-Baah 2015). According to Bass (1985), a transactional leader identifies expectations that his/her followers hold and provides rewards in exchange for the performance. Thus, transactional leaders involved in economic exchange with their followers where the followers can satisfy their needs in return for the expected performance (Sarros and Santora 2001).

There are three dimensions of transactional leadership: contingent reward (CR), management by exception – active (MBE-A), and management by exception-passive (MBE-P) (Judge and Piccolo 2004). Certain researchers consider laissez-fair leadership as the fourth dimension, but since it represents the absence of leadership, most of the conceptualizations of transactional leadership do not consider it (Barbuto 2005).

A contingent reward is a transactional style whereby a leader sets clear goals, objectives, and targets, and clarifies what rewards can be expected for successful completion, while the concept of rewards in the context of contingent reward dimension refers to financial or pecuniary rewards, but also the non-financial rewards (Kirkbride 2006). When managed properly, contingent rewards can be highly beneficial to the leader, the followers, and the organization (Nahavandi 2009). According to Kirkbride (2006), the CR leader should recognize what needs should be accomplished, should provide support in exchange for required effort, give recognition to followers, follow up to ensure that agreements are met, and should provide the required resources (Sarros and Santora 2001).

In *active management by exception-active*, a leader pays very close attention to any problems or deviations that arise and creates a very extensive monitoring and control systems (Kirkbride 2006). Therefore, the leader adopts a micromanagement approach in handling his/her followers, which involves detailed attention to their performance to ensure the adherence to the procedures (Dartey-Baah 2015).

Passive management by exception assures that leaders provide their followers with some supervisory space in carrying out their functions, yet intervene when problems arise (Dartey-Baah 2015). It can be argued that the leaders practicing passive management by exception tend to be relatively laissez-faire until deviations or issues of unmet performance standards arise, and they are usually considered to have poor performance monitoring systems and a wide range of acceptable performance standards (Kirkbride 2006).

In this study, transactional leadership is considered as the one which represents all aforementioned transactional styles of leadership. Other related theories to leadership were studied by other others, which are not the subject of the research. However, they are important to

mention. For instance, Testa (2002) used the “360-degree leadership assessment” to assess leadership relationships with all stakeholders in organizations, and if they are ignored, the feedback can be negative.

Similarly, Tony (2013) used the “360-degree assessment of leadership” in the industry. His study suggests that leaders should adjust their behavior to a specific situation, which is reflected in the individual (those who provide leadership training) and organizational (leaders in organizations) effectiveness. Others (Manning et al. 2009; Millmore et al. 2007) find this approach very useful in finding a relationship between leadership and other mediators in organizations. However, for this work, authors chose to examine transformational and transactional leadership of students and their determinants by using Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1994a, b). However, in using this theory it is necessary to say a few words on a correspondence of these two approaches.

Applying transformational and transactional leadership

A balance between transformational and transactional style relies upon two elements: risk and pressure. Risk is a component of the natural risk, and the risk longing of the firm, though pressure is an element of the authoritative execution, time introduction, and surrounding strength (Baškarada et al. 2017). In this manner, when the risk, identified with settling on a poor choice, is high, transactional leadership is utilized, and when the risk is generally low transformational leadership is worked out. The pressure or urgency factor additionally intercedes these conditions. To be more specific, when there is a low firm’s performance or dynamic environment, temperamental condition, or long-haul time introduction, at that point transformational leadership might be required even though the risk identified with poor decisions is high (Baškarada et al. 2017).

Cheung and Wong (2011) have considered the mitigating role of the leader’s duty and relations support in the relationship among transformational administration and a peer’s creativity level. They have discovered that there is a positive relationship between transformational leadership and worker’s creativity (innovativeness). Moreover, outcomes have shown that there is a strongly grounded positive relationship between transformational leadership and employee creativity if there is an extensive level of leader’s task and relations support. This implies the leader’s care for the socio-passionate necessities of employees prompts more inventive thoughts (Cheung and Wong 2011). As per this discovering, Khalili (2016) likewise demonstrated that there is a noteworthy positive relationship between transformational leadership and employees’ creativity and innovativeness levels. Subsequently, he reasoned that companies need to put resources into transformational leadership training and the choice of leaders having this style on the off chance that they need to build workers’ creative imagination and innovativeness levels.

Imran et al. (2016) found that transformational leadership has a hugely positive effect on organizational learning and knowledge management process capacity. Additionally, they found that knowledge management process capability halfway intervenes in the `positive relationship between transformational leadership and organizational learning. Besides, they likewise inferred that the presence of knowledge-intensive cultures reinforces the relationship between transformational leadership and knowledge management process capability.

Matzler et al. (2015) contemplated whether transformational leadership conduct is reliant on the leader's own sense of pride and his/her assessment of being important, skilled, and exemplary. Moreover, they additionally researched the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation achievement. They have discovered that transformational leadership and confidence are distinctly and fundamentally related and that transformational leadership has a positive effect on innovation achievement.

Yang (2014) contends that the school principal must enhance his/her transformational leadership throughout the process of school improvement since transformational leadership is the most vital factor that prompts school advancement. Transformational leadership encourages student's critical thinking and prompts the change in different stages. The way toward framing transformational leadership comprises of the embryonic stage, developmental stage, and mature stage. In this way, framing thoughts, constructing a common vision, control sharing, gaining confidence and encountering achievement shows the foremast's transformational leadership abilities.

Andersen (2015) considered transformational leadership as the universal as well as the contingency theory, which is seen as better than transactional, according to few authors in its early stage of development (Bass 1985; Burns 1978) and later by Birasnav (2014). This might be the reason for giving full attention to transformational leadership compared with transactional (Dinh et al. 2014). However, others contend that different situations require different leadership styles and therefore more research is needed to understand how different situational factors, which define common situations for leaders, together determine the most appropriate leadership style (Yukl 2012).

Having said this, Baškarada et al. (2017) examined leadership style is affected by different internal and external situational factors. They have conducted a qualitative research study and they have collected data from 11 senior leaders in Australian Defense using the MLQ. The results indicated that four organizational factors including human capital, performance, time orientation, and risk appetite, as well as two environmental factors including risk and stability, influenced the leader's choice of leadership style (Baškarada et al. 2017).

Based on the findings, the *transactional* leadership style is positively related to short-term time orientation like operational military decisions, which must be done in a short period that are more probable to be based on the tried and tested situations learned in the past. Aga (2016) argues that transactional leadership is truly important in project-based activities. Yet, transactional leadership represents the predecessor of the transformational leadership, specifically *contingent reward* leadership. The argument has the point because as much as people are involved in leading some activities, their experience hones their leadership skills. In situations where people are not interested anymore in any tangible reward, then transformational leadership can take the place.

Furthermore, Baškarada et al. (2017) argue that the environmental influences on the leadership style are further mediated by risks coming from the external environment and by the internal or organizational risk appetite. Therefore, military operations that happen in extremely dynamic environments, which are characterized by low-risk appetite are dominated by transactional

leadership styles. Nonetheless, low-risk appetite, which is positively related to transactional leadership, is also positively related to good or satisfactory organizational performance. On the other hand, the risk appetite may increase if there is an unsatisfactory organizational performance (Baškarada et al. 2017). Furthermore, they found that there is also a positive relationship between transactional leadership and scarcity in human capital such as lack of people and experience across different functions, senior leaders become too deeply involved in the work and decisions of the junior leaders.

The above discussion leads us to conclusion that transformational leadership positively affects individual and group performance (Wang et al. 2011; Buila et al. 2019), which increase job satisfaction (Wang et al. 2012) while nurturing creativity that leads to innovation (Qu et al. 2015; Palalić et al. 2017) in organizations. Transformational leadership plays an important role in implementing the long-term goals, in organizations as well as in other institutions (Palalic and Durakovic 2018). Furthermore, transformational leadership is a style, which simply matures peers in any organization or institution, and in the long-term, transforms them into leaders. It is because of the style oversees peers from the infancy stage to their developmental stage of being a leader. However, transactional leadership plays a significant role in the short-term, where some tasks should be done quickly or in a shorter period of time, and thus the long-term for this style does not play well and in its favor. Now, in case of university students, if they are given different opportunities, personal engagement, and stimulating environment, then the university can be a good environment in which students will be motivated for the leadership behavious and changing the young people minds to be leaders of their time (Perreault et al. 2015).

The convergence of leadership in education has been famous for decades (Little 2003), which amends the organizational literature. The question is what a parallel could be drawn? The higher educational institutions are perceived as a "quasi-organization" (Balwant 2016; Pounder 2008; Weaver and Qi 2005). It implies that in educational context these would be classrooms, students and teachers as leaders (Pounder 2008) while in business it is organization, employees and leaders. Both contexts are similar (Harrison 2011), with pretty much the same activities, "communication, coordination" and "control" (Kuchinke 1999). Another similarity is "power" (Balwant 2016). Leaders have a legitimate power to lead, coordinate and to control their followers, and in universities, teachers have authoritative power over their students, to reward or punish for doing/not doing assigned tasks.

In education, the main goal is a constant increasing learning outcome while in organizations, it is outperforming previous business performance (financial/non-financial). Learning outcomes are referred to a knowledge gained in classrooms that can be applied in the long term. How successful instructors (leaders) will be, depends on their leadership style, but also on "personal attributes" of peers (Jacques et al. 2017). Jacques et al. (2017) argue that peers' personality traits are important for the proper transformation of students into leaders, while Baškarada et al. (2017) signifies external factors that can influence that transformation, however. Transactional leadership plays a short-term role while transformational leadership is more long term (Baškarada et al. 2017).

Besides the importance of both leadership styles in any organization and educational settings, however, it is also important to emphasize, among others, critical factors that can affect both

transformational and transactional leadership. The study assumes that factors such as networking and business environment can affect both leadership styles. In the digital world, students are more exposed to establish a network that can positively influence their leadership style as well as the business environment (environment in which they live, work and communicate and collaborate with their classmates, colleagues, workmates if they have a job, etc.) than before.

Networking

Networking is an important determinant of the current and future development of individuals, who will be leading the socio-economic development in one country. The real purpose of networking is to establish or create long-term links with people, organizations, and institutions to produce values to individuals and groups in society. From the business perspectives, entrepreneurs try to establish a *network* within a business environment they operate in which all will mutually benefit. Such a phenomenon is described by earlier studies as a symbiotic business life (Dana et al. 2000; Emami and Khajeheian 2018; Etemad et al. 2001; Wright and Dana 2003). If the network is highly effective, then it is expected to have a good outcome (Hai et al. 2016).

However, not all people see networking through opportunity lenses. Some people are very passive while others can be very active in networking establishment. Naturally, people establish "social ties" in society, which can bring various future benefits. For youth, it simply means a future opportunity (Lepistö et al. 2019). In the educational context, students can gain from networks in terms of useful information, friendly guidance, instructions, and other crucial resources so they build social capital that is clustered over time (Batjargal 2003). In a network, all parties share their skills, knowledge, and experiences. The new knowledge learned from such a relationship can (re)shape their leadership styles. Thus, people from different calls (organizational or educational settings) in the society who have a well-established network can benefit from it. Such a beneficial network may be called a "healthy network" (Leithwood 2018), which can be replicated to higher educational institutions, though. For instance, the same views, strong collaborative activities of employees in organizations, are the same as students' ones, in which students collaborate among themselves, and have the same mindset across different grades of studies at universities.

Business environment

Business environment is described as a very dynamic community whose changes are rapid and almost untraceable. These changes are related to the globalization process that constructs a complex business environment, starting from demography, ethics, technology, education, and all other life aspects (Karaszewski 2010). In that content, an organization must adapt to the changes creating a new vision to afloat in the business and to succeed it. Therefore, the business environment can affect leadership styles in organizations. However, the transformational leadership style is the most adaptive one, which can respond positively from the least to the highest volatile environment (Beugré et al. 2006). A positive business environment supports creativity, and the realization of innovation (Fabová and Janáková 2015).

Regarding educational surroundings, some studies suggest that the educational environment should be a virtual business environment in which students will acquire and learn leadership

skills (Siewiorek et al. 2012). They propose that students should have simulated business environments because students' leadership skills can be trained and shaped over time. Replication of the business environment can be implemented through all subjects at a higher institution (Siewiorek et al. 2012), and its importance has been discussed by many authors (i.e., Aldrich 2004; Woods 2004). Such imitated business environments in higher education institutions help students learn, face and resolve issues that leaders face. In such mirrored business environments, students will be able to obtain skills in resolving complex leadership situations, which requires cooperation with pears (Lehti and Lehtinen 2005). They can experience negotiation skills (Susskind and Corburn 2000), study cases and problem solving skills (Lehtinen 2002), skills on leading teams (Lehtinen 2003), how to be caution and preventing mistakes (Garris et al. 2002), as well as skills on new experiences (Gee 2008) that leaders should look for. Such an educational environment, as the replication of the business environment, can influence leadership behavior of students. It is because students are exposed to different problems, issues and complex situations where all personal traits they have, should be used, and if necessary, adjusted to the situation. Transformational leadership, for instance, is flexible and it is adaptive to the situation. Business environment, especially in cross-cultural ambiance (Del Mar Benavides-Espinosa and Roig-Dobón 2011), can also influence positive learning, peculiarly leadership skills. Knowing the fact of this, education is a genuine place that authentically can hugely influence students in their intellectual development. Thus, future leaders should be trained and educated, in the way that they can change society in the long-term.

Based on the above discussions, we propose the following hypotheses as for the ultimate purpose of the study:

> **H1:***Business environment or networking significantly affects the transformational leadership of students.*

For the sake of the more detailed effects, the main hypothesis H1 is split up into four ancillary hypotheses to inspect each TL style of students and its relationship with the business environment and networking. Thus, we propose the following sub-hypotheses:

> H1a: *Charisma (idealized influence) of students is significantly affected by either a business environment or networking.*
>
> H1b: *Inspirational motivation of students is significantly affected by either a business environment or networking.*
>
> H1c: *Intellectual stimulation of students is significantly affected by either business environment or networking.*
>
> H1d: *Individualized consideration of students is significantly affected by either the business environment or networking.*
>
> **H2:***Either business environment or networking significantly affects the transactional leadership of students.*

The following figure represents the hypotheses framework of the study Fig. 1.

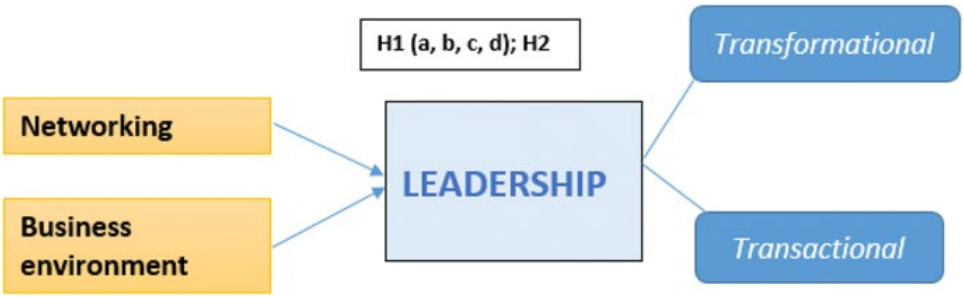

Figure 1. Hypotheses framework

Methodology

Population and sample

For the collection of the data, the quantitative research method was used. The study is cross-sectional since it was conducted once and examined a single point in time, involving the respondents that studied at the IUS at the time the research was carried out. The population for this study included students from both undergraduate and postgraduate programs at the IUS. The simple random sampling technique was used for obtaining the sample from 869 students. Students were asked to rate the descriptive statements about their leadership behaviors and to give the information about their gender, nationality, study program, the year of study, Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA), and the previous leadership experience.

According to the official IUS bulletin, there were up to 2000 students studying at the IUS in the academic year 2015/16 (International University of Sarajevo (IUS) 2015). However, the sample population included 869 students who were full-time students with provided contact details at the IUS in the academic year 2015/16. The response rate was 19.9%, corresponding to 173 students who agreed to participate in the study. The rationale for this study sample is followed by other studies that had different sample sizes in their research. A bigger sample size gives better results, however, some of the eminent researchers had to use a smaller sample size for their work. For instance, Covin & Slevin (Covin and Slevin 1988; Covin and Slevin 1989) used the sample size for the analysis $n = 80$ and $n = 161$ respectively. Lee et al. (2001) used a sample $n = 137$, while Lee and Lim (2009) n = 137 too. Based on this, we proceeded with the current sample size, which had satisfied the primary objectives of the study.

Survey instrument

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used. The MLQ was developed by Bass and Avolio (2002) to measure a broad range of leadership styles ranging from passive leaders to leaders who transform and empower their followers and give them a chance to be leaders themselves. The respondents may be followers, colleagues, or the leaders themselves (Bass and Avolio 2002). The MLQ is comprised of 45 items (Bass and Avolio 2002), but for this study, the modified version of 20 items was used.

The original MLQ was modified since students are not patient to answer long surveys. Perhaps, answering the survey is not their primary objective. Students' culture is usually based on something which will be self-interest, and rarely all of them will take it seriously. Again, different results may be derived (Dolnicar and Grün 2007). These facts can easily decrease the response rate as well as sample size. According to some authors (Linsky 1975) modifying surveys is not a favorable action, which may lose the content, and the response rate will not depend on the surveys' length (Yu and Cooper 1983). Some of them go further and argue that even a response rate will depend on a paper size that the content is written on (Baumgartner and Heberlein 1984). Others say that shorter questionnaires are not impacting a better response rate (Kanuk and Berenson 1975). Despite all the facts, however, sometimes it is necessary to adapt it to the population that will be examined (Yammarino et al. 1993). Additionally, a response rate is much better if a short survey is given to participants (Roszkowski and Bean 1990). Moreover, the response rate can be impacted by not only the length of the survey but also other significant factors that come along the survey content and outlook (Kanuk and Berenson 1975).

At the time of conducting the survey, it was important to get a decent sample size to analyze the data. Thus, the decision on 20 items was brought by a team, which had a background in this field. After a discussion of what shall be remained in the context of this kind of environment, the pilot test has been launched. It was a time of 15 days in which respondents (students) were asked for their feedback at the end of the survey. Some terms were revised to comply with the survey target group.

Among 20 items that are included in the questionnaire, twelve are related to the transformational leadership and eight to the transactional style. The 12 items of transformational leadership include 3 questions per each dimension, while 8 items of transactional leadership include 2 questions per dimension. In addition, the questionnaire included a part where the respondents were asked to provide general demographic information.

This study uses a self-rating form that determines the leadership style of the person as per his or her perception. The survey used the 5-point Likert's-type scale which includes "not at all" as reflected by 0, "once in a while" as represented by 1, "sometimes" as represented by 2, "fairly often" represented 3, and "frequently if not always" which is reflected by the number 4 (Bass et al. 1974).

To test hypotheses, the study included an additional nine questions for networking (five questions) and a business environment (four questions). *Networking* construct is adopted from Taatila and Down (2012) with the 7-point Likert scale. Taatila & Down supported arguments of previous studies (Burt 1992; Coleman 1988; Granovetter 1985) that in networking matters its "structure" and the level of mutual interaction of network members. Yet, being an efficient network, it should be as large as possible (Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998; Shane and Stuart 2002), which will produce a wide span of useful information and experience. The following questions were adopted from Taatila and Down (2012):

- You prefer to spend the majority of your time with a few trusted people instead of a large and constantly changing group of people.
- You are very task-oriented, using Your time on working or studying.

- You separate the social life in Your free time very clearly from the social circles of Your work/studies.
- You are very people-oriented, using Your time in communicating with other people.
- You actively use Your social networks to advance in Your work/studies.

The *business environment* has been adopted by Palalic et al. (2016). This pool of questions was selected because environment plays an important factor in entrepreneurial intentions of students, their vision for the future career (Gerba, 2012; Isada et al. 2015; Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998; Shane and Stuart 2002, Palalić et al. 2017). With the same analogy, it is assumed that the environment can take part in shaping students' leadership behavior. The following questions made the business environment construct:

- You are demotivated to pursue Your business opportunities by the current business surrounding.
- The current business landscape encourages You to pursue Your business opportunity.
- There are no business opportunities in this business environment for You.
- You will probably pursue Your business opportunities in other business environments.

Other control variables like age, level of study (Palalic et al. 2016) and program (Gerba, 2012), were included at the beginning of data analysis, however, they were not significant and thus they are excluded from the further analysis. None of them influenced in shaping students' leadership styles. Data strength for dependent and independent variables are checked so that the quality of the collected data is reliable.

Data collection and analysis

The data for the research was collected using the electronic survey tool Google Forms as well as by using the traditional paper version. The link to the survey was sent by e-mail to some of the students selected by the simple random sampling method, while the others were provided with a paper form. The data collection started at the beginning of April and lasted until the end of May 2016. The data collected using the electronic and paper form of the survey was entered and analyzed in Excel 2007 to answer the research questions.

Empirical results and discussion

Profile of respondents

The data show that the students who responded to the survey are members of 11 different national groups. Most of the participants are of Bosnian nationality, followed by the students of Turkish nationality, which are also the two largest groups at the IUS. The number of male and female participants is almost equal, with 51.4% being female and 48.6% being male respondents. The majority of the students who participated in the study are from the Faculty of Engineering and Natural Sciences (FENS), followed by the students from the Faculty of Business and Administration (FBA), Faculty of Art and Social Sciences (FASS) The smallest percentage of the students was from Law (FLW). Moreover, most of the students who responded to the survey are in the first study cycle, which is also the largest population at the IUS. The largest number of

respondents is senior students (34.7%), followed by freshmen (22%) and junior students (20.2%). The majority of the respondents had CGPA between 3 and 4. On the other side, the minority had the highest score as well as the score below 1. The students were also asked to provide information about their previous leadership experience. In that regard, many of the students (72.8%) gave the affirmative answer to the question "Did You lead any team before?"

Transformational and transactional leadership

The results show that the students' scores are higher on the dimensions of the transformational leadership (Idealized Influence 3.14; Inspirational Motivation 3.02; Individualized Consideration 2.99, and Intellectual Stimulation 2.96) than on the dimensions of the transactional style (Contingent Reward 2.83; Management by Exception-Active 2.64; Management by Exception-Passive 1.61, and Laissez-Faire 1.53). Furthermore, students have the highest ratings on the idealized influence dimension, followed by inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. The ratings are also high on the contingent reward and management by exception-active dimensions of transactional leadership, while there are lower ratings on management by exception-passive and laissez-faire dimensions. Compared to Bass and Avolio's (2002) findings, it shows that the surveyed students of the IUS have very high ratings on most of the dimensions (inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and idealized influence should be greater than three).

Bass and Avolio (2002) argue that the good leaders have the contingent reward score greater than 2, MBE-A score below 1.5, MBE-P greater than 1.0, and the lowest rating on the laissez-faire dimension (<1.0). our study shows that students' score on CR dimension (2.83) satisfies the Bass & Avolio's argument (2.83), while other dimensions are not satisfied (MBE-A (2.64) MBE-P (1.61), and laissez-faire (1.53)).

The proportion of results of transformational and transactional leadership is that 86% of all students declared as transformational while 14% are transactional. Regarding gender scores, the results show that females are more transformative (51%) than males (49%). Therefore, results lead to the conclusion that surveyed females are more transformers than males. On the other side, only 12 among 87 female respondents to the questionnaire had higher preferences for transactional behaviors. Also, most of the male students have higher preferences to transformational than for transactional style of leading.

Regarding the faculty differences in leadership styles among surveyed students, the highest percentage goes to students with transactional leadership behavior who are enrolled at the Faculty of Social Sciences (FASS), followed by Faculty of Business Administration (FBA) and the Faculty of Engineering and Natural Sciences (FENS). Similarly, surveyed students of the Faculty of Law (FLW) exert transformational behaviors more than transactional ones.

Examining the previous leadership experience and leadership styles, the majority of the IUS students responded by an affirmative answer to the question about the previous leadership experience. Among the students who had the leadership experience in the period before the survey took place, 84.9% have the characteristics of transactional leaders, while 15.1% have a higher tendency for transformational behaviors. Many students who answered that they had

never led a team to have the characteristics of transformational leaders, and only 2.8% have transactional leadership characteristics.

The high number of transactional leaders among the experienced students may be from the reason of being faced with the situations where the followers obeyed the rules only when the clear goals are set when the rewards are clarified, and where the detailed attention to the performance is provided. Conversely, the reason for the higher number of transformational leaders among the students without experience may be the fact that they did not have the opportunity to face the difficulty of motivating followers while behaving in transformational manners.

Study 1: Transformational leadership, networking and business environment

To examine the relationship between transformational leadership and business environment and networking, and a relationship between transactional leadership, business environment, and networking, regression analysis is applied. This relationship is examined separately for transformational and transactional leadership.

Effects of the business environment and networking on transformational leadership of students are expressed in hypothesis 1:

> **H1:** *Either business environment or networking significantly affects the transformational leadership of students*.

R^2 indicates that only 15.1% of the model variation is explained by networking and business environment as model predictor variables (Table 1). It tells us that the model is viable and can be used for analyses. The regression results of the model results are shown in Table 2. It is shown that the H1 is accepted (p value =0.0001; $t = 4.892$), where networking explains the students' transformational leadership significantly. However, the business environment is not significant in determining the affinity of students towards transformational leadership (p value = 0.164; t = 1.398).

Table 1. Goodness of fit statistics (transformational leadership)

Item Description	Values
Observations	173
Sum of weights	173
DF	170
R^2	0,151
Adjusted R^2	0,141

Table 2. Regression model for transformational leadership

Item Description	Value	St. Error	t value	Pr > |t|	Lower Bound 95%	Upper Bound 95%
Intercept	1742	0,245	7118	<0,0001	1259	2225
Networking	0,218	0,045	4892	<0,0001	0,13	0,306
Business Environment	0,057	0,041	1398	0.164	-0,024	0,139

H1a: Charisma (idealized influence) of students is significantly affected by either a business environment or networking.

According to Table 3, R^2 shows that only 13.1% of the model variation is explained by networking and business environment. Furthermore, networking significantly affects students' charisma (p value =0.0001; $t = 4.772$). Although the model overall is significant (Table 4), however, the business environment shows an insignificant relationship with students' charisma (idealized influence) (Table 5). The H1a is accepted.

Table 3. Goodness of fit statistics (idealized influence)

Item Description	Values
Observations	173,000
Sum of weights	173,000
DF	170,000
R^2	0,131
Adjusted R^2	0,121

Table 4. Analysis of variance (idealized influence)

Item Description (Source)	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean squares	F	Pr > F
Model	2	11,596	5798	12,793	<0,0001
Error	170	77,045	0,453		
Corrected Total	172	88,640			

Table 5. Regression results for idealized influence

Item Description (Source)	Value	Standard error	t	Pr > ItI	Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)
Intercept	1660	0,322	5158	<0,0001	1025	2296
Networking	0,280	0,059	4772	<0,0001	0,164	0,395
Business	0,032	0,054	0,590	0,556	-0,075	0,139

H1b: Inspirational motivation of students is significantly affected by either a business environment or networking.

Table 6. Goodness of fit statistics (inspirational motivation)

Item Description	Values
Observations	173,000
Sum of weights	173,000
DF	170,000
R2	0,074
Adjusted R2	0,063

Inspirational motivation has been affected significantly by networking, unlike the business environment (p value =0.002; $t = 3.133$). Although R^2 shows only 7.4% of the model fit, however, the model overall is significant (Tables 6 and 7). Thus, we accept the H1b which confirms influence at least one predictor variable (networking) on students' inspirational motivation (Table 8).

H1c:*Intellectual stimulation of students is significantly affected by either a business environment or networking.*

Table 7. Analysis of variance (inspirational motivation)

Item Description (Source)	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean squares	F	Pr > F
Model	2	6039	3020	6794	0,001
Error	170	75,555	0,444		
Corrected					
Total	172	81,594			

Table 8. Model parameters (inspirational motivation)

Source	DF	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	Pr > F
Model	2	6860	3430	8260	0,000
Error	170	70,596	0,415		
Corrected Total	172	77,457			

The intellectual stimulation of students is significantly affected by either business environment or networking is shown in Tables 9, 10, and 11. While the overall model is significant and showing significant influence, either networking or business environment on students' intellectual stimulation, the business environment is insignificant as one of the predictors of the intellectual stimulation of students. Compared to inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation has a better model fit as of 8.9%. However, networking has a significant effect to students' intellectual stimulation (p value =0.0001; $t = 3.820$). So, the H1c is accepted.

H1d: Individualized consideration of students is significantly affected by either the business environment or networking.

Table 9. Goodness of fit statistics (intellectual stimulation)

Item Description	Values
Observations	173,000
Sum of weights	173,000
DF	170,000
R2	0,089
Adjusted R2	0,078

Table 10. Analysis of variance (intellectual stimulation)

Source	DF	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	Pr > F
Model	2	6860	3430	8260	0,000
Error	170	70,596	0,415		
Corrected Total	172	77,457			

Table 11. Model parameters (intellectual stimulation)

Source	Value	Standard error	t	Pr > |t|	Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)
Intercept	1815	0,308	5891	< 0,0001	1207	2423
Networking	0,214	0,056	3820	0,000	0,104	0,325
Business environment	0,027	0,052	0,517	0,606	-0,075	0,129

The overall model is significant suggesting that either networking or business environment on students' individualized consideration (Tables 12 and 13), and the R^2 shows that 10.4% of the model variation is explained by networking and business environment. The regression results suggest accepting H1d, because both, networking and business environment, significantly predict individualized consideration (networking's *p*- value = 0.001; *t* = 3.427; and business environment's *p* value =0.045; *t* = 2.020) (Table 14).

Table 12. Goodness of fit statistics (individualized consideration)

Item description	Values
Observations	173,000
Sum of weights	173,000
DF	170,000
R_c	0,104
Adjusted R_c	0,094

Table 13. Analysis of variance (individualized consideration)

Source	DF	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	Pr > F
Model	2	8540	4270	9909	< 0,0001
Error	170	73,257	0,431		
Corrected Total	172	81,796			

Table 14. Model parameters (individualized consideration)

Source	Value	Standard error	t	Pr > |t|	Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)
Intercept	1617	0,314	5153	< 0,0001	0,998	2237
Networking	0,196	0,057	3427	0,001	0,083	0,309
Business Environment	0,107	0,053	2020	0,045	0,002	0,211

The results indicate that networking positively affects students' all dimensions of transformational leadership. Furthermore, our results suggest that students should establish a network in their environment that will positively impact their future careers. Having an appropriate network positively affects transformational leadership (Hamade 2013). Networking differs from one culture to another (Kanagavel and Velayutham 2010), but overall our results show that there is a positive relationship between leadership and networking. Additionally, networking should be based on reciprocity, where all parties will benefit (Dana et al. 2000, Etemad et al. 2001; Wright and Dana 2003). Thus, students should think of their long-term future that includes an established network.

Study 2: Transactional leadership, networking and business environment

Like in *study 1,* this effect will be examined through the following hypothesis:

> **H2:***Either business environment or networking significantly affects the transactional leadership of students.*

The results of the analysis are overall a good fit. The R^2 indicates that only 10.8% of the model variation is explained by networking and business environment as model predictor variables (Tables 15 and 16). Therefore, the model is acceptable and can be used for further analyses.

Table 15. Goodness of fit statistics (transactional leadership)

Item Description	Values
Observations	173
Sum of weights	173
DF	170
R2	0,108
Adjusted R2	0,098

Table 16. Analysis of variance (transactional leadership)

Description Item (Source)		DF	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	Pr > F
Model	2	2	6206	3103	10,305	<0,0001
Error	170	170	51,186	0,301		
Corrected						
Total		172		57,392		

Computed against model Y = Mean (Y)

The regression results of the model are shown in Tables 16 and 17. The hypotheses were accepted (*p*- value = 0.0001; *t* = 4.519), where the business environment, unlike networking, significantly explains the students' transactional leadership.

Table 17. Regression results (transactional leadership)

Item Description (Source)	Value	Standard error	t	Pr > |t|	Lowe R bound (95%)	Upper Bound (95%)
Intercept	1686	0,262	6428	<0,0001	1169	2204
Networking	-0,068	0,048	-1416	0,159	-0,162	0,027
Business environment	0,199	0,044	4519	<0,0001	0,112	0,286

Unlike transformational leadership, transactional leadership is affected only by the business environment. This implies that students as transactional leaders may learn about transactional leadership from the business environment only (Huang 2016). Networking does not support this type of leadership. Networking probably is impacted by the age of the students and their maturity level. Interestingly, it raises the question, how can one establish quality networks without equal reciprocity of tangible returns? Future research should examine the reciprocal relationship and value returns, such as mentoring relationships with students.

Networking and the business environment can affect the development of future leaders, whether they are more transformational or transactional, which support Batistič and Tymon (2017). Similarly, these results support Risner and Kumar (2016), who proposed a global networking model for students to expose them beyond their local environment.

Final discussion remarks

We found that there is an impact of networking and the business environment on students' leadership. Moreover, different leadership styles are identified with males and females. This is discussed in the following sections.

Theoretical implications

The study conducted at the IUS makes an important contribution to the understanding of the theory of transformational, transactional and application in educational settings. Regardless of the different backgrounds of students, their culture and nationality, exciting results were attained. Students learn from each other and influence each other (environment) while creating a positive interaction power (Mittal and Elias 2016), a network. In addition, such different cross-cultural contexts can create "symbiotic" students' life. Probably, understanding a principle of leadership, students, regardless of nationality and culture, play their best as leaders.

The result showed that female students prefer the transformational leadership style over the transactional compared to their male counterparts. This interesting result confirms the Vinkenburg et al.'s (2011) argument that males and females differ in leadership styles. Why females prefer transformational over the transactional, we believe that a female's emotional intelligence level is the key. By nature, women are feminine (Broughton and Miller 2009). On the other hand, men have lower emotional intelligence at this age and tend toward a more transactional leadership style (Cuadrado et al. 2015). It has been found that males at this age are less inclined to make decisions (Kirkbride 2006) and this may be a reason, in part, for our results. Eagly et al. (1992, 1995) found that lead males vs. females are more biased and subjection in their perceptions.

The research findings by Bass and Avolio (2002) suggest that transformational leadership behavior is associated with increases in organizational sales, market share, earnings, and return on investment a greater unit cohesion, higher commitment, and lower turnover, a higher levels of product innovation, a greater alignment around strategic visions and missions, and safer work. This study's results can go along with arguments of Bass and Avolio (2002) that students, as future human assets, will bring more welfare to organizations and the society, through more commitment, which will be reflected in increasing a firm performance as well as creating a better business environment, or in a better socio-economic development. Meanwhile, those who are into transactional leadership are more to the short-term orientation like transactional rewards (Bass 1985; Penn 2015; Dartey-Baah 2015), in which a leader needs to satisfy their needs in return for a job done (Sarros and Santora 2001). Similarly, like enterprise education (Jones et al. 2008; Packham et al. 2010) for future entrepreneurs, leadership education contributes to the general development of the society. Good scores showed that students may develop such features that their leadership will develop great organizations.

Practical implications

When it comes to different leadership styles of students (transactional vs. transformational), results suggest that networking and business environment affects leadership inversely. Transformational leadership is dependent on networking, while transactional leadership depends on the business environment. The nature of these two leadership styles derives a different

conclusion. Transformation of students is reflected in the networking of students they belong to, and conversely, an appeal of the transactional leadership of students is conceived through the business environment. Although networking is a part of a business environment by its nature, however, this study derived somehow opposite results.

Leadership styles are different when the gender, faculty, study program, study level, nationality, score, and previous leadership experience are applied. The most interesting conclusion comes from the fact that most of the transactional leaders among the students are those who have some previous experience. The reason for that maybe the fact that they faced the situations where the followers did not meet the performance standards until their performance was closely monitored and until the objectives and targets were not clarified.

Educational implications

Universities should create an effective environment where students can learn leadership skills, and build networks (Gieure et al. 2019). Future leaders in enterprises and society should be able to apply their education to their future careers. Universities across the globe have an important role in "economic growth and society cohesion" (Ferreira et al. 2018, p.1), and thus by teaching leadership and networking skills, they positively impact society as a whole.

Recommendations for the institution

Several recommendations regarding education at the IUS can be proposed. Firstly, since 27.2% of the students reported that they never had an opportunity to lead a team it would be good if the courses offered at the IUS at all study programs provide more leadership education and space. Secondly, the students showed the importance of leadership. Hence, the educational institutions supposed to educate future leaders, which may bring important changes to the society, and try to solve real problems in the surroundings (Pfeffermann 2016) it would also be good if they focus on the development of the transformational styles and values among the students. The world today is complex, and it creates a more challenging business environment in which for many leaders there is no place (Fleming and Olivier 2015). Thus, our students should be the ones who will be able to transform this complexity into favors of their future career and society.

The development of students' leadership styles should be done in a more "systematic" and "progressive" manner (Mumford et al. 2000, p.109). It means that students need to learn the basic principles of leadership, and then gradually they should be introduced to solve fewer complex problems (Mumford et al. 2000) so that when they graduate can start as young leaders in organizations and institutions. In that case, the university's imperative is to increase more leadership courses in order to produce, to some extent, infallible future leaders.

Study limitations

One of the limitations is that the study is focused only on students in Bosnia and Herzegovina, not the region. Another limitation is that this study lacks comparability and implications of the global audience, which can be used for future work. Moreover, this study did not take other leadership theories to compare with, which could be interesting and perhaps different insights

will be. Finally, the sample size is not good due to using cross-sectional data collection, and, in order to get a bigger sample size, it would be more appropriate to use a longitudinal approach to collect data, which could also one of the future directions.

Future directions

The future work can be done within a few universities across the country, with a greater sample size, which will result in more in-depth analysis and results. It would also be useful to compare leadership styles among students in private and public institutions. Moreover, both the leadership styles of the students and their professors can be examined to examine to what degree the professor's style of leading influences the styles that his/her students adopt.

The overall discussion of results opens new thoughts to be delved in future work:

1. Why male students are more transactional compared to females?
2. Since classes are also a part of the environment to which students are exposed, it would be interesting what a leadership style should teachers have to exert a positive impact on the development of students' leadership?
3. Should be networking maybe another dimension of transformational leadership, if we take the results that the networking is positively related to all dimensions of the transformational leadership?

References

Aga, D. A. (2016). Transactional leadership and project success: The moderating role of goal clarity. *Procedia Computer Science, 100*, 517–525.

Aldrich, C. (2004). *Simulations and the future of learning*. San Francisco: Wiley.

Andersen, J. A. (2015). Barking up the wrong tree: On the fallacies of the transformational leadership theory. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 36*, 765–777. https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-12-2013-0168.

Antonakis, J. & House, R.J. (2002). The full-range leadership theory: The way forward", in Bruce, Y.F. & Avolio J., *Transformational and Charismatic Leadership: The Road Ahead 10th Anniversary Edition,* Emerald Group Publishing Limited, West Yorkshire.

Armstrong, M. (2009). *Armstrong's handbook of management and leadership: A guide to managing for results*. London: Kogan Page.

Avolio, B. J., Waldman, D. A., & Yammarino, F. J. (1991). Leading in the 1990s: The four I's of transformational leadership. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 15*, 9–16. https://doi.org/10.1108/03090599110143366.

Balwant, P. T. (2016). Transformational instructor? Leadership in higher education teaching: A meta-analytic review and research agenda. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 9*(4). https://doi.org/10.1002/jls.21423.

Barbuto, J. E. (2005). Motivation and transactional, charismatic, and transformational leadership: A test of antecedents. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 11*, 26–40. https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190501100403.

Baškarada, S., Watson, J., & Cromarty, J. (2017). Balancing transactional and transformational leadership. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 25*(3), 506–515.

Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1997). *Full range leadership development: Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire*. Redwood City: Mind Garden Inc..

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2000). *MLQ: Multifactor leadership questionnaire* (2nd ed.). Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden.

Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., & Atwater, L. (1996). The transformational and transactional leadership of men and women. *Applied Psychology, 45*(1), 5–34.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994a). Shatter the glass ceiling: Women may make better managers. *Human Resource Management, 33*(4), 549–560. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.3930330405.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994b). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2002). *Multifactor leadership questionnaire feedback report*. Redwood City: Mind Garden.

Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership* (2nd ed). Center for Leadership Studies at Binghamton University. Kravis Leadership Institute Claremont McKenna College Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers. Mahwah, New Jersey.

Bass, B. M., Cascio, W. F., & O'Connor, E. J. (1974). Magnitude estimations of expressions of frequency and amount. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 59*, 313–320. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0036653.

Batistič, S., & Tymon, A. (2017). Networking behaviour, graduate employability: A social capital perspective. *Education + Training, 59*, 374–388. https://doi.org/10.1108/ET-06-2016-0100.

Batjargal, B. (2003). Social capital and entrepreneurial performance in Russia: A longitudinal study. *Organization Studies, 24*(4), 535–556.

Baumgartner, R. M., & Heberlein, T. A. (1984). Recent research on mailed questionnaire response rates. In D. C. Lockhart (Ed.), *Making effective use of mailed questionnaires* (pp. 65–75). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Beugré, C., Acar, W., & Braun, W. (2006). Transformational leadership in organizations: An environment-induced model. *International Journal of Manpower, 27*(1), 52–62. https://doi.org/10.1108/01437720610652835.

Birasnav, M. (2014). Relationship between transformational leadership behaviors and manufacturing strategy. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 22*, 205–223. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOA-10-2011-0520.

Bodla, M. A., & Nawaz, M. M. (2010). Comparative study of full range leadership model among faculty members in public and private sector higher education institutes and universities. *International Journal of Business and Management, 5*(4), 208–214.

Broughton, A. and Miller, L. (2009). Encouraging women into senior management positions: How coaching can help. *Working Paper 462*, Institute for Employment Studies, Brighton, March.

Buila, I., Martínez, E., & Matute, J. (2019). Transformational leadership and employee performance: The role of identification, engagement and proactive personality. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 77*, 64–75. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.06.014.

Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.

Burt, R. (1992). *Structural Holes*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Chandrakumara, P. M. K. A., Zoysa, A. D., & Manawaduge, A. S. (2009). Leadership styles and company performance? The experience of owner-managers of SMEs. *Faculty of Commerce - Papers (Archive)*, 391–401.

Chen, S. C., Hsiao, H. C., Chang, J. C., Chou, C. M., Chen, C. P., & Shen, C. H. (2015). Can the entrepreneurship course improve the entrepreneurial intentions of students? *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, 11*(3), 557–569. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11365-013-0293-0.

Cheung, M. F., & Wong, C.-S. (2011). Transformational leadership, leader support, and employee creativity. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 32*, 656–672.

Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology, 94*, 95–120.

Covin, J. G., & Slevin, D. P. (1988). The influence of organization structure on the utility of an entrepreneurial top management style. *Journal of Management Studies, 25*(3), 217–234.

Covin, J. G., & Slevin, D. P. (1989). Strategic management of small firms in a hostile and benign environment. *Strategic Management Journal, 10*(1), 75–87.

Cuadrado, I., Garcıa-Ael, C., & Molero, F. (2015). Gender-typing of leadership: Evaluations of real and ideal managers. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 56*, 236–244.

Dana, L. P., Etemad, H., & Wright, R. W. (2000). The global reach of symbiotic networks. *Journal of Euro marketing, 9*(2), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1300/J037v09n02_01.

Dartey-Baah, K. (2015). Resilient leadership: A transformational-transactional leadership mix. *Journal of Global Responsibility, 6*, 99–112. https://doi.org/10.1108/JGR-07-2014-0026.

Del Mar Benavides-Espinosa, M., & Roig-Dobón. (2011). The influence of cultural differences in cooperative learning through joint ventures. *Service Business, 5*(1), 69–85.

Díaz-Casero, J. C., Ferreira, J. J. M., Hernández Mogollón, R., & Barata Raposo, M. L. (2012). Influence of institutional environment on entrepreneurial intention: A comparative study of two countries university students. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, 8*(1), 55–74. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11365-009-0134-3.

Dinh, J. E., Lord, R. G., Gardner, W. L., Meuser, J. D., Liden, R. C., & Hu, J. (2014). Leadership theory and research in the new millennium: Current theoretical trends and changing perspectives. *The Leadership Quarterly, 25*, 36–62. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.005.

Dolnicar, S., & Grün, B. (2007). Cross-cultural differences in survey response patterns. *International Marketing Review, 24*(2), 127–143.

Eagly, A. H., Makhijani, M. G., & Klonsky, B. G. (1992). Gender and the evaluation of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 117*(1), 3–22.

Eagly, A. H., Karau, S. J., & Makhijani, M. G. (1995). Gender and the effectiveness of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 117*(1), 125–145.

Etemad, H., Wright, R. W., & Dana, L. P. (2001). 'Symbiotic international business networks: Collaboration between small and large firms', thunderbird international business review, e global reach of symbiotic networks. *Journal of Euro marketing, 43*(4), 481–499.

Emami, A., & Khajeheian, D. (2018). Social norms and entrepreneurial action: The mediating role of opportunity confidence. *Sustainability, 11*(1), 1–18.

Fabová, L., & Janáková, H. (2015). Impact of the business environment on development of innovation in Slovak Republic. Business economics and management 2015 conference, BEM 2015. *Procedia Economics and Finance, 34*, 66–72.

Ferreira, J. J., Fayolle, A., Ratten, V., & Raposo, M. (2018). Introduction: The role of entrepreneurial universities in society. In J. J. Ferreira, A. Fayolle, V. Ratten, & M. Raposo (Eds.), *Entrepreneurial universities: Collaboration, education and policies*. London: Routledge.

Fleming, K., & Olivier, S. (2015). Developing leader intelligence: Transitioning from ego to eco intelligence, *Presentation to the 7th Developing Leadership Capacity Conference (DLCC)*. Henley Business School, 15–16 July.

Garris, R., Ahlers, R., & Driskell, J. E. (2002). Games, motivation, and learning: A research and practice. *Simulation & Gaming, 33*(4), 441–467.

Gatzels, J. W., & Guba, E. G. (1957). Social behavior and the administrative process. *The School Review, 65*, 423–441. https://doi.org/10.1086/442411.

Gee, J. P. (2008). Being a lion and being a soldier: Learning and games. In J. Coiro, M. Knobel, C. Lankshear, & D. J. Leu (Eds.), *Handbook of research on new literacies* (pp. 1023–1036). New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Gerba, D. T. (2012). The context of entrepreneurship education in Ethiopian universities. *Management Research Review, 35*(3/4), 225–244.

Gieure, C., del Mar Benavides-Espinosa, M., & Roig-Dobón, S. (2019). Entrepreneurial intentions in an international university environment. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior and Research*. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEBR-12-2018-0810.

Goleman, D. (2000). Leadership that gets results. *Harvard Business Review, 78*(2), 1–15.

Granovetter, M. S. (1985). Economic action and social structure: The problem with embeddedness. *American Journal of Sociology, 91*, 481–510.

Hai, D. P., Roig-Dobónb, S., & Sánchez-García, J. L. (2016). Innovative governance from public policy unities. *Journal of Business Research, 69*(4), 1524–1528.

Hamade, S. N. (2013). Perception and use of social networking sites among university students. *Library Review, 62*, 388–397. https://doi.org/10.1108/LR-12-2012-0131.

Harrison, J. (2011). Instructor transformational leadership and student outcomes. *Emerging Leadership Journeys, 4*(1), 82–136.

Harvard Business Review (2017). Research: How Leadership Experience Affects Students. Retrieved from: https://hbr.org/2017/02/research-how-leadership-experience-affects-students. Accessed 15 Aug 2019.

Huang.Y.M. (2016). Networking behavior: From goal orientation to promotability. *Personnel Review, 45*, 907–927. https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-03-2014-0062.

Imran, M. K., Ilyas, M., Aslam, U., & Ur-Rahman, U. (2016). Organizational learning through transformational leadership. *The Learning Organization, 23*, 232–248. https://doi.org/10.1108/TLO-09-2015-0053.

International University of Sarajevo (IUS) (2015). *Management,* Available from: https://man.ius.edu.ba/sites/default/files/man-english.pdf. (Accessed 19 July 2016).

Isada, F., Lin, H. C., & Yuriko Isada, Y. (2015). Entrepreneurship of university students in Taiwan and Japan. *Management Research Review, 38*(12), 1251–1266.

Islam, T., Aamir, M., Ahmed, I., & Muhammad, S. K. (2012). The impact of transformational and transactional leadership styles on the motivation and academic performance of students at university level. *Journal of Educational and Social Research, 2*, 237–244.

Jacques, P. H., Vracheva, V., & Garger, J. (2017). The effects of student personality on perceptions of two-source transformational leadership. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*. https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877X.2017.1361514.

Jones, P., Jones, A., Packham, G., & Miller, C. (2008). Student attitudes towards enterprise education in Poland: A positive impact. *Education + Training, 50*, 597–614. https://doi.org/10.1108/00400910810909054.

Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*, 755–768.

Jung, D. I., & Avolio, B. J. (2000). Opening the black box: An experimental investigation of the mediating effects of trust and value congruence on transformational and transactional

leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*, 949–964. https://doi.org/10.1002/1099-1379.

Kanagavel, R., & Velayutham, C. (2010). Impact of social networking on college students: A comparative study in India and the Netherlands. *International Journal of Virtual Communities and Social Networking, 2*, 55–67.

Kanuk, L., & Berenson, C. (1975). Mail surveys and response rates: A literature review. *Journal of Marketing Research, 12*(4), 440–453.

Karaszewski, R. (2010). Leadership in global business environment through a vision creation process. *The TQM Journal, 22*(4), 399–409. https://doi.org/10.1108/17542731011053325.

Kets de Vries, M. F. (2001). *The leadership mystique*. New York: Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Khalili, A. (2016). Linking transformational leadership, creativity, innovation, and innovation-supportive climate. *Management Decision, 54*, 2277–2293. https://doi.org/10.1108/MD-03-2016-0196.

Khan, M. M., Ramazan, M., Ahmed, I., & Nawaz, M. M. (2011). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire styles of teaching as predictors of satisfaction, and extra effort among the students: Evidence from higher education institutions. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Research in Business, 1*, 130–135.

Kippenberger, T. (2002). *Leadership styles*. Oxford: Capstone Publishing.

Kirkbride, P. (2006). Developing transformational leaders: The full range leadership model in action. *Industrial and Commercial Training, 38*, 23–32.

Kotter, J. (1990). What leaders really do? *Harvard Business Review, 68*(3), 103–112.

Kuchinke, K. (1999). Workforce education faculty as leaders: Do graduate-level university instructors exhibit transformational leadership behaviors? *Journal of Vocational Education Research, 24*(4), 209–225.

Lee, S. M., & Lim, S. (2009). Entrepreneurial orientation and the performance of service business. *Service Business, 3*, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11628-008-0051-5.

Lee, C., Lee, K., & Pennings, J. M. (2001). Internal capabilities, external networks, and performance: A study on technology-based ventures. *Strategic Management Journal, 22*, 615–640. https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.181.

Lehti, S., & Lehtinen, E. (2005). Computer-supported problem-based learning in the research methodology domain. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 49*(3), 297–323.

Lehtinen, E. (2002). Developing models for distributed problem-based learning: Theoretical and methodological reflection. *Distance Education, 23*(1), 109–117.

Lehtinen, E. (2003). Computer supported collaborative learning: An approach to powerful learning environments. In E. De Corte, L. Verschaffel, N. Entwistle, & J. Van Merriëboer (Eds.), *Unraveling basic components and dimensions of powerful learning environments* (pp. 35–53). Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Leithwood, K. (2018). Characteristics of effective leadership networks: A replication and extension. *School Leadership & Management*. https://doi.org/10.1080/13632434.2018.1470503.

Lepistö, T., Mäkitalo-Keinonen, T., & Valjakka, T. (2019). Opportunity recognition in a hub-governed network – Insights from garage services. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, 15*(1), 257–280.

Lewin, K., Lippit, R., & White, R. K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created social climates. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 10*, 269–299. https://doi.org/10.1080/00224545.1939.9713366.

Linsky, A. S. (1975). Stimulating responses to mailed questionnaires: A review. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 39*, 82–101.

Little, J. W. (2003). Construction of teacher leadership in three periods of policy and reform activism. *School Leadership and Management, 23*(4), 401–419.

Manning, T., Pogson, G., & Morrison, Z. (2009). Interpersonal influence in the workplace: Influencing behaviour and 360-degree assessments. *Industrial and Commercial Training, 41*, 258–269.

Matzler, K., Bauer, F. A., & Mooradian, T. A. (2015). Self-esteem and transformational leadership. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 30*, 815–831. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-02-2013-0071.

Millmore, M., Biggs, D., & Morse, L. (2007). Gender differences within 360-degree managerial performance appraisals. *Women in Management Review, 22*, 536–551. https://doi.org/10.1108/09649420710825715.

Mittal, R., & Elias, S. M. (2016). Social power and leadership in cross-cultural context. *Journal of Management Development, 35*(1), 58–74.

Mumford, M. D., Marks, M. A., Connelly, M. S., Zaccaro, S. J., & Reiter-Palmon, R. (2000). Development of leadership skills: Experience and timing. *The Leadership Quarterly, 11*(1), 87–114.

Nahapiet, J., & Ghoshal, S. (1998). Social capital, intellectual capital, and organizational advantage. *Academy of Management Review, 23*(2), 242–266.

Nahavandi, A. (2009). *The art and science of leadership*. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

Packham, G., Jones, P., Miller, C., Pickernell, D., & Thomas, B. (2010). Attitudes towards entrepreneurship education: A comparative analysis. *Education + Training, 52*, 568–586. https://doi.org/10.1108/00400911011088926.

Palalic, R., & Durakovic, B. (2018). Does transformational leadership matter in gazelles and mice: Evidence from Bosnia and Herzegovina? *Int. J. Entrepreneurship and Small Business, 34*(3), 289–308.

Palalic, R., Durakovic, B., Brankovic, A., & Ridic, O. (2016). Students' entrepreneurial orientation intention, business environment and networking: Insights from Bosnia and Herzegovina. *International Journal of Foresight and Innovation Policy, 11*(4), 240–255.

Palalic, R. (2017). The phenomenon of entrepreneurial leadership in gazelles and mice: A qualitative study from Bosnia and Herzegovina. *World Review of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development, 13*(2/3), 211–236.

Palalić, R., Ramadani, R., Đilović, A., Dizdarević, A., & Ratten, V. (2017). Entrepreneurial intentions of university students: A case-based study. *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy, 11*(3), 393–413.

Penn, A. (2015). *Leadership theory simplified,* University of Arkansas, Division of Agriculture.

Perreault, D., Cohen, L. R., & Blanchard, C. M. (2015). Fostering transformational leadership among young adults: A basic psychological needs approach. *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth*. https://doi.org/10.1080/02673843.2015.1083451.

Pfeffermann, G. (2016). GBSN's perspective on business education and globalization. *Journal of Management Development, 35*, 866–877. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMD-11-2014-0151.

Pounder, J. S. (2008). Full-range classroom leadership: Implications for the cross-organizational and cross-cultural applicability of the transformational-transactional paradigm. *Leadership, 4*(2), 115–135. https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715008089634.

Qu, R., Janssen, O., & Shi, K. (2015). Transformational leadership and follower creativity: The mediating role of follower relational identification and the moderating role of leader creativity expectations. *The Leadership Quarterly, 26*(2), 286–299.

Rao, M. V. K. S. (2012). The impact of entrepreneurial orientation and leadership styles on business performance: A study on micro small and medium enterprises. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Business Environment Perspectives, 1*(2), 111–117.

Risner, M., & Kumar, S. (2016). Graduate student perceptions of a globally networked course. *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education, 8*, 287–301. https://doi.org/10.1108/JARHE-01-2015-0009.

Roszkowski, M. J., & Bean, A. G. (1990). Believe it or not! Longer questionnaires have lower response rates. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 4*(4), 495–509.

Rowold, J., & Heinitz, K. (2007). Transformational and charismatic leadership: Assessing the convergent, divergent and criterion validity of the MLQ and the CKS. *The Leadership Quarterly, 18*, 121–133.

Rutten, R., & Boekema, F. (2007). Regional social capital: Embeddedness, innovation networks and regional economic development. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 74*(9), 1834–1846.

Sarros, J. C., & Santora, J. C. (2001). Transformational-transactional leadership model in practice. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 22*, 383–393.

Shane, S., & Stuart, T. (2002). Organizational endowments and the performance of university start-ups. *Management Science, 48*(1), 154–170.

Siewiorek, A., Saarinen, E., Lainema, T., & Lehtinen, E. (2012). Learning leadership skills in a simulated business environment. *Computers & Education*, 121–135.

Sosik, J. J., Potosky, D., & Jung, D. I. (2002). Adaptive self-regulation: Meeting others' expectations of leadership and performance. *Journal of Social Psychology, 142*, 211–232.

Stogdill, R. M. (1950). Leadership, membership, and organization. *Psychological Bulletin, 47*, 1–14.

Susskind, L. E., & Corburn, J. (2000). Using simulations to teach negotiation: Pedagogical theory and practice. In M. Wheeler (Ed.), *Teaching negotiation: Ideas and innovations* (pp. 285–310). Cambridge: PON Books.

Swindall, C. (2011). *Engaged leadership: Building a culture to overcome employee disengagement* (2nd ed.). Hoboken: Wiley.

Taatila, V., & Down, S. (2012). Measuring entrepreneurial orientation of university students. *Education and Training, 54*(8), 744–760.

Testa, M. R. (2002). A model for organization-based 360-degree leadership assessment. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 23*, 260–268.

Tony, M. (2013). A 'contingent' view of leadership: 360-degree assessments of leadership behaviours in different contexts. *Industrial and Commercial Training, 45*, 343–351.

Vinkenburg, C. J., van Engen, M. L., Eagly, A. H., & Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C. (2011). An exploration of stereotypical beliefs about leadership styles: Is transformational leadership a route to women's promotion? *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*(1), 10–21.

Wang, G., Oh, I.-S., Courtright, S. H., & Colbert, A. E. (2011). Transformational leadership and performance across criteria and levels: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of research. *Group Organ. Manage., 36*, 223–270.

Weaver, R. R., & Qi, J. (2005). Classroom organization and participation: College students' perceptions. *The Journal of Higher Education, 76*(5), 570–601.

Weber, M. (1947). *The theory of social and economic organizations* (T. Parsons, Trans.). New York: Free Press. (Original work published in 1924).

Woods, S. (2004). Leading the dice: The challenge of serious video games. *Game studies, 4*(1).

Wright, R. W., & Dana, L. P. (2003). Changing paradigms of international entrepreneurship strategy. *Journal of International Entrepreneurship, 1*, 135–152.

Wright, M., Westhead, P., & Sohl, J. (1998). Editor's introduction: Habitual entrepreneurs and angel investors. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 22*(4), 5–21.

Yammarino, F. J., Spangler, W. D., & Bass, B. M. (1993). Transformational leadership and performance: A longitudinal investigation. *The Leadership Quarterly, 4*(l), 81–102.

Yang, C. W. (2008). The relationships among leadership styles, entrepreneurial orientation, and business performance. *Managing Global Transitions, 6*(3), 257–275.

Yang, Y. (2014). Principals' transformational leadership in school improvement. *International Journal of Educational Management, 28*, 279–288.

Yu, J., & Cooper, H. (1983). A quantitative review of research design effects on response rates to questionnaires. *Journal of Marketing Research, 20*, 36–44.

Yukl, G. (1994). *Leadership in organizations*. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

Yukl, G. (1999). An evaluation of conceptual weaknesses in transformational and charismatic leadership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly, 10*, 285–305.

Yukl, G. A. (2010). *Leadership in organisations* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Yukl, G. (2012). Effective leadership behavior: What we know and what questions need more attention. *The Academy of Management Perspectives, 26*, 66–85. https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2012.0088.