Impact of Socio-Economic Factors on Self-Leadership in the US

Sarina M. Pfister, Michael J. Kendzia, Nico Pfandler

[1]ZHAW School of Management and Law, [2,3]School of Management and Law

Abstract

This study investigates the relationship between socio-economic factors and self-leadership development among individuals in the United States. Despite extensive research on self-leadership and socio-economic factors separately, there is a notable gap in literature combining these topics. This research addresses this gap by examining the impact of education, parental influences, and wealth on self-leadership. Using a mixed-methods design, the study integrates qualitative and quantitative data from a survey of 303 participants from diverse socio-economic backgrounds in the US. Key findings indicate a positive correlation between higher educational attainment and enhanced self-leadership skills. Participants with a bachelor's degree or higher exhibited significantly stronger self-leadership traits compared to those with lower educational levels. Parental education and profession significantly influenced the educational and professional paths of their children, highlighting the critical role of parental support. Financial wealth also contributed to greater confidence in self-leadership abilities. The study proposes recommendations to bridge socio-economic disparities, including educational and mentorship programs, parental engagement initiatives, and leadership development programs.
Keywords: Education, Financial Wealth, Confidence, Mentorship, Leadership

Introduction

Self-leadership, the process of influencing oneself to achieve personal and professional goals, has garnered significant attention in the field of leadership studies. Pioneering researchers such as Manz (2019), Houghton (2002), and Neck (1999) have emphasized its importance in fostering effective leadership behaviors and personal autonomy. Self-leadership is closely tied to cognitive and motivational strategies, including goal-setting, self-regulation, and intrinsic motivation. However, while much is known about the theoretical foundations of self-leadership, the role of socio-economic factors in shaping its development remains underexplored. Socio-economic factors, including education, income, and parental occupation, profoundly influence individual trajectories in various domains, such as career success, decision-making, and leadership skills. Understanding how these factors shape self-leadership can illuminate pathways to address disparities and promote equitable

opportunities for leadership development. This study focuses on this gap, investigating how socio-economic backgrounds influence self-leadership styles and skills.

To explore this, the study compares two groups in the United States: individuals with less than a bachelor's degree (control group) and those with a bachelor's degree or higher (treatment group). Based on this comparison, the following research hypotheses are proposed:

H0: Socio-economic factors such as education, income and parental occupation do not have a significant impact on self-leadership in the United States, no matter if from the control group, lower than a bachelor's degree, or from the treatment group, bachelor or higher.
H1: Socio-economic factors, such as education, income and parental occupation do have a significant impact on self-leadership in the United States when comparing individuals from the control group, lower than a bachelor's degree, with those from the treatment group, bachelor or higher.

Theoretical Framework
Houghton, Manz and Neck (2019), often seen as the pioneers of self-leadership, conducted various research about how people can manage the skill of self-leading. One of the most important aspects is the whole process of influencing oneself through mental imagery, patterns of thoughts as well as self-talk (Neck, Neck, Manz, & Godwin, 1999).

Conger and Pearce (2003), defined self-leadership as being a set of strategies, cognitive and behavioral, to shape the outcomes and to reach self-set goals. Cognitive strategies are based on intrinsic motivational factors, behavioral strategies are based on directive and transformational leadership styles.

Houghton and Neck (2002), conducted a notable study in 2002. In the International Journal of Leadership Studies (2012), it is documented that they developed the Revised Self-leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) by refining the primary self-leadership Questionnaire conceptualized by Anderson and Prussia (1997). The RSLQ consists of 35 selected items and represents three primary self-leadership dimensions: behavior-focused strategies, natural reward strategies and constructive thought pattern strategies (2002).

Walter Mischel's (2015) experiment explored the link between delayed gratification and future success, using a marshmallow test to measure self-control. Findings revealed that children with greater self-control tended to achieve better life outcomes, including higher social competence and academic success.

According to the authors Neck et al. (2019), the Building Blocks of self-leadership model has a great impact on how a person shapes their behavior. Their model, as displayed in Figure 1, set the foundation for later research from Courtright et al. (2019).

Self-Leadership
Behavioral *and* cognitive strategies
Addresses not only *how* but also *what* and *why*

Social Cognitive Theory
Dual-control system
Triadic reciprocal model
Self-efficacy

Self-Determination Theory
Need for competence
Need for self-determination

Self-Regulation Theory
Discrepancy reduction
Set standards

Self-Management
Behavioral strategies
Addresses *how* but not *what* and *why*

Positive Psychology
Positive emotions
Positive character traits
Intentional activity

Figure 1 The Building Blocks of Self-Leadership

In Figure 1, the center part, social cognitive theory, and self-determination theory are mentioned. They shape the further course of personal drive and motivation (2019). The purpose of the theory is, that a person masters monitoring and evaluating their actions and react appropriately.

The authors assumed that a person formulates future goals based on past experiences and achievements. According to them, after achieving new goals, people tend to set even higher goals. Schunk's (2012) aspect of this theory is also built upon self-regulation and the interplay of three factors, the personal, the behavioral and the social/environmental.
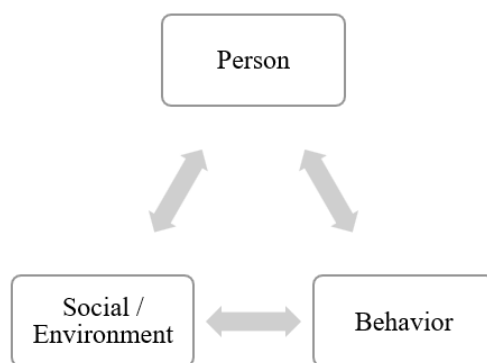
Person

Social / Environment

Behavior

Figure 2 Interplay Factors Social Cognitive Theory

In Figure 2 it is visible that the environment of a person shapes the behavior, and behaviors of others shape a person. The second theory from the Building Blocks of Self-leadership by Neck et al. (2019), self-determination, focuses on the enhancement and cultivation of intrinsic motivations and drivers that are most valuable for a people's drive for self-leadership. The researchers emphasize the importance of aligning personal values with the activity or task itself to overcome challenges and achieve the targeted goal as it fosters sustainable involvement.

An additional aspect to consider is the psychological world (Neck et al., 2019). Every person is different, and so is the psychological world. A person can shape their perception of a task

or situation and how to master it. It is crucial to choose of how to perceive the experience and form it into a "personal destiny". Conceptualized by Manning and Robertson (2016), the purpose of the framework of the three factors of self-leadership aimed to outline the roles and behaviors of leaders, such as task- and relation-oriented behavior. The introduction of a third dimension, the change behavior marks an advancement in understanding self-leadership. It suggests that adaptability and change are equally important for leadership effectiveness.

According to Ahmed, Philbin and Paracha (2023), task-oriented leaders focus on individual responsibilities and assigned tasks. Task orientation fosters competition and creates more knowledge and innovation, (Ma, Zhao, & Wu, 2022). It is important to find the path between intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors, as the drive for competition should arise from internal pursuits and not from external benefits (Chiu, Cheng, & Lin, 2023).

The third dimension, change behavior, relatively unknown previous to research conducted by Manning and Robertsons (2016), focuses on the environment of the company, how to deal with threats and opportunities, and to present a vision to the employees to foster motivation and drive. As articulated by Mazzarella and Smith (1989), no single leadership style fits it all. Depending on the situation and the team, the leadership behavior has to be aligned and adapted. A principle which has not changed in the last 35 years, mentioned by Heres (2014). According to the International Journal of Leadership Studies (2012), the third factor of the RSLQ is Constructive Cognition and not change behavior as mentioned by Manning and Robertsons (2016).

Pascual-Leone (1976) describes this different factor as the ability to use, know and stimulate psychological models, namely three ways of knowing something: the rational way – the knowing that –, the practical way – the knowing how and the experiential way – the knowing it. Von Foerster (2003) describes Cognition as the way of linking past experiences with newly learned information – the way how people perceive, remember and learn information, and combined with self-leadership it can pose an important third factor for a stronger mindset. Efforts, circumstances, and luck are considered to form future outcomes, first determined by Roemer and Trannoy (2016).

Research based upon these factors, conducted by Graeber, Hilbert and König (2023), shows that the socio-economic background plays a crucial role in forming a person's values and thinking. Their key point was to measure the link between parental and child wealth and the inequality of opportunity which arises from different backgrounds (2023). Extensive research was conducted in various individual circumstances including family background, neighborhood effects, inheritances, demographics, parent's occupation as well as individual education (e.g., Laakson et al., 2011; Currie, 2019). But there is limited research on how socio-economic backgrounds impact and influence a person's drive for self-leadership.

Existing research from various countries has been summarized to explore socio-economic backgrounds and their influence. Al-Matalka (2014) and Broer et al. (2019), highlight factors such as income, education, and parental occupation. Hoyland et al. (2021) examined early adulthood influences on self-leadership and motivation in Japan and the UK. Their study

found that formative youth experiences significantly impact leadership development and self-confidence, regardless of cultural context (Hofstede, 1980).

In the UK, privileged young adults displayed stronger leadership traits, whereas Japan emphasized competence over privilege, offering more opportunities to less-privileged youth. Bozkurt et al. (2021), linked socio-economic status (SES) to student achievements in Turkey, noting a strong relationship between academic success, SES, and self-leadership drive. Eichorst et al. (2013) emphasized the role of primary school teachers in fostering self-leadership by encouraging self-responsibility and essential skills for professional development. Findings from multiple studies and authors informed the development of a comprehensive figure presented in this research.
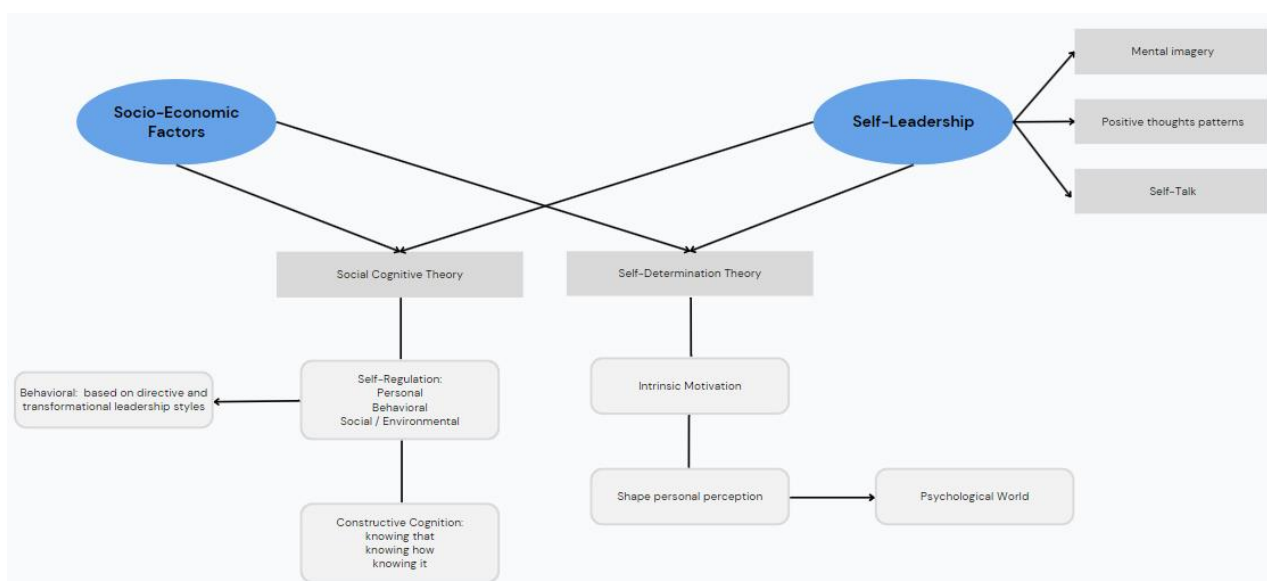

Figure 3 Framework of socio-economic factors and self-leadership
In Figure 3, key connections from different papers are visible, facilitating a clear and concise understanding. Important to acknowledge is, that both, socio-economic factors as well as self-leadership, have an impact on a lot of factors according to various theories. The social cognitive theory and the self-determination theory, based on the book written by Neck, Manz and Houghton (2019) are a solid foundation for comprehensive research of social-economic factors as well as self-leadership.

Methodology
This study employed a quantitative research approach to empirically analyze the impact of socio-economic factors on delf-leadership in the United States, addressing two research hypotheses. A secondary data comparative analysis was conducted between two groups: a control group with educational attainment below a bachelor's degree and a treatment group with a bachelor's degree or higher. The study aimed to identify patterns and differences in delf-leadership across these groups.

Primary data, collected through a structured survey, ensured accuracy and relevance, as suggested by (Hox and Boeije 2005). The survey targeted diverse socio-economic backgrounds within the U.S., offering broad perspectives and enhancing generalizability. Survey questions, grounded in comprehensive literature and frameworks, focused on socio-

economic influences such as childhood experiences, education, and parental occupation. Before full deployment, a pilot test with 10 participants improved clarity and reliability. Sample size calculations (Taherdoost, 2017) determined 380 responses were sufficient for statistical significance, assuming a 95% confidence level, 5% margin of error, and 50% population heterogeneity.

The survey collected 327 responses between March 26 and April 18, 2024. After excluding 14 responses from non-U.S. participants and 10 low-quality responses, 303 valid responses were analyzed. Data collection was facilitated through MTurk, which provided access to a diverse respondent pool within a short timeframe. Of the total responses, 250 were obtained through MTurk, with 10 excluded due to quality concerns. The survey, comprising 19 questions with varied formats (yes/no, Likert-scale, and open-ended questions), was designed to comprehensively capture the influence of socio-economic factors on self-leadership.

The target group included the general U.S. population, ensuring diversity across gender, age, and demographic backgrounds. This diversity strengthened the study's reliability and captured varied impacts of socio-economic factors on self-leadership, providing a foundation for future research.

Findings

The conducted survey was closed with a total of n = 327 responses, out of which n = 303 were qualitatively useful. With a quote of nearly 60% male, 39% female and 1% others / preferred not to say, a broad audience was reached. The age distribution varying from 18 years to 65 years helps to get a deeper insight into different age groups.
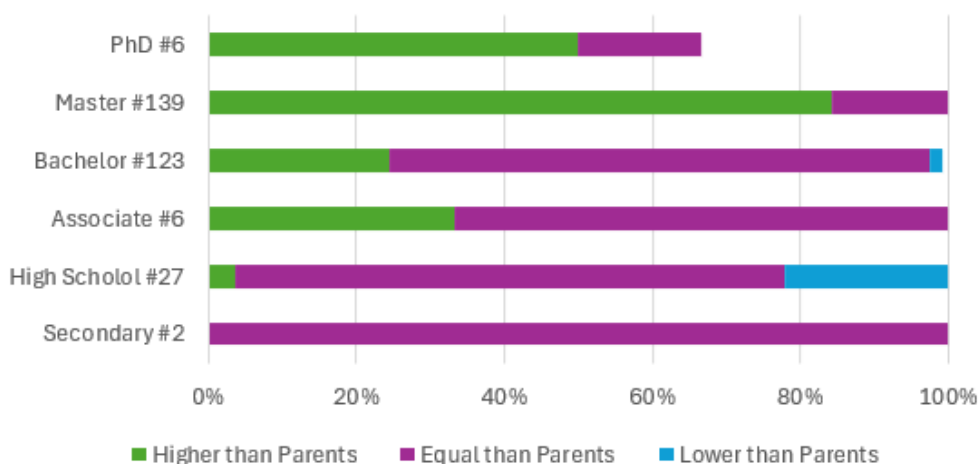

Figure 4 Comparison of Educational Attainment Participants and Parents

Figure 4 illustrates the connection between the highest educational background survey respondents compared to their parents. A notable pattern is that lower levels of education among the participants are more in line with their parent's highest level of education. Participants who ended their education with secondary education reported the same level of

education as their parents. 27 participants have a high school diploma where 74% have the same level of education as their parents.

The other 26% indicate that higher parental education does not necessarily correlate with higher educational levels for children. However, when looking at other survey results from these 26%, none of these respondents indicated "below average" in terms of their childhood financial / economic wealth status. This indicates that financial constraints may not be the main barrier to further education. However, a social desirability bias (Grimm, 2010) could pose a limitation for this question – suggesting that people, even though the survey is anonymous, do not reply honest.

To further elaborate this, the profession of participants as well as parents was analyzed and compared. A total of 33 participants work in the same or closely related job as at least one of their parents / legal guardians. 4 participants from below average income, 24 from average and 5 from above average.

Compelling to notice is, that just a total of 8 people out of 33 reported that they believe their socio-economic background had an influence on their self-leadership, which is not even a third. Biases could pose a limitation, which in further studies should be included and researched. The support system of an individual is not to be neglected, as 89% of the respondents answered that the support system is really important.

Table 1
Impact Support System on Educational Level

	non-existent	not supportive	supportive	very supportive
Secondary Education		1	1	
High-School Diploma	1	3	13	7
Associate degree			3	3
Bachelor			68	50
Master		1	106	33
PhD		1	1	4

In Table 1 a small increase is notable in the number of individuals who have attained higher degrees with an increase in support levels. The most significant jump can be seen in the master's degree category, just 1 person out of 140 – not even 1% - has recorded a not supportive environment whereas 16.7% indicated a not supportive or non-existent environment with the High-School Diploma as highest educational level. Nonetheless, it is notable, that even with minimal support, some have achieved high educational levels.

This might indicate strong personal motivation and determination and a drive for self-leadership. Social climbing also can be seen as a reason for motivation, not based on the survey but previous research by Bardoscia et al. (2013). Another strategic approach for self-motivation is self-reward after successfully completing a task. This method can enhance motivation and positive behaviors.

Over 94% of all respondents answered that they have strategies to motivate themselves to reach their goals. Of these 285 people, 67% indicated that with a reward they are more motivated. This indicates extrinsic motivation in most cases, which preferably should transform into intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation leads to higher results as benefit is not something a person can earn from outside, but an individual enjoys doing the task and completing it is a reward itself (Hennessey et al., 2015).

For people who do not have a strategy for motivation, the balance is more even between rewarding, sometimes and no reward. Just a difference of 3 people who do reward and sometimes do reward. *With age comes wisdom* as Oscar Wilde (2012) said, introduces the next finding of this article: researching if age influences an individual's confidence in their self-leadership strategy.
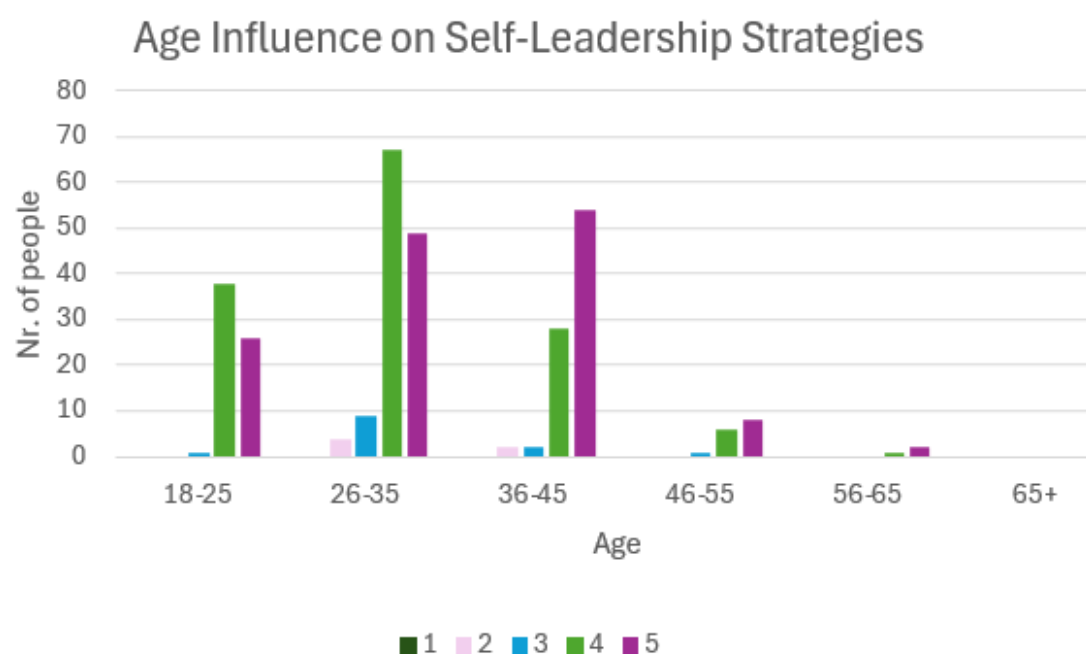

Figure 5 Age and Self-Leadership Confidence Distribution

Figure 5 illustrates distribution in age groups according to the ability to self-lead and shows the distribution of confidence levels. A linear regression analysis was conducted to identify a significant correlation between the age group and the confidence level in self-leadership. For the regression analysis to be statistically significant, a P-value of below 0.05 is required, which the regression of this figure succeeds with a value of 0.015.

This indicates that confidence in strategies tends to increase with age. With an r-squared value of 0.692, the number suggests that nearly 70% of the variance in self-leadership confidence can be explained by age. These findings support the statement that older individuals exhibit higher confidence compared to younger respondents.

When comparing Generation Boomer (1946-1964) and Generation X (1965-1980) with Generation Y (1981-1996) and Z (1997-2010) (2024), it is interesting to notice the difference

in the score for self-leadership. According to the Journal of Business and Psychology (2010), the Boomer Generation is often known as hard workers.

Generation X as well as Millennials, Generation Y are less focused on their working habits. Ignatjeva et al. stated that for Generation Z digital transformation is a huge part and how to implement that also in working life (2021). Their working habits are similar to those of Generation Y, a good work-life balance is important (Waworuntu, Kainde, & Mandagi, 2022). These generational differences have an impact on self-leadership.

With the following two hypotheses, Welch's T-test (2021) of the research is conducted.
H2: The mean self-leadership score of Generation Boomer and X is equal to the mean of Generation Y and Z.
H3 The mean self-leadership score of Generation Boomer and X is not equal to the mean of Generation Y and Z.

When analyzing the survey data, the P-value, is lower than the alpha of 0.05. The alpha indicates a 95% confidence rate. With a two-sided P-value of 0.877, which indicates a higher value than the alpha 0.05, H0 has to be rejected. Therefore, any observed differences between the two analyzed groups can be a coincidence and are not statistically significant.
Of the total survey participants, 13% of the total sample, indicated a *below average* childhood financial / economic wealth status. Within this group, a significant number of 75% achieved a level of education of bachelor or beyond and therefore are a part of the treatment group.

Among the 209 people who reported an average wealth status in their childhood, the distribution of educational level is as follows: for the treatment group there are 85 with a bachelor's degree, 100 with a master and 3 hold a PhD. The remaining, fall into the control group. There is no person with an education on a secondary level with average wealth. 54% in the treatment group inherit a working position with leadership responsibilities.

For the control group, there are 3 people – 14% - with a leadership position. With a mean value of 4.1 in the control group regarding confidence in self-leadership, it is surprising, that not more pursued further education or attempt to work in a leader position. A 100% quota replied that strategies help to motivate towards their goals.

In the group "above average" just 3 out of 53 individuals concluded their education at the High School level. The mean of 3.9 for the confidence of self-leadership implies a small incline from the "average" group's mean.

Furthermore, all three indicated their support system ranging from supportive to very supportive. In terms of parental education, two of these individuals reported that their parents had attained a higher educational level, whereas the third participant indicated that their parental education level was equivalent to their own.

For the participants socio-economic status (SES) in terms of education, we can categorize into below average, average, and above average. The treatment group comprises individuals with higher education (bachelor's degree or higher), while the control group includes those with lower education levels.

Among participants from above-average income backgrounds, 50 belong to the treatment group, compared to only 3 in the control group, indicating a strong correlation between higher SES and pursuing advanced education. For those with average income, the treatment group includes 188 individuals, while the control group has 21. This category, with the largest number of participants, underscores a trend where average SES individuals frequently pursue higher education.

The below-average income group includes 30 treatment group members and 10 from the control group. Despite facing greater challenges, a notable number from this background attain higher education. However, the smaller gap in this group reflects the significant barriers lower SES individuals face in achieving higher education compared to those from average or above-average backgrounds.

Overall, 268 respondents are in the treatment group, while 34 are in the control group. The data indicates that individuals from higher SES (average and above) are more likely to achieve advanced education. While those from below-average SES are more likely to fall into the control group, the notable presence of high achievers from this background highlights resilience and determination in overcoming economic challenges.

When comparing the distribution of confidence in self-leadership for the two groups, it is visible that the mean confidence level for the control group is lower than for the treatment group. With a difference of 0.61 in the mean, varying from 4.45 for the treatment individuals and a mean value of 3.84 for the control group, the difference is significant. The standard deviation of 0.93 for the control group signals a wider spread of confidence levels, whereas the control group has a standard deviation of 0.67, which indicates a more consistent level of confidence. With the conduction of a t-test with a P-value of 0.0015, the correlation between the respective group and the level of confidence in self-leadership is statistically significant.

Discussion
The survey data indicates that individuals from higher socio-economic backgrounds exhibit stronger self-leadership traits, influenced by key factors such as education, income, and support systems. These findings align with the self-leadership model by Neck et al. (2019), which emphasizes the role of social cognitive and self-determination theories in fostering leadership capabilities.

Table 2

Alignment / Contrast of Theory and Findings

Study	Key Findings	Current Study Result	Alignment / Contrast
Neck et al. (2019)	Intrinsic motivation in self-leadership, mental imagery	Self-leadership strategies lead to higher output	Alignment
Mischel (2015)	Delayed gratification leads to better outcomes	Participants with higher education prefer long-term rewards	Partial Alignment
Hoyland et al. (2021)	Early adulthood influences leadership development	Parental education and profession impacts participants Self-leadership	Alignment

Manning and Robertson's (2016) theory that rewards boost employee motivation aligns with primary data, showing 68% of respondents reward themselves after completing tasks, which is supported by extrinsic motivational factors (Chiu, Cheng, & Lin, 2023). Individuals with a strong support system likely achieve higher levels of education. This aligns with Schunk's (2012) social cognitive theory, which emphasizes the role of social support in self-regulation. The primary research provides a solid foundation of socio-economic factors and the implications on self-leadership. From a theoretical perspective the insights contribute to the knowledge of all previously mentioned authors of papers in this field. From a practical view, this paper offers insights for companies and individuals in the US to understand how socio-economic factors influence self-leadership styles, enabling organizations to address disparities and support employees from diverse socio-economic backgrounds.

Table 3

Socio-economic Factor and influence on Self-leadership

Socio-economic Factor	Influence on Self-leadership	Example from Study
Level of education	Higher education correlates with better self-leadership strategies	85% of participants with master's degree rated high in self-leadership strategies
Parental occupation	Reflects on participant's occupation and leadership	13% of respondents work in similar fields as parents
Parental education	Reflects on participant's level of education	Especially with a Bachelor, there is the same highest educational level
Support System	Crucial to develop self-leadership traits	90% of high achievers had a strong support system

In Table 3, the influence of socio-economic factors is supported by the results of the findings from the conducted survey. The survey revealed that a higher SES is associated with higher self-efficacy among participants.

Parental education significantly influences respondents' educational outcomes. Respondents with lower parental education levels often achieve only the same level, such as secondary education or a high school diploma. Likewise, parental educational attainment affects not only children's educational opportunities but also their psychological confidence and development (Al-Matalka, 2014). Higher parental education levels often correlate with higher education levels of the children. Bozkurt et al. (2021) and Laaksonen et al. (2011) indicate a significant relationship between socio-economic factors and academic achievement.

Individuals from wealthier backgrounds generally report higher self-leadership confidence (Graeber et al., 2023). Financial stability fosters a healthy environment for children, enhancing their skills and competencies. Currie (2009) highlights that financial stability during childhood improves health and educational outcomes, both critical for developing self-leadership. Generational differences can influence confidence and behavior in self-leadership. Overall, older participants reported higher confidence. Twenge (2010) discusses generational differences in work attitudes and self-leadership, noting that older generations often exhibit higher confidence due to their experience and maturity.

Table 4

Differences between Theoretical Evidence and Empirical Data

Theoretical Evidence	Empirical Findings	Differences and Insights
Simplified socio-economic impact by Laaksonen et al. (2011)	Multiple overlapping factors, such as education, support	Need to incorporate broader range of socio-economic variables
Early support systems by Currie (2009)	Importance of support systems, strong community even with a lower SES	Support Systems play a more crucial role than previously anticipated
Delayed gratification by Mischel (2015)	Socio-economic environment affects capacity for delayed gratification, wealthier backgrounds foster long-term thinking	Theories with this topic should include socio-economic factors as a significant variable

Table 4 highlights the differences between theoretical foundations and the findings, revealing that theories often oversimplify the role of socio-economic factors in self-leadership. While many frameworks understate or omit these factors, the data demonstrate their significant impact. Theoretical frameworks and theories should account for a broader range of variables to fully understand the impact on self-leadership.

The findings particularly emphasize the importance of strong support systems, which enhance self-leadership capabilities and confidence, even in lower SES groups. These systems, often underrepresented in models, play a far greater role than previously assumed and should receive more focus in theoretical frameworks. Additionally, the ability to delay gratification, linked to higher self-control and better long-term outcomes, was shown to be influenced by SES, with wealthier participants demonstrating stronger tendencies for delayed gratification. This theory should take the socio-economic context into account as a valuable variable. The research hypotheses stated in the Introduction section laid the foundation for this paper. They are grounded in the comprehensive analysis of previous research in the fields of socio-economic factors, self-leadership and the impact of the former.

Through the empirical data collection, the present study provides valuable information regarding the stated hypotheses, rejecting one and accepting the other. The findings of the primary research, reject hypothesis H0. The analysis revealed significant differences in self-leadership in the US based on socio-economic factors such as educational level, parental occupation and income. In case of the H1, the gathered evidence supports the predicted outcome. The data highlighted that individuals with higher educational levels, particularly those with a bachelor or higher, exhibit stronger self-leadership skills.

This aligns with the theoretical framework of Houghton and Neck (2002) and their statement that education enhances self-regulation, goal setting and intrinsic motivation, which all are components of self-leadership. There was also a notable correlation between the education and occupation of parents with the self-leadership skills and confidence of their children.

For instance, individuals whose parents held a higher qualification often pursued similar or higher educational paths. This is supported by the work of Hoyland et al. (2021), which found that early adulthood influences, including parental education, significantly impact their children.

Participants from financially stable households and those with a solid support system during their childhood demonstrated higher confidence in their abilities to Self-Lead.
The findings of the support systems align with this, 90% of high achievers indicated that they experience a strong support system during their education.

Another supporting finding is the difference between the control and treatment group in self-confidence and strategies. For example, the mean self-leadership score for the treatment group is significantly higher than the mean for the control group. This aligns with research by Neck, Manz and Houghton (2019) which indicates that higher education correlates with enhanced capabilities in self-leading, including self-regulation.

Based on the empirical data and all previously gathered theoretical evidence, H1 is accepted. The study provides strong foundations that socio-economic factors, particularly education, income and parental occupation, have a significant and non-deniable impact on self-leadership. The differences observed between the control and the treatment group underscore the influence of these factors on the development of self-leadership.

Conclusion
This study has illuminated the significant role of socio-economic factors in shaping self-leadership among individuals in the US. The key findings indicate that higher educational attainment is strongly associated with advanced self-leadership skills. Specifically, individuals with a bachelor's degree or higher consistently demonstrated stronger self-leadership traits compared to those with lower levels of education. The results reinforce theoretical frameworks that highlight the critical role of education in enhancing self-regulation, goal-setting, and intrinsic motivation. Parental education and occupation were also found to correlate with the educational and professional trajectories of their children, thereby influencing their self-leadership capabilities. Additionally, the presence of a strong support system during childhood emerged as a vital factor in fostering the skills and confidence required for self-leadership. Consistent with prior research, participants from wealthier backgrounds exhibited higher confidence levels, further affirming the role of financial stability in developmental and leadership outcomes.

Based on these findings, targeted interventions are recommended to address socio-economic disparities in self-leadership development. Educational initiatives such as scholarships for higher education can significantly enhance self-leadership skills among individuals from low-income backgrounds. Mentorship programs should be prioritized to provide guidance, career development opportunities, and leadership training. Leadership development programs

implemented by schools and workplaces could ensure equal access to skill-building resources. Further, engaging parents through school-based workshops can emphasize their pivotal role in shaping their children's futures, fostering a supportive environment for self-leadership development. These strategies collectively contribute to creating a more equitable and effective leadership landscape.

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