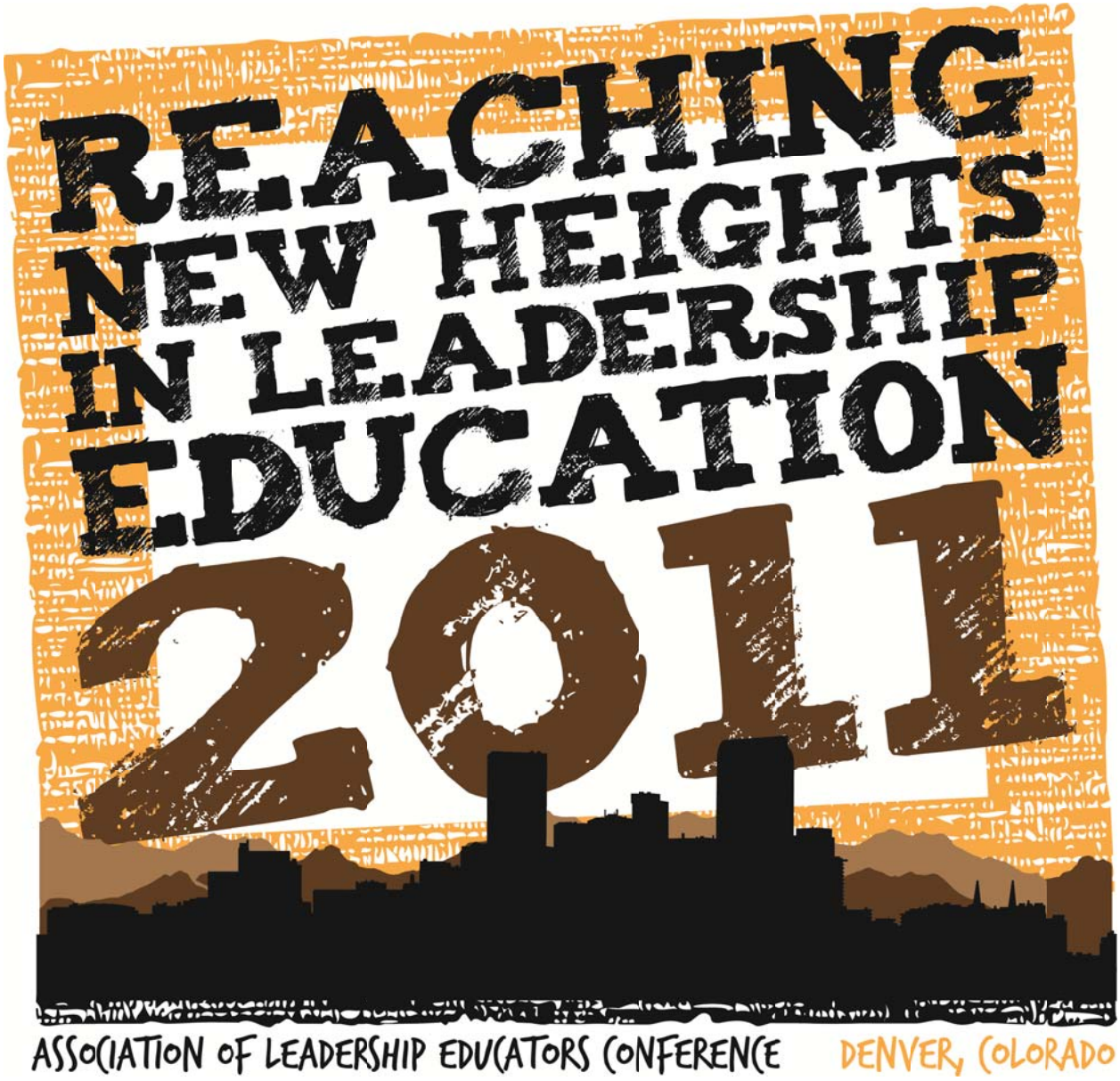
Conference Proceedings



Association of Leadership Educators
2011 Annual Conference Proceedings

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Symposium for Emerging Research Abstracts

Symposium for Emerging Research
Abstracts

- **A Multicultural Transformational Leadership Approach to Successful Global Grant Writing**
  Kathryne Buchanan, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

  This research process leads to application by leaders, which promotes cross cultural needs being met in global communities. By applying multiple models, leaders can develop as multicultural, transformation global leaders.

- ***ACE Program*: Utilizing Multiple Stages of Experiential Learning to Foster Leadership Development**
  Milton G. Newberry, III, Graduate Assistant, University of Georgia

  Building on prior research of experiential learning and leadership development, this article proposes an example of fostering leadership development through multiple stages of experiential learning. The *ACE Program* was created with the intent to strengthen leadership education, the importance of experiential, nonformal, and informal teaching settings in collegiate classrooms.

- **An Ethnological Study of Web 2.0 tools for Higher Education**
  Tiffani Bateman, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

  The purpose of this qualitative ethnographic study is to describe how online higher education students are using Web 2.0 tools for knowledge acquisition. At this stage of the research, student use of Web 2.0 tools is generally defined as student experience when utilizing Web 2.0 tools for the purpose of personal, professional, and educational knowledge acquisition.

- **An Explanatory Case Study Explaining the Relationship between Job Burnout and Job Satisfaction of Frontline Employees Working in Retail Grocery Organizations in South Carolina and Southeastern Georgia**
  Steven Harrison, Piggly Wiggly Retail Grocery Carolina Company

  Burnout is prevalent in organizations located in the United States. Many researchers conducted studies to assess the correlation between burnout and job satisfaction. According to Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter (2001), there is a significant correlation between job burnout and job satisfaction. According to Maslach et. al (2001), the salient outcomes of burnout are emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of accomplishment. These three outcomes cost the organization low productivity, absenteeism, and lack of employee commitment. These outcomes also may cause the organization not to realize its profitability goals. Unfortunately, studies about burnout and its correlation with frontline retail grocery workers job satisfaction are scarce.

- **An Exploration of the Effectiveness of New Instructor Mentoring in Higher Education: A Phenomenological Approach**
  James Craig, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

  This phenomenological study will explore the effectiveness of new instructor mentoring in higher education. This study may find the value of new instructors who are better trained and more effective in the classroom.

- **An Investigation of the Influences in Instructional Decision Making of Elementary Mathematics Teachers**
  Monica Cavender, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

  The purpose of this phenomenological study is to gather data on the influences of teacher decision-making in elementary mathematics. Data collected from teacher interviews, classroom observations, and test scores will be triangulated and coded to inform educational leaders in planning professional development for elementary mathematics teachers.

- **Bella Leadership Model: Retaining Happy Healthy Employees at a Lower Cost**
  Kimberly D. Vazquez, Faculty, University of Phoenix
  Janon Berry, Alumnus, University of Phoenix
  Charlotte Phillips, Alumnus, University of Phoenix

  Standard leadership theories on employee motivation assume that the basics of leadership motivation is based on motivating for a job well done by monetary rewards, a practice reflected by the United States Gross National Product (GNP). Americans have more money per capital than 97% of the world (HPI, 2010). In the United States, the GNP in 2010 was $41, 853 million (HPI, 2010) with the U.S. rated 3rd over the last 50 years. The problem is that despite a higher GNP, leadership models (Bloom, 1956; Bass, 1990, Wren, 2004) taught in universities, and practiced by organizations in the United States assume pay raises and bonuses motivate and retain employees, yet Americans rate lower in life satisfaction less than many third world countries (Word Database of Happiness, 2010) and retention continues to be an expensive problem.

- **Cause-Based Service Learning Project: Teaching and Learning Leadership through Direct Engagement in Community Projects**
  Kelsey Drey, Undergraduate Research Assistant, Iowa State University

  Teaching and learning leadership skills through service-learning projects provides hands-on opportunities to students plan and implement projects leading to desired learning outcomes. An agricultural leadership course is designed and taught using a variety of projects including a cause-based service learning project to encourage students' engagement in leadership initiatives.

- **Coaching Athletes to Leaders**
  Byron Green, Graduate Student, North Carolina State University

  Understanding the leadership styles of coaches will aid in understanding how the leadership development through athletics occurs. In order to do so we will use the LSS, to survey coaches from ACC schools to determine the leadership styles utilized by coaches and to discover whether expectations of athletes are being met.

- **Diffusion of Social Media Usage Among County 4-H Program Leaders**
  Rebekah Bowen, Graduate Student, University of Tennessee, Knoxville

  In a world of rapidly changing technology, it is important for those who strive to be leaders to learn about new communication techniques and utilize them to better connect with their followers. This proposal discusses the need for county 4-H agents to use social media to communicate effectively with their young adult members.

- **Evaluating the Effectiveness of Remedial Reading Programs at Community Colleges: A Quantitative Study**
  Nicole Lavonier, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

  This poster presents Chapter 1 of a study based on developmental reading programs of community college freshmen. Success in college depends upon students' ability to engage in strategic reading (Caverly, Nicholson, & Redcliffe, 2005). A quantitative quasi-experimental study will be used to determine the effectiveness of the strategic reading program.

- **Good ol' boys club or equal opportunity? Examining advice and influence networks in agricultural groups**
  Ryan Conklin, Graduate Student, University of Florida

  Organizational research has long been a target of leadership, business, and psychology studies. One organizational study in particular, Bono and Anderson (2005), found that transformational leadership was positively significantly related to advice frequency, advice likelihood, and influence in manager's workplace social networks. Bono and Anderson sampled six distinct organizations, none of them coming from the agricultural sector. Pini (2008) described the extent of masculine management dominance in agricultural organizations worldwide. These differences and others make agricultural groups very unique and merits further examination. This paper provides a theoretical and methodological outline to retest Bono and Anderson (2005) while incorporating a new criterion variable as well as a new predictor.

- **High First Time N-CLEX Pass Rate in California Vocational Nursing Colleges**
  Brenda Beall-Boyer, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

  A national nursing shortage exists with a projected need of more than one million nationally (HRSA, 2006) and 60,000 nurses in California by 2020 (HRSA, 2005). Quality nursing programs are in high demand based on an expected increase of 37,000 new health workforce roles (BLS, 2011) and further impacted by lack of faculty and decreased enrollment numbers (AACN, 2011).

- **Identifying the Relationships among Pre-Collegiate Characteristics, College Experiences, and Leadership Development**
  Elizabeth Foreman, Doctoral Candidate, Iowa State University

  Traditional-age undergraduate college students who were classified as seniors in the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences at Iowa State University (N=969) were sampled to explain which leadership experiences that have the largest effect on leadership outcomes. The Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) was used to measure leadership development.

- **Incorporating Social Media into the Leadership Classroom**
  Chelsey Ahrens, Graduate Student, University of Georgia

  With today's technology savvy students, it is important to keep them focused and excited about learning. This poster presents findings of how well students grasp concepts if social media avenues are incorporated into lesson plans.

- **Integrating Social Contagion**
  Jason Davison, Graduate Student, University of Florida

  Social contagion theory is the process where individuals adopt the attitudes or behaviors of others with whom they communicate (Scherer & Cho, 2003). The study seeks to determine what effects social contagion through social media has on the relationship between a leader and follower through the context of LMX theory.

- **Leadership Competencies and Skills of Commissioners and Secretaries of Agriculture**
  Kristen Baughman, Graduate Student, North Carolina State University

  Competencies and skills of leaders from land-grant institutions and Extension have been researched; however, studies have not been conducted about Commissioners and Secretaries of Agriculture. Using semi-structured interviews and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Commissioners and Secretaries will be studied. The findings may influence the future design of leadership development programs.

- **Leading the Way to Effective Teaching: Perceptions of Teachers in the Post-Secondary Online Mathematics Classroom**
  Karim Medico, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

  Online courses currently provide access to quality education for students around the world. Effective teaching and pedagogical skill development are important topics for educational leaders because quality teaching has been linked to student achievement, satisfaction, and success rates. This research will explore teacher perceptions of effective teaching strategies in the online mathematics classroom.

- **Motivating Discrepant Generations in the Workplace: A Look at the Impact of Hope and Organizational Commitment**
  Holly Cain, Graduate Student, University of Florida

  The purpose of this research is to determine the dominant and secondary sources of motivation and explore the impact of hope and organizational commitment on motivational sources in the veteran, baby boomer, generation x, and the millennial generations. Results will clarify generational differences and explain the needs of each generation.

- **Motivations of Volunteer Leaders**
  Jessalyn Schrock, Graduate Student, Oklahoma State University

  Volunteer leaders play an important role in 4-H programs across the country. McClelland's Learned Needs Theory identifies three needs individuals are driven by. These needs include achievement, affiliation, and power. This poster strives to understand the experiences of volunteers with 4-H using phenomenological research. Interviews with 4-H volunteers were conducted.

- **Perceived or not perceived? A comparison of characteristics of political leaders in Washington DC**
  Andrew L. Ross, Graduate Student, University of Georgia

  What skills and characteristics do political leaders in Washington DC possess? This research compared the characteristics of political leaders as observed in Washington D.C. by Congressional Agricultural Fellowship interns to the traits identified for successful leaders as identified in literature.

- **Perceptions of In-Service Teachers on their Interactions and Behaviors on Facebook**
  Tabitha Bradley, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

  This poster explores the perceptions of in-service teachers on their interactions and behaviors on the popular social networking site Facebook. The researcher hopes to identify what motivates teachers to participate on this site and ways educational leaders can educate, develop policy and protect the interests of teachers across the United States.

- **Putting the Co-op in Cooperative Extension: A Phenomenological View of Community Leaders Emerging Scholars**
  Jessica Anderson, Graduate Student, North Carolina State University

  An opportunity for a research study presented itself from a rural county in North Carolina and the unique and successful way their community organizations work together to combine resources to meet the needs of the local people.

- **Reaching New Heights in Education**
  Tricia Rosengarten, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

  Student retention and success at all levels and degree programs is an important area of focus for higher education leaders. Student persistence, retention rates, graduation rates, and overall success of students are constantly being researched and new ideas are continually being explored. In an age where financial and economic factors are top priorities for higher education administrators, improving retention rates and student success is necessary in today's competitive market. For academic leaders, who depend on tuition dollars and government funding, the financial ramifications are a big concern. In addition, retention and graduation rates are a metric when evaluating academic quality at higher education institutions. A universities' ability to engage students in the beginning of their program and keep them from dropping out is the key to success for the institution and students (Burnsted, 2010).

- **Relationship Between Entrepreneurial Education and Student Assessment Scores**
  Diane Savage, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

  The focus of this quasi-experimental quantitative research study will be to determine the relationship between entrepreneurial education and student performance scores in core classes of middle school students. The population is located in smaller school districts located in eastern rural Kentucky.

- **Seven Women Coaches Perceptions of the University of Tennessee Land Grant Institutional System and Their Sustainability as a Role Model and Leader in College Athletics**
  Allison Fulmer, University of Tennessee, Knoxville

  As female coaches became successful public figures in the sport world at UT, they too took on the job of becoming role models and leaders. Two leadership Theories, Trait and Situational, could explain the success of these female coaches at a prestigious land-grant university, and their ability to overcome feministic stereotypes. This study examines the perception of seven female coaches at the University of Tennessee, a land-grant university, and how they each have sustained their title as a coach, role model and leader in college athletics.

- **Social Competence to Assess Millennials' Interpersonal Skills in the Workplace**
  Viviana Giraud, Graduate Student, University of Florida

  The purpose is to explore the emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills of millennials in college. The generation of millennials was born between 1982 and 2002. This research examines the role of interpersonal skills and emotional intelligence and its relationship with career preparedness.

- **The Effect of Role-play in Leadership Development**
  Sarah Gervais, Undergraduate Leadership Student, Texas A&M University

  Emulating leaders is one step in leadership development. While many leadership courses ask students to analyze a leader and write their findings, this leadership development experience asked the students to become their leader. Impacts of this leadership monologue assignment will be measured.

- **The Internal-Belief Model: How Self-Fulfilling Prophecies are Predictors of Leader Success**
  Joelle Muenich, Graduate Assistant, Texas A&M University

  A self-fulfilling prophecy is a belief or prediction that causes itself to come true. The Internal-Belief Theory states that a leader's success will be determined by the extent to which one believes they can be a successful leader. The model combines Bandura's Self-Efficacy Beliefs and Rotter's Locus of Control.

- **The Negative Consequences of Tracking Students**
  Eileen Kicmal, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

  The segregation of students in the public school system causes individuals to be excluded from educational opportunities due to academic tracking in elementary school; students in low-tracking groups can acquire a sense of learned helplessness because of this role as a student, who is labeled slow, struggling, or below average.

- **Transformational Classroom Leadership**
  Barrett L. Keene, Graduate Research Assistant, Cornell University

  This proposal outlines the need for an augmented focus on teachers as leaders in secondary classrooms. This proposal also outlines the plans for a qualitative study concerning teachers' transformational leadership within secondary classrooms.

- **Unparalleled Leadership by Women of Color in Sororities: Leadership Development & Motivation**
  Sade A. Dawson, Master's Student, Texas A&M University

  The purpose of this study is to identify the leadership development of women of color in National Pan-Hellenic Council (NPHC) sororities .Through a mixed method evaluation, this study could influence the teaching of leadership development, motivate underrepresented ethnicities to participate in more leadership roles, and illustrate the significance of joining Greek lettered organizations.

Educator's Showcase
Abstracts

Educator's Showcase
Abstracts

- **Engaging Leadership Students' Skills Building for Change Management and Responsibility via Inspiring Entrepreneur Videos**
  Barbara W. Altman, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University—Central Texas

  Change agent skills and social responsibility values are challenges facing future leaders in business, non-profit and agricultural organizations. Social entrepreneurs use radical change to engage communities confronting intransigent issues. The social entrepreneurship literature has grown extensively in the past decade. Prominent organizations have recorded the "stories" of successful social entrepreneurs worldwide via publicly available video profiles. In this showcase, participants will view samples of these inspiring videos, and learn frameworks that can be used to engage students to learn change management and social responsibility.

- **Weakening our Immunity to Change: Sustained, Adaptive Personal Growth**
  Barrett L. Keene, Graduate Research Assistant, Cornell University
  Dawn E. Schrader, Associate Professor, Cornell University

  This showcase highlights an approach to adaptive change in Kegan and Lahey's *Immunity to Change*. This process reveals the behaviors that are preventing us from changing, as well as the "big assumptions," fears, and commitments that produce those limiting behaviors. Participants leave with a plan to attack their discovered immunity to change.

- **Leading Critically: Applied Critical Thinking in an Undergraduate Leadership Studies Course**
  Daniel M. Jenkins, Adjunct Professor of Leadership Studies, University of South Florida
  Amanda Cutchens, Academic Advisor, University of South Florida

  Leading critically means utilizing critical thinking skills to make decisions about leadership actions in different situations. The presenters will examine how student-centered experiential learning in leadership education bridges thinking with action. Using an interactive format, the presenters will demonstrate how instructors can facilitate "leading critically" in their classrooms.

- **Taking a Classic Look at Leadership**
  Carrie Ann Stephens, Associate Professor, University of Tennessee

  The ALEC 303 course: Classic Figures in Leadership utilizes a dramaturgical teaching approach along with case study analysis. The Educational Showcase will discuss and demonstrate how the dramaturgical approach is utilized in the course and case study handouts will be distributed to the audience. In addition, a role playing activity will be carried out to effectively show how students would evaluate the leadership theory or approach being exhibited.

- **Teaching Charismatic Leadership in the Graduate Classroom**

Nicholas R. Brown, Graduate Teaching Associate, Oklahoma State University
Penny Pennington Weeks, Associate Professor, Oklahoma State University

Charismatic leadership has become a prominent topic of research and discussion among scholars and practitioners over the past twenty years. Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. serves as an icon of charismatic leadership. This educator showcase will demonstrate techniques to teach charismatic leadership theory through a study of the charismatic public speaking style of Dr. King.

Roundtable Discussions
Abstracts

Roundtables – Session 1
Abstracts

- **Utilizing a Living Learning Community to Enhance Freshmen Student Leadership Development**
  Jill Arensdorf, Assistant Professor, Department of Leadership Studies, Fort Hays State University

  This roundtable session will focus on one university's pilot learning community initiatives focusing on freshmen leadership development. The planning and implementation of the community, as well as the assessment of student learning outcomes will be points of discussion.

- **How Do we Know When Leadership Development Has Occurred? A Round-Table Discussion on Capturing Objective Measures of Effective Leadership Development Programs**
  Jennifer Moss Breen, Director, Ph.D. Program in Human Capital Management, Bellevue University

  This roundtable session will focus on the question "When has leadership development occurred?" Adopting a human capital perspective, which seeks to determine objective outcomes of human capital initiatives, participants in this session will examine prevailing leadership literature and discuss research strategies that create stronger research linkages between scholars and practitioners.

- **Transformational Classroom Leadership**
  Barrett L. Keene, Graduate Student, Cornell University
  John L. Hall, Agriculture Teacher, Martinez Middle School, Lutz, FL
  Nicole Stedman, Assistant Professor, University of Florida

  Regardless of the context or size of the classroom, this interactive roundtable is designed to explore the application of the Full Range of Leadership Model within a variety of educational contexts. Participants will create and leave with a plan to equip transformational teachers.

- **Increasing participation in community leadership activities though values based personal action planning**
  Sandy Kolberg, Ph.D., University of Phoenix
  Ilene Ringler, Doctor of Management, University of Phoenix, Kaplan University
  Lisa M. S. Barrow, Ph.D., University of Phoenix

  The Knowledge Café format be utilized in the round table and will focus on understanding how personal values satisfaction can be integrated into individual action planning to increase involvement in community leadership activities. Final notes and results on the knowledge café will be available to all participants to incorporate into their personal action planning.

- **Membership marketing: Priorities for ALE and other professional organizations**
  Eric K. Kaufman, Assistant Professor, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

  Leaders of membership organizations face a constant challenge of member turnover. The membership lifecycle includes awareness, recruitment, engagement, renewal, and reinstatement. Participants in this roundtable discussion will analyze findings from recent ALE member surveys, share ideas for improving ALE, and identify opportunities to apply concepts to other professional organizations.

- **Innovation in Leadership Preparation Programs**
  Michael A. Owens, Assistant Professor, Educational Leadership & Policy Studies, Wayne State University

  Participants will use Wejnert's (2002) framework to explore what counts as innovative leadership preparation. This roundtable will explore what passes for innovation in leadership preparation programs to expand our knowledge of organizational underpinnings that affect the adoption of innovations in these programs.

- **Blogging 101: Developing Leaders Using Blogging In The Classroom**
  Allison Fulmer, Graduate Student, University of Tennessee, Knoxville
  Rebekah Bowen, Graduate Student, University of Tennessee, Knoxville
  Bryan Patterson, Ph.D., Associate Professor, University of Tennessee, Knoxville
  Carrie Stephens, Ph.D., Professor, University of Tennessee, Knoxville

  While building stronger leaders, it is important for us to teach them to utilize all available resources to communicate effectively. This roundtable discussion will address the use of blogging in classrooms as a way to help students build transformational leadership skills.

Roundtables – Session 2
Abstracts

- **Online Leadership Program Development: The Nike Sneaker and the Concrete Boot**
  Kathryn Hollywood, Associate Professor & Leadership Dept. Chair, Concordia University, Chicago
  Donna A. Blaess, Associate Professor of Leadership, Concordia University, Chicago

  The roundtable discussion focuses on an examination of issues and challenges experienced in initiating, implementing, and sustaining/growing fully online graduate degree programs in leadership at a traditional, private mid-western university. Topics to be discussed include administrative communication, institutional readiness and resources, strategic planning, faculty preparedness and development, curricula and course development, technical resources and support, and student support services. Authors share their 15 years of online learning.

- **A Multicultural Transformational Leadership Approach to Successful Global Grant Writing**
  Kathryne Buchanan, Senior Doctoral Resident, University of Phoenix, School of Advanced Studies

  A multicultural transformational leadership approach to successful global grant writing process leads to applications by leaders which promotes cross cultural needs being met with a focus on community needs in global communities. By applying the Scholarship, Practitioner, Leader model (UOP,2009), leaders can develop as multicultural transformational global leaders reaching new heights in leadership.

- **Using the Council for the Advancement of Standards for Higher Education (CAS) to Enhance Curricula in Leadership Minors**
  Curt Friedel, Assistant Professor, Virginia Tech University
  Kerry Priest, Instructor, Residential Leadership Community, Virginia Tech University

  The Council for the Advancement of Standards for Higher Education (CAS) standards for leadership programs offer valuable and comprehensive recommendations for both curricular and co-curricular programs in leadership development. Because leadership minors often share curricular and administrative responsibilities with student affairs offices, should CAS also apply to these academic programs?

- **Back to the Basics: Foundational Questions for Leadership Education Programs**
  Eric K. Kaufman, Assistant Professor, Virginia Tech University
  Natalie Coers, Program Coordinator, University of Florida

  Context and framework of a leadership education program can easily be forgotten or pushed to the side for more pressing matters of program development, such as core content and assessment strategies. Let's take time to discuss the basics and importance of a solid foundation for reaching new heights.

- **Developing the Servant Leader: A Dialogue on the Development of Leadership Practices Essential in Tomorrow's Workplace + Community**
  Bryan Patterson Ph.D., Assistant Professor, University of Tennessee

  Knowledge of servant leadership practices help in finding and development jobs that address community challenges. Becoming a global change agent utilizing servant leadership practices.

- **Sustainability and Leadership**
  Angela Thieman-Dino, Ph.D., University of Colorado, Boulder
  Joseph Pesce, Ph.D., Omnis, Inc.

  Sustainability—from local to global—has enormous implications for leaders in the 21st century. Organizations must strive to be sustainable internally, but also must be positioned to deal with a world ever more complicated. One of the most important challenges facing a leader is how do deal with sustainability.

Poster Session
Abstracts

Poster Session Abstracts

- **21st Century Leadership: Other-oriented or Rational Self-Interested**
  Lisa M. S. Barrow, Assistant Professor, Brock University

  Other-oriented leaders focus their attention on organizational objectives coupled with a human resource emphasis, whereas rational self-interested leaders concern themselves with organizational objectives coupled with self-emphasis. This quantitative study examines philanthropian leadership, an other-oriented leadership approach and transactional leadership, a rational self-interested leadership approach.

- **A Case Study of a Higher Education Institution's Organizational Culture in Developing STEM Programs**
  Doris E. Cross, Organizational Change and Development Company

  The purpose of this research study was to explore the cultural characteristics of a HEI that enrolls STEM students, particularly underrepresented minority (URM) students. Research studies reveal a decline in the number of undergraduate students that enroll and persist in STEM majors. URM students enter the United States' educational pipeline at a higher rate than ever before. Yet URM students' enrollment and persistence in STEM disciplines remain the lowest among other student groups (NSF 2007, 2008).

- **A Look Inside: Self-leadership Perceptions of Non-formal Educators**
  Kristina G. Ricketts, Assistant Professor, University of Kentucky
  Hannah S. Carter, Assistant Professor, University of Florida

  Understanding leadership from an intrapersonal perspective is important when focusing on individual leadership development. Researchers utilized the Revised Self-Leadership Scale (RSLS) to determine the behavioral and cognitive strategies non-formal educators use in motivating themselves towards success. Implications include concepts and ideas that should be integrated into future personal leadership development for educators.

- **An International Comparison of Leadership Styles in Times of Crisis: Japan, New Zealand, Iceland, Haiti, and the Gulf of Mexico**
  Donna M. Schaeffer, Associate Professor, Marymount University
  Patrick C. Olson, Associate Professor, National University

  Using Mintzberg's managerial roles as a framework, we examine how public and private leaders from five different geographic areas led during times of crisis. Quotations and outtakes from traditional and social media address the leaders' roles as figureheads and liaisons; information monitors, disseminators, and spokespeople; and resource allocators and negotiators.

- **Deceptive Leaders and Citizen Responsibility**
  Gerri Perreault, Director of Leadership Studies, University of Northern Iowa

  Democracy requires citizens who are informed, and deception distorts their information and therefore their choices. This session will discuss concepts and issues surrounding deception by political leaders with an emphasis on the responsibilities of citizens to become aware and resist deception.

- **Developing agricultural advocacy leaders with learner-centered curriculum and instruction**
  Savannah Faye Craddock, Graduate Research Assistant, University of Kentucky
  Miranda Rose Chaplin, National Association of Agricultural Educators
  William Jay Jackman, Executive Director, National Association of Agricultural Educators

  As agriculture continues to transform with changing technologies and resources it is the responsibility of the leaders in agriculture education to advocate for the profession. Implementing newly developed agricultural advocacy curriculum into the classroom can encourage both agriculture teachers and students to take a more active role in the profession by advocating.

- **Development of the Individual Leadership Traits Inventory**
  Jon C. Simonsen, Assistant Professor, University of Missouri
  Jonathan J. Velez, Assistant Professor, Oregon State University
  Tracy Dye. Graduate Student, The Ohio State University
  Robert J. Birkenholz, Professor, The Ohio State University

  This poster focuses on the initial development of the Individual Leadership Traits Inventory (ILTI) instrument based on eight identified constructs of intelligence, confidence, charisma, determination, sociability, integrity, leadership efficacy, and decision making efficacy. Initial pilot tests revealed that the ILTI evidenced acceptable construct reliabilities and multistate research is currently underway to establish factoral validity.

- **Emerging Leaders: Using Student Voice to Create a Peer Leader Component**
  Kathryn Sturtevant, Student Development Specialist, Texas A&M University

  Emerging Leaders at Texas A&M is a new leadership program that is still evolving. Students played a pivotal role in shaping the program and the student voice will be solicited when creating the Peer Leader component. Current features of the program as well as anticipated processes that will help define the students' continued experience will be shared.

- **Enhancing reflection and improving pedagogical design through the development of a cumulative course reflection**
  Jonathan J. Velez, Assistant Professor, Oregon State University
  Misty D. Lambert, Assistant Professor, Oregon State University

  This poster describes the development of a student culminating reflective activity and addresses the rationale, implementation and outcomes of this pedagogical change. Rogers (2000) Model of Reflective Thinking was utilized to craft a course assessment intended to push students to greater levels of reflection.

- **From an Educational Paradigm, Have Women Reached a New Height in Leadership**
  Rachel Ang, University of Phoenix

  The correlations study examined from an educational paradigm have women reached a new height in leadership. The heightened need for corporate women leaders to find new operating modalities, and strategies to enhance corporate prosperity in a world characterized by growing global competition, outsourcing, corporate downsizing, rapid innovation, and regulations.

- **Furthering Leadership Education Through Tumblr and Blogging**
  Erika Hooker, Undergraduate Student, Cornell University
  Barrett L. Keene, Graduate Research Assistant, Cornell University

  This poster describes the benefits of blogging through the medium of Tumblr and also gives suggestions for its use. By using Tumblr, leadership educators can provide immediate feedback to students, open forums for distance learning, and engage in the exchange of thought provoking ideas with fellow professionals.

- **Higher Education in Entrepreneurial Development for Information Technology**
  Henry D. McCormack, University of Phoenix

  Research in the education process for information technology careers and education, integrated into different fields where their knowledge can be utilized on broader scope. A study on entrepreneurship education in IT as managers might help to identify why fewer IT workers are expanding to higher education.

- **How can Social Media be Used to Develop Emotional Intelligence Skills**
  Michael Fields, Doctoral Student, Indiana Institute of Technology

  The following paper is a research proposal exploring how social media can be used to develop emotional intelligence in leaders. By review of current literature on social media it is discovered that they are used for higher education and professional development but not for emotional intelligence development. Building on traditional methods for EI development, it is yet to be discovered if social media can be used as a delivery method for this development.

- **Incoming First-Year College Students' Leadership Beliefs and Perceptions: Implications for Leadership Development Programming**
  Donald V. Fischer, Associate Professor, College of Saint Benedict & Saint John's University
  Richard M. Wielkiewicz, Professor, College of Saint Benedict & Saint John's University
  Maribeth Overland, Director of Student Activities & Leadership Dev., College of Saint Benedict
  Alyssa M. Sinner, Undergraduate Student, College of Saint Benedict

  Incoming first-year college students (N = 4,292) from 22 colleges/universities were surveyed regarding attitudes and beliefs about leadership. Students' understanding of leadership was largely hierarchical and unsophisticated. Outgoing personality and high school activities were strongly related to self-perceived leadership ability. Implications for leadership development professionals are discussed.

- **Instructional Strategies for Autism Spectrum Disorder from Transition to Adulthood: A "Technological Constructivist" Pedagogical Approach**
  Kathryne Buchanan, Senior Doctoral Resident, University of Phoenix
  Dale H. Eberwein, Senior Doctoral Resident, University of Phoenix

  Some individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder are able to successfully transition from school to work; however, many have difficulties with areas crucial to successful adulthood. Educational artifacts and digital learning objects (Lowe, Lee, Schibeci, Cummings, Phillips, & Lake, 2010) are developed, modified, and edited as needed to address needs in these critical areas and possibly assist successful transition to adulthood for students with Autism Spectrum Disorder.

- **Integrating Twitter into Leadership Education**
  Kristen Steves, Cornell University
  Barrett L. Keene, Graduate Research Assistant, Cornell University

  This poster describes the innovative idea for leadership instructors and professionals to utilize Twitter for educational purposes. Through personal interviews and analysis of relevant studies, this social media tool generated instructional and learning benefits that were observed through instructor immediacy behaviors and participant interaction.

- **Interfolio: An Online Leadership Portfolio Experience**
  Ryan Conklin, Graduate Teaching Assistant, University of Florida
  Gregory T. Gifford, Assistant Professor, University of Florida

  This poster describes and depicts the use of a web-based portfolio service utilized in an online interpersonal leadership undergraduate course. The capstone assignment for the course is the development of a leadership portfolio. In order to support this assignment in an online course, a partnership was developed with the online document management service, Interfolio. Interfolio's portfolio management service allowed for the creation of a unique online assignment which provides students with an opportunity to develop a portfolio to use both during the class and afterwards as they keep and maintain leadership components throughout their collegiate careers. Samples of the website's functionality and portfolio components will be displayed and explained.

- **Knowledge and Perceptions of Agriculture in Tennessee through Fall Agritourism Experiences**
  Jessica Jarrell Poore, Graduate Student, University of Tennessee-Knoxville
  Bryan Patterson, Assistant Professor, University of Tennessee-Knoxville

  Agriculturists are community and industry leaders when it comes to the innovative way they share information. Through creativity theses individuals create a bridge of communication and learning to a population who is much distanced from production agriculture. Venue owners captivate audiences with experiential learning methods that leave them more educated about agriculture.

- **Leadership Honors: Laying New Tracks in the Study of Leadership**
  April D. Place, Academic Advisor, Texas A&M University
  Lori L. Moore, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University
  Barry L. Boyd, Associate Professor, Texas A&M University
  Chanda D. Elbert, Associate Professor, Texas A&M University
  Jonathan Howell, Academic Advisor, Texas A&M University
  Summer F. Odom, Assistant Lecturer and Advisor, Texas A&M University
  Lexi M. Wied, Academic Advisor, University of Texas of the Permian Basin
  Jennifer Williams, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

  This poster explores the requirements of a leadership honors track at a land-grant university. The track requires students to complete 18 credits of honors courses: two honors courses (6 credits) within the department, two honors courses (6 credits) outside the department, and two additional honors courses (6 credits).

- **Student Perceptions and Prioritization of Leadership Attributes**
  Christopher Leupold, Associate Professor, Elon University
  Kimberly Epting, Elon University
  Kristen Riggs, Elon University
  James Barton, Elon University

  In two separate studies, students were asked to prioritize the characteristics they perceived as most critical for effective leadership. Employing different methodologies (one used importance rankings of leadership characteristics, the other a Q-sort method) the studies' results found students tending to converge on a similar prioritization of leadership qualities.

- **Student Reflections on Course Assignments in an Undergraduate Leadership Course**
  Robert J. Birkenholz, Professor, The Ohio State University
  Jon C. Simonsen, Assistant Professor, University of Missouri
  Jonathan J. Velez, Assistant Professor, Oregon State University
  Tracy Dye, Graduate Student, The Ohio State University

  Student reflective feedback regarding course assignments in an undergraduate leadership course will be presented. Students provided feedback on course assignments used to determine course grades. Students were asked to comment on the value of each assignment as a tool to promote learning about leadership and/or applications to their life.

- **The Extracurricular Participation Levels of High School Students and the Relationships between Activity Levels and High School Grade Point Average**
  Jonathan J. Velez, Assistant Professor, Oregon State University
  Misty D. Lambert, Assistant Professor, Oregon State University
  Jon C. Simonsen, Assistant Professor, University of Missouri
  Tracy Dye. Graduate Student, The Ohio State University
  Robert J. Birkenholz, Professor, The Ohio State University

  This research focused on the extracurricular activities of high school students and the relationship to grade point average. Freshman enrolled in a College of Agricultural Sciences were surveyed to determine their involvement in high school extracurricular activities. Activity involvement and persistence were analyzed in light of gender and results reported.

- **Theory to Practice: Preparing Two-Year College Faculty to Teach Leadership**
  William G. Weeks, Professor, Oklahoma State University
  Penny Pennington Weeks, Associate Professor, Oklahoma State University

  This USDA funded project linked two-year college faculty interested in teaching leadership with leadership education faculty at a four year institution. Results included increased leadership course offerings at two-year schools and innovative in class and out of class experiential leadership activities at two-year schools.

- **Undergraduate Students' Self-Assessment on Six Traits for Leadership Effectiveness: Implications for Leadership Curriculum Content and Teaching Strategies**
  Awoke D. Dollisso, Assistant Professor, Iowa State University
  Vikram Koundinya, Postdoctoral Research Associate, Iowa State University

  This study assessed the perceived effectiveness of undergraduate students on six identified leadership traits. There were a considerable percentage of students who lacked in four of the six traits. The findings have implications for designing leadership course curricula and for selecting teaching strategies for undergraduate leadership courses.

- **Using Facebook As an Effective Platform For Education**
  Lucas Fuess, Teaching Assistant, Cornell University
  Lee Humphreys, Assistant Professor, Cornell University

  As Facebook and social media continues to evolve, it can be used as an effective platform to educate others- whether in the classroom or from an organizational standpoint. As many people already utilize Facebook, it is an efficient, immediate, and interactive way to teach others.

- **Values Satisfaction and Participation in a Community Leadership Program: A Case Study**
  Ilene Ringler, University of Phoenix and Kaplan University

  Citizen involvement in leadership efforts is decreasing and the need to identify and train leaders who can fulfill leadership roles in the community is increasing. The case study supported by a mixed method data gathering process, analyzed the relationship of personal values satisfaction and participation in a community leadership program.

- **Video Production: Connecting the Classroom to the World**
  Kai Keane, Undergraduate Student, Cornell University
  Barrett L. Keene, Graduate Research Assistant, Cornell University

  This poster describes the process of using video production in the classroom to further engage and facilitate students in social media. By learning simple steps of recording, editing, and uploading a video to hosting websites such as YouTube, teachers are able to empower students by connecting them to the world.

- **Wiggio: Using Group Collaboration Software to Facilitate Leadership Education**
  Abigail Needle, Undergraduate Student, Cornell University
  Barrett L. Keene, Graduate Research Assistant, Cornell University

  This poster describes the use of Wiggio, group collaboration software, in the context of leadership education. This cloud computing software streamlines group activities into a simple interface for the not technologically savvy. This poster also describes the benefits of virtual collaboration and the broad range of uses of Wiggio.

- **Wolfpack Recruitment Program**
  Kristen Baughman, Graduate Student, North Carolina State University
  Byron Green, Graduate Student, North Carolina State University
  Jacklyn Bruce, Assistant Professor, North Carolina State University

  The Wolfpack Recruitment program provides organizations with a volunteer recruitment strategy to engage motivated college students with the academic training necessary to be programmatic volunteers. This program, used first with a campus service organization at North Carolina State University with positive results, can be adapted and used with a variety of other groups or organizations.

Research and Practice Papers
Full Manuscripts

How Six Women Deans of Agriculture Have Obtained and Sustained Their Leadership Role: A Qualitative Study

Dr. Carrie Ann Stephens, Associate Professor
University of Tennessee

Abstract

There is a disproportionate ratio of men to women in leadership roles in higher education and agriculture. The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the lives of women deans in agriculture in an attempt to conceptualize the leadership styles they have developed as a result of their positions as deans in a predominantly male field. Six women deans of agriculture were interviewed and observed in an attempt to recognize the impact their personal journeys have had in developing their leadership styles and sustaining their leadership role. Conclusions were: 1) education and work experience were not limiting factors in their achievement of the deanship; 2) spouses of the women deans assumed the child rearing responsibilities which aided them in sustaining their leadership role; 3) women deans' learned to be great strategists and establish their presence within the University despite gender discrimination; and 4) each of the women deans in this study exhibited personality traits such as surgency, conscientiousness, agreeableness, adjustment, and intellectance which are traits considered relevant for leadership effectiveness.

Introduction and Theoretical Framework

Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of followers to achieve a common goal. Therefore, leadership is not a trait internalized by leaders but rather an interactive event between the leader and follower. Furthermore, the leader is affected by those individuals he or she leads (Northhouse, 2007), which attests that leaders are not born, they are made.

Leaders invent themselves by following; they develop character and vision as a result of experiences and growth through following and learning from individuals who have influenced them. Thus, since there is no *leader cookie cutter*, leaders may come in "every size, shape, and disposition- short, tall, neat, sloppy, young, old, male, and female" (Bennis, 1989, p.39). In fact, it is the diversity of these individuals that is and will continue to be critical in effecting change in organizations and our rapidly changing world. Today's society should not be content with preparing only a selected few for leadership; however, all individuals should be encouraged to develop leadership skills in order to gain maximum benefit from their diverse talents and skills (Madsen, 2008).

While contributions of all types of leaders are vital, factors such as gender tend to hinder the involvement of capable individuals whose talents may improve the competitiveness and viability of an organization (Madsen, 2008). Furthermore, there is an unmistakable difference in the leadership and decision-making power bestowed on men and the responsibilities allotted to women in organizations and society (Eagly & Carli, 2004). There are four types of explanations for the demise of women's occupancy in high-level leadership positions: underinvestment in human capital (e.g., education, work experience); the difference in leadership styles of men and

women; the nature of men and not women to lead and dominate others; and discrimination against female leaders based on gender norms (Eagly & Carli, 2004).
Gender gap in workplace leadership occurs when women's human capital investment in education, training, and work experience is lower than men's (Eagly & Carli, 2004). Today, women attain university degrees at higher rates than men do which discredits this portion of the argument; however, women's salaries and representation in leadership roles are not equivalent with men's. A factor which supports this statement is women's greater involvement in domestic work (housework and child care), which may result in women acquiring less training than men do, contributing less effort to paid work, and experiencing more interruptions in work history (Eagly & Carli, 2004). While men increasingly share in housework and child rearing responsibilities, the majority of domestic duties are still performed by women; resulting in necessary breaks from employment, less job experience, and missed opportunities for advancement. Therefore, domestic expectations impose an added burden on women advancing in leadership positions and account for slowed career progress and reduced earnings (Northouse, 2007).

The difference in leadership styles of men and women is another explanation for the exclusion of women from leadership roles. The style with which an individual leads largely determines the leader's effectiveness on followers; any difference is generally perceived as a product of gender and ultimately affects people's views of who should advance to a leadership position (Eagly & Carli, 2004). As more women have begun occupying positions of leadership, numerous studies have been conducted to determine whether or not there are distinct differences in female and male leadership styles and identify which types of leadership are best suited to conditions faced by contemporary organizations.

Beginning in the early 1980's, leadership researchers began studying a new, future-oriented style of leadership introduced by James MacGregor Burns as *transformational* leadership (Northouse, 2007). Transformational leadership is a process which changes and transforms people and organizations. According to Eagly and Carli (2004), transformational leaders "state future goals, develop plans to achieve those goals, and innovate, even when their organizations are generally successful" (285). Leaders of this approach articulate to followers the problems in the current system and offer a compelling vision of what a new organization could be (Lussier & Achua, 2007). Such leaders first establish themselves as role models by gaining the trust and confidence of their followers. Transformational leaders then encourage followers to develop their full potential and thus contribute more effectively to their organization through mentoring and empowerment (Eagly & Carli, 2004). Thus, the drive of transformational leaders to shift their followers' focus from their personal needs, aspirations, and values to a concentration on an organization's collective interest, may be crucial in helping organizations adapt to current geopolitical, social, and economic changes (Lussier & Achua, 2007).

Burns (1978), Avolio (1999) and Bass (1998) compared transformational leadership to *transactional* leadership. Transactional leadership resembles traditional management practices, producing a give-and-take relationship between the leader and his or her followers. This style involves assigning a subordinate responsibility, rewarding them for meeting objectives, and correcting them for failing to meet objectives (Eagly & Carli, 2004). Transactional leadership facilitates an exchange of effort for rewards which provides for the achievement of both leader

and follower agendas (Kuhnert, 1994). It is effective because followers benefit from fulfilling the leader's requests. Conversely, transformational leadership motivates followers to accomplish more than what is anticipated of them, transcending their own self-interests for the good of the organization (Northouse, 2007). While transformational and transactional leadership styles are very different, both can contribute to effective leadership.
When determining the distinction between transactional and transformational leaders, it is helpful to associate this comparison with the difference between managers and leaders. While leadership and management both involve influence, working with people, and effective goal accomplishment; they are also two different constructs. The overriding function of management is to provide order and consistency to organizations, whereas the primary function of leadership is to produce change and movement (Northouse, 2007).

Lussier and Achua (2007) described transformational leaders as "influential, inspirational, and charismatic" (382), whereas transactional leaders are classified as "task- and reward-oriented, structured, and passive" (383). A connection can be made linking management and transactional leadership in that transactional leaders reward followers for performing specific behaviors that meet the leader's expectations and punish followers' performance when it does not meet expectations. Transformational leaders are similar to charismatic leaders in their ability to articulate a compelling vision of the future, and influence followers by arousing strong emotions in support of the vision (Lussier & Achua, 2007).

Although there are clear differences between transformational and transactional leadership, like management and leadership, both styles are effective in leading followers. In addition to transformational and transactional leadership, Burns (1978), Avolio (1999), and Bass (1998) distinguished a third leadership style labeled *laissez-faire* leadership. Laissez-faire leaders abdicate responsibility, delay decisions, provide no feedback, and make little effort to help followers satisfy their needs (Northouse, 2007). Unlike transformational and transactional leadership, there is no exchange between laissez-faire leaders and their followers and no effort to help their followers grow.

Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003) confirmed the generalization that women's typical leadership styles are more transformational than those of men, especially when it came to providing encouragement and support to subordinates. Thus, women are more focused on the aspects of leadership that promote effectiveness. In addition, women leaders were more engaged in rewarding followers' behaviors, an aspect of transactional leadership called contingent reward (Lussier & Achua, 2007). Conversely, male leaders appear to be more prone to exhibiting aspects of transactional leadership other than contingent reward, such as corrective and disciplinary actions that are either active (timely) or passive (belated) (Eagly et al., 2003). Moreover, men are also more likely to operate as laissez-faire leaders, who take little responsibility for managing.

Another explanation as to the disproportionate occupation of men in leadership roles asserts that men have an evolved psychological character that equips them with a natural tendency to seek leadership and take a dominant role in situations. Evolutionary psychologists link current sex differences in behavior to the differing reproductive pressures males and females experienced in the early history of the human species (Eagly & Carli, 2004). While men possess an internal

instinct to compete for dominance and mating partners, as well as a tendency to evolve dispositions of aggression, risk taking, and competition for status; women possess a predisposition to invest more in the offspring and depend on their mates to provide resources to support them and their children.

Personality traits are of further relevance in understanding gender differences in effective contemporary leadership. Most managerial experts advocate the more feminine and androgynous skills of negotiation, cooperation, diplomacy, team building, and inspiring and nurturing others rather than distinctively masculine traits and skills (Eagly & Carli, 2004). These feminine qualities parallel those that depict transformational leadership. In addition, some characteristics that are known to derail leaders are intimidating or abrasive style, arrogance, and coldness (Nahavandi, 2003), are at least stereotypically masculine (Diekman & Eagly, 2000). Therefore, it is unlikely that effective leadership in contemporary organizations consists of traditionally male behaviors or that men's attainment of leadership roles reflects their natural dominance.

Additionally, leadership scholars have identified five broad personality trait categories that correspond too many of the specific traits found relevant for leadership emergence, advancement, or effectiveness (Yukl, 2010). This five factor model of personality, or the "Big Five" model, distinguishes five personality traits including surgency, conscientiousness, agreeableness, adjustment, and intellectance (Yukl). Surgency is defined through specific traits such as extroversion (outgoing), energy/activity level, and need for power (assertive); conscientiousness is characterized by dependability, personal integrity, and need for achievement; agreeableness is described through attributes including cheerfulness and optimism, nurturance (sympathetic, helpful), and need for affiliation; adjustment is identified through the specific traits of emotional stability, self-esteem, and self-control; and intellectance is defined as curious and inquisitive, open-minded, and learning oriented.

The dearth of women in high-level leadership also points to prejudicial attitudes and discriminatory behaviors as a liable cause. The term *glass ceiling* was introduced in 1986 in the *Wall Street Journal* (The Corporate Woman, 1986), which rapidly spread among journalists and other writers and soon became part of the culture (Eagly & Carli, 2004). While this metaphor paints an unmistakable picture of the invisible barrier that challenges the ascent of many women to high-level leadership positions, what is not so clearly understood is that women face a variety of obstacles throughout their leadership journey. Women and men are not granted equal access to entry- and midlevel positions (Eagly & Carli, 2007), proving that a woman's trek to leadership is complex with resistance and prejudice, but ultimately attainable and a goal worth striving for.

Prejudice toward female leaders materializes from the incongruity that people often perceive between the characteristics typical of women and the attributes of leadership roles. Women are associated with communal qualities (e.g., being especially affectionate, helpful, friendly, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive), which convey a concern for the compassionate treatment of others (Eagly & Carli, 2007). These traits are inconsistent with those society perceives to be necessary for successful leadership, which are predominantly argentic (e.g., being assertive, dominant, forceful, self-reliant, masterful). People readily associate leadership qualities with masculine characteristics, placing the daunting task on women to find an effective balance

between showing their followers compassion and demonstrating assertiveness and maintaining control.

The gendered nature of leadership in the fields of agriculture and higher education has significantly influenced the lives of women who have chosen to pursue leadership roles within them. There is little published research on the advancement of influential individuals in higher education, and even less literature is available on the development of high-level women leaders in education. But researchers' interest in women's development of the leadership competencies that are essential for effective leadership in postsecondary education is steadily growing. Hatch (2002) stated feminist researchers take interest in "exposing material differences gender makes in women's life chances" (16). Therefore, this article explored the leadership styles developed by each woman dean, the gender discrimination each faced in their journey to deanship, and how these factors impacted the women's personal development and professional advancement to their leadership role in agriculture.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the lives of women deans in agriculture in an attempt to conceptualize the leadership styles they have developed as a result of their positions as deans in a predominantly male field, as well as their upbringing and life experiences. The central research question addressed during the study was, "How have women deans of agriculture sustained their leadership role in agriculture?"

Methods/Procedures

In order to fully comprehend the experiences participants shared, the study was performed using the qualitative research method, which provided for a "complex, detailed understanding of the issue" (Creswell, 2007, 40). Gathering information from interviews, observations, documents, and pictures provided the researcher with a bank of data from which themes could be created, interpretations made, and a "rich, full picture of a research situation" painted (Wright, 2002/3, 8). A phenomenological approach was utilized in an attempt to gain entry into the conceptual world of study participants in order to understand how and what meaning they construct from their lived experiences (Bogden & Biklen, 2007). Phenomenology allowed for the accurate interpretation and description of the meaning of the six women deans' experiences in sustaining their leadership roles in a predominantly male field.

The population for this study consisted of six women deans of agriculture in Land-Grant Institutions. Twenty-five women deans and associate deans were identified as possible study participants using the 2009 Directory of Deans and Directors of Academic Programs in Schools and Colleges of Agriculture. While the researcher initially sought to engage women deans from each region of the Continental United States (North, South, East, and West), women associate deans were asked to participate in regions where women deans were not accessible in an effort to maintain a representative sample of women who have all experienced the phenomenon of sustaining their leadership roles in a male-dominated field. Each dean was assigned a pseudonym to protect their identity and ensure the confidentiality of their statements. Heather and Kelly were interviewed from the northern region; in the southern region, Maggie was interviewed; Rachel and Laura were interviewed from the eastern region; and in the western region, Shelley was interviewed.

Gaining entry
An Institutional Review Board Form B was completed and approval received by the University of _____Research Compliance Services on April 27, 2009 to conduct the research. Each perspective participant was contacted by phone and email to secure authorization to participate in the study. Prior to conducting the interviews with each individual, an informed consent letter was signed and collected at the interview.

Data Collection
The methods employed to collect data in this study included one to two hour in-depth interviews. The researcher's presence as a participant observer in the environments of each of the six women deans for two days was also utilized. During each field visit, the researcher recorded descriptive and reflective notes as she observed events and interactions in each dean's daily routine. This enabled the researcher to gain an accurate account of the field as well as maintain the subjectivity of her understanding of each dean's experience. In addition, each dean participated in an audio-taped, semi-structured interview in which the researcher asked open-ended, non-leading questions (Creswell, 2007). The interviews focused on revealing the influences and experiences which helped to develop each woman. The interview protocol asked each participant to describe her family upbringing, her immediate family, and her road to becoming a dean of agriculture.

Data Analysis
The in-depth interviews were transcribed and analyzed along with the researcher's field notes. The data was examined using several methods, which included identifying significant statements and elements of meaning; creating textural and structural descriptions; and recognizing descriptions which revealed commonalities among the participants' experiences (Creswell, 2007). Emerging themes from all data were coded and sorted into specific categories by the researcher.

Validation Strategies
Research Bias. Prior to launching the study, the researcher reflected on qualities she possessed which may impact her relationship with the environment and people in the study. First, the researcher holds a strong passion for agriculture as she grew up on a farm and is pursuing a degree in agriculture. The researcher's strong interest in this field may result in more focus on the selected women's impact in agriculture and how they have achieved their current status. Next, the researcher is female and possesses moderate feminist beliefs. She takes special interest in the stories of women who have overcome challenges in fields subjugated by males. This may influence the interview questions asked of participants pertaining to how they have achieved and sustained leadership positions in agriculture, a predominantly male field. Finally, the researcher has developed leadership characteristics and independence that have enabled her to take on a variety of leadership roles. Prior to commencing the study, the researcher believed women deans were independent and have assumed many leadership roles throughout their lives.

In an effort to keep a neutral viewpoint, the researcher reflected on her biases of the research topic and assumptions of the outcomes of the study prior to and during the research to maintain as impartial of a position as possible. The researcher personally reflected on each occasion of contact and communication with the participants. The researcher also structured the research

question and probing questions in such a way that did not lead or guide the participant's responses in a predetermined direction.

In addition to the researcher's efforts to reduce the impact of bias on the data collected, several validation strategies were employed to document the "accuracy" and value of this phenomenological research study. Prolonged engagement in the field and the triangulation of data sources, methods, and investigators were techniques used to establish credibility (Creswell, 2007). From the researcher's observations, a thick description of each participant and their environment was constructed to help readers determine the transferability of the research. Dependability of the study was established through peer review by another researcher trained in qualitative analysis throughout the research process. Additionally, member checks of data, analyses, interpretations, and conclusions were conducted to confirm credibility of the study.

Findings

Eagly and Carli (2004) identified four explanations for the demise of women in leadership roles. These four explanations were underinvestment in human capital (e.g., education, work experience); the difference in leadership styles of men and women; the nature of men and not women to lead and dominate others; and discrimination against female leaders based on gender norms. Despite these common challenges, these six women proved to be effective leaders of their institutions.

Possible Challenges for Women Leaders

Underinvestment in Human Capital. While research shows that women do not achieve leadership roles due to a lack of education and work experience (Eagly & Carli, 2004), these six women all have doctoral degrees and numerous years of experience in agricultural fields. They have also assumed numerous leadership roles in their pursuit of deanship. In addition, the majority of the women deans are married with children. Furthermore, spouses of the women deans take on household duties which include child rearing responsibilities.

Gender Discrimination. The areas of discrimination identified and discussed in this study are perceptions of women, fairness in the work place, and power structures. Five of the six deans provided accounts of discrimination they experienced in their journey to deanship. Bias and opposition were encountered by these women as they pursued agricultural degrees and careers; joined agricultural organizations; applied and interviewed for faculty/administrative positions and promotions; advanced to higher levels of leadership; and entered into departments comprised primarily of males. As they discussed their experiences, each woman was quick to comment that they grew as professionals because of the obstacles they had to overcome.

Perceptions of Women. When I first applied for the professor's position I was a post-doc, and the professor's position opened up and I applied for that and the dean at the time told me we don't really want you because you're a woman, we don't think you can do the job. We want someone who can do the research in fruits and I said, 'Well, what is it you think I can't do? I've installed irrigation, I've grafted trees, and I'll show you how to graft one right here. I've planted 57,000 trees; I know how to do this. He said, 'Well, you know, if you've done the practical things…can you drive a tractor?' and I said, 'Yes.' 'Can you drive a backhoe?' 'Yes, it's no big deal.' 'Post hole digger?' 'No big deal.' And he said, 'Well, can you calibrate a sprayer?' I said,

‘Yes.’ And he said, ‘Well how would you calibrate a sprayer?’ He kind of copped an attitude. So I described to him how you would calibrate a sprayer. He said, ‘Well, how would you do the irrigation?’ So I showed him a typical irrigation layout, you know, and he said, ‘Oh, well okay, maybe you would be a good candidate.’ So he let me go ahead and apply and interview and I got the position. I put in a 40-acre orchard…a research orchard right away and got the irrigation in under the railroad. But, that was one of the examples of…I guess they were going on perception (Lines 452-467)

Fairness. Like when I went for promotion and tenure, I received my tenure and they decided not to grant me promotion and their justification for that was…they said I needed to have some international experience, well there was nowhere where that was specified in the documents for associate professor, and the two guys that went up at the same time I did didn’t have international experience, but they got promoted. I had more pubs than they had, so basically…And they said I could fight it, but at that time the back log for fighting it was about three years to have a hearing, so it was easier just to go get the international experience and then apply the next year, and I got it the next year. But I remember thinking that, the fairness issue was not right (Lines 469-480)… And one other case too where there were five directors in the department and I was the director of _____, the only woman, and I was being underpaid by $20,000. All the guys, even the ones that came after me had higher salaries…so…I had to fight that, and it took eight years before I won that, well I won it in five but it took three years to collect. So, there were problems, but I learned a lot there. I learned about fighting when things are unjust, you know, you have to fight. You may not always win, but you have self respect at least (Lines 480-486).

Power Structure. When I became the department chair and they saw me as …shifting in the power structure and when it became evident that I was my own person and I was not going to carry forward their agenda… all hell broke loose… to put it mildly and it was a really difficult year (Lines 283-286). The dean at the time convinced me to change job positions. In retrospect, I recognize that I was not going to win that battle and I also recognize that there was nothing that I could have done, no accomplishment I could have made, no…strategic goal I could have set and reached that would have won the respect of this group of men…because it was so fundamentally a problem of my gender. There was absolutely nothing that I would be able to do to win their respect, and it’s very difficult to lead people who don’t respect you (Lines 301-306).

Although some of the women in this study expressed concerns over gender discrimination, others were oblivious to this notion. In addition, if gender discrimination was present, a couple of the women were not aware of it. Moreover, one woman dean acknowledged that if we understand and support both perspectives (men and women) and educate people about these viewpoints, as a society we will become more accepting of each gender.

> It’s a real challenge, because I don’t like partitioning people out. I like to help men to understand women and women to understand men and understand that when we bring things to the table that…if you work with women alone, I think it’s easy to create an ‘us against them’ attitude or men with women. I don’t ever want to create an ‘us against them’. I think men and women bring some unique things to the table in very different ways. I also know that there are things that I can do that a man couldn’t do, in terms of working with students, I mean…if I give a hug to a student, it’s very different than if a

> man gives a hug to a student…even if that student needs a hug. But men can do things like being more authoritative and more direct. Men can get away with that type of leadership, but there are things that women can get away with that men can't. And I also know that if I have to deliver bad news to somebody, they're much less likely to take me on and yell and banter back than they are if a man told them. They would be more argumentative, and so they would challenge that more than they might with me because of this sense of respect. And so there are some huge advantages, so you need to know what are the advantages, what are the disadvantages, and recognize that I will never be a person that can pound my fist on the table and say this is the way it's going to be guys, but there are some other things that I have that are an advantage in terms of gender roles in a workplace that men don't have. It is understanding what those differences are and how to use them appropriately (Lines 498-519).

The Big Five Personality Traits

These six women deans can be characterized as effective leaders based on these five personality traits: surgency, conscientiousness, agreeableness, adjustment, and intellectance.

Surgency. Surgency is defined as individual possessing traits such as extroversion, energy, and need for power. As demonstrated by one dean, she is very passionate and assertive concerning her work.

> But in the classroom, oh my goodness…I get in the classroom and I am wound up for the day. I tell you what, when I guest lecture…I've begged to teach, they think I'm crazy. When I was at _____, I taught every freshman orientation class, I taught six sections of freshman orientation every fall and we met twice a week. So I had 12 contact hours along with everything else I was doing and I wouldn't give it up. I was passionate about not giving it up. It is rewarding, encouraging, engaging, motivating, exciting. Getting in front of students just really revs me up. So I don't want to pass up that opportunity. (Lines 343-357)… every job I've ever taken, that's been my measure…is this the kind of job that I could spend the rest of my career doing and feel rewarded and feel like I'm making a difference and feel like I can contribute in very meaningful ways? I never want to take a job where I feel like I'm taking more than I'm giving, I never want to take a job where I don't have that passion for what I do, and I never want to take a job that I don't think I'm adequately prepared for. You always have to take that next step, but you know inside whether you have the tools, if it's the right time for that step (Lines 303-311).

Conscientiousness. A conscientious individual exhibits specific traits including dependability, personal integrity, and need for achievement. One dean desired her community to feel pride in the work they do and feel energized. In addition, she has launched discussions with department chairs to empower faculty members.

> We want people to feel proud of what they do here, they have every reason to. The work of this college is so important and so valued. To feel safe, to feel comfortable, to feel proud, and to feel energized, that's what we're looking for. We are a very large organization, can I ensure that every pocket across the college feels that way…no, but where we don't, we try hard to know that that's true and be an active part of the solution towards something better. So we explicitly

> launched a series of conversations about what some characteristics of healthy departments were. And that turned out to be a very revealing and important tool for many of our chairs…empowering for lots of our faculty (Lines 620-632).

Agreeableness. Agreeableness is characterized by traits such as cheerful and optimistic, nurturance, and need for affiliation. Deans value the relationships they have created in their institutions with both faculty and students.

> I think you have relationships with people that seem to last forever, and some of the relationships that I'm enjoying here have carried over from my previous institution. A lot of my kids still come by, and they'll probably be mine forever. One of mine works for _____ now in _____, and I'll see the emails saying mom, you know, I did this, and it gives me the chance to be proud of him and how much he's grown. It's a good feeling to have your students coming back and becoming full-fledged professionals too or having people that you've been able to work with or encourage become leaders here. That's exciting. Or when you've been able to dream up ideas with the help of a real committed team and those ideas work. That's exciting! (Lines 499-508)

Adjustment. An individual who possesses emotional stability, self-esteem, and self-control exhibits an adjustment personality trait. The deans acted as mediators in diverse, sometimes hostile environments where people had many differences. In addition, they took on leadership roles in the face of adversity.

> But in my department, there was a lot of conflict between new people who had been hired from the _____, and people who had either been in _____ for…30 or 40 years or people who grew up there and were on the faculty. And there was just this huge divide and I was often the person who could cross that divide **(**Lines 243-247)…..I ended up having quite a number of leadership roles in difficult things that had to happen in the department. The chair would be looking for somebody to lead who could make it happen without World War Three occurring. For example, I led a reevaluation of space and reassignment of space for the faculty, there is nothing more precious in a university than space. People will fight to the death for their space. So I had to find a way to make a totally transparent and fair process and I was an assistant professor so I was like really dancing a fine line (Lines 247-254).

Intellectance. Intellectance is defined as an individual who is curious and inquisitive, open-minded, and learning oriented. As one dean expressed

> I like being able to interact with and to be knowledgeable about majors beyond the one that I came from. My department of _____ is housed in the same department with _____. Did I know anything about those majors or anything about the types of stuff they did? Nahh, even though I was in the same building. But now that I'm in this office, I have a much better understanding for…what they do with their major, what they're trying to accomplish with the education of students…and the three programs that they offer there…where their students go and the types of things they do and the types of backgrounds that they come from. I never would have known that type of thing.

> I mean we've got ___ departments…we have ____ undergraduate majors in this college and… I get to have access to information that I never would have seen before (Lines 432-444).

Conclusions

Based on this study, one may conclude that while these women deans pursued leadership roles, education and work experience were not limiting factors in their achievement of the deanship. The influences of parental attributes combined with growing up during the baby boom era helped to shape and influence the development of the women deans. While the women of their mothers' generation tended to marry early and leave the workforce to raise their children and tend to household duties, their daughters achieved higher academic aspirations and pursued non-traditional career fields for women (Albers, 1999). The deans in this study obtained degrees in agricultural and extension education, agricultural engineering, animal science, biology, horticulture, and entomology. These women married later than their mothers and continued working after having children (Albers, 1999). It also became more acceptable for women to contribute to the household financially and pursue professional careers, enabling them to achieve their independence. One dean described the landscape for women during this transitional time

> Now, during that period of time, there were very few females that sort of branched out of their sort of pre-determined career fields at the time, and so for a female to be in agriculture was really not, I don't know that there were any here to be honest with you… you live in the sort of social expectations and so that was just sort of the first group of more females entering into college…working outside the home. More and more women were working outside the home and taking on professional careers, so I was just sort of on that edge, that cutting edge of that transition period. (Lines 122-125, 176-179)

In addition, spouses of the women deans shared in the child rearing responsibilities which enabled them to focus on professional development and career advancement.

Due to different discrimination experiences, some of the women deans learned to be great strategists and establish their presence within the University. For example, one woman dean commented, "I learned a lot about how to fight dirty. I learned how to protect myself. I learned how to try to figure out what they were up to and have my own strategy…I mean it became almost like a battleground for me and I'm confident lots of people face these kinds of situations in their departments…a very tough realization for me to come to" (Lines 286-290). In addition, some of the women's experiences that related to gender discrimination stem from the natural tendency of males to lead and dominate others. This explanation is supported by the findings of this study and the previous work of Eagly and Carli (2004).

Furthermore, several of the women deans did not experience or acknowledge gender discrimination as part of their journey to becoming a dean of agriculture. Therefore, one could conclude that gender discrimination made these women stronger and more determined in their leadership. It also can be concluded that even if a woman hadn't experienced gender discrimination in the work place; she too was determined, successful and wanted to educate people about the qualities of both genders to help establish a better understanding of male and female leadership.

Each of the women deans in this study exhibited personality traits such as surgency, conscientiousness, agreeableness, adjustment, and intellectance as cited in Yukl (2010). Therefore, by exhibiting these traits, the women deans of agriculture were deemed effective in their leadership role. The overall conclusion of this study is that these six women deans can all be classified as transformational leaders. Transformational leadership is a process which changes and transforms people (Lussier & Achua, 2007). Perfectly stated by one dean

> I've read in a number of documents that there's a kind of tipping point in the diversity of a community. When you have a very homogeneous community, it will function through the filter of whatever those groups of people are, if it's all men, or all Caucasian, whatever the homogeneity is, it's going to function with that as its primary filter. If you start bringing in diversity and you just drop in say one person, they're going to be very much influenced by the weight of whatever that filter is. If you've got 9 men and one woman, it's going to function like a male society and that is going to be the expectations of that woman, to function like a white male. If it's a white male society, she's going to be asked to function like a white male, only problem is…she's not. So as you shift that and you become more and more diverse, there's a place where there's a kind of a tipping point and you lose that homogeneous filter that the society is functioning under. You start to get it functioning like the diverse society that it is…which means you're taking into account everybody's views and the way they are, and their needs, what they need to be successful, and I think that that's what we need to do to really transform the institution, is to arrive at that tipping point. Everybody agrees that once you get there it's a really great thing. People say, 'Oh, how are you going to maintain excellence?" But once you hit that tipping point, you realize how much you bring with the diversity…the viewpoints, the ability to be creative, the projects that people are willing to take on, the kind of work that's being done…it all gets better (Lines 599-619).

Implications and Recommendations

Women pursuing leadership positions in academia can benefit from other women's experiences. Knowing some of the gender barriers that could exist in academia can assist women in the preparation of becoming a leader in the agriculture academia arena. In addition to recognizing the gender barriers women may encounter in academia, one needs to also evaluate their personality traits such as those included in the Big Five Personality Trait Model. If one analyzes their personality and determines that most of the personality traits are solid, one may be ready to pursue a leadership position. However, if one is deficient in several personality traits, then leadership development training should be considered.

Based on this study, several research questions have surfaced. Three questions the researchers feel should be explored are: 1) How are women deans viewed by colleagues in their institutions? 2) How have male deans obtained and sustained their leadership role in agriculture? and 3) In five years, have these six women deans advanced in their leadership role or chosen other career aspirations?

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Insights From Six Women On Their Personal Journeys To Becoming Deans of Agriculture: A Qualitative Study

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Abstract

Understanding one's own personal journey provides for effective learning, growth, and development of self (Madsen, 2010). Reflection on the influences and experiences of successful women leaders is essential to understanding the factors that have enabled them to obtain and sustain leadership positions in nontraditional career fields. The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the lives of women deans in agriculture in an attempt to conceptualize the leadership styles they have developed as a result of their positions as deans in a predominantly male field, as well as their upbringing and life experiences. Six women deans of agriculture were interviewed and observed in an attempt to recognize the impact their personal journeys have had in developing their leadership styles and sustaining their leadership role. Conclusions were that these women were first born children. In addition, the influence of parental qualities and spousal support has impacted their success as women deans of agriculture. Mentors recognized the deans' gifts and talents and encouraged them to pursue advanced degrees and leadership positions.

Introduction and Theoretical Framework

Understanding one's own personal journey provides for effective learning, growth, and development of self (Madsen, 2010). Reflection on the influences and experiences of successful women leaders is essential to understanding the factors that have enabled them to obtain and sustain leadership positions in nontraditional career fields. Bennis (1989) believed that in order for one to pass on their insight and perceptions of their experiences, they must fully understand and recognize the true value of the experience,

> There are lessons in everything, and if you are fully deployed, you will learn most of them. Experiences aren't truly yours until you think about them, analyze them, examine them, question them, reflect on them, and finally understand them. The point, once again, is to use your experiences rather than being used by them, to be the designer, not the design, so that experiences empower rather than imprison. (p. 98)

If one is to examine the true value of her experiences, a women's development and journey (e.g., culture, traditions, religion, values, backgrounds, education, work-family issues, self-concept, gender barriers, expectations, previous opportunities, perceived future opportunities) must be reflected upon and understood (Madsen, 2007). Madsen suggested that "understanding the influences, backgrounds, and career paths of women who have succeeded in obtaining and maintaining powerful positions of influence within higher education is essential in deepening and broadening our understanding of leadership development as a whole within higher education" (p. 184). Therefore, to understand this phenomenon, one must begin with exploring her childhood which is in essence the beginning of her journey.

Hennig and Jardim (1977) recognized childhood as being a significant period in an individual's development. Cooke (2004) agreed childhood relationships, developmental activities, and experiences (including hardships and times of pain) come together to create each human being. Sulloway (1996) maintained that "childhood and the family are central to the story of human behavior because they provide the immediate casual context for these developmental scenarios" (118). Furthermore, "a person's inner sense of authority will be developed during childhood in the system of family relations, when the parents express their expectations, ideas, and emotions to their child" (Lorenzen, 1996, p. 26).

Parental interactions and expectations, however, differ according to the child's birth order. According to Ernst and Angst (1983), first born children experience more parental involvement, specifically verbal stimulation and strict parenting, than later born children. Falbo (1981) argued that a combination of positive parental attention and high parental expectations lead first born children to setting higher standards for themselves. As a result, first born children developed higher education aspirations and a higher degree of achievement motivation than later born children. Additionally, first born children share a closer relationship with their parents and thus compare themselves to their parents whereas last born children compare themselves to their older siblings.

In addition to birth order, relationships within the immediate family circle are central to the effective development of an individual's feelings of success, competence, and confidence (Falbo, 1981; Hartman, 1999; Wells, 1998). Furthermore, women in nontraditional occupations have parents who are highly supportive of their daughter's career interests (Auster & Auster, 1981). In addition, successful women leaders are primarily raised in homes that are occupied by two parents (Hennig & Jardim, 1977; Keown and Keown, 1982; Woo, 1985) who have contributed to their daughters' development, resulting in the enhancement of each woman's confidence, knowledge, and skills important for leadership (Madsen, 2007).

In addition to parental support, achievements and behavior of parents greatly influence the motivation and values of women (Madsen, 2007). Madsen (2007) determined the strong educational background and community commitment of mothers provided a powerful model for women. While most of the women saw their mothers as "loving, committed, and dedicated," almost all of them also saw their mothers as "influential, competent, strong, intelligent, and fun" (Madsen, 2007, 577). Similarly, Matz (2002) found that a mother's impact on their daughter's self-esteem and inspiration was greater than the father's.

In contrast, women emphasized characteristics such as respect, strength, high expectations and protection when describing their fathers (Madsen, 2006). For the most part, the fathers considered it important to "teach their daughters, as well as provide encouragement, opportunities, and education for them to become self-sufficient" (Madsen, 2006, p. 577). Hennig and Jardim (1977) and Astin and Leland (1991) also reported fathers had a stronger influence on the development, aspirations, and educational goals of their daughters. Hennig and Jardim (1977) noted that women were "taught, encouraged and supported by fathers, who expected them to aspire to and prepare for a career" (p. 118). Overall, women believe both parents are influential but that mothers have a stronger influence (Madsen, 2006).

The importance of parental relationships and influence to the development of women leaders is well documented (Astin and Leland, 1991); Cubillo and Brown, 2003; Hennig and Jardim, 1977; Madsen, 2007). In Madsen's (2007) study of university presidents, when asked to speak about the individuals who influenced them through their adolescent and college years, most mentioned their parents' "encouragement to learn, be educated, use their minds, and aspire for college" (10). Parents and family, along with faculty members, academic leaders, friends and peers, and other mentors help to establish a supportive and challenging environment, both personally and academically, which is important for the career success of women (Hennig & Jardim, 1977).

Madsen (2007) reported "all of the women had authority figures who saw their gifts and talents and demanded quality and rigor" (p. 10). Van Velsor and Hughes (1990) and Wells (1998) determined that women have a remarkable capacity to learn from relationships and connections with others. Wells (1998) further noted women's self-images were not only founded in relationships they formed with others, but were also shaped by reinforcement and rewards of respected individuals. Good friends and peers are also excellent mentors to women as they progress in their careers (Madsen, 2007). These individuals acted as "sounding boards" and provided open and honest feedback, which was critical in gaining personal insight and strength (Madsen, 2007, p. 113).

Despite the support of family and mentors, however, women who pursue their career and leadership aspirations are confronted with choosing between family and career. McDonald (2004) argued the greatest challenge to women entrepreneurs is the difficulty of juggling a growing company and growing family. In Matz's (2002) study of women leaders, however, over 62 percent of the women sampled were married and almost 80 percent had children. Additionally, Matz found that over half of the women leaders felt their career never or only occasionally interfered with their personal lives. The women's success in keeping family and career separate may be explained by their spouses' willingness to share household labor and childcare (Matz, 2002). This domestic support had allowed these women to take on leadership positions in their careers while maintaining a household.

In a study of women administrators, Woo (1985) noted that women attributed their success to immense determination to have careers and the encouragement and support they received from their families. The majority of the women believed "their husbands' support had been a crucial factor in their careers" (Woo, 1985, p. 287). Without that support, each woman believed she would have sacrificed her work before disbanding the marriage. Woo (1985) related women's need for encouragement and assistance to men in leadership roles who also rely heavily on their spouses for support. Indeed, the success of women and men in leadership roles is greatly influenced by the commitment of their spouses and families to their careers.

In examining a woman's journey to establish a leadership position, many factors seem to be common: strong family upbringing, excellent mentoring and spousal support. In a male-dominated field, such as agriculture, the question becomes do women have the same successful experiences? It is important to note that from our nation's earliest days, agriculture has held a crucial place in the American economy and culture. Today, the United States is looking to agricultural institutions for solutions to growing global concerns regarding economic uncertainty; natural resource and environmental issues; food security and sustainable agricultural practices;

increasing foreign competition; and decreasing consumer understanding. While there are many complex factors that influence economic conditions and consumer awareness, it is clear that education in agriculture plays an important role in preparing farmers, researchers, educators, extension staff, members of agri-businesses, and others to make productive contributions (FAO, 1998). As a result, visionary and competent individuals are needed to drive higher education institutions to new levels of excellence and innovation and direct the future of the agricultural industry and our nation. However, Rubin (2004) argued that the development, attraction, and retention of extraordinary leaders are one of eight fundamental challenges facing higher education today.

Despite this documented concern about the preparation and retention of future educational leaders, there is little published research on the development of individuals who acquire leadership positions, such as college women deans. The role and leadership abilities of college deans are of particular importance in higher education because of the influence these leaders have on the direction and management of their institutions as well as the relationships they create and maintain with government officials, industry and community leaders, and their own faculty, staff, and students. Therefore, this article explored birth order, family influences, mentor experiences, and the spousal support system as each affected the leadership development and leadership success of woman deans.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the lives of women deans in agriculture in an attempt to conceptualize the leadership styles they have developed as a result of their positions as deans in a predominantly male field, as well as their upbringing and life experiences. The central research question addressed during the study was, "How have women deans of agriculture sustained their leadership role in agriculture?" Each participant was asked probing or follow-up questions in an effort to indirectly guide their responses to provide the sought after information. Interview questions included: 1) Describe your family upbringing; 2) Describe your family now; 3) Tell me about your road to becoming a dean of agriculture.

Methods and Procedures

In order to fully comprehend the experiences participants shared, the study was performed using the qualitative research method, which provided for a "complex, detailed understanding of the issue" (Creswell, 2007, 40). Gathering information from interviews, observations, documents, and pictures provided the researcher with a bank of data from which themes could be created, interpretations made, and a "rich, full picture of a research situation" painted (Wright, 2002/3, 8). A phenomenological approach was utilized in an attempt to gain entry into the conceptual world of study participants in order to understand how and what meaning they construct from their lived experiences (Bogden & Biklen, 2007). Phenomenology allowed for the accurate interpretation and description of the meaning of the six women deans' experiences in sustaining their leadership roles in a predominantly male field.

The population for this study consisted of six women deans of agriculture in Land-Grant Institutions. Twenty-five women deans and associate deans were identified as possible study participants using the 2009 Directory of Deans and Directors of Academic Programs in Schools and Colleges of Agriculture. While the researcher initially sought to engage women deans from

each region of the Continental United States (North, South, East, and West), women associate deans were asked to participate in regions where women deans were not accessible in an effort to maintain a representative sample of women who have all experienced the phenomenon of sustaining their leadership roles in a male-dominated field. Each dean was assigned a pseudonym to protect their identity and ensure the confidentiality of their statements. Heather and Kelly were interviewed from the northern region; in the southern region, Maggie was interviewed; Rachel and Laura were interviewed from the eastern region; and in the western region, Shelley was interviewed.

Gaining entry

An Institutional Review Board Form B was completed and approval received by the University of _____ Research Compliance Services on April 27, 2009 to conduct the research. Each perspective participant was contacted by phone and email to secure authorization to participate in the study. Prior to conducting the interviews with each individual, an informed consent letter was signed and collected at the interview.

Data Collection

The methods employed to collect data in this study included one to two hour in-depth interviews. The researcher's presence as a participant observer in the environments of each of the six women deans for two days was also utilized. During each field visit, the researcher recorded descriptive and reflective notes as she observed events and interactions in each dean's daily routine; which included meetings, workshops, classes, time with family and at home, etc. This enabled the researcher to gain an accurate account of the field as well as maintain the subjectivity of her understanding of each dean's experience. In addition, each dean participated in an audio-taped, semi-structured interview in which the researcher asked open-ended, non-leading questions (Creswell, 2007). The interviews focused on revealing the influences and experiences which helped to develop each woman. The interview protocol asked each participant to describe her family upbringing, her immediate family, and her road to becoming a dean of agriculture.

Data Analysis

The in-depth interviews were transcribed and analyzed along with the researcher's field notes. The data was examined using several methods, which included identifying significant statements and elements of meaning; creating textural and structural descriptions; and recognizing descriptions which revealed commonalities among the participants' experiences (Creswell, 2007). Emerging themes from all data were coded and sorted into specific categories by the researcher.

Validation Strategies

Research Bias. Prior to launching the study, the researcher reflected on qualities she possessed which may impact her relationship with the environment and people in the study. First, the researcher holds a strong passion for agriculture as she grew up on a farm and is pursuing a degree in agriculture. The researcher's strong interest in this field may result in more focus on the selected women's impact in agriculture and how they have achieved their current status. Next, the researcher is female and possesses moderate feminist beliefs. She takes special interest in the stories of women who have overcome challenges in fields subjugated by males. This may influence the interview questions asked of participants pertaining to how they have

achieved and sustained leadership positions in agriculture, a predominantly male field. Finally, the researcher has developed leadership characteristics and independence that have enabled her to take on a variety of leadership roles. Prior to commencing the study, the researcher believed women deans were independent and have assumed many leadership roles throughout their lives. In an effort to keep a neutral viewpoint, the researcher reflected on her biases of the research topic and assumptions of the outcomes of the study prior to and during the research to maintain as impartial of a position as possible. The researcher personally reflected on each occasion of contact and communication with the participants. The researcher also structured the research question and probing questions in such a way that did not lead or guide the participant's responses in a predetermined direction.

In addition to the researcher's efforts to reduce the impact of bias on the data collected, several validation strategies were employed to document the "accuracy" and value of this phenomenological research study. Prolonged engagement in the field and the triangulation of data sources, methods, and investigators were techniques used to establish credibility (Creswell, 2007). From the researcher's observations, a thick description of each participant and their environment was constructed to help readers determine the transferability of the research. Dependability of the study was established through peer review by another researcher trained in qualitative analysis throughout the research process. Additionally, member checks of data, analyses, interpretations, and conclusions were conducted to confirm credibility of the study.

Findings

The results section is divided into four subsections: 1) birth order; 2) family influences; 3) mentor experiences; and 4) spousal support systems.

Birth Order

Five of the six women deans in this study were first born children. The sixth dean was not the chronologically first born child, but was raised as the first born due to special circumstances. Being the first born child provides opportunities that younger siblings do not experience such as being a caretaker, taking on supervisory responsibilities and learning how to provide leadership at a young age. As stated by one of the deans

> Being the oldest, you become a parent of sorts. You take on care responsibilities, supervisory responsibilities, and …I think you're just looked to fill in when your parents are not around. When mother and dad were out doing farm chores, I would watch after them. I think that you're just looked to sort of step up and fill in for the parents and many times I think that that's probably a role that older children take.
> (Lines 139-150)

In addition to taking on supervisory responsibilities and leadership roles, first born children also assume parental duties.

> My father was killed when I was a freshman, so I think that there's another leadership role I sort of took on to help mother a little bit. You're the oldest and you're the most mature adult anyway that she could talk to so I just think that older siblings normally have a different kind of expectation and role than younger children do.
> **(**Lines 158-163)

First born children are also subject to strict parental rules and high expectations. As one dean stated, "My father was the authoritarian, and he was the one that set the bar high, very demanding, and pushed….he was always one that if I got an A- I'd be saying, 'yeah!' and he'd be saying, 'Why isn't it an A?'" (Lines 35-48).

Family Influence

Mothers and fathers of these women played a significant role in their accomplishment of becoming deans of agriculture. In general, the mothers were identified as the caregivers and the fathers were the authoritarians of the household. As expressed by one of the women deans, caregivers and authoritarians holistically develop individuals.

> It was a team, it wasn't like they were working against one another, it was always that… my dad showed love in a very different way. I can remember getting upset sometimes and crying about something that happened and he would say 'Okay, that's enough, just suck it up and lets go.' And my mom would say, 'Oh, honey, I understand,' and pat me on the back. I needed both of these. I needed to hear 'Suck it up and move on,' but I also needed somebody to give me a hug and say, 'I understand.' They worked great as a team and so I'm really thankful for that. (Lines 68-76)

While mothers were generally perceived as caregivers and fathers as authoritarians, each dean had their own unique way of describing their parents. Therefore, Table 1 and 2 contain descriptive words used by deans of agriculture about their mothers and fathers.

Table 1

Descriptive Words Used by Deans of Agriculture about their Mothers

My Mother was/is…		
Homemaker	Strong	Adventurous
Educated	Determined	Brave
Independent	Stubborn	Generous
Quiet	Traditional	Not supportive of career
Bookish	Hospitable	Nurturing
Practical	Completely dependent	Disciplinarian
Nuts and Bolts	Housewife	Strong personality
Decision maker	Feminist	Creative
Inspiring	Extremely involved	Organized

Table 2

Descriptive Words Used by Deans of Agriculture about their Fathers

My Father was/is…		
Educated	Intellectual	Motivated
Quiet	Analytical	Unconventional
Bookish	Good	Wild
Intelligent	Sense of Service	Creative
Theoretical	Non-emotional	Survivor
Cerebral	Not accessible	Authoritarian
Smart	Supportive of daughter's education	Demanding
Prideful	Environmentalist	Handy

Driven	Humorous
Respectful of Education	Strong

As described in Table 1 and 2, the qualities of both the mothers and fathers strongly influenced the women deans' personalities. Specific characteristics that were common among all of the deans' mothers were homemaker, educated, extremely involved, and nurturing; and specific characteristics that were common among the fathers were educated, driven, supportive of daughter's education, authoritarian, and demanding. The women deans largely attribute their self-assurance and motivation in their advancement to leadership to the support that both parents provided them growing up.

> I think that having the support from my family to do whatever I wanted was really very important (Lines 205-207)…When I look back across my career, a lot of the things that I accomplished, you know it wasn't that I was especially brave; I just didn't even acknowledge what the obstacles were. And you know… I just walked around obstacles because it didn't dominate my psyche and I think a lot of that was because of the supportive environment that I came up in at home. (Lines 183-187).

Mentor Influence

While the deans' parents played a role in their development as an individual, their professional advancement was mainly influenced by their mentors. Although not all of the mentorship experience was positive, all of the women deans advanced out of malice for or encouragement from their mentors.

> I didn't have good mentors at all. I was told verbally, "Ah, don't worry about research, it's not even important." That's what my old department head told me. Because he was just thinking totally of education, education, education …and there's a bigger pond out there than education. But see, I was so naive… I was so used to outreach, outreach, outreach, service, service, service. Well, that's not really right; you need to have some scholarship. So, I didn't get that message. And when I went up for full professor, our new chancellor said 'Oh no, this person has not had enough scholarship' and I was denied the promotion to full professor. **(**Lines 476-493)

While negative mentoring or lack of mentoring affected some of the women deans, others experienced positive mentoring which shaped the advancement and success of their selected profession. As one dean explained

> My major advisor encouraged me to go on for a Ph.D. And I hadn't really thought about it. He said, 'Hey, you can do this, you can do this, you'd enjoy it, you'd be good at it.' And he started giving me some leads of people that I might work with at other universities and I wound up working with the fella who had served as my advisor's advisor…it's the people who encourage you and, like my decision to go on for a Ph.D. program, it wasn't going to happen, but somebody sat down and said hey, you need to do that, and that's all it took. (Lines 74-79, 510-512)

Spousal Support

The women in this study attribute their success as deans of agriculture to not only the positive influences of family members and mentors, but also the immense support they have received from their spouses. The deans' husbands have non-academic professions which enable them to carry out household duties and support these women in their leadership role. As one dean

revealed, "I don't clean the house, I rarely cook, although I'm perfectly capable of it. A lot of times I leave the house at 7:00 a.m. in the morning and don't come back till 8:30 at night, so I'm not going to prepare dinner at 8:30 at night, so he has to do a lot of those things" (Lines 536-539). These women realize that their husbands' career sacrifices have been essential to their advancement in academia. "I think having a really supportive husband and a husband who is portable in his career is hugely positive" (Lines 511-513). Furthermore, another dean described her husband's sacrifice as assuming the role of a stay-at-home dad. "My husband is a very introspective person, a very artsy kind of thinker, creative, a very good writer, and published in terms of poetry and literature. He didn't work, so he was home with the kids. He is just a big kid himself, loves life, loves doing things and having fun. When I was out of town, they would make pancakes and he would flip them up in the air and they would catch them on their plates and I'd find out when I came home that the spot on the ceiling was from a pancake hitting the ceiling when they were tossing it across the room" (Lines 121-134).

In addition to their complimenting professions, the husbands' accommodating personalities are compatible with the driven personalities of their spouses.

> We're really strong partners, really strong partners. He is protective of me, he's supportive of me, he doesn't serve as much of a critic in a sense, but he is always kind of my touch stone for what's a good idea, what's not a good idea. He's a critical asset for me. And…it's interesting, he has no college background, he has just a very little bit of college, and has worked in the trade his whole life. That kind of very practical, real, tangible relationship to the world is actually in some respects very similar to what I do. I do a lot of building too….and it isn't necessarily with nails, but its building and he builds. And he's built a fabulous business on a business. We bring very similar kinds of values about the way we do business, a real commitment to integrity and quality work. Very frequently, people think dual career couples are two academics…we're not that way. And I think it's been a wonderful balance for the intensity of my life. And the degree to which academic communities tend to get fairly self absorbed, often focused on some fairly small things, he's always a check on that. The politics and who's more important than who or who's being recognized. It's not very interesting to him…and that's helpful for me in terms of keeping my bearings (Lines 197-226).

Conclusions

Each of these women were essentially first born children which led them to develop a higher degree of achievement motivation, become linear thinkers, and establish higher expectations of themselves (Falbo, 1981). As one dean commented about her dad's high expectations as motivation to do better, she described herself as having a "linear and A-type personality" (Line 135). First born children also possess a stronger predisposition to leadership than later born children (Adler, 1970). In addition to being first born children, the influence of parental qualities has also impacted their success as women deans of agriculture. In a study of women university presidents, Madsen (2007) found that the mothers provided a positive role model for their daughters through strong educational backgrounds and community commitment. The women presidents described their mothers as "loving, committed, and dedicated" as well as "influential, competent, strong, intelligent, and fun." Similarly, maternal qualities such as being a homemaker, educated, extremely involved, and nurturing were identified in this study and provided the deans with an internal drive to be fully engaged in their institutions. For example,

these women have a sense of urgency to keep faculty, student, and community relations personable.

> I keep in very close touch with a lot of students. They've gone on to really exciting lives and are contributing in a whole host of ways. And they still keep in touch which is really meaningful for me now that I'm in a dean role…because they still ask for advice and I still get to…track their lives and their contributions, both professional and I get to watch their personal lives. I get pictures of their kids and their new houses and…stay connected to them through the jobs they're taking and what they're trying to do. **(**Lines 281-287)
> It's about passion, and it's about making a difference in the lives of students. If I took the piece away to make a difference in the lives of students from my life…my life would not be nearly as fulfilled in terms of my professional career. **(**Lines 291-300)

Furthermore, the women presidents in Madsen's (2007) study associated characteristics such as respect, strength, high expectations, and protection with their fathers. Moreover, paternal qualities such as being educated, driven, supportive of daughter's education, authoritarian, and demanding motivated these women deans to achieve higher expectations of themselves, as well as expect more from faculty and students. As one dean stated

> Every job I've ever taken, that's been my measure…is this the kind of job that I could spend the rest of my career doing and feel rewarded and feel like I'm making a difference and feel like I can contribute in very meaningful ways? I never want to take a job where I feel like I'm taking more than I'm giving, I never want to take a job where I don't have that passion for what I do, and I never want to take a job that I don't think I'm adequately prepared for. It's always going to be a stretch, you always have to take a stretch, you always have to take that next step, but you know inside whether you have the tools, if it's the right time for that step. (Lines 303-311)

The influences of parental attributes combined with growing up during the baby boom era helped to shape and influence the development of the women deans. While the women of their mothers' generation tended to marry early and leave the workforce to raise their children and tend to household duties, their daughters achieved higher academic aspirations and pursued non-traditional career fields for women (Albers, 1999). The deans in this study obtained degrees in agricultural and extension education, agricultural engineering, animal science, biology, horticulture, and entomology. They married later than their mothers and continued working after having children (Albers, 1999). It also became more acceptable for women to contribute to the household financially and pursue professional careers, enabling them to achieve their independence. One dean described the landscape for women during this transitional time

> Now, during that period of time, there were very few females that sort of branched out of their sort of pre-determined career fields at the time, and so for a female to be in agriculture was really not, I don't know that there were any here to be honest with you… you live in the sort of social expectations and so that was just sort of the first group of more females entering into college…working outside the home. More and more women were working outside the home and taking on professional careers, so I was just sort of on that edge, that cutting edge of that transition period. (Lines 122-125, 176-179)

As compared to Madsen's (2007) study, these women deans of agriculture had mentors who recognized their gifts and talents. In addition, they also encouraged them to pursue advanced

degrees and leadership positions. While some of the mentors were faculty, other mentors were involved in the women's lives outside of academics.

> I've been very fortunate, had great mentors, my dad introduced me to a life mentor. He was in the livestock industry and had no children. He was a hard driver, and pushed people…I worked for him and he became a life long friend. He was just super and really, really encouraged me outside of my family because you're family's supposed to say good things and your family's supposed to encourage you, but to have somebody like that outside… He became a mentor for me when I was 9 years old and he was a mentor until he died when I was 47. He was just a champion of people and I love him and a little piece of him is always inside of me. But that's what good mentors do and that's what I want to do for others, whether it's students or my staff or early career faculty, I want them to look back someday and say, "A little piece of _____ is here," and that's what it's about, it's making a difference in the lives of others. **(**Lines 479-494)

The women deans in this study relied heavily on the support and sacrifices of their spouses. Woo's (1985) research supports the notion that spousal support is crucial to women's career advancement. Similarly, in this study, the deans' husbands facilitated the women's success by taking on the day to day activities of the home and children so they could focus on their careers. In addition, spousal commitment and professional sacrifices of the deans' husbands provided opportunities for these women to pursue a leadership role in academia. Furthermore, the personalities of the deans' husbands were another contributing factor to the deans' success. The husbands assumed the role of the listener and provided an outlet for work-related frustrations of the women.

Implications

This paper offers important implications for young women in pursuit of leadership roles in academia. Women with the desire to pursue leadership need to identify a positive role model and/or mentor to encourage and foster growth in the academia profession. Without the advice, knowledge, and encouragement of a mentor, leadership advancement in academia is difficult. Furthermore, women wanting to pursue leadership roles in academia should examine spousal and family support in pursuit of their leadership goals. While two achievement oriented spouses may be successful in leadership roles in academia, research has shown that successful women who pursue leadership roles need spouses who are willing to sacrifice their own career goals for their wives.

Recommendations and Future Research Questions

Based on this study, several research questions have surfaced particularly related to the husbands' perceptions of their spouses' leadership role. Two questions the researchers feel should be explored are:

1. How have husbands of women deans been impacted by the success of their wives pursuing a leadership role in academia?
2. How have husbands of women deans perceived their role as non-alpha males?

In addition to exploring the husbands' perceptions, a follow-up study should be conducted in five years with these six women deans to 1.) identify their leadership advancement if applicable; 2.)

determine if mentorship is still a viable component of their leadership sustainability; and 3.) determine whether spousal support remains an integral part of their success as a leader.

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Leadership Competencies from Two Lenses: Perceptions about leadership qualities by current and potential academic administrators

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Abstract

This study investigated whether or not those who wish to pursue careers in higher education as academic leaders have the same perceptions as people who currently hold such positions in higher education. The two groups were administered the LCSI inventory, containing a series of leadership competencies. Findings show there are no statistically significant differences for four of the five competencies, suggesting that those who intend on becoming higher education administrators place value on most of the leadership competencies as do current academic leaders.

Introduction

The opportunities to be a leader on a college or university campus are not waning. Arguably, the opportunity to lead can be found at any level in any organization. In institutions of higher education, leaders can be found in students, professional staff support, administrative support, and more obviously in faculty and administration. Faculty who pursue or perhaps are even wheedled into taking a position such as department chairperson or dean rarely have any training at all to be equipped with the tools necessary to be effective or even perceived as effective by their colleagues. Training or development for such positions is not part of most academic disciplines' curriculum, and therefore faculty who step up or are elected or begged to assume such leadership positions often find themselves ill-prepared to transition from teacher/researcher/mentor to administrator. According to Roach (1976), it is possible for department chairpersons to be accountable for almost 80% of the administrative decisions made on campuses, yet they have seldom been trained as administrators. Birnbaum (1992) found that 44% of interviewees named the dean when asked to identify important leaders on campus. Findings show that the position of dean is a leadership role (Dill, 1980; Gmelch et al., 1999) that was once seen a scholarly leader and is now viewed more as someone who is shrewd both politically and economically.

It is not too early to begin to discuss and explore the leadership positions that are available to budding faculty. While colleges and universities help students prepare to become researchers and teachers in various disciplines, they graduate without understanding how higher education functions and what challenges they might face once they secure positions at a college or university. Leadership programs offered by colleges and universities afford students the opportunity to not only learn about the unique organization that is higher education, but also about the skills and competencies necessary in order to navigate the organization and successfully grow and prepare for a leadership position such as a department chairperson, dean provost, chancellor, or even president. With leadership programs growing at a number of colleges and universities recently, research does not yet exist on whether or not the students who participate in them are necessarily on the right track with regard to what aspects of being a leader are critical. This exploratory study scratches the surface at understanding if future academic leaders have an understanding of what competencies are important to know and utilize when they acquire faculty positions upon graduating from their doctoral programs.

Leadership: An overview

Leadership research has primarily focused on defining the relationship between leaders and subordinates, with much of this attention targeted toward superior/subordinate interactions. While these hierarchical frameworks identify one form of leadership interactions, there are a number of others that do not align with this model. For example, leadership structures in relation to higher education institutions exhibit different properties than what is framed in traditional leadership literature. As such, research in the context of higher education is timely and important for a number of reasons. There is a critical mass of approximately 80,000 chairs and heads of department within U.S. colleges and universities (Green, M.F., 1988), most of whom did not pursue formal education and training in administration (Bess and Goldman, 2001). Academic deans once thought of as ambassadors of faculty research and scholarship are now looked at

more like corporate executives who understand the nature of politics and economics (Gmelch et al., 1999). The implicit assumption is that leaders are empowered to make decisions and as such, "ultimately account for what happens to the organization" (Hambrick, 1989, p.5). While this assumption is widely held, there is a void in assessment measures (Lahteenmaki, Toivonen, & Mattila, 2001) as "researchers have not delineated the specific behaviors and mechanisms through which leaders impact 'organizations'" (Vera & Crossan, 2004, p.223). This growing need to explore leadership in greater depth has presented the opportunity for scholars to identify and test what precisely defines effective leadership. Organizational and economic pressure to create sustainable competitive advantages (DeGeus, 1988) lead scholars to explore the notion that leaders are crucial to organizational outcomes (Hambrick & Mason, 1984).

Leadership is considered as phenomena most observed yet least understood on earth (Burns, 1978). One of the most difficult tasks of conducting leadership research is identifying a single definition to use. Bennis and Nanus (1985) found that, "…decades of analysis of the literature and thousands of empirical investigations have given us at least 350 differing definitions of leadership-still with no clear view of what distinguishes an effective leader from an ineffective leader" (p.4). One common thread throughout seminal leadership literature is the identification of traits or characteristics that leaders possess (Stogdill, 1948; Maccoby, 1981; Covey, 2004). Ruben (2006) posits "leaders need a broad array of knowledge and skills- a diverse portfolio of leadership competencies- and the ability to analyze situations and employ those competencies as needed" (p.2). Northouse (2004) defines leadership as "a process by means of which an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal, emphasizing process or a transactional event over the traits or characteristics residing in the leader" (p.15). He continues on to identify three competencies of leadership: problem-solving skills, social judgment skills and knowledge. It is no wonder that the investigation of leadership continues and evolves throughout the literature with the documented existence of the many approaches to first define it.

This paper does not attempt to close the gap in the literature about the complexities and dialectics in what leadership is or how leadership is conducted. Rather, this study is based on understanding leadership as a process by which one, "exerts influence on an organized group toward goal setting and goal achievement" (Stogdill, 1974, p.3), impacts relationship dynamics with the express intention of effecting change (Rost, 1991), "manages the dream, by creating a compelling vision, one that takes people to a new place, and the ability to translate that vision into reality" (Bennis, 1999, p.26), "prepares organizations for change by helping them cope as they struggle through it" (Kotter, 2001, p.85), and identifies characteristics that foster performance effectiveness (Wageman, 2001). Furthermore, the term competency is used to exhibit both knowledge and skill in relation to a leadership role. These definitions were chosen over many others because of their applicability in examining leadership competencies in relation to leadership effectiveness and their fit within the context of higher education institutions.

Higher education offers a unique laboratory to explore the leadership and test common assumptions found in the literature. This research is especially important in part due to the many obstacles higher education has faced in relation to establishing assessment metrics in support of leadership effectiveness. In some cases, institutions have perpetuated a culture limiting leadership assessment because it would be admitting "the existence of defects that need to be corrected" (Dressel, 1972, p.32). In other cases, it was thought of as an impossible goal because

of the difficulty in identifying the criteria for an assessment metric. Barro (1973) stated that because information on effectiveness is not usually collected by colleges and universities, prospects for the evaluation of effectiveness do not seem very good. Rosser, Johnsrud, & Heck (2003) asserted that evaluations of deans and directors have been slow to develop and not necessarily systematic processes established by institutions.

Intagliata (2000) posits the importance of understanding leadership competencies as they can help develop leaders, integrate management practices, as well as provide the ability to measure outcomes of leaders. Others cite the significance of identifying and selecting appropriate assessment measures as critical for accurate data collection. For example, Ruben (2006) writes, “to address the complex array of challenges they face, leaders need a broad array of knowledge and skills-a diverse portfolio of leadership competencies-and the ability to analyze situations and employ those competencies as needed” (p.2).

Based on the review of literature on leadership, this study answers the following research question:

RQ: Do potential academic leaders perceive specific leadership competencies as important as current academic leaders?

Learning about whether those who wish to become leaders in higher education have perceptions that are similar or different from those who hold leadership positions in higher education can help underscore the importance of leadership programs for future academics in terms of what should be imparted on these potential academic leaders in order to help build a strong pool of candidates upon their graduation and employment at any college or university. Knight and Holen (1985) found that it can be important for department chairpersons to have professional development programs that assist in improving the leadership styles such as initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure refers to "the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the workgroup, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure" (Halpin, 1966, p. 86), and consideration implies "behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff" (p. 86).

Methodology

The data that will be analyzed for this study are responses from two populations: current academic leaders (CAL) at a large northeastern public university, and graduate students in various doctoral programs at the same university who are interested in higher education leadership, thus are potential academic leaders (PAL). The data collected for both samples were generated by the Leadership Competencies Scorecard Inventory (Ruben, 2006) administered via Zoomerang. The current academic leaders completed the inventory during the Fall 2009 semester and the potential academic leaders completed the inventory during the Fall 2010 semester. We will compare the responses collected from each group to determine if there are any differences in perceived leadership competencies. The variables for this analysis will be the groups, CAL and PAL, our independent variables, and the critical competencies, our dependent variables. There are 35 critical competencies distributed over five umbrella competency categories: analytic, communication, personal, organizational, and positional.

Ruben (2006) reviewed approximately 100 books and articles on leadership and identified over 400 facets of leadership defined as critical by these authors. After completing, a meta-analysis of the cross-section of literature, Ruben (2006) presents a scorecard for leadership assessment, planning and development ultimately identifying five major competency themes: analytic competencies, personal competencies, communication competencies, organizational competencies, and positional competencies Within these five themes of leadership, the Ruben framework presents a listing of competencies which are considered to be important to effective leadership, based on his review and synthesis of the literature. Defining the competencies in 35 leadership terms, Ruben's findings were the foundation for the development of the Leadership Competencies Scorecard Inventory (LCSI). The primary purpose of the LCSI is for people to self-assess their leadership strengths and weaknesses. The LCSI asked respondents to rate each competency on a 5-point Likert scale of 'very important' to 'very unimportant'. The results of these inventories, which were administered to two populations (labeled potential academic leaders and current academic leaders), were investigated to help understand if those who wish to become higher education administrators place similar importance on the same leadership attributes as those who currently hold academic administrator positions.

Ruben's (2006) LCSI was chosen as the assessment methodology because of its tested protocols within higher education institutions. Despite its fairly young age, and therefore lack of research supporting its validity, the breadth of resources used to create the LCSI, and the systematic approach employed to examine leadership competencies makes this tool for a reasonable choice in this study.

In order to answer the research question, a 2-independent samples test was run, since the data were not normally distributed and were negatively skewed. The CAL (N=16) and PAL (N=23) responses to all 35 critical competencies were broken down and grouped by each umbrella competency (seven in each). The means of each of the five competency areas were then compared, looking at the results of the Mann-Whitney test.

Results

The independent variables for this study were the responses from each of the two groups, potential academic leaders (PAL) and current academic leaders (CAL), to each of the competencies in the Leadership Competencies Scorecard Inventory; specifically the five competency areas of analytic, personal, communication, organizational, and positional; which served as the dependent variables. The Mann-Whitney U-test was used to analyze the data. Descriptives show the mean and SD for each umbrella competency for each group (See Table 1) and how the mean for each competency area does not fall below 4.270, indicating responses overall were in the somewhat-to-very important ranges.

		Analytical Competencies	Personal Competencies	Communication Competencies	Organizational Competencies	Positional Competencies
Mean response		4.571	4.505	4.486	4.270	4.296
SD		.289	.388	.381	.505	.443
Number of participants	CAL	16	16	16	16	16
	PAL	23	23	23	23	23

Table 1

Results show that there are no statistical differences for four of the five competencies (See Table 2). The one leadership competency area that shows a statistically significant difference is 'personal competency' (Mann-Whitney U-test z= -2.121, p= .035 one-sided), with current academic leaders placing more importance on it. The seven critical competency items that fall under this category are: character/personal values, ethics; cognitive ability & creativity; enthusiasm; high standards; personal conviction & persistence; self-discipline & self-confidence; and role modeling.

	Analytical Competencies	Personal Competencies	Communication Competencies	Organizational Competencies	Positional Competencies
Z	-1.170	-2.121	-.345	-.661	-1.525
P value	.251	.035*	.746	.525	.135

Table 2

It is important to note that 'positional competencies,' which incorporates the critical competencies of: education; experience; expertise; knowledge of field; knowledge of operation; familiarity with work; and personal involvement was close to statistical significance, indicating that there is some variance in the level of importance the two groups placed on those particular leadership competencies and worthy of deeper investigation.

Discussion and Conclusion

Based on the findings, doctoral students who are interested in higher education leadership and enrolled in a leadership program clearly have understandings about important attributes needed for academic administrator positions that mirror those of the occupants of such positions. Most recently in a commentary published in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* written by Richard A. Greenwald, professor of history and dean of the Caspersan School of Graduate

Studies at Drew University, he expressed a need to “stop snickering every time we hear the word "leadership" on campus and start recognizing the desire of many students to hone and professionalize skills that will serve them long after graduation… they will have the skills to lead tomorrow's generation and to thrive in the new economy” (para. 10).

Even prior to such opinions, the notion of leadership training needed for certain positions in higher education was suggested. The role of department chairperson, for example, is a challenge because of its dual position in being an advocate for the faculty and a manager for the administration (Filan, 1999). With most of the 23 potential academic leaders interested in securing faculty lines and eventually positions beyond that of a professor, which can include department chairpersons or deans, it is encouraging to see that the level of importance the potential academic leaders place on particular leadership competencies is in-line with the current academic leaders, as it can serve as the lens through which they ponder hypothetical or real situations they encounter throughout their studies in their doctoral studies and in their leadership institute program.

One of the limitations of this study is its sample size (total N=39, CAL=16 and PAL=23). Only students from one leadership program were studied and only one university’s personnel was studied as well. Conducting this study on a larger scale would be helpful in determining if these initial findings remain true as the sample size increases, as the number of programs investigated increases, and the number of higher education institutions studied increases, or if wider variance will be found. This study also did not consider academic disciplines the students study. Therefore, detection of whether or not disciplinary affiliation confounds perceptions of the importance of different leadership competencies. Additionally, investigating the individual competencies for each of the five competency areas can prove important due to the possibility of finding significant differences on a more detailed level that might not be accounted for in the overall means for each of the five competency areas looked at in this study.

Another approach would be to measure how effective the current academic leaders who completed the inventory are in their positions. This can be done by interviewing them for self-reported information, as well as interviewing the staff with whom they work on a regular basis (which may or may not be those who work in their immediate offices or departments). Comparing the responses of the inventory to how effective they view themselves as well as their colleagues’ views can identify if the leadership qualities the leaders deem important in their jobs translate to effective leadership. As this is an exploratory study, it is reassuring to see that richer investigations about leadership and perceived competencies can and should be conducted. While it is encouraging to see that tomorrow’s academic leaders seem to have an understanding of what leadership qualities are critical in higher education, by no means is this area of research exhausted.

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Perceptions and Assessments of Agricultural Education Students who Participated in a Leadership Conference

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Abstract

The Premier Agricultural Workshop Series (PAWS), hosted by [Name] University, consisted of two leadership seminars. The purpose of these conferences was to provide leadership training for middle and high school students who were enrolled in agricultural education courses and members of the FFA. The primary purpose of this study was to evaluate students' opinions on how beneficial they perceived the PAWS Leadership Conference to be. Student's responses are to be utilized in expanding and improving future leadership development opportunities for other students. Current research indicates it is becoming increasingly popular for youth organizations to sponsor leadership training experiences and seminars in efforts of reaching a broader range of youth. Distinctive of this study, the vast majority (91%) of the participants agreed that the knowledge gained through this conference would be helpful in developing leadership skills.

Introduction/Conceptual Framework

Several researchers and practitioners in the field of youth development have emphasized the importance of providing leadership education to students at an early age that will lead to success for the student in observable measures as well as the students' perceived benefits concerning their leadership education experiences (Ewing, Bruce, & Ricketts, 2009; Greiman & Addington, 2008; Horstmeier & Nall, 2007; Morgan & Rudd, 2006; Nahavandi, 2006; Real & Harlin, 2006; Ricketts, Bruce, & Ewing, 2008; Ricketts, Priest, & Lastly, 2007; Walahoski & Lodl, 2004). Further, many researchers have determined that participation in youth leadership development activities, such as seminars, training sessions, and youth organizations, contributes to the development of leadership characteristics in youth. This study built on existing literature to add to the literature base concerning the benefits associated with leadership development opportunities for secondary and middle school students as well as means of evaluating such programs for more effective delivery.

Literature Review

Benefits Associated with Participation in Youth Leadership Activities

Many researchers have acknowledged the successfulness of youth organizations, such as the FFA, 4-H, Scouting, Outward Bound, Junior Achievement, and FCCLA, in engaging youth in effective leadership development (Bruce, Boyd, & Dooley, 2005; Dormody & Seevers, 1994; Horstmeier & Nall, 2007; Real & Harlin, 2006; Ricketts, 2005; Ricketts, Priest, & Lastly, 2007; Rosser, Stedman, Elbert, & Rutherford, 2009; Walahoski & Lodl, 2004). According to Real and Harlin (2006) the primary goal of 4-H, FFA, FCCLA, and other like programs, is "to produce

productive members of society through development of leadership skills in the youth enrolled in those programs" (p. 39). It is widely accepted that such organizations have been dedicated to, and successful in, educating youth toward becoming successful leaders for the future. According to Horstmeier and Nall (2007), youth leadership programs give youth and opportunity to:

> (a) participate actively in the planning, decision making, and implementation of the programs in which they participate; (b) engage in frequent and regular contact with adults who model responsible behavior, and provide ongoing validation and support for youth's active involvement; and (c) develop skills such as brainstorming, decision-making, setting goals, and working with others. (p. 142)

In addition, Walahoski and Lodl (2004) suggest that these types of programs can deter at-risk behaviors as well as enhance positive and productive behaviors. Real and Harlin (2006) determined that "youth organizations offer countless opportunities for members to learn and develop leadership life skills that are important in becoming contributable members of society as adults" (p. 39).

In an effort to reach a broader range of youth, it has become increasingly popular for organizations, such as the ones mentioned, to sponsor leadership training experiences and seminars (Bruce, Boyd, &Dooley, 2005; Horstmeier & Nall, 2007; Patten & Moore, 2006; Real & Harlin, 2006; Ricketts, Priest, & Lastly, 2007; Rosser, Stedman, Elbert, & Rutherford, 2009). In all of the afore referenced cases, researchers were able to recommend ways in which these training opportunities could be improved for future participants. Rosser, Stedman, Elbert, and Rutherford (2009) described one such experience in their study. Rosser et al. acknowledged that many youth organizations provided a variety of leadership experiences to their young participants, but that there was very little known about the impact those programs had on the students, based on their perspectives. The authors studied students as they participated in the Washington Leadership Conference in order to understand how the "Living to Serve" plans could be implemented successfully. At the conclusion of their case study, the authors determined that the overall experiences of the students who participated in the leadership conference and the impact the students' experiences made on their communities was positive. However, many students were unable to complete their service plans before they had to return to their communities. Rosser et al. cited a lack of time and overly ambitious projects being the reasons why students did not complete their plans. But from their study, the researchers determined that programs like the Washington Leadership Conference and other such organized leadership programs were essential to enhancing youth leadership development.

Similarly, Real and Harlin (2006) evaluated the leadership life skills of youth from a multitude of leadership organizations who participated as school tour guides at the San Antonio Livestock Exposition. These students were asked to complete a survey instrument designed to evaluate Leadership Skills Inventory. At the completion of the study, researchers found positive relationships existing between the students' past leadership experiences and the leadership life skills development. This finding implied that despite the average number of years students had participated in their organizations being two years, the leadership training the students had received within that organization during those two years were critical in the development of the students' leadership life skills.

A study conducted by Ricketts, Priest, and Lastly (2007), assessed the leadership behaviors of FFA members who participated in the Success Conference, a leadership development workshop in Georgia. Participating students were asked to complete the Student Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). At the conclusion of their study, the researchers found that students scored lower in two areas (encouraging the heart and enabling others to act) of the LPI than is normal for students in high school. From this finding, researchers gathered that future leadership development opportunities should focus on activities that foster collaboration, strengthen others, recognize the contributions of others, and celebrate team accomplishments in order to build these scores.

The Importance of Teaching Leadership Development to Youth

Many organizations have put a great amount of time, energy, and resources into education youth on leadership development, but why? What is to be gained from teaching leadership to these youngsters? Ricketts (2005), stated "leadership development is crucial for youth on the verge of becoming productive citizens…" (p. 27). Likewise, Ewing, Bruce, and Ricketts (2009) commented that "individuals must be given the opportunity to lead during their everyday lives…" (p. 119). Watt (2003) maintains that students prepared with leadership skills are better able to explore their world, maximize intellectual capabilities, and to be life-long learners with the ability to act separately from the majority. What is more, it is the consensus of many researchers that leadership is learnable at an early age (Dormody & Seevers, 1994; Greiman & Addington, 2008; Rosser, Stedman, Elbert, & Rutherford, 2009; Watt, 2003).

According to Nahavandi (2006), not only is leadership a learnable behavior, but it should be taught "early and often" (p. 15). Early exposure to the subject allows for the possibility of repetition and reinforcement, both of which Nahavandi claims to be crucial to the understanding of leadership and the development of leadership skills. Nahavandi goes on to state that "the complex set of traits, skills, and behaviors required for effective leadership demand early development and practice; the earlier the better…" (p. 25). In his study, Nahavandi discusses a method for teaching leadership to first-year college students. The author found two distinct advantages of doing so. He states that not only did the early introduction of the topic allow for the possibility of repetition and reinforcement of the concepts, but that instructors and students were able to integrate those concepts of leadership into other areas. Although this particular study focused on post secondary students, it is reasonable to assume that secondary students may share many of the same characteristics as Nahavandi's targeted population. As such, this research holds implications for developing leadership education opportunities for students younger than the college age participants.

Walahoski and Lodl (2004) assessed the impact the out-of-school program, 4-H, had on youth asset development. In their study, the researchers charged that "quality out-of-school programming is seen not only as deterrence for risk behaviors, but actually as a way to enhance positive, productive behaviors among young people" (p. 17). Researchers studied students enrolled in a variety of programs and generalized that those out-of-school programs make a positive impact on youth development. The researchers went on to state "both parents and youth development professionals should identify and capitalize on teachable moments for building strong moral character in youth…" (p. 24).

Bruce, Boyd, and Dooley (2005), claimed that leadership development training is beneficial to those participating as well as the organization sponsoring the training. In their study, the authors evaluated how well the leadership skills 4-H students learned while participating in 4-H were retained. The researchers concluded that the more relevant the learners believed the training to be, the greater the chance that the skills would be learned and that the clearer the link is between what someone learns and what they are supposed to learn, the greater the chance is that they will learn it. In their final statement, the authors concluded "each element of training transfer plays an important role in a trainee taking what they have learned and applying it to their job or other situations" (p. 59).

While it is important to offer leadership training opportunities to youth in efforts to develop productive traits, behaviors, and skills, and to shape these impressionable persons into industrious citizens of our communities, it is even more important that these opportunities are useful experiences which provide them with the tools and knowledge in which to become more efficient leaders. Students need more than just another leadership training experience; they need an effective leadership training experience.

Purpose and Research Objectives

While it is well established that leadership education for middle school and secondary students is beneficial, the multi-fold purpose of this study was to evaluate students' opinions and perceptions concerning the delivery of the leadership education provided through the PAWS Leadership Conference and to determine students' past leadership experiences and future leadership aspirations. The results of this study may be beneficial to other state and educational agencies as they work to develop and implement leadership training opportunities for students in middle and secondary education. The following objectives were used to guide this study:

1. Determine selected demographic characteristics of student participants
2. Evaluate students' perceptions on the efficacy of delivery of leadership education at the conference
3. Identify participants' past leadership experiences and training opportunities
4. Investigate students' future leadership and career goals

Methods

The Premier Agricultural Workshop Series (PAWS), hosted by [name] University, consisted of two leadership development seminars held in two separate regions of the state of [state]; north and central. These conferences targeted middle school and high school students who had shown exemplary leadership abilities at their schools. The purpose of these conferences was to provide leadership training for middle and high school students who were enrolled in agricultural education courses and members of the FFA.

A mixed-method research design was implemented for this descriptive study. The data collected from the study was gathered using a researcher developed survey instrument that contained questions of both a qualitative and quantitative nature. The instrument was presented to faculty members and other experts in the field of agricultural leadership education to

determine face validity. Using both quantitative and qualitative data allowed the researchers to gain a deeper understanding of the occurrences of interest. A Likert scale was used to collect data in the first section of the survey and the means were calculated. Open-ended questions were employed to obtain the qualitative information in the second portion of the instrument. All rank-ordered evaluation measures were calculated by mean response.

The population for this study consisted of 119 middle school and high school students who attended the Premier Agricultural Workshop Series (PAWS) leadership conferences hosted in two separate cities in [state]. This population was targeted due to their participation in the PAWS conference, their willingness to complete the survey instrument, their interest in agriculture, and for the diversity of the student body. Random selection was not considered seeing as how all members of this population received the questionnaire and had equal opportunity to respond. The participants attended four sessions of leadership development that was delivered by undergraduate and graduate students who were well educated in leadership theory and delivery of leadership education programs. The researcher developed questionnaire was designed to elicit three categories of information: (a) personal/education related data; (b) assessments concerning the value of the seminar topics; and (c) prior leadership education experience. The survey instrument was evaluated for face validity by a panel of experts consisting of agricultural leadership educators, agricultural teacher educators, and state FFA leaders. The instrument was adjusted and modified based on the recommendations of the aforementioned experts. The instrument required approximately 15 minutes to complete. The descriptors for the "evaluation" scale ranged from "1" = "Strongly Agree" to "5" = "Strongly Disagree". Cronbach's coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the agreement scale for the evaluation of the workshops (10 items) was .98. The instrument was administered to the participants immediately following the workshops. The researchers assured participants that all data would be collected and compiled anonymously to allow freedom of expression for the participants.

Findings

Objective one sought to determine selected demographic characteristics of student participants. The average student participating in this study was a white female, sixteen years of age, in the eleventh grade, and living in a rural area. A breakdown of the demographic information can be found in Table 1.

Table 1
Student Demographics

Characteristic	*f*	%
Gender		
Male	54	45.38
Female	65	54.62
Ethnicity		
Caucasian	102	85.71
African American	10	8.40
Native American	6	5.04

Did Not Specify	1	.84
Age		
12	6	5.04
13	15	12.60
14	19	15.96
15	18	15.12
16	27	22.68
17	22	18.48
18	12	10.08
Grade in School		
8th	13	10.92
9th	23	19.32
10th	19	15.96
11th	31	26.05
12th	23	19.32
Size of Community		
Rural	114	95.79
Suburban	2	1.68
Urban	3	2.52

Research objective two sought to evaluate PAWS students' perceptions on the effectiveness of the delivery of leadership education taught at the leadership conference. As evidenced in Table 2, Adequate Participant Involvement (M=1.31) was the top ranked aspect followed by a Desire to Attend another Conference Similar to this One (M=1.40) as the second ranked aspect and Effective Presentation Delivery (M=1.41) and Accurate Subject Matter (M=1.41) tied as the third ranked aspects. The vast majority (92%) of the participants agreed or strongly agreed that the workshops included adequate involvement for the participants. What is more, 91% of the participants agreed that the knowledge gained through this conference would be helpful in developing leadership skills. The lowest ranking aspects included "Presenters Answered Questions Sufficiently" (M=1.49), "Increased Understanding of Leadership as a Result of Participation" (M=1.49), and "Presentations Met the Expectations of Participants" (M=1.5). However, it must be noted that 90% of participants agreed or strongly agreed that the presenters answered questions sufficiently, 86% of participants indicated that they agreed or strongly agreed that they had an increased understanding of leadership as a result of participating in the conference, and 89% agreed or strongly agreed the presentations met their expectations.

Table 2
Student Perceptions Concerning the Delivery of Conference Subject Matter

Evaluation Measures	**Agreement**			
	N	*M*	*SD*	Rank
Logical Organization of Content	119	1.48	.96	6
Appropriate Use of Visual Aids	119	1.44	.97	5

Effective Presentation Delivery	119	1.41	.95	3[a]
Adequate Participant Involvement	119	1.31	.95	1
Presenters Answered Questions Sufficiently	119	1.49	1.03	7[a]
Presentations Met the Expectations of Participants	119	1.50	1.03	8
The Subject Matter was Accurate	119	1.41	.97	3[a]
The Knowledge Gained Will Help Develop Leadership Skills	119	1.42	1.07	4
Desire to Attend another Conference Similar to this One	119	1.40	1.01	2
Increased Understanding of Leadership as a Result of Participation	119	1.49	1.05	7[a]
Overall Mean		1.43		

[a] This topic received equal rating with at least one other in the seminar; tied ranks are displayed.
Note. 5 point scale- 1= Strongly Agree, 5= Strongly Disagree

Research objective three sought to identify participants' past leadership experiences and training experiences. These experiences were divided into four constructs ("Student Organization Participation", "Extracurricular Activities", "In Class", and "Workshops and Conferences"). FFA was the primary student organization in which students had participated in and had gained leadership experiences through (57.14%). Participating in band and sports were the most commonly listed leadership experiences for the "Extracurricular" construct with 1.68% and 10.08% respectively, and Skills USA was listed as the top opportunity for leadership experiences in the "In Class" construct (2.52%). In the "Workshops and Conferences" construct, the Emerging Leaders Conference tied with participation in previous PAWS conferences in the number of participants who experienced the conferences (2.52%). Twelve students responded that they had not participated in any leadership experience. Table 3 lists the top two responses for each construct of the students' past leadership experiences.

Table 3
Past Leadership Experiences Listed by Construct

Past Leadership Experience	*f*	%
Student Organization Participation		
FFA	68	57.14
SGA	7	5.88
Extracurricular Activities		
Sports	12	10.08
Band	2	1.68
In Class		
Skills USA	3	2.52
Agriscience	2	1.68

Workshops and Conferences		
PAWS	3	2.52
Emerging Leaders	3	2.52

Research objective four sought to investigate students' future leadership and career goals. Students were asked if they were planning on attending a college or tech/trade school after graduating high school. When prompted, students were expected to respond in the affirmative, or the negative. As evidenced in Table 4, 114 students responded that they were planning on attending college and/or a trade/tech school and 5 responded that they were not planning on attending. Of the 114 students planning on pursuing post-secondary education, 111 knew where they want to attend and 18 were undecided.

Table 4
Students Plans for Attending College or Tech/Trade School

Students' Response	*f*	%
Yes	**114**	**95.79**
Certain Where They Want to Go	111	93.27
Undecided	18	15.12
No	**5**	**4.20**

Recommendations/Implications

Recommendations for Future Leadership Development Seminars

This study supports the stance that several researchers have taken concerning the importance of shaping youth into our future leaders (Morgan & Rudd, 2006; Ricketts, Bruce, & Ewing, 2008; Watt, 2003; Ewing, Bruce, & Ricketts, 2009). According to Watt, "effective leaders are needed at all levels of our society" (p. 13). Ewing, Bruce, and Ricketts (2009) go as far to say that "the future of local communities, states, and the country is tied to the development of quality leaders" (p. 119). Morgan and Rudd (2006) surmise that there will be an increase in the need for people with leadership skills in the coming decades as baby boomers retire. In response to the need to ready young people for the responsibility of becoming tomorrow's leaders, many college campuses have begun to offer programs in leadership development (Ewing, Bruce, and Ricketts, 2009). Further, their study exhibited the value that participants place on being involved in presentations during leadership development seminars.

As more and more responsibility is placed on local governments and community organizations, a new generation of leaders will be needed to build local partnerships and to manage the change within our society's diverse communities as well as to assume the positions of current leaders (Ricketts, Bruce, and Ewing, 2008). Ricketts, Bruce and Ewing charge leadership educators with the task of providing future leaders with the education and experiences they will need to allow them to excel as leaders in our society. These researchers claim that when today's societies are able to successfully provide ways for young people to develop into contributing members of society, then those communities can be confident that they will have

successful leaders for tomorrow. It is the researchers' recommendation that in order to maximize the "hands on" aspect necessary in training these future leaders, future leadership development seminars should focus on placing a greater emphasis on engaging student participants during presentations.

The findings of this study support previous research concerning the importance of effective communication in leadership training experience. According to Watt (2003), leaders must communicate effectively with others. He recommends that the up and coming leaders of the 21st century will need to be skillful in communicating with others in order to be effective leaders. Watt claims that "a function of any leadership education program is to promote both youth and adult leadership as a key component of individual and community growth" (p. 15). He goes on to state that curriculum containing a leadership studies component will be more able to provide students with the needed leadership skills and that students prepared with these skills are better able to lead others. As such, it is the researchers' recommendation that future leadership seminars seek to incorporate leadership training techniques that will aid in teaching valuable leadership components such as effective communication, collaboration, critical thinking, and personal growth.

Recommendations for Future Research

While this study determined the proposed research objectives, the findings of this study make room for further research to be conducted in order to determine what areas of leadership should be focused on during leadership training seminars. More specifically, research to determine which facets of leadership are most valuable to teach to students in middle and secondary settings. However, the information obtained from this particular study can be used to assist in developing effective leadership training experiences.

One other avenue of study should seek to measure the participants' levels of knowledge gained from leadership training opportunities, such as this, to determine the effectiveness of the teaching methodology employed in the conferences and to determine the consistency in the materials that are being delivered to students.

Lastly, future studies should focus on the impact that this type of leadership development opportunity may have on youth participants' ability to apply their knowledge outside of the conference setting. The participants in this study reported that the knowledge that they gained as a result of participation would be helpful toward becoming a leader in the future. A follow-up study should be conducted with these students, and students participating in similar leadership training seminars, one year post-seminar to determine how the seminar influenced their decisions to lead and the success that they may experience in doing so.

Conclusions

As the population of the study was not a randomly selected sample, the results of the study could not be generalized to any other population. The majority of the participants in this study were white females; however it was note that gender was split almost in half. Participants' age and grade level were fairly evenly distributed but 95.79% came from rural areas. The vast majority (92%) of the participants agreed or strongly agreed that the workshops included

adequate involvement for the participants and 91% of the participants agreed that the knowledge gained through this conference would be helpful in developing leadership skills. 90% of participants agreed or strongly agreed that the presenters answered questions sufficiently, 86% of participants indicated that they agreed or strongly agreed that they had an increased understanding of leadership as a result of participating in the conference, and 89% agreed or strongly agreed the presentations met their expectations. FFA was the primary student organization in which students had participated in and had gained leadership experiences through (57.14%). Twelve students responded that they had not participated in any leadership experience. Of the 119 students in attendance, 114 responded that they were planning on attending college and/or a trade/tech school and 5 responded that they were not planning on attending. For the 114 students planning on pursuing post-secondary education, 111 knew where they want to attend and only 18 were undecided.

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What's Context Got To Do With It? An Exploration of Leadership Development Programs for the Agricultural Community

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Abstract

The International Leadership Association provides guiding questions for designing leadership education programs, and the questions begin with program context. This study investigates leadership development programming in the context of agriculture. Based on a survey of programs included in the International Association of Programs for Agricultural Leadership (IAPAL), the programs for leadership development in agricultural contexts typically include 12 seminars over two years, with less than one-third of the seminars characterized as agriculturally related. In a state without a program associated with IAPAL, a survey of key agricultural leaders reveals a strong desire for a program similar to IAPAL programs observed in other states. The findings have implications for both the state investigated and the broader approach to leadership development in agricultural context

Restorative Leadership: The Calling and The Imperative of the 21st Century

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Abstract

Restorative Leadership: The Calling and The Imperative of the 21st Century, is a comprehensive guide to addressing the sustainability issues of our times using profiles of global leaders for positive change. In a narrative non-fiction format, the book outlines a holistic framework of sustainability principles and practices at levels of self, society, and world (personal, organizational, and global). The levels of impact are then explained and illustrated with the contributions of approximately 30 featured sustainability champions.

Leading for Sustainability: An Example for Future Leaders

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Abstract

This presentation will explore a collegiate course that takes students to Belize to study leadership and sustainability. Students are presented with numerous examples of leaders who balance competing demands between economic, environmental and community sustainability. In addition to reviewing the course's development, the presenters will also lead a discussion of the unique challenges faced by leaders in this developing country.

Introduction

This presentation will share an example of a leadership course created in 2008 that takes students to Belize to study leadership and sustainability. Students are presented with numerous examples of leaders who must balance competing demands economic, environmental and community sustainability. In addition to reviewing the development and implementation of this course, the presenters will also lead a discussion of the unique challenges faced in this developing country. Additional applications involving the challenges sustainability leaders encounter will be discussed.

Background

The relationship between leadership and sustainability is just beginning to be recognized as an important one. Benjamin Redekop (2010), in his introduction to *Leadership for Environmental Sustainability* identified that there is little research in leadership studies specifically focusing on environmental sustainability. The book itself is a collection of perspectives from various authors and is foundational in exposing the relationship between leadership and environmental sustainability. Drawing on diverse fields of study such as history, politics, spirituality, religion, and literature, the text offers a new way of understanding how leaders can influence the culture of an organization to yield sustainable practices. Specifically, Redekop argues that "leaders must begin to see themselves—and their organizations—differently, and find ways to convey a more sustainable organizational vision to their constituents" (2010, p. 244-245).

Although not specifically studying the link between leadership and sustainability, Edwards (2005) presents a number of examples of community groups and community leaders who are impacting sustainability. Additionally, Edwards discusses the challenges that are inherent in sustainable development articulating the competing demands of the three E's of

sustainability: economic, environment, and equality. Often these three aspects conflict with one another such that economic development may not benefit either the environment or the equality of the community. Leaders need to be cognizant of their impact on more than just the economic bottom line in order to lead sustainably. Thus, leadership educators have a critical role in educating students to understand the role leadership plays in impacting sustainability. One essential way of doing this is to teach students examples of leaders impacting sustainability and the challenges those leaders face.

Description

In the fall of 2008, the presenters began to develop a course for college students to study in Belize. Belize is a relatively new democracy, having gained its independence from Britain in 1981. The population of Belize is mired in poverty with approximately 40% of the population living in poverty (CIA). Additionally, Belize recently has developed a burgeoning tourism industry in addition to the recent discovery of oil in 2001. Environmentally, 40% of Belize's land enjoys some form of protected land status. This unique combination of attributes provides an amazing backdrop to study the tensions between economic, environment and community sustainability.

Given the unique nature of the country, the instructors were able to develop a number of partnerships to provide examples for students of leadership and sustainability. One example includes visiting the only oil-producing company in Belize to gain a better understanding of how the leaders there seek to balance producing natural resources with environmental and community needs. Another aspect of the course involves talking with leaders of environmental non-government organizations (NGO's) that are tasked with protecting areas of the rainforest from looters and illegal farmers whose only goal is simply seeking food and products in order to survive. Students also visit an island off the coast of Belize that is being developed as a tourist destination yet it is being developed in a way that minimizes the environmental impact on the ecosystem. Students talk with the developer of the island to understand how and why they are leading in the way they have chosen. These are just a few of the examples of how students are exposed to the role leaders play in sustainability.

As part of the course, students are required to keep journals of their experience which allows them to adjust to cultural differences as well as reflect on how leaders are impacting sustainability. Additionally, each student writes a summary of one of the events of the course. Finally, students write a detailed analysis integrating their experiences with both the leadership practices they observed (Kouzes and Posner, 2002) as well as the concepts of sustainability (Edwards, 2005).

Results

The suggested outcomes for the class include an understanding of sustainability, an examination of the role between leadership and sustainability, as well as a reflective component where students integrate their learning in their own leadership development. More specifically, we have identified the following outcomes for the course:

Students who complete this course will:

- Understand various principles and definitions of sustainability
- Develop an awareness of the competing factors that influence sustainability
- Observe government, business, and community leaders and their attempts to lead sustainable organizations
- Examine leadership styles and practices that contribute to sustainable practices
- Reflect on insights and shifts in thinking about their own leadership approach and what the implications are for their future leadership development.

From the course evaluations as well as evaluations of the students' completed work, the results of the class have been extremely positive. We have led the course for two consecutive years in December of 2009 and 2010. In the course evaluations, students were asked a series of questions. First, students were asked to comment on the strengths of the course, and we received the following comments:

> "Learning about something in a classroom is one thing, learning about something in a setting where you can actually see the course material being implemented is quite another."
>
> "The course subject matter was intellectually engaging and interesting, and I feel as though I will be able to use a great deal of what I've learned in my future courses, on campus, and in my life."
>
> "I loved hearing all the different perspectives from various speakers, lectures, and activities. I think having a representative from the different sectors was important in understanding Belize and their efforts in sustainability and all that it encompasses."
>
> "This course provides an opportunity for students to immerse themselves in a different culture and to form opinions regarding sustainability both in Belize and our country."
>
> "Going and visiting all these sites and meeting with leaders was invaluably helpful. The course was the perfect mix of work and play and our course material was well supported by our interactions on the ground."
>
> "We met so many interesting people and had a chance to see what many of the people of Belize are doing to try and protect their economy, environment and culture"

When students were asked about weaknesses of the course as well as what improvements could be made, we received no comments specifically related to the course content of leadership and sustainability. Rather, students commented on the process of the course and wanting more class time together prior to meeting in Belize, or they commented on the weather, or the number of bugs.

Finally, students were asked for their overall evaluation of the course and comments related to the course content of leadership and sustainability are as follows:

> "It was an absolutely amazing way to learn. I would recommend it to anyone and feel like a learned a great deal about leadership, sustainability, and myself in this course."
>
> "This was a great class and I really did learn a lot about sustainability and how other countries view the importance of conservation, development, and participation. "
>
> "I really enjoyed myself and would highly recommend it to any student interested in sustainability "

Anecdotally, we still have students talking about the course over 18 months later with specific realizations they have gained from the course and ways they are integrating it into their own lives. One example is a student who returned to campus and implemented an energy saving plan in her sorority house. From examples like this and our evaluations, we are confident that exposing students to leaders of sustainability efforts is essential for the future of our society.

Conclusions

One implication for this presentation is simply the example of this course for other leadership educators. We look forward to the opportunity to share the logistics of the course so that other educators can pursue similar endeavors. Another implication is the need for student leaders to deeply understand the role they can play currently as well as the future role they will play in impacting sustainability. Given this critical role, it follows that all of the students we interact with need to understand more about the competing demands of sustainability. It is somewhat easy for those in the developed world to insist that the rainforest is protected, yet it is definitely more complicated when we learn to take into account the perspective of the impoverished populations in developing countries. By providing all of our students with this awareness, they will be better equipped to lead and create a world that is sustainable in all its forms.

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Uncovering the Undergraduate Student Leadership Experience: The Creation of Agricultural Leaders through Organizational Leadership Activities.

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Abstract

This study utilized quantitative measures to identify leadership experiences of undergraduate college of agricultural and natural resource students at two large public land grant institutions (University of Florida and University of Tennessee Knoxville). This study seeks to explore the students' collegiate organizational leadership experiences and this relationship to individual leadership behavior.

Introduction

Organizational leadership plays an important role in developing leadership within its membership. Knowledge creation, community and practical application promote a sharing of ideas, skills and that talents are reflective individualized and group leadership development (Locke, 2001). Previous research indicates the desire for leadership development is strong, especially among practitioners as well as the researchers leadership theory (Day, 2001).An analysis of college student's leadership behaviors, the development of organizational leadership suggests that the more students are involved in student organizations the more likely they are to develop strong leadership skills and behaviors. Employers want and value competence in communication, adaptability, problem-identification and problem-solving, self-management, teamwork, and leadership skills (Gilmore, Goecker, & Whatley, 1999). By participating in various student organizations, students have opportunity to explore their individual leadership opportunities. These experiences also provide participants with the opportunity to interact with their peers in formal and non-formal leadership training.

Many organizational leadership experiences are different from individualized leadership programs which may only provide a distinct advantage for short term or immediate leadership development and training. Kezar and Moriarty (2000) found that being an officer in a collegiate organization was one of the strongest predictors of self-rating on leadership ability. Many civic leadership programs encourage participants to engage with the community and use what they have learned to work on or discuss solutions to problems facing the community (Locke, 2001). Azzam (2003) states this engagement process can facilitate the learning process by providing a relevant context, and can help establish social networks between the participants and the community." (p. 57)

As student's freshman year in high school has been linked to positive connections with development of leadership behavior in the college population (Woodrum, 2003; Zielinski, 1999) For example, high school organizations, such as FFA, 4-H, Boy Scouts, and athletic teams, have been instrumental in developing and shaping leadership behavior and attitudes. In agricultural education, both 4-H and FFA have identified leadership development as central to their mission. Many Cooperative Extension Service and agricultural educators, members, and alumni think these organizations provide effective leadership programming (Dormody, 1994; Seevers, Dormody, & Clason, 1995). The development of leadership skills and behaviors was also important to the success of high school vocational agriculture graduates. According to Shelhamer (1990), adults

who were active in leadership activities were more likely to have completed their high school vocational agriculture curricula (Schumacher & Swan, 1993). Ricketts and Rudd (2001) found that leadership experience aids personal development for career and societal success. High schools students with leadership experience have a strong leadership capacity because they better understand the phenomena of leadership as a personal and attainable undertaking (Ricketts & Rudd, 2001).

College Leadership

Many college students experience organizational leadership among opportunities beyond the formal college classroom. Researchers have investigated how students involvement with both learning communities and agricultural youth organizations influenced their academic performance, retention (Ball, Garton, & Dyer, 2001), and degree completion (Ball & Garton, 2002).The results indicated that there is a positive relationship between student involvement and academic performance.

Park and Dyer (2003) found that traditional agricultural college organization's FFA and 4-H members provided most of the leadership in agricultural colleges. FFA members, representing only one-third of student leaders, provided nearly half of the leadership to student organizations. The 4-H members contributed an additional 37% of the leadership. Due to leadership in multiple organizations, 4-H and FFA members represent considerable student leadership potential to a college, especially in traditional organizations (Dormody, 1994; Fritz, et al., 2003; Mullins J. G., 2006 Ricketts & Rudd, 2004; Rudd, Stedman, & Kaufman, 2004; Wingenbach, 1997).

Most of these studies utilize survey research methods but there remains a need to collect personal opinions, attitudes, comments, and recommendations from recognized collegiate leaders. Insight into the beliefs, values, and attitudes of individuals will allow observers to gain a holistic in-depth understanding of the leadership phenomena studied (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Connors, Velez, and Swan (2006) conducted a qualitative, semi-structured interview of 20 of the most outstanding seniors in the College of Food, Agricultural, and Environmental Sciences at The Ohio State University. Based on the comments of the subjects, leadership can be viewed as a process that develops over a period of time and is influenced by an individual's personal characteristics, experiences, and influences (Connors, 2006). Leadership participation and aspirations can and does change as a student moves from high school to college and on to adulthood. Students recognize the need for involvement in leadership development organizations to improve their personal leadership and professional skills. It was clearly evident that the outstanding seniors were influenced more by their participation in collegiate organizations and personal influences than they were by formal leadership coursework, books, or other instructional materials. This conclusion supports the findings of Kezar and Moriarty (2000) when they stated that "involvement opportunities are clearly important for the development of leadership among groups" (p. 67).These studies add to the theory of the importance of leadership development within undergraduate students in colleges of agriculture.

Methodology

The premise of this study rests upon a combination undergraduate students who are in the college of agricultural that attend a large public land-grant institution. The researcher explored both high

school and college organizational leadership experiences and potential impact on of their involvement may have had on their current leadership behaviors. Leadership theories have evolved from the original trade theory to behavior of situational approaches to today's transformational theory. The main leadership theories are the team leadership approach, transformational leadership, and the five leadership practices common to successful leaders by Kouzes and Posner (1997). The foundation of this theoretical framework was developed from aspects of these previous research studies. After 30 years of research with a database involving more than 200,000 respondents, Kouzes and Posner (1998) established the Leadership Practices Inventory omnipresent in the leaders they observed. The LPI was created by developing a set of statements describing each of the various leadership actions and behaviors. Each statement was originally cast on a 5-point Likert scale, and reformulated in 1999 into a more robust and sensitive 10-point Likert scale. A higher value represents more frequent use of a leadership behavior. Research using the LPI has also found formal leadership education to be effective. Earnest (1996) discovered significant ($p < 0.01$) form with pre and posttest increases for each of the five leadership behaviors of community leadership program participants in Ohio. Researchers in agricultural and extension education have utilized the LPI to evaluate leadership behaviors as well. Rudd (2000) and Krill, Carter, and Williams (1997) along with other researchers have all used Kouzes and Posner's (1997) leadership practices in their respective studies**.** Spotauski and Carter (1993) also looked at the leadership behaviors of department executive officers. They found that agricultural education executives were best at *enabling others to act* and needed help with *inspiring a shared vision* and *challenging the process* ($M = 3.72$, $SD = 0.49$). Woodrum and Safrit (2003) examined the leadership practices of West Virginia extension agents and determined again that *enabling others to act* was the behavior exhibited most frequently ($M = 4.48$, $SD = 0.62$), and *inspiring a shared vision* was the leadership behavior used less often ($M = 3.43$, $SD = 0.96$).

In studying the LPI and leadership of college students in colleges of agriculture, two separate empirical studies determined that the five leadership practices accounted for 65% (Posner & Brodsky, 1992) and 80% (Posner & Brodsky, 1994) of the variance in assessments of chapter presidents' leadership effectiveness. Posner and Brodsky (1993) also found that students, who practiced the five leadership practices most often, as compared to those who engaged in them less often, viewed themselves as more effective leaders.

Positive changes in leadership behavior, as a result of organizational leadership experiences within the undergraduate students, have been assumed for years, but the specifics of this development have not been articulated. This study helps define the leadership benefits purported by the CALS. It also helps build the leadership practices theory base by surveying collegiate leaders because few researchers have evaluated the leadership behaviors of post-secondary education students and students in a college of agricultural and life sciences.

A casual comparative method, also called the ex post facto method was used to discover the cause relationships between variables. This method is used when individuals possessing characteristics before the study, which cannot be manipulated experimentally as a case of the variables in this research. The ex post facto method was appropriate because the sample used could be differentiated on variables been studied (leadership behaviors, and personal demographics). Finally, this method was desirable because of the homogeneous nature of the entire overall sample as variables generally shared by the participants include leadership ability, leadership activity, and leadership entrance. The ex post facto method is the strongest variables have been studied are controlled

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Population

A population for the study consisted of undergraduate students enrolled in the College of Agricultural and Life Sciences (CALS) at the University of Florida and College of Agricultural and Natural Resource (CANSR) at the University of Tennessee –Knoxville. All respondents were undergraduate students pursuing a bachelor degree .

Procedures

This study was designed to be both descriptive and ex post facto since factors that were being identified were pre-existing (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1996). The design described the present demographics of undergraduate students and identified their leadership behaviors. With permission of Kouzes and Posner,--the authors of the Leadership Challenge (1998), the Student Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) was administered as an online instrument. The instrument is composed of five sections that supported each of the identified processes. Thirty statements were included in the instrument associated with the five competency areas. A rating scale ranging from "1" (Almost Never) to "10" (Almost Always) determined the importance of the practice to student leadership. Scores were calculated for the perceived importance of each of the five behavior areas by summing the responses within each area. Respondents completed a second half of the survey which explored questions of previous leadership experiences and requested basic demographic information.

Data for the study were analyzed using Statistical Analysis System (SAS). Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, frequencies, and percentages) were computed. Data compared undergraduate student participants with normative data collected from the *Student LPI*. Inferential statistics were used in the study because of the sampling procedure, but some simple comparisons between participants were also conducted.

Respondents were asked to indicate the type of organization(s) (service, social, social/service, fraternity, sorority, honorary, intramural sports, other) activities that they were a member. The respondents were also asked to provide information on their highest leadership position (i.e., president, vice- president, secretary, treasurer, membership coordinator, committee chair, other) and on what level in the organization they held an office (i.e., chapter, district, state, regional, national). Finally respondents were asked to report the length of their participation in the organization.

Findings

About 60% students indicated that they have participated in some organizational leadership experience both in and outside the college. College organizations that students participate in the most were Pre-Vet Club, Family, Youth & Community Sciences Club, and Alpha Zeta (Agricultural Honor Fraternity). Respondents participated in variety of service related activities where almost 20% were members of service organizations, 17.5% were involved in social/service organizations, and over 15% were members of a fraternity and sorority (Table 1). Being a member of an organization was found to have a weak to moderate positive correlation and had a positive, significant parameter estimate for the variable of Leadership behavior. The current student leadership participation and the level that students are participating (chapter, regional, state,

national) levels were also positively associated with higher LPI scores for overall Leadership behavior.

Students (n=826)	Service	Social	Service	Fraternity	Sorority	Honorary	Sports	Other	%
Organization One	13.4	5.8	10.6	3.8	7.9	5.0	5.4	7.6	59.7
Organization Two	7.6	3.6	4.7	.8	1.3	2.6	2.4	4.1	27.4
Organization Three	2.3	1.1	1.8	.1	.3	1.8	.8	2.8	10.5
Organization Four	.7	.1	.2	.1	.1	.2	.1	.2	1.9
Organization Five	.1	0	.1	0	0	.1	.1	0	.5
Total	24.3	10.6	17.5	4.8	9.4	9.7	8.8	14.7	100.0

Table 1. Organizational Leadership of Students

Participants were involved in over more than 26 high school activities, ranging from athletics and academics to community service and honorary clubs and organizations. More than 60% of students had participated in the National Honor Society. In addition to their participation, students served in leadership positions with these organizations. Over 50% of undergraduate students were officers and involved levels primarily the local or club level. (Table 1)

Table 2. High School Leadership Experiences of Undergraduate Students

Previous Leadership Experience (n=987)	n	%
Student Government	278	28.2
BETA	165	16.7
SADD	77	7.8
FCA	149	15.1
JROTC	34	3.4
Class Officer	193	19.6
FBLA	70	7.1
Science Club	192	19.5
Band	157	15.9
Foreign Language Club	291	29.5
Baseball/Softball	119	12.1
Debate Team	54	5.5

Swimming/Diving	94	9.5
Pre-Health	89	9.0
Basketball	91	9.2
Boy Scouts/Girl Scouts	81	8.2
Football	86	8.7
National Honor Society	600	60.8
Volleyball	80	8.1
4-H member	63	6.4
Cross-Country/Track	168	17.0
Future Farmers of America (FFA)	114	11.6
Other Athletics	378	38.3
Other (please specify)	459	46.5

Having been an officer of an organization in high school has showed a low positive relationship with Leadership behavior. It had a statistically significance relationship (β = .03. p = .04). In this regression model, the researcher notes that the variable Prior Officer was statically significant and the overall model also was statically significant. Correlations among the organizational leadership characteristics and Leadership behavior as these are presented in (Table 3). The variable was found to have a weak positive significant interaction with overall leadership (r= .09). The statistic suggests undergraduate students that who were members of organizations outside of college are also likely to report higher scores on leadership behavior. This variable explored the current student leadership participation outside of the college and at what level that undergraduate students are participating (chapter, regional, state, national). With respect to organizational leadership behavior, the analysis suggests that students who were involved in organizations outside of the college students were more likely to report higher leadership behavior scores for overall leadership, modeling the way and encouraging the heart.

Table 3. Pearson Product Moment Correlations of Leadership Measures by Organizational Leadership Experiences (n=1,025)

Variable	Leadership	Model	Inspire	Challenge	Enable	Encourage
LEADER	.08	.08	.11	.09	.05	.05
ORG	.09*	.07*	.11	.09	.06	.06*
COLLEGE LEADER	.04	.03	.05	.04	.03	.04
PRIOR OFFICER	.16*	.15*	.14*	.16*	.13*	.13*

Note * $p \leq .05$

Leadership is a total of all the 5 of the leadership practices.

In the regression model for overall leadership, none of the organizational leadership variables was statistically significant and meaningful in the model (Table 4). The model had an adjusted R-Square of .02 representing a weak relationship and but it was statistically significance. The regressions of each of the five leadership behaviors on the organizational leadership experiences showed that no organizational variables were statistically significant. Overall, the results from this organizational leadership experience model explained between (R2 =.01%-.02 %) of the variance in the five leadership behaviors and was significant.

Table 4. Regression of Leadership Measures on Organizational Leadership Experiences.

Organizational Leadership Experiences	Leadership		Model		Inspire		Challenge		Enable		Encourage	
Source	Est.	a	Est.	a	Est.	a	Est.	a	Est.	a	Est.	a
(Constant)	7.73		7.91		7.19		7.36		8.28		7.90	
LEADER	.01	.92	.11	.37	.12	.41	.07	.58	.01	.96	.01	.93
ORG	.007	.97	.05	.63	.22	.11	.16	.18	.09	.32	.13	.26
COLLEGE LEADER	.20	.28	.0004	.32	.0006	.09	.0005	.22	.0002	.43	.0002	.25
PRIOR OFFICER	.24*	.00	.24*	.00	.22*	.02	.32*	.00	.20*	.00	.24*	.00
Adjusted R2	.02		.01		.02		.02		.01		.01	
F-Statistic	4.65	.001	4.30	.001	5.39	.001	6.46	.001	2.78	.02	3.10	.009

Note * $p \leq .05$

Leadership is a total of all the 5 of the leadership practices.

Recommendations/ Implications

In research from previous leadership studies the number and types of leadership positions have been predictors that may influence leadership behaviors. Other studies have also indicated the more hours spent per week performing volunteer or student organization activities, the more likely students show growth in leadership developmental areas (Bardou, 2003; S. M. Fritz et al., 2003; Nirenberg, 1998). The results of this study indicate organizational leadership as defined as current organizational involvement (in and outside of college), leadership positions, numbers of years of involvement, and level of involvement. Just fewer than 60% of participants responded to being a part of an organization within the college. Of this population of undergraduate students who are involved outside of the college, 21% of participants were in at least one organization. Through the diversity of current leadership experiences, this study indicates that the undergraduate students are highly motivated and seek opportunities for personal development through student and professional organization involvement. This involvement also is reflected activities and organizations outside of the college of agriculture. Additionally, this study reinforces leadership development through the culmination of many opportunities to practice leadership skills and behaviors. People accumulate organizational experiences and influences of diverse activities to form perceptions of leadership (Cress et al., 2001; Duke, 1998; Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Previous research by (Cress et al., 2001)organizational leadership behavior, analysis suggests that more students that are involved in student organizations the college students are more likely develop strong leadership skills and behaviors. The results of this study support the notion that student organization participation is important and a positive factor having higher scores on the LPI leadership inventory. The researcher also suggests that involvement in these student organizational activities will development higher rating on leadership skills and competencies measures.

Further research is needed to determine associations between leadership behaviors and the undergraduate student involvement using the LPI and other leadership instruments. Because leadership development appears to occur in a variety of settings, there might be no one way that leadership is learned (Bennis, 1989; Kouzes & Posner, 2002). The findings of this study provided evidence to show that the student group involvement is an important characteristic of many undergraduate students. However, there is no evidence of involvement in certain organizations or types of external factors that may or may not have an influence on leadership behavior.

Conclusions

By determining factors that influence undergraduate students' leadership behaviors; various organizational leadership training could be tailored to motivate undergraduate students to enhance their overall leadership behaviors. As faculty and staff, continue to infuse this student leadership initiative, a pre-measure on leadership behavior can be collected to measure undergraduate student success beginning of their freshmen year, and again when they graduate. Using inventories such as the LPI, undergraduate students could benefit by receiving high quality leadership instruction through educational

programs and classroom curriculum that has the potential to broaden their leadership behaviors which also promotes opportunity to increase their personal growth, and enhance their academic career success (Bolt, 1996). Additionally the researcher recommends the study to determine if there is an association between specific high school organizations is specific leadership behaviors.

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The Impact of Livestock Exhibition on Youth Leadership Life Skill Development
Research Paper

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Abstract

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine the impact that livestock exhibition has on the leadership life skill development of youth. Findings of the study noted that livestock exhibitors identified 13 skills gained through livestock exhibition. Recommendations include utilizing this information to assess how livestock exhibition is marketed to participants especially in youth organizations such as FFA and 4-H.

Introduction

Livestock exhibition is an integral part of life for thousands of people across the United States. Youth participate in fairs, exhibitions and shows every year to show off their livestock projects and hard work. Agricultural youth organizations, like 4-H and FFA, incorporate livestock projects into their programming in the hopes of meeting their ultimate vision of positive youth development, providing youth with leadership life skills necessary to become successful adults.

Many studies have been conducted regarding youth leadership life skill development in organizations (Seevers & Dormody, 1994; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997; Boyd, Herring, & Briers, 1992). Studies conducted regarding youth leadership life skill development in organizations have cumulatively concluded that youth do develop leadership life skills through participation in agricultural youth organizations. However, little research has examined livestock exhibition outside the context of agricultural youth organizations, focusing solely on the development of youth leadership life skills on those who participate in livestock exhibition.

Literature Review/ Conceptual Framework

Youth Development Theories

Kohlberg's theory of moral development consists of three stages of moral principles used to assess individual's choices in moral conflict (Hayes, 1982). The first stage, preconventional, is when moral judgment is based on fear of punishment. Those in this stage do not consider the effects of their behavior on others, only discerning right from wrong based on the consequences to them. In the next stage, conventional, individuals desire conformity and approval, while maintaining a respect for authority. In the last stage, postconventional, individuals consider moral judgments based on a reflective view of society and begin the process of self-actualization.

It is only in this last stage that youth make decisions based on universal ethics and with the thought of all people in mind.

Adolescent youth are typically in a transition between conventional and postconventional stages because they are acquiring the ability to allow abstract thinking. The length of time this transition takes varies with each individual; however it could last years, leading to a time of conflict and uncertainty for those individuals (Slocum, 2004). Mueller (1989) states that adolescents can participate in leadership activities, providing opportunities for higher levels of thinking, making the transition a growth experience.

Youth or adolescence is the developmental stage that follows childhood. This stage varies in range from age nine to earlier twenties (Mueller, 1989). Two major transitions are occurring at this time in an individual's life: cognitive maturation of analytical skills as well as physical maturation (Mueller, 1989).

Erickson (1963) states that identity crisis is a stage of psychosocial adolescent development that occurs at the beginning of both cognitive and physical maturation. During this stage, adolescents search for connections between the familiar past and their present experiences, which results in an instability. A smooth transition can be obtained if the adolescent is equipped with the appropriate skills to handle the situation (Erickson, 1963). According to both Kohlberg and Erickson, adolescence is a time for self-introspection, where youth try to understand their place in society. Erickson also notes that youth join organizations to help develop their identities (Erickson, 1963).

Positive Youth Development

Youth are influenced by their environment and positive youth development gives them a way to be successful by allowing them to positively contribute to their family, out-of-school activities, neighborhood and communities (Lerner, 2007). When the strengths of youth are nurtured, they can develop life skills and apply the life skills to other positive contexts (Lerner, et al., 2008). According to Lerner (2007), the path way to positive youth development is the Five C's: competence, confidence, connection, character, and caring. If all five of these skills of youth development are met in an individual then a sixth C will develop in the youth's actions in the form of contribution (Lerner, 2007).

According to Lerner (2007), there are three ways to promote the Five C's of positive youth development within adolescents. First, youth must be given the opportunity to have sustained, positive interactions with adults. Next, youth need to be involved in structured activities that nurture the development of life skills. Lastly, youth need to have the opportunity to become leaders in their local communities.

The number of our nation's youth exhibiting at-risk behavior points to a lack of skill necessary for adulthood- including working with others, understanding self, communicating, making decisions, and leadership. These skills that are required by adults for everyday living are often called leadership life skills (Boyd, Herring & Briers, 1992). Leffert, Saito, Blyth, and Kroenke (1996) found the experiences young people have during early adolescence provide the foundation upon which they develop their personalities and life skills. The development of those

skills is said to allow youth to cope with their environment by making responsible decisions, having a better understanding of their values, and being better able to communicate and get along with others (Boyd, Herring, & Briers, 1992).

Youth Leadership Life Skill Development Related to Participation in Livestock Exhibition

There have been a limited number of studies related to youth leadership life skill development through livestock exhibition without utilizing 4-H or FFA populations. In one such study, Walker (2006) found that self-perceived leadership life skill development of National Junior Angus Association members was significantly high when compared to other studies (Boleman, 2003; Rusk, et al., 2003). Using the Youth Leadership Life Skill Development Scale by Seevers, Dormody, and Clason (1995), all National Junior Angus Association members surveyed showed at least a "moderate gain" of overall life skill acquisition. The life skills found to have the highest mean scores included "show a responsible attitude," "can set goals," and "can set priorities."

Purpose

There is strong evidence that 4-H and FFA promote leadership life skill development through the use of animal science projects and activities. However, little research has taken livestock exhibition outside the context of agricultural youth organizations, assessing the skill of those who participate in livestock exhibition, but are not a part of 4-H or FFA. The purposes of this research, as part of a larger study, was first, to determine the level of self-perceived leadership life skill development of livestock exhibitors and second, to determine if there is a difference in youth leadership life skill development between those youth who have participated in livestock exhibition and similarly aged youth who have not. In order to accomplish this, the following objectives were created:

1. *Describe the self-perceived youth leadership life skill development of livestock exhibitors using the Youth Leadership Life Skill Development Scale.*

2. *Compare the leadership life skill development level of livestock exhibitors to similarly aged youth who do not exhibit livestock.*

Methods

The population for this study consisted of youth, ages 16-21, who exhibited livestock in a Junior Show at the 2010 [STATE] State Fair. The [STATE] State Fair Livestock Office provided an exhibitor list for all Junior Shows for 2010. From this list, 201 exhibitors were found to meet the study's age requirements. Since the entire population was included in the study, selection was not considered to be a threat to the validity of the study (Radhakrishna, 2008). A control group was utilized, with youth of similar age comprised of students enrolled in introductory level Animal Science, and Agricultural Institute courses at [STATE] State University who do not exhibit livestock to compare to those youth who do. This comparison group will be referred to throughout the report as non-livestock participants. Mean ages for each sample group were

computed to ensure similarities between the two groups. The mean age for livestock exhibitors was 18.44 years, while the mean age for non-livestock participants was 18.02 years.

The research design of this survey research project is descriptive in nature. It uses an ex post facto design approach to gather the perception of leadership life skill development of livestock exhibitors at the 2010 [STATE] State Fair. Ex post facto research is used after the treatment has occurred, in this case the exhibition of livestock. In this case, the participants already have self-selected perceptions of their life skill development (Diem, 2002).

The instrument design was a two part survey. The first was demographic data including age, gender, place of residency and participation in youth organizations. The second was the Youth Leadership Life Skill Development Scale developed by Seevers, Dormody, and Clason (1995); and is an evaluation tool to measure youth leadership life skills in a variety of research applications. The Chronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the 30-item scale was .98. The questionnaire was assessed originally for face and content validity by a panel of seven (Seevers, Dormody, & Clason, 1995).

The dependent variable for the study was the level of leadership life skills development as determined by the YLLSDS. The scale developed by Seevers, et al. (1995) includes 30 indicators, reduced from the original 68 leadership indicators categorized by Miller (1976). Despite the cut in indicators, all seven of the original conceptual sub-domains developed by Miller (1976) are represented in the final scale (Seevers, Dormody, and Clason, 1995). The conceptual sub-domains in the scale are: communication skills, decision-making skills, skills in getting along with others, learning skills, management skills, skills in understanding self, and skills in working with groups. Each indicator on the scale used a four point sub-scale ranging from "no gain" to "a lot of gain." Summated scores could range from 0 to 90. The independent variable was type of livestock exhibition participation, livestock exhibition participant and non-livestock participant.

Data collection for the livestock exhibition participants was conducted at the 2010 [STATE] State Fair. Data collection was conducted throughout the course of the fair by the researcher. After consent was obtained, participants completed the survey instrument and then the surveys were collected by the researcher. Data collection for the non-livestock participants was conducted on-campus at [STATE] State University. Of 201 possible livestock exhibition participants, 139 surveys were obtained for a response rate of 69%. According to Gall, Borg, and Gall (1996), that if after appropriate follow up procedures have been carried out and a response rate of less than 80% was achieved, then a random sample of twenty non-respondents should be contacted. Twenty non-respondents, of the possible livestock participants were contacted for purposes of data collection. Statistical comparisons were then conducted between respondents and non-respondents. There was no statistically significant difference between respondents and non-respondents. Of 122 possible non-livestock participants, all 122 instruments were collected for a 100% response rate.

Data were analyzed utilizing the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Program 17.0 for Windows. Data were summarized using frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations. Independent t-tests were used to determine the differences, if any, of the YLLSDS scores between the livestock exhibitors and the non-livestock participants with significance of $p < .05$.

Findings

Demographic Profile of Participants

Four demographic questions were asked including: gender, age, residence, and participation in 4-H and FFA. Results are reported below for both the sample and control groups, for purposes of comparison and demonstration of equity.

Gender

The majority of the participants in the livestock exhibitor group were female, 60.9%. Males made up 39.1% of the livestock exhibitor's sample. The majority of the participants in the non-livestock group were also female, (76.2%) (Table 1).

Table 1

Gender of Study Participants

	Livestock Exhibitors		**Non-Livestock Participants**	
Gender	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Male	54	39.1	29	23.8
Female	84	60.9	93	76.2
Total	138	100.0	122	100.0

Age

Each participant was asked to provide their age at the time of the study. In the livestock exhibitor sample, the 17 year-old group had the highest percentage (21.7%) with the 18 year-old group close behind (21.0%). The least represented age was 21 years, with only 8% of exhibitors in that group (Table 2). Because of the comparative population chosen, no one in the non-livestock population was 16 years of age. Only one individual indicated their age as 17 years, while the majority of non-livestock participants (70.5%) were 18 years of age (Table 2). Because of the differences in populations and proposed comparisons the mean ages for each group were calculated. The mean age for the livestock exhibitor group was 18.02 years, while the non-livestock participants group was 18.44 (Table 3).

Table 2

Individual Age Group Frequencies and Percentages for Participants

	Livestock Exhibitors		Non-Livestock Participants	
Age	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
16	28	20.3	0	0
17	30	21.7	1	0.8
18	29	21.0	86	70.5
19	24	17.4	21	17.2
20	16	11.6	8	6.6

21	11	8.0	6	4.9
Total	138	100.0	122	100.0

Table 3

Mean Age and Standard Deviations of Research Participants

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Age			
Livestock Exhibitors	18.02	1.55	138
Non-Livestock Participants	18.44	0.83	122

Place of Residence

The selection of "farm" as place of residence had the majority of answers (66.7%) within the livestock exhibitor respondents. "Small Town" was the most popular answer (30.3%) within the non-livestock participants. The selection of "city" was the least indicated response in both populations with only 1.4% of livestock exhibitors and 11.5 % non-livestock participants selecting that answer (Table 4).

Table 4

Frequencies and Percentage for Place of Residence of Participants

	Livestock Exhibitors		Non-Livestock Exhibitors	
Place of Residence	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Farm	92	66.7	24	19.7
Rural/ Non-farm	21	15.2	18	14.8
Small Town	17	12.3	37	30.3
Suburb	5	3.6	29	23.8
City	2	1.4	14	11.5
Total	137	100.0	122	100.0

Research Objective 1: Describe the self-perceived youth leadership life skill development of livestock exhibitors at the fair using the Youth Leadership Life Skill Development Scale.

The Youth Leadership Life Skill Development Scale has possible scores 0-90. Scores are grouped into three categories: 0-30, low skill development; 31-60, moderate skill development; and 61-90 high skill development. The composite mean YLLSDS score of livestock exhibitors was M= 73.68 (Table 6). Youth Leadership Life Skill Development Scale scores in this study ranged from a low score of 35 to a maximum of 90.

The participants reported on leadership life skills as a result of their livestock exhibition. A total of 13 skills were indicated as having "a lot of gain" with a mean score greater than 2.50. The top three items identified were: "can set goals" (M= 2.77); "show a responsible attitude" (M= 2.76); and "can set priorities" (M= 2.67).

Table 5

Ratings of Individual Life Skills items (n=138)

Life Skills	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Can set goals	138	2.77	0.54
Show a responsible attitude	138	2.76	0.48
Can set priorities	138	2.67	0.54
Respect others	138	2.65	0.69
Can delegate responsibility	138	2.62	0.65
Get along with others	138	2.59	0.67
Use rational thinking	138	2.59	0.60
Have a friendly personality	138	2.59	0.71
Can solve problems	138	2.56	0.63
Have a positive self-concept	138	2.55	0.59
Have good manners	138	2.54	0.72
Can handle mistakes	138	2.53	0.63
Can be flexible	138	2.53	0.65
Can be tactful	138	2.49	0.68
Can clarify my values	138	2.48	0.71
Recognize the worth of others	138	2.48	0.64
Can use information to solve problems	138	2.46	0.67
Can listen effectively	138	2.45	0.64
Consider input from all group members	138	2.44	0.73
Can determine needs	138	2.43	0.64
Can be honest with others	138	2.40	0.81
Consider the needs of others	138	2.38	0.73
Am open to change	138	2.37	0.76
Create an atmosphere of acceptance	138	2.36	0.75
Can consider alternatives	138	2.33	0.74
Am open-minded	138	2.30	0.79
Can select alternatives	138	2.26	0.74
Trust other people	138	2.20	0.83
Can express feelings	138	2.06	0.96
Am sensitive to others	138	1.83	0.99

Note: Summated rating scale ranged from 0-3. 0=No Gain, 1= Slight Gain, 2= Moderate Gain, 3= A Lot of Gain

Research Objective 2: Compare the leadership life skill development level of all livestock exhibitors to similarly aged youth who do not exhibit livestock.

An independent t-test was used to determine if any differences existed between the YLLSDS scores of those who exhibit livestock compared to those who do not. Mean score for livestock exhibitors was 73.68 (SD= 13.14), while the mean YLLSDS score for non-livestock participants was 75.43 (SD= 10.75). The difference between the mean scores was found to not be statistically significant.

Table 6
Mean and Independent Samples t-test for YLLSDS by Livestock Exhibition Participation

	n	*M*	*SD*	*Df*	*t*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Livestock Exhibitors	138	73.68	13.14	255	1.15	0.25
Non-Livestock Participants	119	75.43	10.75			

Conclusions/ Implications

Demographics:

From the demographic data, comparisons between the livestock exhibitors and the non-livestock participants can be drawn. Age was similar for both groups where the livestock exhibitor's mean age was 18.02 years and for the non-livestock participants was 18.44 years of age. The majority of livestock exhibitors indicated their main place of residence as "farm" (66.7%). The non-livestock participants indicated "small town" as the majority (30.3%) for their place of residence, although the remaining answers had almost equal responses. The researchers would like to note that 37% of livestock exhibitors were over the age of 18. Eighteen years old or senior year of high school is the common cut-off age for participation in 4-H and FFA events. However, this research concludes that there is still interest to be involved in livestock exhibition past the age of 18. The researcher also concluded that most of the young people engaging in livestock exhibition are from rural areas, while most who are not participating in livestock exhibition are from small towns and more urban areas.

This data highlights opportunities for youth programs like 4-H and FFA. There is an opportunity for a mentoring program, whereby recent program alumni of 4-H and FFA can compete in a Senior Plus division of livestock exhibition and possibly coach a younger member. There is another opportunity in the form of a pool of potential members, those who live in areas that are not represented by these participants. As 4-H and FFA look to expand their membership, the question should become what opportunities can be provided to young people in "non-traditional" areas that will allow them to have some of the same kinds of life skill developing experiences that others have? There are several successful examples of types of programs that allow for an "agricultural" type experience in an urban setting, on which to pattern some targeted efforts here in [STATE]. Further, this could be extended to changes and opportunities in the ways in which organizations market programs and the educational strategies employed.

Research Objective 1:

The composite YLLSDS scores of livestock exhibitors at the 2010 [STATE] State Fair were reported as a "high level of development" according to the instrument's score.

According to Dormody et al. (1993), YLLSDS values from 31-60 may be determined as moderate development and scores ranging from 61-90 as high development. All livestock exhibitors participating in the study scored 35 or higher on the YLLSDS instrument. This study revealed higher YLLSDS mean scores from the livestock exhibitors (M= 73.68, SD= 13.14) than three similar studies. Walker (2006) used the YLLSDS instrument on National Junior Angus Association members and reported an overall mean score of M= 73.02. A study performed by Wingenbach and Kahler (1997) of Iowa FFA members using the YLLSDS instrument found an overall mean score of M= 62.65 while in comparison, a study by Dormody and Seevers (1994) reported YLLSDS scores from FFA members in a tri-state study (New Mexico, Arizona, and Colorado) with a M= 64.2.

Thirteen life skills were found to be gained through livestock exhibition in this study. The top three "can set goals," "show a responsible attitude," and "can set priorities" are similar to other studies conducted on livestock exhibition (Walker, 2006; Boleman, 2003). While these skills are important, they are expected because of the responsibility associated with livestock exhibition. A note of interest with regard to those skills identified as having high gain are those that influence communication including: respect others, get along with others, have a friendly personality and have good manners. It is of importance to note that along with responsibility and independence skills, communication skills are also perceived to be developed through livestock exhibition, differing from previous research.

Previous studies, (Mullins & Weeks, 2003; Bass & Yammarino, 1989), have concluded that in most surveys, leaders tend to give themselves inflated ratings in contrast to other's observations of their performance which may account for the high degree of perception of leadership life skill development. Another possible explanation for participant's responses could simply be the Hawthorne effect, where participants alter their behavior because they know they are being studied (Cook, 1962).

Research Objective 2:

Because there is no statistically significant difference in leadership life skill development between those who had participated in livestock exhibition and those who had not, it can be concluded that livestock exhibition is not a sole contributor to YLLSD. Those who had exhibited livestock had the same perceived level of development as those who did not.

Despite the results, there is something to be said for the number of young people still participating in livestock exhibition. Further examination is needed to "flush out" the value being placed on these activities and individuals' motivation for participation. Many studies have found that participation in 4-H and FFA have improved leadership life skill development (Boleman,

2003; Boyd, 1991; Maas, et al, 2006; Rusk et al, 2003). Therefore, the connection needs to be further researched, delving into specific project and SAE areas.

It is also a possibility that youth who participate in extra-curricular activities will develop life skill, no matter which activities they chose to participate in. Similar to previous research (Eccles, Barber, Stone, and Hunt, 2003; Hansen, Larson and Dworkin, 2003), it may simply be the participation in activities that leads to life skill development, making it difficult to separate out what activities would contribute to certain life skills acquired.

Recommendations for Practice

- Breed associations, county extension agents, and agriculture teachers should consider recruitment strategies and opportunities for growth in their present livestock program to enable more youth to develop leadership life skills through livestock exhibition. There are lots of avenues in which youth can develop life skills; livestock exhibition is a possible avenue for this acquisition providing an opportunity for those with an interest in agriculture.

- From the demographic data, there seems to be a constant interest in livestock exhibition in all age groups, even those above 18 years of age. Because 4-H and FFA programs typically only extend to 18 years of age or senior year, there is an opportunity to create a "Senior-Plus" Division of livestock exhibition at other shows to accommodate interest in the activity, further developing life skills in youth.

- 4-H and FFA should evaluate their livestock programs to make sure the ultimate goal of life skill development is happening and is highlighted in marketing and promotional materials to encourage wider support of, and participation in, the local program. More in-depth analysis on the perception of leadership life skill development through livestock exhibition should be conducted.

Recommendations for Further Research

- Further research should be conducted on what particular leadership life skills are developed through livestock exhibition. This may lead to the determination of what combination of youth organizations leads to optimum life skill acquisition.

- This study measured the YLLSD of all livestock exhibition. Several previous studies have been conducted on specific species such as beef; however, not all species have been studied. The gaps in the research of livestock exhibition and YLLSD need to be filled.

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In Order to Form a More Perfect Union:
A proposed leadership analysis of elected officials

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Abstract

This paper proposes an interpersonal leadership study of elected officials. Particularly, it is proposed that sources of work motivation and political skills of elected officials be examined and compared to political ideology. By examining sources of motivation and political skill of elected officials, leadership scholars are more likely able to establish leadership development programs that specifically target the needs of elected officials. In addition, this research will provide greater insight in the distinct leadership nuances that may exist within elected officials. The extant literature is examined and propositions for future research are discussed.

Introduction

Levels of civic engagement in government have been well documented since World War II. Such participation in politics can fluctuate during times of hardship or conflict. Bartels (2003) asserted that level of engagement varied by social class, with more affluent having their political views represented more frequently by elected representatives. Brehm and Rahn (1997) established a troubling link between civic engagement (public participation in government) and civic spirit (trust in other people). According to Brehm and Rahn's study, between the periods of 1960 and 2002, civic spirit plummeted from 58% all the way to 37%, and as a result almost all other forms of civic engagement had fallen also (Brehm and Rahn, 1997). Uslaner and Brown (2005) submitted that the only ways to grow civic engagement is to decrease social inequalities and increase levels of trust.

This decline in trust was also reflected in the public sector. In March, 2001, a *Los Angeles Times* survey found that only 29% of the public trusted the government in Washington D.C. (Chanely, 2002). This was the last government trust poll conducted before September 11, 2001 (Chanely, 2002). Prior to September 11th, trust levels had fallen consistently below 40% for over fifteen years, with the low point coming in 1995 (21%). This indicates a persistent disdain on the part of the American people towards their elected representatives and clearly shows a problem in much need of attention.

The benchmark measure of elected official performance is job approval ratings, which are obtained through public polling. Public polling has become a common practice in American democracy, measuring factors such as job approval, electability, policy popularity, and many others. Public opinion can be swayed by many factors including political ideology, impact of policies, or job approval. Hansen (1999) found that despite controlling for several other factors

impacting job approval or disapproval of the governor of California, there was still a strong negative correlation between statewide unemployment and job performance ratings. This finding is a modest example of how public opinion can be influenced by many extraneous factors and that elected officials can quickly find themselves in an unpleasant situation with their constituents if trust in the leader is low.

Now that the effects of a post-September 11 America have somewhat faded, the public's trust in their elected officials has also receded back to normal levels. Given the public backlash over the healthcare debate and government spending, it might be fair to assume that trust levels have dipped below pre-September 11 thresholds. With Americans showing elevated interest in their government and its policies, the time has come to start taking a closer look at the people who occupy our public offices at the federal, state, and local levels.

This paper proposes an examination of elected officials at the interpersonal level of leadership by evaluating dominant source of work motivation and dominant political skill. The focus of study on both constructs has mostly been within private organizations. However, with the decline of trust in public officials and government in general, an examination of the interpersonal leadership capacity of those who serve in the public sector deserves the attention of leadership scholars. Within the public arena, leaders are still responsible for the day-to-day management of other employees and for providing vision for a group. Recently, extra importance has been placed on increasing the efficiency of government due to spending cuts and providing a balanced budget, subsequently leading to new strains on elected officials as leaders. This paper will outline the extant literature on political ideology, work motivation, and political skill and will provide a methodology by which to determine the dominant source of work motivation and dominant political skills used by elected officials. Potential implications and conclusions from this research will also be discussed later in the manuscript.

Literature Review

Political Ideology

Political ideology can be classified in many different ways. Traditionally we have categorized ourselves as red or blue, left or right, liberal or conservative, democrat or republican. Janoff-Bulman (2009) states that any of these labels can provide citizens with group identity, moral satisfaction, and a sense of superiority for their particular side. Although positions on specific policies have been altered throughout history, today we are able to identify the ideological fundamentals for each stance and how those positions impact policy decisions.

Janoff-Bulman (2009) provides an assessment of the core foundations of political liberalism and political conservatism in the following paragraphs and in table 1 below. The root of liberalism and conservatism can be found in avoidance-approach motivation. Conservatism relies on inhibition to prevent negative social outcomes, whereas liberalism is keen on positive social outcomes and therefore uses activation as a means of regulation. In the most basic form, conservatives protect, and liberals provide.

Table 1. *Differences Between Political Liberalism and Conservatism. (Janoff-Bulman, 2009)*

	Liberalism (provide)	Conservatism (protect)
Basic Motivation Regulatory Approach Action Tendency	**Approach** Positive (societal gains) Activation	**Avoidance** Negative (societal threats) Inhibition
Social Regulation Regulation Domain Mode Autonomy Domain (no social regulation)	**Social justice** Social goods, economics Intervention (activation) Lifestyles, personal behaviors	**Social order** Lifestyles, personal behaviors Restraint (inhibition) Social goods, economics
Group Definition Focus Membership	**Interdependence** Intragroup variability Inclusive	**Common social identity** Intergroup boundaries Restrictive

In regards to social regulation, conservatives prize stability, norm adherence, toughness and authority. This conflicts with liberals, who cherish fairness, communal sharing, generosity. Conservatism socially regulates through the prohibition of behaviors through law and normative expectations. These would normally focus on lifestyles and behaviors. Liberalism, on the other hand, regulates through government interventions that redistribute societal outcomes and provide for the common good. This is accomplished through toying with economics and social goods. These central differences between liberalism and conservatism can be found in many distinct social and economic policy examples.

Liberals and conservatives both seek intragroup homogeneity, although the two types of homogeneity are wholly different. Much like their method of social regulation, conservative membership consists of following group norms and adherence to convention. Liberals resort to the minimization of social differences in terms of goods and outcomes. Simply stated, conservatives tend to concentrate on differences between groups, compared to liberals who emphasize variability within a group.

Differences in political ideology have blurred in recent years and have taken different forms. Political ideologies are less concrete and have become slightly more issue-area specific. The "Blue Dog Democrats" in Congress represented faction of representatives that disagreed with the bulk of the Democratic Party on their fiscal policy. Terms like "economic conservative" or "social liberal" have arisen, and a popular political ideology has become "independent" or "moderate." Although these terms and phrases may be applicable to today's political leaders, this study will still rely on a liberalism-conservatism scale to determine the political ideologies of the sample group.

Work Motivation

Multiple schools of thought surrounding work motivation have emerged in the last fifty years. Such schools include developmental (Kegan, 1982), need-based (Maslow, 1954), intrinsic (Deci, 1975), self-concept based (Brief and Aldag, 1981), social identity (Ashford and Mael, 1989), and value-based (Etzioni, 1961). Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl (1999) set out to form a metatheory of work motivation based on extant research. Their findings will be discussed later.

Steers and Porter (1991) defined work motivation as "the process by which behavior is energized, directed, and sustained in organizational settings." Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl (1999) were able to identify the factors driving these processes, and appropriately labeled them as sources of motivation. These three motivation sources formed the backbone by which work motivation is based today.

Early research (deCharmes, 1968; Deci, 1975; Katz and Kahn, 1978; and Etzioni, 1975) lead to the formation of three core sources of motivation; intrinsic process motivation, motivation based on goal internalization, and extrinsic or instrumental motivation. Intrinsic process motivation takes place when an individual feels rewarded simply by performing the task. Goal internalization focuses on behaviors constructed by an individual's personal values system. Finally, instrumental motivation refers to motivation by way of outside rewards.

In addition to reviewing past research on work motivation, Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl also appraised existing research on self-theories. This was done because self-theories had been proposed as a way to explain variation and inconsistency in work behavior. Theories investigated include; social identity theory (Stryker, 1980; self-presentation theory (Beach and Mitchell, 1990; and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1982). The root of these theories is centered on the fundamental human need to maintain or enhance one's self-concept (Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl, 1999). Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl (1999) advance their own multidimensional model of self-concept. This model is based on traits (repeated behavior patterns), competencies (skills, abilities, talents, and knowledge they possess), and values (concepts and beliefs about desirable end states or behaviors).

In addition to one's self-concept being based on traits, competencies and values, it is also based on three interrelated self-perceptions: the perceived self, the ideal self, and a set of social identities (Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl, 1999). The perceived self refers to the views one holds regarding their traits, competencies, and values. The ideal self combines an individual's perceived self and the traits, competencies, and values one would like to hold. Finally, social identities describe self-categorization into social groups.

These internal and external self-concepts form the basis of motivation in the workplace. Together, they led to the formulation of the five sources of motivation. Barbuto and Scholl (1999) confirmed the findings of Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl when the Motivation Sources Inventory (MSI) was developed. Below are the five sources of work motivation as discovered by Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl (1999) and verified by Barbuto and Scholl (1998).

- Intrinsic process motivation takes place when an individual engages in behaviors for pleasure. The work itself becomes incentive for workers as they feel the desire simply to enjoy what they are doing. An example of this item would be "I only like to do things that are fun."
- Instrumental motivation represents the classic view of extrinsic motivation. Individuals employing this source of work motivation rely on rewards, pay, and/or promotions to fuel their workplace activities. An example of this item would be "I would work harder if I knew my effort would lead to higher pay."
- Self-concept external motivation occurs when an employee seeks reinforcement of traits competencies, and values through external means. Such methods drive the person to

gain acceptance or status within a certain group. An example of this item would be "It is important that others approve of my behavior."

- Self-concept internal motivation drives an employee to satisfy their own image of ideal self. Individuals seek to reaffirm established standards for personal behavior in order to achieve personal satisfaction. An example of this item would be "Decisions I make reflect the high standards I have set for myself."
- Goal internalization motivation describes a situation where one's attitudes and behaviors are equivalent to their personal value systems. An example of this item would be "I would not work for a company if I did not agree with its mission."

Political Skill

Organizations have been found to be inherently political in nature, where factors such as social astuteness, positioning, and savvy all play important roles (Mintzberg, 1985). Pfeffer (1981) was the first to suggest that political skill was a requirement for success, which led to the brief proliferation of political skills research in the 1980s. With the introduction of the Political Skills Inventory (PSI) in 2005, Ferris et al rekindled the fire for organizational politics research.

Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwater, Douglas, and Ammeter (2004) defined political skill as "the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives." These individuals are able to combine social astuteness with the capacity to adjust their behavior to different and changing situational demands in a manner that appears to be sincere, inspires support and trust, and effectively influences and controls the responses of others (Ferris et al, 2005).

Politically skilled individuals project themselves as personally secure and self-confident, which explains why others are so attracted to them (Ferris et al, 2005). Despite high levels of self-confidence, an aura of arrogance remains absent from such individuals. Ferris et al (2005) also stated that politically skilled individuals not only know exactly what to do in workplace social situations, but they do so in a way that maintains sincerity while hiding secondary motives.

Douglas and Ammeter (2004) asserted that engaging in political behaviors is commonly perceived as negative, unproductive and self-serving. This misconception of political behaviors was dispelled by Moss (2006) who found that such behaviors could have positive organizational impacts. Kolodinsky (2003); Fedor, Maslyn, Farmer, and Bettenhausen (2003); and Ahearn et al. (2004) all reported positive outcomes stemming from the use of political skills by leaders. These findings reinforce Pfeffer's statement that political skills are a requirement for success.

Ferris et al (2005) created four primary dimensions by which to base their political skills inventory. These dimensions were selected based on a review of extant organizational politics literature. Descriptions for each dimension, according to Ferris et al (2005), can be found below.

- Social astuteness is the ability to closely observe others and be aware of diverse social situations. These individuals understand social interactions and are able to interpret their behavior. Furthermore, they have high self-awareness and strong judgment powers. A sample statement for social astuteness would be "I am paying close attention to people's facial expressions."

- Interpersonal influence applies to individuals who are able to elicit specific responses from others by changing their behavior to adapt to the situation. This style of interaction is both subtle, yet powerful. A sample statement for this scale would be "It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people."
- Networking ability pertains to one's ability to develop, maintain, and exploit diverse networks of people. Individuals who rate higher with this particular skill are able to position themselves to create and take advantage of opportunities. Networking ability is measured through a statement such as "At work, I know a lot of important people and am well connected."
- Apparent sincerity references the ability to convey high levels of integrity, authenticity, sincerity, and genuineness. Together, along with the other dimensions, this political skill continues to focus on the perceived intentions of the actor through the manipulation of his or her behavior. A sample statement for apparent sincerity would be "I try to show genuine interest in other people."

These four dimensions are assumed to correlate, all the while remaining distinct constructs.

Methods

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to identify the dominant source of workplace motivation and dominant political skill of elected officials in the southeastern region of the United States. In addition, this study will examine the potential relationship between an elected official's political ideology and their dominant source of workplace motivation and dominant political skill. Furthermore, this study will identify any relationship between whether elected officials classify themselves as a rural resident or an urban resident and their dominant source of workplace motivation and dominant political skill.

Participants

A list of county commissioners for all counties in the state of Florida will be obtained from the Florida Association of Counties. In order to increase sample size and variability amongst respondents, all commissioners on the list will be surveyed. Demographic information for the study participants will be obtained through the survey and is therefore unavailable at this stage of the process.

Procedure

The Motivation Sources Inventory (MSI) and Political Skills Inventory (PSI) will be converted to electronic formats through the use of Qualtrics, an online survey development tool. The link to the survey will be distributed via email. Dillman's Model of Web Survey Implementation (Dillman, Smyth, and Christian, 2009) will be consulted to plan contact with the sample. Respondents will have a total of thirty days to complete and return the survey and will be contacted once before the survey is distributed and three times after it has become available. The

survey will be distributed in the summer of 2011 in order to prevent potential conflict with any potential re-election campaigns in November. Survey distribution in 2011 is also vital because of the low turnover rates within county offices due to the absence of sizeable general election.

Measures

The Motivation Sources Inventory, as developed by Barbuto and Scholl in 1998, will measure a participant's dominant source of workplace motivation. The MSI measures workplace motivation based on five scales; intrinsic process (the actual work becomes the incentive if the worker enjoys what they are doing), instrumental (workers believe certain behaviors will lead to certain extrinsic rewards such as pay, bonuses, or promotions), self-concept external (when a worker is seeking acceptance and/or status within a group), self-concept internal (the worker formulates standards, values, and traits from within and an image of their ideal self), and goal internalization (the worker projects attitudes and behaviors that align with established personal values systems). The MSI utilizes a six-point Likert scale with endpoints "Entirely Agree" and "Entirely Disagree."

The Political Skills Inventory, as constructed by Ferris et al (2005), will assess a participant's dominant political skill based on four divergent dimensions mentioned in previous sections. These dimensions include; social astuteness (ability to closely observe others and be aware of diverse social situations), interpersonal influence (ability to elicit specific responses from others through behavior alterations), networking ability (aptitude in developing, maintaining, and exploiting diverse social networks), and apparent sincerity (the ability to convey high levels of integrity, authenticity, and sincerity). The PSI is measured using a five-point Likert scale with endpoints "Strongly Agree" and "Strongly Disagree."

Control variables for this study will be age, sex, race, tenure in public office, tenure as a county commissioner, and political ideal identification. Political ideal identification will be measured using a five-point Likert Scale, with endpoints "Very Liberal" and Very Conservative." County commissioners will also be asked to classify the extent to which they identify as a rural resident or urban resident. This will be based on a five-point Likert Scale with the endpoints "Resident of very urban area" and "Resident of very rural area."

Recommendations/Implications

The purpose of this proposed research is to identify the dominant source of workplace motivation and dominant political skills of elected officials in the southeastern United States. In the last three years, Americans have begun to take a more active interest in the functions and decisions of government. This interest is symbolized by public participation in the healthcare debate, outcry over the removal of collective bargaining rights for public employees, and the recent rise of the Tea Party Movement and other local, regional, national and international events. Given the potential public impact of the decisions made by today's policymakers, leadership research will benefit by understanding how political leaders are different or similar from other leaders particularly with regard to dominant sources of workplace motivation and political skills.

Findings from this research can bring about new interest in leadership development in the public sector. By understanding public servants' dominant source of workplace motivation and dominant political skills, leadership educators can further understand the intricacies behind these unique leaders, and be better prepared to programs that improve leader efficacy.

Another prospect for research for this area would be to examine leadership outcomes such as effectiveness, satisfaction and extra effort and their relationship to work motivation and political skill. Of course this relationship would have to be examined between the leader (elected official) and the follower (public employees who work with the elected official). Barbuto and Burbach (2006) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership within a sample comprised of elected public officials and direct report staffers. They found several positive significant correlations between emotional intelligence sub-scales and leadership effectiveness sub-scales. Such research is necessary in order to further understand elected official behavior in the workplace.

Other research examining public officials work motivation and political skill and constituents' approval ratings may yield intriguing results, especially at the local level. At the local government level, constituents are able to interact with their elected leaders more easily and can therefore provide more accurate job approval ratings. However, meaningful results could likely be obtained at the state level as well. Maintaining this separation between followers and constituents is important because the two groups assess effectiveness in entirely different ways.

Research in all of the aforementioned areas could yield a leadership profile for public officials. Using this profile, we could determine differences between effective and ineffective public leaders and could then educate the voting population as to what leadership characteristics to look for. Charismatic leadership has been shown to influence voter habits in previous studies (Bligh and Kohles, 2009; and Bligh, Kohles, and Pillai, 2005); the same could potentially be said for interpersonal leadership traits. This could also spawn new research relating to the use of interpersonal leadership characteristics in campaign strategies.

Conclusions

Public interest in elected officials is likely to continue to increase in the coming years as local, national and international events require elected officials to act in the interest of their constituents. It is critical for leadership research to examine the nuances that impact the effectiveness of public leaders. A greater understanding of the leadership capacity of public officials will provide leadership educators with opportunities to develop more effective leadership development programs specifically for elected officials.

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Civil Civic Dialogue Across "Enemy" Lines

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Abstract

Grounded in a relational conception of leadership, this session will present concepts related to authentic dialogue necessary for a democracy, especially dialogue among people whose disagreements have escalated to "enemy" divisions. Session will also discuss and include a handout on how to implement a "civic discourse and opposing views" workshop.

INTRODUCTION

In Raleigh/Durham, North Carolina, two enemies met and over time became friends. Ann Atwater, a civil rights leader, and C. P. Ellis, a Ku Klux Klan leader, were asked to serve on a new committee, Save Our Schools (SOS), concerned with public school desegregation. As Ann Atwater recalls their early days on the committee, "I knew he was bitter about black folks. He just hated blacks. He started calling black folks 'nigger' and I started calling him 'cracker.' That's where we began" (Davidson, p. 4). Meeting as enemies, over time they came to know each other, to see their commonalities, and to become best friends.

Their story was initially told by Studs Terkel in two of his books, American Dreams: Lost and Found (1980) and Race: How Blacks and Whites Think & Feel About the American Obsession (1992). The story was expanded by Osha Gray Davidson into a book, Best of Enemies (1996) and is now told in a film, "An Unlikely Friendship" (info@filmmakers.com).

It is stories like these--and there are many others--as well as the dispiriting lack of civil dialogue in our political life that was the inspiration for development of the "Civic Discourse and Opposing Views" series at the University of Northern Iowa, sponsored by the American Democracy Project (ADP).

This presentation will provide an overview of the that series The presentation will include the purposes of this series, the potential outcomes and benefits, contrast of the differences between debate and dialogue, and description of a relational conception of leaders and leadership that provides the context for authentic dialogue (not all conceptions of leadership lead to such dialogue).

THE CIVIC DISCOURSE AND OPPOSING VIEWS SERIES

DESCRIPTION OF SERIES:

The series is an opportunity for students to experience both presenting and listening to a position with which they may disagree. For each event in the series, a controversial topic is selected and a two-part program is presented. For the first part, students are paired up and provided with talking points on the topic chosen. An example is the question, "Should the U.S. re-institute a draft?" The yes and no talking points provided to the audience were as follows:

Argument FOR the draft:

1. Patriotic. Duty to your country as a citizen.
2. Develops/matures our young.
3. A draft is more fair. A volunteer army ends up being unfair. Service should not just fall on people who need the money.

4. A draft avoids the perception of unfairness in service, that is, that the rich and politicians can avoid military service.
5. Regarding motivation, draftees did a successful job in World War I and World War II (even with a segregated army!).
6. We cannot maintain our standing in the world without more people in uniform so we need a draft. We already have a "backdoor" draft as everyone says.
7. (You may add arguments other than the ones listed above.)

Argument AGAINST the draft:

1. Unfair; people should not be forced to serve.
2. Disrupts career and family plans.
3. The military should have people who want to be there; would be more motivated.
4. There are other ways to serve your country. Military service should not be the only way to serve your country.
5. A draft would make it too easy for a president to declare war and invade other countries, which is already a huge problem.
6. (You may add arguments other than the ones listed above.).

After students are paired up, they are asked to decide who will take each position. They are then given a couple of minutes to "learn" their position. Students are encouraged to try to put themselves into the position and talk as if they really held that position. This is the most challenging part of this exercise, i.e., persuading students to really get into the position as if it was their own and not just read the points to each other.

Each student then uses the talking points to present from the perspective of one side; after a few minutes, they then switch sides and present the point of view of the other side.

After presenting both sides, a brief discussion follows. Discussion questions include "what was it like to argue a view with which you disagreed" and "what do you see as the benefits of understanding the point of view of someone with whom you may disagree." A handout also lists the benefits.

For the second part of the session, students listen to a panel that represents the different sides. The panel is also intended to model civil civic discourse for the students.

PURPOSES OF THIS SERIES:

A largely unrecognized ability of leaders is the capability to really listen to what others say, especially those with whom one has a fundamental disagreement. To improve the level of discourse and civility in public policy making in the U.S., people need to develop both the ability and the willingness to hear other views. It is our hope that participation in this series will

contribute to raising the level of civil discourse in our groups and our society. Specific purposes are the following:

- To help participants recognize the importance of understanding the perspectives of others.
- To help participants recognize the importance of understanding the views of those with whom they disagree.
- To provide an opportunity for participants to experience and practice both presenting and listening to the pro and con sides of an issue.
- To contribute to raising the level of civil discourse in our organizations and in our society's policy discussions.
- To counter the view that it is a sign of weakness to listen to someone with whom you disagree.

The last point is an issue that became apparent to me fairly recently. It is distressingly clear that not everyone views listening to opposing views as important; this is especially true for the idea of listening to those deemed to be "enemies." Some consider doing so to be a sign of "a wishy washy liberal;" some consider it to be a sign of weakness, others fear (not necessarily consciously) that if they listened to someone with whom they disagreed, it would mean they agree with that position or give it legitimacy. The Bush White House (2000-2008) had a different take on listening to one's "enemies." For them, listening was a reward for agreement, not a prelude to discussion that may lead to an agreement. For example, see discussion of Iran over the past few years. Awareness that not everyone values listening is an important consideration when engaging in civic discourse.

REASONS FOR LISTENING TO OPPOSING VIEWS:

It is important to listen to and understand the multiple perspectives that people have on an issue, especially the views of those with whom you think you may have major disagreements (it might turn out that you have much in common). Here are some of the reasons I believe this is important:

1. You may learn something you did not know.
2. When you understand the view someone holds, whether or not you agree, you may respect the person more and they may respect you more.
3. Because listening to and understanding each other tends to build respect, you thereby build trust and a basis for working together in the future.
4. You may increase civility and have less divisiveness in your group, business, etc.
5. In a conflict, you might find a way to settle the conflict.

6. Studies show that success in business is related to being able to understand the perspective of another person (McCall and Lombardo).
7. Being willing to listen and hear the views of others may lead to other opportunities because people will perceive you as fair and open-minded.
8. You may make a new friend or co-worker.
9. If you still maintain your own view as is, you will understand your position better and be able to better present your own position.

Those are some of the outcomes and benefits. In the series, we are aiming to help prepare students to engage in civil discourse, to be able to engage in dialogue rather bog down in debate and adversarial arguments.

CIVIL CIVIC DIALOGUE

Central to being able to engage in civil civic discourse is the willingness and ability to engage in dialogue rather than debate and adversarial interactions. This section outlines the differences between debate and dialogue and the conditions necessary for dialogue, that is, participants need to have both the willingness and the skills to engage in dialogue.

THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN DEBATE AND DIALOGUE:

A number of people make a distinction between debate and dialogue. Yankelovich in The Magic of Dialogue 1999) outlines the following contrasts (pp. 39-40:
:

Debate	Dialogue
Assuming that there is a right answer and you have it.	Assuming that many people have pieces of the answer and that they can craft a solution

Combative: participants attempt to prove the other side wrong.	Collaborative: participants work together toward common understanding.
About winning	About exploring common ground.
Listening to find flaws and make counterarguments.	Listening to understand, find meaning and agreement
Defending assumptions as truth	Revealing assumptions for reevaluation.
Critiquing the other side's position.	Reexamining all positions.
Defending one's own views against those of others	Admitting that others' thinking can improve on one's own

Searching for flaws and weaknesses in other positions	Searching for strengths and value in others' positions
Seeking a conclusion or vote that ratifies your position	Discovering new options, not seeking closure.

Because the sessions in the Civic Discourse and Opposing Views Series are sorely constrained by time, the series can be placed somewhere between debate and dialogue. One session is unlikely to move someone from using debate to engaging in dialogue. Dialogue requires a context that cannot be achieved in a session so brief and open to anyone. But discussion with the students does indicate that some of them are positively affected by the experience, that is, the experience leads them to be more willing to listening to views with which they may disagree.

WHAT ARE THE CONDITIONS FOR DIALOGUE?

The requirements and conditions for dialogue can be thought of in terms of both the willingness to engage in dialogue and the ability or skills to do so. One without the other will result in failure. The following are only some of the elements involved and, of course, these overlap and reinforce each other. Three of the conditions posited by Yankelovich in The Magic of Dialogue (1999) are incorporated into these lists (number 6 under "will" and numbers 5 and 6 under "skills").

THE WILL:

1. Willing to rethink a viewpoint that considers listening to the views of others as a sign of weakness and change to a viewpoint that considers it to be a sign of strength.
2. Willing to have humility and set aside the hubris and narcissism that leads one to think one has all the answers.

3. For leaders, realizing one cannot have all the answers and that one is risking not being seen as a leader if one does not present THE vision or answer for a group.
4. Respecting the views of others.
5. Realizing the benefits that can result from hearing what others have to say.
6. Willing to participate on an equal footing with other participants. (Yankelovich posits "equality and the absence of coercive influences" as a necessary condition for dialogue. p. 41)

THE SKILLS:

1. Ability to set aside prejudices and preformed views.
2. Ability to focus openly on what others are saying, resisting the urge to internally counter each statement.
3. Ability to paraphrase to ensure understanding.
4. Able to ask clarifying and welcoming questions.
5. Ability to listen empathetically. This is a second condition posited by Yankelovich

   He states that the *"The gift of empathy--the ability to think someone else's thoughts and feel someone else's feelings--is indispensable to dialogue."* p. 43

6. Ability to reflect upon one's own views and assumptions and bring one's assumptions into the open. Bringing assumptions into the open is the third condition discussed by Yankelovich.

Regarding the last skill, Yankelovich provides examples in his books that demonstrate the powerful effects of doing so on a group's progress. He also discusses the views of David Bohm (<u>On Dialogue</u>) on how assumptions can be so ingrained they become obstacles to dialogue:

> *"David Bohm emphasizes that our most ingrained thought patterns, operating at the tacit level, create many of the obstacles that isolate us from one another. Bohm stresses the link between people's assumptions and their sense of self. He is, in effect, saying, 'When your deepest-rooted assumptions about who you are and what you deem most important in life are attacked, you react as if you are being attacked personally'" (p. 45).*

Bohm's insight relates to the earlier discussion about why people avoid listening to views with which they disagree.

One of the best--and inspirational--grounding of what it means to engage in dialogue is Martin Buber's I and Thou (Kaufman 1970/Ich und Due, 1923). (Kaufman uses I-You but I am using I-Thou.) Buber posits two attitudes human beings may adopt toward the world: I-Thou, a relation of subject to subject, and I-It, a relation of subject to object. For Buber, dialogue within an I-Thou relationship is a way of being (Yankelovich, p. ?). The relationship of I-Thou, he states, "can only be spoken with one's whole being. . . ." (Kaufman, pp. 54 and 62). Thou "has no borders." When someone says Thou, "he stands in relation" (Kaufman, p. 55). Buber also discusses the difference between an I-Thou relationship and an I-It relationship bb contrasting "egos" and "persons" as follows:

> *"Egos appear by setting themselves apart from other egos."*
>
> *"Persons appear by entering into relation to other persons"* (Kaufman, p. 112).

The I-Thou relationship is then a relationship between persons, not egos. It is a relationship of mutuality and reciprocity.

Similar to Buber whom she has read, Nancy M. Dixon (1996) in Perspectives on Dialogue sees dialogue as "talk, a special kind of talk--that affirms the person-to-person relationship among discussants. . . . " and affirms "the legitimacy of others' perspectives" (p. 24). It is this affirmation of the perspective of others that is so central to dialogue.

Our Civil Dialogue series intends to help students with both the will and the skill of dialogue. One student, for example, did not want to argue for a military draft. She said there was no way she could do that because she was so opposed to any draft. I repeated the explanations of why we were doing this, and in the discussion afterward she was one of the students who said the exercise had changed her views; she still was not for the draft but could understand how people could hold other views. For such a student the will to engage in dialogue in the future had been enhanced

THE CONNECTION BETWEEN DIALOGUE AND LEADERSHIP

Leadership and dialogue are connected in at least two ways. One is that leaders differ in their willingness to engage in dialogue. Another is that the beliefs one holds about leaders and leadership affect one's view of the role of dialogue. This section discusses the changing conceptions of leaders and leadership and describes a relational view of leadership in which genuine dialogue is embedded. It is a view which sides with Buber's I-Thou relationship.

CHANGING CONCEPTION OF LEADERSHIP

Concepts of leaders and leadership have been changing over the last quarter century, impelled in part by at least three factors: (1) the work of James MacGregor Burns and his 1978 book, Leadership; (2) by the changing expectations of leaders and managers (for reasons too

long to be discussed here); and (3) the complexity of problems faced in organizations and society.

In the past and for many today yet, leaders have been assumed to be the ones with the vision and the answers. A still popular conception of leaders is that they "get people to do what they want done." Such conceptions do not call for much dialogue. In rethinking leaders and leadership, Burns in his 1978 book, Leadership, provided a view of leadership radically different from previous conceptions. Burns had a relational view of leaders and leadership. "Leaders" are individuals, and they do not do leadership. "Leadership" is a relational term; it is leaders and followers together who do leadership. The relationship is one of influence, not coercion, and leaders and followers engage in a shared effort. Indeed, at times leaders become followers and followers become leaders.

Heifetz in Leadership Without Easy Answers also provides a view of leadership quite different from past and popular conceptions of leadership. Most people see the role of the leader as providing the vision for a group. Heifetz argues that this is not always the case; some problems have technical fixes for which leaders have answers but other problems have no easy answers.

Heifetz illustrates his point well with his discussion of a conflict in Tacoma, Washington. Arsaco had been polluting for decades and the issue had become polarized in terms of jobs vs. the environment. William Ruckelhaus, head of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) was called in to resolve the problem. The company expected him to decide for them and the environmentalists expected the decision to favor them. What he did instead was to engage the entire community in dialogue and problem solving. People came to the early meetings with buttons saying "jobs" or "environment," but towards the end of the series of meetings, the buttons read "both."

As a leader, however, Ruckelhaus had to live with the fact that in the beginning everyone was mad at him, including his own staff at the Environmental Protection Agency. This is the risk of stepping out of traditional expectations of the leader's role, yet many of our problems require the kind of public dialogue initiated by Ruckelhaus.

Yankelovich's view of dialogue fits within a view of leadership that is a relational one. He points out that

> ". . . increasingly, we find ourselves facing problems that require more shared understanding with others than in the past. [paragraph] The need to reach better mutual understanding through dialogue is strong in all sectors of society, but in none more than the business community. . . . The traditional top-down style of leadership in a fortress-type company semi-isolated from others is increasingly out of vogue. it is being replaced by what I have come to think of as "relational leadership," where the defining task of leaders

is developing webs of relationships with others rather than handing down visions, strategies, and plans as if they were commandments from the mountaintop"(p. 12).

LEADERSHIP AS FRIENDSHIP: A RELATIONAL VIEW OF LEADERSHIP:

(Note well: When I used the term friendship, I am using it as a metaphor. I am not talking about being friends with people in your work world or in a leadership relationship.)

My own rethinking of leadership some years ago, inspired by Burns (1978), led me to conceive of a relational view of leadership through the metaphor of friendship. In this view, leadership is not a trait of an individual but a relationship among all involved. As such, it is inherently participatory. Leadership is not simply leaders doing leadership as in the heroic model or the John Wayne type of leadership. Leaders and followers do leadership together, as

mentioned earlier. The relationship of leaders and followers is not one of general-troop, parent-child, or manager-subordinate, but of friend to friend engaged in genuine dialogue.

As you may have noted, this is also a non-positional view of leadership. People do not need a formal position to exercise leadership. My conception of leaders and leadership have been discussed in more detail in journal articles (CITATIONS OMITTED), but I will highlight three aspects here.

1. The Realm of the Leadership Relationship:

My view of leadership takes the realm of the leader-follower relationship further than most other scholars and practitioners of leadership. The relationship is not only among leaders and followers but also, I argue, among nonfollowers and even so-called enemies (again, another paper). Hence, the quote by Moshe Dayan (Israeli general & politician 1915-1981) at the beginning of this paper: "If you want to make peace, you don't talk to your friends. You talk to your enemies."

Since metaphors structure both perception and action, conceptualizing leadership as friendship provides a stance toward/with the world that can contribute to shaping new thinking and actions. As a relational view of leadership, the friendship stance is grounded in perceptions of connection and inter-dependence from which emerge a sense of respect and responsibility for the welfare of self and others. Such leaders seek to understand the views and needs of others, refuse to define others as enemies, and are open to the potential mutuality of the parties involved in any situation. They are inclusive in their definition of "the other." This conceptualization of leadership extends the responsibilities of leadership beyond one's own group. The friendship metaphor asks leaders to assume and affirm the best in human beings, whether as followers, potential followers, and even those who are viewed as "enemies." (These qualities are described in more detail in an earlier publication of mine.)

2. Nature of Respect for Others:

Grounded in a perception of interdependence and connection, the characteristic most fundamental to a friendship metaphor is that of basic respect for others, respect even for those with whom one has fundamental disagreements. Friedman (1993) discusses two kinds of respect that friendships seem to exhibit. One is a respect based on admiration of a person because of specific worthwhile qualities. The second is a respect for persons as moral equals. According to Friedman, this second type of respect is a "principle about the inherent moral worth of persons" (p. 193). Such respect is ". . . owed to all persons, regardless whether or not we like them or think well of them. It has nothing to do with individual merit or moral qualities" (p. 193).

It is Friedman's second notion of respect that forms the basis for the type of friendship proposed in my concept of leadership as friendship. This respect places a value on others that is based on a common humanity, and is not dependent on status, position, sameness of views and nationality, or potential rewards. This conception calls on leaders to recognize the humanity of everyone and treat everyone with respect, not only one's followers but even those whom a leader might traditionally define as enemies.

3. Dialogue and Listening Central to Leadership:

A relational view of leadership requires the kind of dialogue discussed in this paper. Part of respecting others, especially for leaders, is being motivated to listen in order to understand people's perspectives and needs. Decisions need to take into account the actual, not assumed, views and needs of all involved.[5] Only by understanding reality from the frameworks, views, and needs of the people involved can leaders fully comprehend the problem at hand and the consequences of their actions or inactions on all stakeholders in any particular situation. Listening to others may lead also to identification of commonalities that were previously hidden and therefore result in a solution to what seemed to be an intractable problem. Common Ground, an organization of pro-life and pro-choice people is a good example as are the Ann Atwater-C. P. Ellis story and the Tacoma, Washington, story discussed above.

In addition, listening--and affirming the perspectives of others as Dixon discusses--can have powerful effects on the person to whom a leader is listening. This is point that needs more attention. **Brenda Euland** (1992) in a remarkable essay describes what happens when people feel heard: "When we are listened to, it creates us, makes us unfold and expand. Ideas actually begin to grow within us and come to life" (p. 104). She believes a creative fountain "is in us all" and that "it is this little creative fountain inside us that begins to spring and cast up new thoughts and unexpected laughter and wisdom" (p. 105). The effects of listening can be powerful for leaders who seek to bring out the best in others as well as empower them.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Civility, including civil civic discourse, is an issue for our organizations and our nation as a democracy. It is distressingly clear that not everyone values listening and according respect to the views of people with whom they may disagree, especially to those deemed "enemies." But there are other voices, even on the national scene. Former Secretary of State James Baker, Co-Chair of the bipartisan body regarding Iraq policy, explained (Oct. 2006): "I believe in talking to your enemies. I don't think you restrict your conversation to your friends. In my view, it's not appeasement to talk with your enemies" (Pinkerton, Dec. 4, 2006). James Pinkerton (2006), Newsday columnist and former Reagan official, supports Baker (he is the source of the Baker quote just cited) in a column titled, "Talking to bad people can be a good idea." My favorite is Moshe Dayan, former Israeli general and politician: "If you want to make peace, you don't talk to your friends, you talk to your enemies." Leaders, take note.

The Civic Discourse and Opposing Views project is intended as one small contribution to developing the "will" and "skills" of dialogue, and the civility needed for effective functioning and survival of our organizations and our democracy.

OMITTED REFERENCES WHICH INCLUDED MINE

LQ^3 Model: Unlocking Unbiased Leader Decision-Making

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Abstract

Three forms of leader intelligence (LQ^3) influencing a leader's decision-making ability are emotional (EQ), change (CQ), and cultural (CQ). An *unbiased decision-making model (LQ^3)* will demonstrate how awareness of the function and inter-relationship among these forms of leader intelligence can create a competitive advantage for leaders and their organizations.

Introduction

A new global economy has heightened the demands placed on leaders. Leaders are challenged to react to change faster (Wieand, Birchfield, & Johnson, 2008), making decisions that will influence the long-term direction of their organizations, and the livelihood of their stakeholders (Finkelstein, Whitehead, & Campbell, 2009). Because quality decision-making is paramount for success, a clearer understanding of the leader decision-making process may positively influence outcomes.

Bossidy and Charan (2002) saw decisiveness as integral to good decision-making, believing the most effective leaders could set aside emotions and make difficult decisions. Drucker (1966) stated that effective leaders made decisions systematically, using a defined process to understand the stressors of decision-making and consider each influence when making a decision. This systems approach to decision-making supports the notion that effective decision-making does not happen in a vacuum, but rather is the result of an integrated network of stressors occurring internally and externally in the leader's environment.

Senge (2006), using a method developed in the 1960s at MIT called the Beer Game, argued most leaders were hindered in their decision-making by their own internal thinking process. The game was based upon the production and distribution of one brand of beer. Each of the three players, the retailer, wholesaler and marketing director, were challenged to maximize profit. Outcomes of the Beer Game provided validation of Senge's opinion, showing participants did not naturally think in systems, nor consider the influence of their decisions. As negative outcomes began to arise, the players reverted to past actions that had been successful rather than to apply logic and seek new solutions.

The literature is rich with data on three forms of leader intelligence: emotional (EQ), change (CQ), and cultural (CQ). The literature does not address, however, the potential links that exist among these forms of leader intelligence, and specifically how they, working in tandem, may influence a leader's decision-making ability. This knowledge gap has created an opportunity to research the potential links, and propose a new leadership model that may bridge

the knowledge gap and help leaders overcome bias in the decision-making process. Toward this end, an examination will be made of how internal and external systems, in the form of change, stimulate the leadership decision-making process, and how a leader's emotional, cultural, and change intelligence may affect the leader's ability to make a decision.

The literature review will focus on three areas of leader intelligence: (a) emotional intelligence, (b) cultural intelligence, and (c) change intelligence. A new model will then be proposed which is based on the literature findings, and grounded in multiple intelligence and systems theories. The model may assist leaders in reducing potential bias in the decision-making process.

Literature Review

Decision-Making

Decision-making influences every aspect of human life (Finkelstein et al., 2009). Drucker (1966) described decision-making in the simplest context as making a judgment. In the business world, how leaders make decisions may define success or failure. Understanding how and why people make decisions, in particular, from a leadership perspective, is an important construct. Decision-making studies have roots in the social sciences. The twentieth century is abundant with theories regarding influences on human behavior.

Attribution theory, causal reasoning theory (CRT), social cognitive theory (SCT), and game theory have all contributed to the critical focus of this paper, the reasoning process in leader decision-making. Attribution theory, first proposed by Heider (1958), is the act of attributing a particular cause to an individual's thinking and/or behavior. Weiner (1974) took the concept to another level, developing a theoretical framework for the social sciences. Causal reasoning theory relates to how leaders incorporate prior successes and failures into their decision-making process (McCormick & Martinko, 2004). Social cognitive theory seeks to tie together theories such as attribution and causal reasoning to explain how leaders process decisions using emotions and experiences. Game theory, created by 1920s mathematician John von Neumann (von Neumann, Morgenstern, Rubinstein, & Kuhn, 1944), added a unique flair to the decision-making arena, by suggesting leaders take emotions and irrationality out of the decision-making equation through a logical process. Each theory, although unique, shares common ground in the call for leaders to become cognizant of the internal decision-making process. Without this cognizance, perhaps leaders may face what Drucker (1966) described as "sloppy thinking" (p. 114).

Matzler, Bailom, and Mooradian (2007) described optimal decision-making as gut or intuition based, in which leaders primarily used instinct to compose decisions. Ind and Watt (2005) posed a similar argument from a brand marketing perspective, stating that creative judgment based on leader intuition could help organizations create value in the marketplace.

Chuang (2007) offered a different perspective based on positive and negative emotions. According to Chuang (2007), research showed a correlation between positive emotions and heightened decision-making, suggesting potential bias in the leader decision-making process. Heightened awareness of the role emotions play in the decision making process may aid leaders in managing their emotions to avoid bias in their decision-making. The common thread running through each of the preceding arguments is the call for leaders to develop their leader intelligence to enhance decision-making capabilities.

A Systems Perspective

Systems are used to describe the integrated connection evident in nearly every aspect of life (Meadows, 2008). Systems exist in many forms, from the simple single cell amoeba to the complex multi-hierarchal organization. Using a business perspective, Johnson, Kast, and Rosenzweig (1964) stated systems appeared within systems, creating a complex network of integration in which each system influenced another. Systems are believed to be evolutionary (Johnson et al., 1964; Meadows, 2008).

Systems' thinking has been studied as far back as the 1600s by scientists such as Newton, and, later, Darwin (Johnson et al., 1964). Whereas Newton's systems were grounded on order and stability, social systems are, by nature, unstable and unpredictable (Kiel & Elliott, 1996). Chaos theory is used to describe this social phenomenon. Cause and effect are often difficult to discern. As social scientists work toward gaining credibility for chaos theory, there has been an ongoing effort to identify patterns based upon nonlinear systems. Lorenz (1963), a mathematician and meteorologist credited as the founder of chaos theory, posited that miniscule actions could lead to major change. Lorenz coined the term "butterfly effect," saying the seemingly insignificant movement of a butterfly's wings could affect weather at a far distant location.

The ideology of systems thinking did not begin to take shape until the first half of the twentieth century when von Bertalanffy created general systems theory (GST) (Mulej et al., 2004). GST helped explain the idea of holism or the integrated nature of everything in the world influenced by World War I and World War II (Mulej, & et al., 2004). Since von Bertalanffy's work, systems' thinking has permeated academia and scholarly research, providing an explanation of life on earth.

von Bertalanffy's description of open systems will form the basis for the proposed LQ^3 model. According to Johnson et al. (1964), open systems mean an organism, simple or complex, "maintains a constant state while matter and energy which enter it keep changing" (p. 371). The latter suggests the influence change in external systems can have on the organization and its leadership, lending support for the proposed LQ3 model.

Bias

Cohen (2008) believed assumptions formed the basis for all decisions. These assumptions created bias in the leader decision-making process. Leader bias, a recipe for ineffectiveness and organizational disaster, is a learned trait leaders can correct (Thiederman,

2004). Solving the bias equation requires leaders to become cognizant of their personal belief system, including subconscious thoughts (Thiederman, 2004). Unless leaders understand what causes them to react and make decisions, bias may continue to exist, skewing the leader's perceptions and creating misguided decisions.

Krause (2010), using "the BP Gulf oil spill catastrophe" as an example, stated that "cognitive biases are responsible for all types of errors in judgment, risk assessment and decision-making" (p. 46). Cognitive bias suggests leaders will make assumptions based on experience, and culture exposure (Krause, 2010). These assumptions create a comfort space where leaders allow assumptions to dominate their decision-making, leading to a false sense of awareness.

Krause (2010) and Senge (2006) each used the boiled frog analogy to show the fallacies inherent in cognitive leadership behavior. Leaders, similar to the frog in the pot, will not react until the situation causing a decision places their organization in such peril they are forced to concede. Often the decision comes too late, and the leader and respective organization risk competitive advantage. Senge (2006) cited the United States automotive industry during the 1960s and the emergence of foreign competitors, such as Toyota, as a good example of leader decisions misguided by assumptions. Decisions made by the Big Three automotive leaders caused severe damage to their long-term viability by diminishing valued market-share in the North American markets (Senge, 2006).

Bandura's social cognitive theory helps explain human behavior, including the decision-making process (McCormick & Martinko, 2004). Social cognitions are used to describe the decision-making process as well as the stressors that influence the process (McCormick & Martinko, 2004). These stressors are both internal and external to the leader. Stressors such as competition, stakeholders, and even the ego of the leader may create pressure to change. Leaders may choose either a reactive or a proactive approach to managing these change forces.

Leader Intelligence

Leadership success depends on several factors, including the operating environment and leader intelligence. As a result of his work with both gifted and brain-damaged children, Gardner (1983) created the theory of multiple intelligence (MI) to explain the complexity of human thinking. Initially, Gardner identified seven types of intelligence: linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal. Gardner (2000) has since added naturalistic intelligence, and is considering a ninth – existential intelligence. Understanding how multiple leader intelligences work together may positively influence leader success in the organization (Wilson & Mujtaba, 2010).

Fiedler (1981) argued that leader knowledge and skills are important ingredients in leadership success. Shambaugh (2005) agreed, coining the term "integrated leader" (p.15). According to Shambaugh (2005), most leaders eliminate more than 50% of their leadership skills because they do not use integrated thinking when making a decision.

Integrated thinking suggests leaders should (a) look at their personal assumptions, (b) weigh their "integrated leadership quotient," and (c) not allow gender to play a role in the decision-making process (Shambaugh, 2005, p. 16). The "integrated leadership quotient" provides gender-based skills assessment for leaders (Shambaugh, 2005, p. 16). Although the Shambaugh (2005) argument focuses on reducing limitations created by allowing gender to play a role in leader decision-making, the model supports a call for leaders to develop their leadership intelligence, and become aware of their personal biases which may negatively influence the decision-making process.

Albrecht (2003) identified an organizational intelligence (OI) model integrating multiple forms of human intelligence, occurring in the organization. The model, points to learning that occurs consciously and unconsciously, suggesting that humans learn at more than one level (Stalinski, 2004). These "dimensions of competence," meant for organizational learning, are based on the human psyche, and show how harnessing together multiple intelligences may heighten the learning process (Stalinski, 2004, p. 56).

Gardner's (1983) original "seven domains of multiple intelligences" (Wilson & Mujtaba, 2010, p. 2) included the gray area humans possess that could not be explained easily with formal IQ tests (Conti, 2008), considered by many scholars as the non-academic intelligences (Kumar, Rose, & Subramaniam, 2008). These ideas posited by Gardner (1983) spawned into several more dimensions of intelligence including emotional and cultural because of later work by Goleman (1995) and Albrecht (2006, 2007).

Emotional Intelligence

Leader emotional intelligence (EI) is found in all corners of academia and research. The literature richness and the intrigue of EI studies date to Aristotle and his work, the *Nicomachean Ethics*, in which Aristotle linked emotions and intelligence (Aristotle, trans. 1908). In *On Dreams*, Aristotle used as an example of the transmission of heat, wherein transference occurs to adjacent parts, culminating in a return to its origin (Aristotle, as translated by J.I. Beare). Cognitively, this can be understood. Emotions are generated by the actions as well, however, and remain even when we move on to another activity. Today the EI debates appear to center on a common theme; how EI influences a leader's performance in the organization, including the leader's decision-making process. A modern definition of EI is the leader's ability to become cognizant of his or her emotions and moods, including those of other stakeholders in the external environment (George, 2000). George (2000) extended this definition by stating that EI may promote leadership effectiveness in areas such as decision-making and change management.

Scientific evidence shows a link between a person's emotions and moods and cognitive capabilities (Chuang, 2007); EI may positively or negatively influence the ability to make effective decisions (George, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Goleman, 1998). A lack of EI may help explain why some leaders, although highly intelligent, make flawed decisions that severely hinder the livelihood of their organization and its stakeholders (Goleman, 1995). The Socratic term "Know thyself" is an important axiom for all leaders seeking EI, because the term demystifies the complexity of EI, the ability of leaders to recognize and understand their own emotional state (Goleman, 1995). This insight lends credence to Drucker's (1999) statement about how assumptions equal reality. Humans create reality based on closely held beliefs and

assumptions, even though most people, including scholars, rarely deconstruct assumptions to determine validity (Drucker, 1999). This further supports the EI argument in the leadership equation.

Finkelstein et al. (2009) examined how leader decision-making may become flawed by leader experience. Research suggests a leader may unknowingly base a decision on the emotion created by an experience (Finkelstein et al., 2009). Finkelstein et al. (2009) described the phenomena as "unconsciously misled" (p. 38). Leader emotions may cloud judgment, and create bias in the decision-making process (Chuang, 2007).

Goleman (1998) identified five components of emotional intelligence: (a) self-awareness, (b) self-regulation, (c) motivation, (d) empathy, and (e) social skills. Self-awareness describes the leader becoming aware of his or her emotions and their influence on others (Goleman, 1998). Self-regulation points to a person's self-control over emotions, and motivation to accomplishing goals (Goleman, 1998). Empathy implies leaders need to understand the needs of others, and acquire the social skill necessary to creating and managing relationships (Goleman, 1998). Each component creates a call for leaders to understand their personal psyche and the makeup of their unconscious and conscious thought processes. Because each component influences the leader at various junctures in the leadership process, there appears to be a correlation between how the leader acts/reacts in the decision-making process, and how he/she manages emotions. This influence posits a systems argument.

Cultural Intelligence

Cultural intelligence studies became common in the late twentieth century, as academics and business leaders began to realize the importance and influence of culture on the organization. Leaders in the twenty first century face a unique group of challenges because of the new global economy; culture is at the center of these challenges. How leaders manage cultural differences, and more important, allow cultural biases into their decision-making process may determine the leader and organizations success. Learning to manage these global challenges requires leaders to create organizational cultures with heightened receptivity to change and new ideas.

Cheng (2007), challenged leaders to develop a higher level of thought about cultural acceptance in society. Basing her opinions on the 2007 Virginia Technology tragedy, where 33 people including the shooter, Seung-Hui Cho, were killed, Cheng posited greater cultural competency could have been the key to prevention, and stressed the importance of managing first impressions. Cultural, linguistic and social contexts are unique lenses that can aid leaders in sharpening their focus as they attempt to decode messages received from unfamiliar cultures.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) posited effective leaders should knock down walls and eliminate potential biases with the goal of creating a constantly evolving, sponge like, and open organizational culture. Shambaugh's (2005) integrated thinking approach provides support for Bennis and Nanus' argument, and stresses the importance of a leader recognizing his or her personal biases that may impair sound decision making and impede the development of new ideas and anticipation of future challenges. Kofman (2006) labeled this *ontological arrogance*, the belief that one's personal experiences are accurate reflections of reality, and supersede the

reality as seen by others. A quotation from the Talmud was used to reinforce this point: "We do not see things as they are. We see things as we are (p.97)." Rather, Kofman (2006), has suggested, leaders should practice *ontological humility*, respecting the views of others as valid and worthy of consideration. Cheng (2007) also used the term ontological humility in the context of dealing with cultural diversity.

Building upon the work by Bennis and Nanus (1985), Janssens and Brett (2006) proposed the Fusion Model of Global Team Collaboration to explain the highly integrated operating environment facing organizations in the twenty-first century. The model is based upon the concept of fusion cooking, in which chefs unleash their creativity by fusing together a diverse group of spices and flavors to create new dishes, such as using Italian spices in a Mexican dish. Applying the model to an organizational context, Janssens and Brett (2006) called for leaders to fuse their organizations culturally to take advantage of global opportunities and knowledge. Fusion thinking, although meant for group collaboration on a global scale, may also apply to leader decision-making. If leaders fuse or integrate their leader intelligence and adopt an open-minded perspective regarding the decision-making process, the result may be an increase in creativity, heightened awareness, and elimination of biases that could skew effective making.

Change Intelligence

Landale (2004) defined leadership for the twenty-first century as the ability of leaders to deliver and carry out organizational change. In her analysis of organizational success, Kanter (1984) described change masters as corporate visionaries who were able to create a new organizational culture within an established institution, one which was open and decentralized to allow for increased communication and increased access to resources. Effectively carrying out change requires the development of emotional and spiritual intelligences (Landale, 2004). Change intelligence, instigated by the onslaught of radical change evident in society during the late twentieth century, may be the latest addition to multiple intelligence studies. The new global economy coupled with extraordinary advances in technology, is forcing leaders to deal with change at a faster pace than ever before (Ferres & Connell, 2004). An understanding of why change happens, the implications of change for the organization, and the importance of aligning leadership thinking and visions may have a profound impact on an organization's success.

Effective organizational leaders are change agents (Arora, 2003). To become a change agent, leaders are challenged to learn about, not only themselves and their respective thought processes, but also about those individuals they influence (Arora, 2003). Unless leaders learn to let go of baggage created by learned assumptions and experiences, they may become incapable of enacting change in themselves and the organization (Arora, 2003).

Duck (2001) identified three areas leaders should focus to enact change: (a) strategy, (b) execution, and (c) sensitivity. Strategy implies development of a game plan showing the end result, and execution suggests strategy cannot be enacted without a solid plan of execution (Duck, 2001). Lastly, sensitivity, calls for leaders to perform an evaluation of self and their organization, both emotionally and behaviorally. Duck's (2001) vision is in alignment with a common theme running throughout this paper – the importance of successful leaders becoming in tune with their environments, including their inner selves

A New Model - LQ^3

The LQ^3 model (see Figure 1), using a systems perspective, builds on prior multiple intelligence research, to provide a roadmap explaining the leader decision-making process. LQ^3 represents a unique meshing of intelligence research by Fiedler (1981), Gardner (1983), Goleman (1995, 1998), and Shambaugh (2005) with social cognitive, decision-making, and systems theorists such as Heider (1958), Weiner (1974), Meadows (2008), and von Neumann et al. (1944). Using this foundation, the model postulates a new synthesis of the leader decision-making process, linking emotional, cultural, and change intelligences with internal and external systems, and change forces. Further, the model suggests the influence of leader bias in the decision-making process and how developing emotional, cultural, and change intelligences leaders may reduce bias, and enhance decision-making.

LQ^3 begins by showing how change stressors in the external environment influence the leader and his/her organization. These change stressors (indicated on the left side of figure 1) are generated by systems (represented by the red stars) and enter the leader's psyche, stimulating a decision-making process in which the leader is required to identify the best course of action. The model contains linkages between emotional, cultural, and change intelligence, which suggests a leader should consider all possible biases created by these intelligences. The model is used to demonstrate learning is continuous; as a leader makes unbiased decisions the leader enhances his/her leader intelligence creating a reinforcing feedback loop (indicated on the right side of figure 1). To make an effective decision and avoid negative influences on the part of the intelligences, leaders will be required to develop an understanding of themselves, including their emotional, cultural, and change intelligences, and constantly learn from their decisions. The model opens the door to future study by allowing researchers to visualize the intelligence linkages along with the influence of internal and external systems.

Assessing implementation of the LQ^3 model requires syncing the processes evident in the model with the leader psyche. A viable framework may be found using Bloom's Taxonomy. Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, and Krathwohl (1956) identified six areas of intellectual capability, each building on the other to suggest a cognitive learning process, and that learning becomes more complex with learner cognition. The areas include: (1) knowledge, (2) comprehension, (3) application, (4) analysis, (5) synthesis, and (6) evaluation (Bloom et al., 1956). The LQ^3 suggests a similar process in a leader decision-making context. Applying this foundation, a proposed template for assessing model implementation is offered in Appendix A. Educators may find the template suitable for case study evaluation in the classroom. Appendix B includes a list of well-known tested emotional and cultural intelligence assessments.

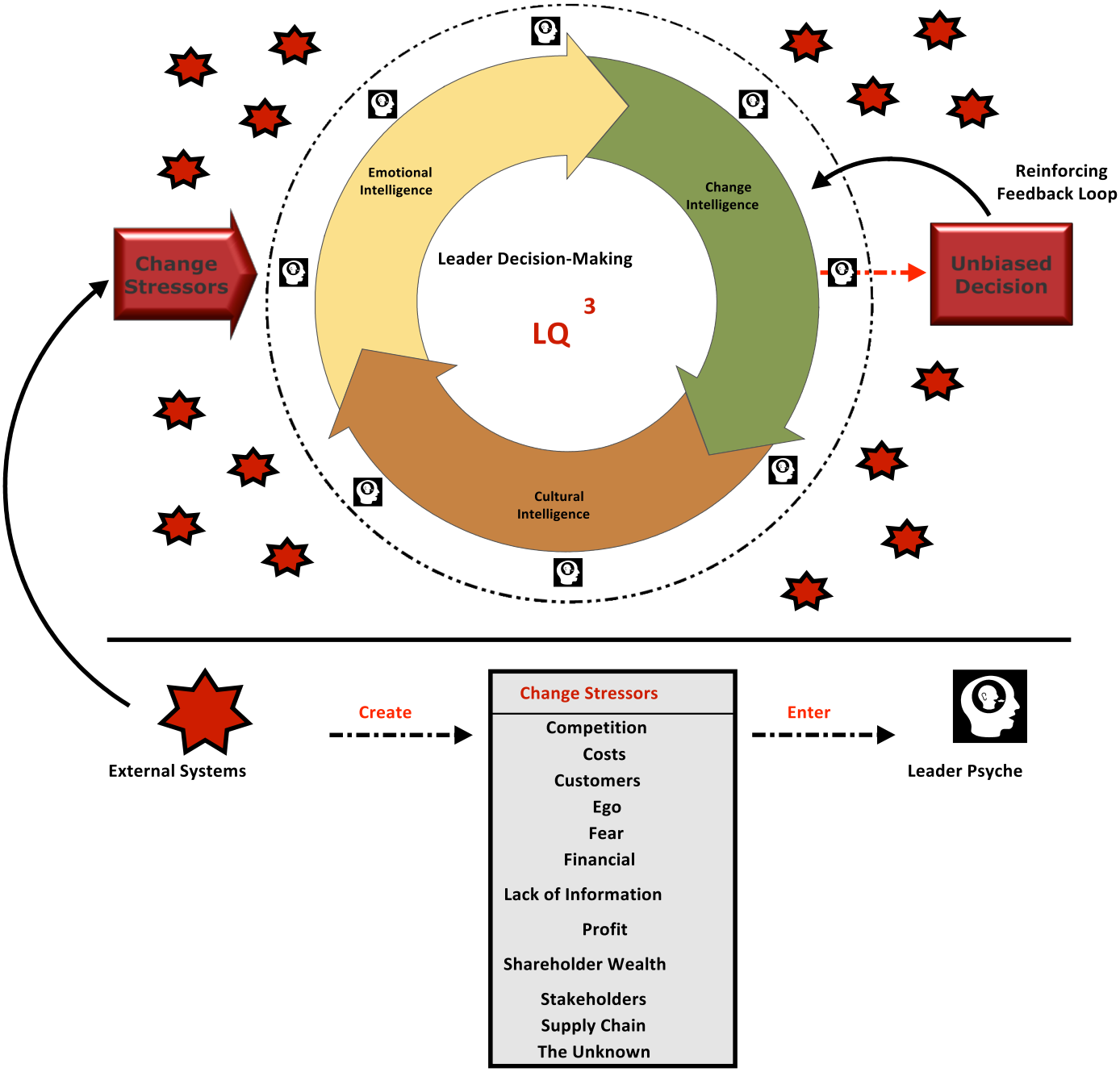

Figure 1. The LQ^3 Model

Conclusions

Blake and McCanse (1991) stated leaders use assumptions to make business decisions. These assumptions create a reality for leaders and become silent predators, controlling leader behavior behind the scenes (Blake & McCanse, 1991). James (1996) noted one's perspective might easily become distorted if assumptions are considered realities. According to Blake and McCanse (1991), leaders can, through increased awareness, recognize and change their assumptions, and, ultimately, their behavior.

The Blake and McCanse (1991) proposal supports the arguments made throughout this paper; the need for leaders to become in tune with their inner selves in order to positively influence their decision-making processes. Enhancing one's multiple intelligences, emotional, cultural, and change, each working as autonomous, but integrated systems, can positively influence behavior behind the psychic curtain of the human mind. Perhaps Socrates was right when he coined "know thyself," because clearly, removing bias from the leader decision-making process begins with the leader. The proposed LQ^3 model may be used by leaders to visually understand these linkages and cement a new path to effective, unbiased, decision-making.

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APPENDIX A. LQ^3 MODEL - CASE STUDY APPLICATION

Assessing Implementation of the LQ^3 Leader Decision-Making Model

Level of Learning	Max. Points	Earned Points	Comments
Identified change stressors	5		
Identified personal biases	5		
Identified three intelligences	5		
Summarized inter-relationships among intelligences	10		
Analyzed inter-relationships among intelligences	15		
Evaluated inter-relationships among intelligences	20		
Created new knowledge leading to an unbiased decision	40		
Total Score:	**100**		

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Mayer, J., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. (2002). *Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test: User's manual*. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems. The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) is an ability-based test designed to measure the four branches of the EI model of Mayer and Salovey. MSCEIT was developed from an intelligence-testing tradition formed by the emerging scientific understanding of emotions and their function and from the first published ability measure specifically intended to assess emotional intelligence, namely Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). MSCEIT consists of 141 items and takes 30-45 minutes to complete. MSCEIT provides 15 main scores: Total EI score, two Area scores, four Branch scores, and eight Task scores. In addition to these 15 scores, there are three Supplemental scores (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002).

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The Unique Leadership Needs of Minority Student Populations: Crafting a Leadership Identity

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Abstract

The purpose of this qualitative study was to determine how college-level minority student leaders make meaning of those leadership experiences. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 12 students. Major findings noted a strong personal motivation to participate in student leadership positions. Recommendations include further research on the impact of familial relationships on leadership development.

Introduction

After examining the high-profile leadership positions at [UNIVERSITY], most student leaders are predominately male and Caucasian. High-profile leadership positions at [UNIVERSITY] are defined as leadership roles in community service organizations, student government, Greek organizations, and college councils. Most minority student populations do not participate in high-profile leadership positions at the university, instead choosing to participate in organizations specifically for their particular religious or ethnic group. Minority student populations include ethnic minority students, lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) students, and non-Christian religious affiliated students.

Literature Review & Theoretical Frame

Literature reveals that low numbers of minority student populations, including ethnic minorities and LGBT students, participate in high-profile leadership roles at universities (Arminio et al, 2000). Most of the minority student populations participate in organizations that encase a concept of familiarity: those targeted towards their own race, sexual orientation, or religion. This study includes research about minority student leaders' perceptions about their role within the university and their peers' perceptions.

College environments provide a diversity of experiences for students that both trigger consideration of identity issues and suggest alternative resolutions for identity concerns (Waterman, 1983). Seniors in college have a stronger sense of personal identity compared to freshmen in college because they have successfully resolved their identity crises. Thus, it is during a student's college years that the greatest gains in identity formation occur due to their involvement in organizations and the relationships they form with others (Waterman, 1983).

Students have a need to build and maintain relationships during college, as well to belong and be satisfied at their university. According to Astin's (1984) student involvement theory, student involvement refers to the quantity and quality of the physical and psychological energy that

students invest in college. Involvement can exist in many forms such as, participation in extracurricular activities and interactions with faculty and other institutional personnel. Students involved in extracurricular activities, like Student Government for instance, allow students to be satisfied and to belong. Students are able to build friendships with other students, and the organization encourages frequent interactions with peers (Astin, 1984). Frequent interaction with faculty and staff is also strongly related to student satisfaction with college (Astin, 1984). Students that interact frequently with the faculty and or staff at their university are more likely to be satisfied with all aspects of their university experience. To increase student satisfaction, finding ways to encourage student involvement with the faculty and staff should be a priority at universities (Astin, 1984). Thus, the greater a student's involvement in college correlates to the greater the amount of student learning and personal development (Astin, 1984).

In Dugan and Komives' (2007) study about college students, research discovered that students who served in positional leadership roles at the university such as, an officer for a club or organization or the captain of an athletic team, developed their leadership skills. Students who were involved in campus clubs and organizations demonstrated significantly higher scores across all of the Social Change Model (SCM) values, which include consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, common purpose, collaboration, controversy with civility, citizenship and change (Dugan & Komives, 2007). Dugan and Komives' (2007) study concludes that college students should serve in leadership positions and attend leadership programs to aid in the development process and to promote identity development.

Using phenomenological interviewing, a study was conducted by Armino et al. (2000) to examine the experiences of ethnic minority student leaders at public universities. The study found that ethnic minority students view leadership at universities as a negative "label," which alienates them from their peers of the same racial group. The students felt that being considered a "leader" on a university campus meant being part of the "enemy, " no longer separated from the "oppressive system" and a part of the racial group (Armino et al, 2000). The ethnic minority students also felt serving in a leadership role included personal costs. The ethnic minority student leaders experienced losses "in privacy, interdependence, associations, and collateral relationships" (Armino et al, 2000). The study also reflected the difficulty many student leaders of color had in finding a role model on campus. Most of the ethnic minority students could not identify with faculty or on-campus staff as a role model; instead they alluded to a family member or friend of the same ethnic or racial group (Armino et al, 2000).

A study by Sutton and Kimbrough (2001) measured African American student involvement in organizations by using the Student Involvement and Leadership Scale. A total of 405 students completed and returned the surveys. The surveys indicated that African American students perceived themselves as leaders, even if they had not held an elected position on campus (Sutton & Kimbrough, 2001). Thus, the majority of African American students believe that leadership is demonstrated by providing service to others, not necessarily by holding an elected position at the university. The survey results also indicated that minority student organizations are the primary organizations for African American student involvement.

Researchers Jones, Castellanos, and Cole (2002) conducted four focus groups to study the student experience of ethnic minorities in a predominately Caucasian 4-year research institution.

Thirty five African American, Asian-Pacific American, Chicano/Latino, and Native American students were interviewed through the focus groups. The study found that students of ethnic minorities felt that segregation existed between their ethnic organization with both Caucasian students and other ethnic minority groups. Similar to the results of the Sutton and Kimbrough study, most of the students only participated in their ethnic group's student organization. For instance, only a few African American students reported being involved in non-ethnic-specific organizations, such as student government. Conversely, Chicano/Latino students emphasized the importance of participating as student leaders in the greater university and felt it was important to be active on campus (Jones et al, 2002). The highly involved student leaders, however, felt they were expected to represent and voice the opinions of their ethnic minority to other students involved at the university.

Using grounded theory methodology, a study was conducted by Renn (2007) about LGBT student leaders. LGBT-identified student leaders, were interviewed from three institutions in the Midwest about their leadership roles and their LGBT identity. The study found that LGBT students joining or founding LGBT student organizations were more likely to become leaders in the organization, which also increased the degree to which they were "out" or known to be LGB and/or T on campus (Renn, 2007). Serving in leadership roles in the LGBT organizations also led a few of the participants to serve in other leadership capacities at the university. The LGBT student leaders were encouraged through their peer network of other LGBT students and staff advisers to become leaders on campus (Renn, 2007).

Researchers Renn and Bilodeau (2005) used qualitative case study methods to research LGBT student leaders at a Midwestern research university. After interviewing seven LGBT student leaders, the researchers discovered that those students of ethnic minorities or international backgrounds had powerful experiences within their cultural communities of figuring out what it meant to have a non-heterosexual identity. These powerful experiences also occurred through interactions with predominantly white and domestic student groups, like student government (Renn & Bilodeau, 2005). The researchers also noted that LGBT students felt peer culture was important and they felt comfortable in established LGBT student organizations on campus (Renn & Bilodeau, 2005). Participation as a student leader in an identity-based organization on campus connected the student to critical social supports and enabled the student to persist in their campus endeavors, including academics, work, and athletics. Thus, identity-based organizations are proposed to be critical in the identity formation and sources of resiliency for LGBT students (Renn & Bilodeau, 2005).

Along with identity formation, people with strong perceived self-efficacy will set more challenging goals and stay committed to achieving those goals (Bandura & Jourden, 1991). In Bandura & Jourden's study of graduate students in business programs, the researchers discovered that "perceived self-efficacy, quality of analytic thinking, personal goal setting, and affective self-reactions operated as significant determinants of performance attainments" (Bandura & Jourden, 1991). Thus, if student leaders at the university level have strong levels of self-efficacy it can be assumed that they will set goals and stay committed to achieve these goals.

There is strong evidence that students develop their leadership skills and identity by participating in leadership roles at the college level. There is also strong evidence that college-level minority

students identify strongly with their respective student organization. No studies, however, have particularly examined the differences and similarities in the perceptions, relationships, and leadership skills of minority student leaders versus the predominately Caucasian student leaders.

Purpose and Guiding Questions

The purpose of this qualitative study was to determine how college-level minority student leaders make meaning of those leadership experiences at [UNIVERSITY]. Researchers wished to determine the significance of role models to minority student leaders, as well as the significance of peers and administrations' perceptions of the minority student leaders. Researchers also sought to explore the motivation of minority students to become leaders at [UNIVERISTY] and changes in their leadership skills during college.

Methods

Merriam (2009) tells us that probability sampling allows researchers to generalize results, which is not the goal of qualitative research. Non-probabilistic or purposeful sampling is based on the assumption that the researcher wants to discover, understand, and gain insight about a particular sample (Merriam, 2009). Purposeful sampling was used in this study because the investigator had to select a sample from which the most could be learned. In this case, the context being studied is current minority student leaders. The intention was to seek out individuals because of certain qualities including: a) represented a wide variety of minority student leaders, consisting of an ethnic minority background, lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT), or non-Christian religious affiliation, b) were currently enrolled at [UNIVERSITY], c) were higher profile student leaders within their respective organizations or on campus, and d) were willing to share their experiences as a student leader.

Qualitative research does not have a recommended, concrete sample size; thus, this study focused on 12 individuals currently serving as leaders at [UNIVERSITY]. Two of the minority student leaders were female and eight were male. Two of the 12 participants served as the triangulation group, consisting of one male and one female Caucasian student leaders. Their student leadership experiences ranged from two years to four years while attending [UNIVERSITY]. The student leaders served in a variety of leadership roles in organizations such as, Student Government, political organizations, religious organizations, Greek organizations, ethnic minority organizations, and media organizations like radio and newspapers. The age range of participants was from 19 to 22 years. Ten of the student leaders were from minority populations, while two students served the purpose of triangulation. The triangulation group consisted of one Caucasian male and one Caucasian female. Out of the ten student leaders from the minority populations the following populations were represented: four were African American, one was Asian, four were LGBT, two were Hispanic, one was Jewish and one was Muslim. Eight of the participants were male and two of the participants were female.

The semi-structured interview method was employed to obtain qualitative information from participants regarding their student leadership experiences at [UNIVERSITY]. The protocol established for the interviews consisted of eight open-ended questions about student leadership experiences and five demographic questions administered consistently across the interviews by the lead author. Each interview was also coded to retain confidentiality. The codes are included in parentheses in the results section after a quotation is given by an interviewee. The codes are part of the audit trail and trustworthiness confirmability.

Data for this study was analyzed by using traditional methods of constant comparative analysis, described by Glaser and Strauss for use in naturalistic inquiry. Glaser and Strauss' (1967) methodology begins with the unitization of data, categorization of units, merging categories, and journaling.

The interviewer and the interviewees both impact the process of data collection and analysis due to the qualitative nature of the study. Thus, credibility of the research was established through peer debriefing and member checking. Peer debriefing occurred three times throughout the data collection and analysis process. As another check of credibility, member checking was done with each interviewee. Credibility was also established through triangulation. A group of two student leaders, one Caucasian male and one Caucasian female were used as a baseline to compare the minority student leaders. An audit trail and journaling were used to establish dependability and confirmability. Transferability was established through a purposive sample and thick description (Merriam, 2009).

Findings

The researchers found that the leaders in the triangulation group refuted what the minority student leaders said and there is disconnect in perception. Four themes emerged from the experiences of the student leaders: a development of identity, growth, motivation from within, and the importance of relationships. Results are presented by theme. The codes found in parenthesis correspond to the interviewee who made the statement, as well as the corresponding page number of the transcription.

Identity

Student leaders were able to develop an identity after serving in leadership positions in their organization.

Segregation

Segregation is part of identity because the minority student leaders recognized that they only identify with their particular organization and do not frequently interact with other organizations. The student leaders identified the need for student organizations to include diverse groups of people, not just one particular minority group of students. Six of the student leaders identified that there is a disconnect amongst the student groups, and that segregation exists (I1, I4, I5, I6, I7, I8, I9, I11).

> I have worked with programs that collaborate with other minorities, but it is not as frequent as it should be (I4.F.H.3).

> College still has a lot of cliques like in high school. However, there are events on campus that do bring different groups together, …There is no conflict, but you can still see cliques. Minorities definitely are cliques. (I7.M.LGBT.H.3).

> My ideal organization would be one that brings everything together and makes [UNIVERSITY] a whole. (I8.F.C.6).

When asked to explain an ideal organization most of the interviewees stated the organization would be accepting and a diverse group of students would be involved.

> It would be a volunteer organization comprised of people from the different colleges, of different ethnicities, sexual orientations, class years, just a ton of diversity (I4.F.H.6).

> I would make sure that people feel included. If people provide others with an atmosphere where they feel comfortable and accepted it allows you to work a lot more with others (I1.M.AA&LGBT.5).

A place of disconnect existed between the minority student leaders and the triangulation group, the sentiment of a diverse, ideal organization was not shared by all of the "mainstream" student leaders.

> I would have a group only consisting of white males, like a fraternity (112.M.C.5).

Role Models

The student leaders with role models felt their role model helped them to cope with an identity crisis or discover their leadership ability. The four LGBT student leaders identified a role model (I1, I2, I6, I7).

> We have big brothers and big sisters in cheerleading. My big brother was there and he really helped me out a lot. Not just with cheerleading, but accepting who I was. The way he looked at life made me feel that it was ok for me to be who I was (I1.M.AA&LGBT.2).

> I did the whole coming out process last semester with my family and [my Student Government advisor] has a family member that is gay, so she has experience with that...She also had plenty of connection on campus that she was able to get me involved with during my coming out process (I2.M.LGBT.2).

The two student leaders in the triangulation group also identified a role model (I8, I12). This was a principle shared by the "mainstream" student leaders.

> One of the past Student Body Presidents encouraged me to run for Student Body President and to get involved with my fraternity. He definitely taught me that I should lead by example (I12.M.C.4).

Giving Back
Students were thankful for [UNIVERSITY] because they were able to grow personally and professionally from their leadership role(s). The students identify with [UNIVERSITY] and desire to give back to [UNIVERSITY] and their organizations currently and after graduation. Most of the student leaders identified the importance of giving back to the university and to their organizations after graduation (I1, I2, I3, I4, I7, I8, I9, I10, I11, I12).

> I definitely want to give back to [UNIVERSITY] since I have gotten so much out of my time here (I4.F.H.5).

> I had an interview with the Hispanic Symposium and I got a position helping incoming freshman...I want to give back to the organization by giving freshman advice because I can relate to the Hispanic freshman (I7.M.LGBT.H.1).

Relationships
Student leaders discussed the significance of their peers and administrations' perceptions, as well as their family's impact in their leadership roles.

Peers
Students identified with the peers in their respective organizations, which allowed for the development of relationships. All of the student leaders identified that their respective peer organizations become their "family" during their college experience.

> When I came to campus I thought I was going to be one of the only? Latino students on campus, I wasn't expecting there to be an organization already set up. It was a great feeling, a sense of community, that you belong and found people that were like you…It is like a family (14.F.H.1).

> It gave me a home base, a family, a group that I could feel a part of, go to and hang out with (I9.M.AA.2).

> [GROUP] gives you a sense of family because you have people that you have something in common with. You might not be best friends with them but you have something that bonds you together…You can talk to all of these people about [RELIGION] (I5.M.J.1).

The student leaders recognized that they have both personal and professional relationship with their peers involved in their respective organization (I1, I2, I4, I6, I7, I8, I9, I11, I12).

> My personal leadership style is having a relationship with people. You need to be friends with people and have more than just a working relationship. You should get your business accomplished and then be friends and ask those personal questions (I6.M.LGBT.4).

> I am always joking around with people, but when it gets down to business we do know when to be personal versus professional…We get to work when we need to and are friendly outside of [GROUP] (I7.M.LGBT.H. 4).

Administration
Student leaders either did or did not identify with the administration at [UNIVERSITY]. The interviewees elaborated on the significance of their relationships with the administration in regards to their leadership abilities. Some student leaders feel they interact well with the administration (I1, I2, I7, I8, I9, I11).

> The current chancellor, I really love him! I feel like we are friends and he really does want to come out and support students. He goes to a lot of student organizations and makes himself known. He really connects to student and isn't just sitting behind a desk (I8.F.C.4).

Some student leaders feel they do not interact with the administration well or at all (I3, I4, I5, I10, I12).

> I don't think there is as much interaction as there needs to be. The administration is high up and normal students can't always talk to them. It's hard to change this (I6.M.LGBT).

Some of the minority student leaders (I2, I7, I9) and the triangulation group (I8, I12) feel the administration views them differently, either positively or negatively, due to their background.

> So far I have had nothing but acceptance and reassurance from faculty who were well informed of the coming out process that I was going through. They continued to guide me and support me, and were always there for anything I would need. I think I have been very lucky, where in some settings these perceptions could have been much worse, and could have ended up with me dropping out or failing out (I2.M.LGBT.6).

> When dealing with the administration, being Caucasian definitely gives you more legitimacy, because that's historically how it goes. Being of a minority population causes the administration to give those people whatever the hell they want and allows them to get by with a lot more (I12.M.C.2).

Family
Student leaders elaborated on their relationship with their families and how they played a role in their college career. Many of the student leaders felt their family members were encouraging throughout their college experience (I3, I4, I5, I6, I8, I9, I11, I12).

> My mom, dad, sister, and family in general are happy about me pursuing what I want to do, regardless of what it is. I could choose to be anything, they don't care. As long as I love it that's what matters to my family (I3.M.AA.4).

> [My family] always has given me encouragement to be a student leader, especially my freshman year (I5.M.J.2).

Growth

Student leaders discussed the significance of leadership roles in their personal and professional development.

Communication
Student leaders identified that their communication skills allowed them to grow personally and professionally. All of the student leaders noted growth in their communication skills since their freshman year of college. Most of the leaders emphasized that their communication skills became more direct.

> I am direct with people about what needs to get done in an organizational setting… [Effective communication is] being direct with people (I4.F.H.4).

> I am able to be more direct and get to the point with people instead of beating around the bush (I2.M.LGBT.4).

Time Management
Student leaders identified professional growth because their leadership roles allowed them to gain time management skills. All of student leaders noted that their leadership roles are time consuming, which has, in turn, taught them time management skills.

> I really enjoy being president because it has taught me a lot. Especially about time management….I have learned to stay organized and to make sure stuff gets done on time (I5.M.J.1).

> My advice for a future student leader is to really think about the time commitment and if you are mentally prepared. I have learned to manage my time and put in the time to organizations. Don't do it if you don't have the time (I11.F.AA.6).

Confidence
Student leaders identified personal growth because their leadership roles allowed them to gain confidence in themselves. All student leaders noted a positive change in their confidence level compared to their freshman year.

> I became more confident in who I am and what I believe (14.F.H.5).

> I think my [leadership] roles have made me more confident. I am able to talk and meet new people. I now introduce myself instead of waiting for someone to introduce me (I5.M.J.4).

Career Path
Student leaders identified that their leadership roles allowed them to grow professionally by changing their career path. The majority of the minority student leaders attributed their leadership roles to changing their career path (I1, I2, I3, I4, I6, I7, I8, I10).

> In the past six months I have reaffirmed that I love working with student organizations and seeing the passion that student have for their university. I would love to continue it

> on by getting a degree in higher education with a concentration in student affairs (I2.M.LGBT.5).

> My leadership roles are great because it will be a big part of my resume and will show employers that I can plan large events….My leadership positions definitely have led me to wanting a job in marketing (I3.M.AA.3).

Managing People
Student leaders identified professional growth because their leadership roles allowed them to gain skills about how to manage people. All of the student leaders attributed their leadership roles to impacting how they manage people.

> I've never been a part of an organization on campus that I haven't been President of. In that sense I am in charge of people (I12.M.C.3).

> You need to be firm when you ask people to do something, especially with those in leadership roles…Sometimes you have to remind them and give them a little nudge (I5.M.J.3).

Motivation From Within
Student leaders discussed that they are motivated personally and professionally to be involved in leadership roles and organizations.

Initiative

Student leaders are motivated from within both personally and professionally by taking the initiative to get involved at [UNIVERSITY]. The majority of the student leaders identified their peers are apathetic and that a core group of students are involved at [UNIVERSITY] (I2, I3, I4, I5, I6, I7, I8, I9, I10, I11, I12). The interviewees take initiative to be involved in organizations during their college experience and believe they are the "core group" of students that are involved at [UNIVERSITY].

> I really just take initiative to be involved on campus…I think there is only a small percentage of students that are really involved, and the other students have an attitude of "whatever." Some students don't care and just want to have fun. Then there are some students that are always involved and engrossed in this campus and really care about [University] (I3.M.AA.1-2).

> [I was] never really pushed to be a student leader, I just have had the initiative (I5.M.J.2).

Passionate
Student leaders discussed that they are motivated from within to be a leader because they have passion for their organization and desire to serve in a leadership role. All of the student leaders identified that they are passionate about their leadership role.

> You have to find what you're passionate about and then get involved (I5.M.J.2).

> You have to be passionate about something to put yourself out there and be a leader (I4.F.H.3).

Happiness
Student leaders claim that they have an internal motivation to be happy, which contributes to their leadership in organizations. Many minority student leaders identified that they desire to be happy (I1, I2, I4, I6, I9, I11).

> Aside from academics, recently one of my goals is to be happy…I have been trying to do things that make me happy. I just finished a musical theater production at Meredith College, which was a lot of fun (I6.M.LGBT.4).

Self-efficacy
Student leaders are motivated from within to serve in leadership positions because they believe they are able to make changes to [UNIVERSITY], thus, they have high levels of self-efficacy. All of the student leaders portray high levels of self-efficacy due to their leadership positions.

> It feels great because I know that I made a positive change for the university (I6.M.LGBT.2).

> Through my leadership positions I believe I have become a better leader, a better organizer and a better communicator. I can get the job done (I12.M.C.4).

Conclusions and Discussions

The study discussed here examined the experiences of [UNIVERSITY] minority student leaders. College environments provide a wide range of experiences for students that allow for identity development (Waterman, 1983). Jones, Castellanos, and Cole (2002) found that students of ethnic minorities felt that segregation existed between their ethnic organization with both Caucasian students and other ethnic minority groups. The student leaders interviewed in this study also identified that segregation exists amongst student groups at the university, and that minority organizations stick together and do not have many interactions with other organizations. The religious minority student leaders recognized that religious organizations also stick together. However, the religious organizations were more likely to host inter-faith events, allowing the religious organizations to interact and hold discussions. Thus, it may be concluded from the findings that minority student leaders solidify a sense of identity via participation in and with organizations unique to their own populations. The student leaders have developed an identity with their organizations and want to continue to show their appreciation after they graduate from the university. Most of the minority student leaders desire to give back to [UNIVERSITY] and to their organizations where they held leadership positions because they greatly appreciate the opportunities that both have given them.

Every interviewee mentioned the concept of passion in their interview. The student leaders feel that the majority of students at [UNIVERSITY] are apathetic. The participants believe there is a

core group of students on campus that "run" the university and are the leaders. They identified themselves as part of the core group of students. It can be concluded that minority student leaders have a high degree of internal motivation. Each student leader is motivated from within because they have passion for the university and for their organization. They are also motivated from within to be happy. The majority of the student leaders stated that one of their biggest goals it to be happy during college. Students with strong perceived self-efficacy will set more challenging goals and stay committed to achieving those goals (Bandura & Jourden, 1991). Thus, the student leaders have a high degree of self-efficacy because they are motivated from within by setting goals and are committed to improving their university.

Minority student leaders develop through participation in leadership experiences. Student leaders experienced growth due to their leadership roles at the university. Compared to their first semester of college, each student leader feels that they are more confident. They are now able to communicate directly with people involved in their organizations, with their peers, and with the administration. Each student leader also noted an improvement in their communication skills compared to their freshman year of college.

Lastly, minority student leaders are influenced by relationships with peers, family, and the university community. According to Renn (2007) LGBT student leaders are encouraged through their peer network of other LGBT students and staff advisers to become leaders on campus. In this research study, the three LGBT student leaders were able to identify a particular role model at NC State University. The LGBT student leaders identify with someone that is either gay or understands the gay community. However, the other minority student leaders did not identify a role model.

Recommendations

Frequent interaction with faculty is strongly related to student satisfaction with college (Astin, 1984). Role models were found to be particularly significant for the LGBT student leaders who were able to find a role model at [UNIVERSITY] to confide in for guidance and encouragement. Perhaps the LGBT students found role models on campus because they were unable or unwilling to go to their family for encouragement. More research should be conducted about family relationships and their impact on leadership development in minority student populations, especially LGBT students.

A majority of minority student leaders also have a desire to give back to their corresponding organization and to [UNIVERSITY] in general. More research should be conducted to assess the impact of leadership experiences on minority student populations and their desire to continue their involvement after graduation.

Recommendations for practice include focusing more efforts on minority student populations during new student orientation. By targeting minority students during new student orientation, these students will become aware of the organizations they can get involved with on campus. The more students that get involved results in an increase in the number of students giving back to their organizations through leadership roles and to the university after graduation.

From the results of this study, other universities should be encouraged to examine their minority student leaders to discover if they are as passionate as those students at [UNIVERSITY] to give back to the university after graduation. The minority student leaders desire to keep serving in any capacity upon graduation, they just need the appropriate opportunities.

The need for minority organizations working together also exists. Currently, organizations at [UNIVERSITY] have infrequent interactions, although the minority student leaders desire an increase in these interactions, as well as in the diversity of people involved in their organizations. All universities should encourage organizations to host events and workshops to eliminate segregation and allow all students to intermingle.

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2) Title of Proposal:

Governing Boards in the Higher Education Industry & Perceptions of Trust

3) Category:

Research Paper

4) Abstract:

This paper presents a trust-centered integrated model for achieving educational excellence in the higher education industry, with focus on governing boards and strategies for academic quality and financial performance. Perceptions of trust form the foundation of the model with influences of personality, culture, motivation, values, reliability, competence, and intuition.

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7) No, not interested in Poster Session

8) Maybe, willing to serve as a reviewer for conference submissions

9) Maybe, willing to serve as a session facilitator at the conference.

Governing Boards in the Higher Education Industry & Perceptions of Trust

Introduction

Trust is essential for effective teamwork, which can promote accountability. Accountability for educational quality of student learning has relevant impact to dual board governance roles of fiduciary responsibility and student-learning assessments for effective resource allocations and overall achievement of the organizational mission (Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, [AGB] 2010). However, this two-fold role and responsibility is often unbalanced, due to different perspectives of board roles and responsibilities, lack of higher education industry (HEI) experience among board trustees, and lack of competence in student-learning assessments among board trustees, which can lead to diminished levels of perceptions of trust. Governing boards in the HEI often grapple with questions such as, "How do we know that students are achieving the academic goals that institutions claim? . . . How do we know that students receive the quality education they pay for" (AGB, 2010, p. 1)?

Effectiveness of governing boards in the HEI depends upon perceptions of trust. Perceptions of trust influence whether or not team members (i.e. board trustees) feel comfortable to be transparent in having open and engaging conversations about the pertinent issues at hand, which in turn helps to build commitment and accountability, with attention to performance results (Lencioni, 2002). Therefore, the seminal aspects of building a collaborative culture take root in the individual-to-individual interactions, where perceptions of trust are influenced by personality, motivation as values of culture, competence, and reliability, as well as intuition – the unconscious cognition associated with first impressions (Migliore & DeClouette, 2011).

The focus of this paper is to provide a systematic review of the leadership themes from specific theoretical models and present a holistic, integrated approach for achieving educational excellence with trust at the center. The discussion frames the scope within the strategic business needs of the HEI, given its unique challenges, competitive landscape, changing economic conditions, and student demographics. This discussion supports the case for innovative change to increase educational value for students and reshape business models for long-term sustainability (Frust-Bowe & Bauer, 2007; Fried & Hill, 2009), and it supports the case for building trust in governing boards. Trust among board trustees is essential for creating collaborative environments for innovative change and educational performance excellence. Collaborative environments promote a sense of shared leadership and governance to encourage innovation and performance excellence at all levels within the educational institution.

Literature Review

The literature review provides discussion on the unique challenges facing governing boards in the HEI in the context of the competitive landscape to sell the intangible good of a college education and to demonstrate the need for innovative change via leadership that builds trust, collaboration, forms strategic perspectives, and achieves

performance excellence. Next, the discussion addresses common themes found in the literature for achieving educational excellence through leadership-education strategies. These themes include development of teacher-leaders, creating a culture of shared leadership and effective governance for performance outcomes, robust evaluations of student-learning assessments for continuous improvement, and strategic leadership in the implementation of quality programs. The theoretical models discussed include the *Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA)* program (National Institute of Standards and Technology [NIST], 2010) for educational performance excellence, the *Wedding Cake Model* for shared leadership in organizational learning (Frost, 2008), the five-level cohesive team model (Lencioni, 2002) for effective teamwork, and the *Self-Leadership Trust Model* (Migliore & DeClouette, 2011) for perceptions of trust.

Defining Trust

Since trust is the central focus of the discussion, defining trust is necessary to place it in the proper context. Earlier research in trust focused on individual intentions and motives (Deutsch, 1958, 1960; Mellinger, 1956; Read, 1962), with the focus of later research on behaviors as related to communication, actions, and decision-making (Hosmer, 1995; Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Migliore and DeClouette (2011) combined the former and latter research to create a comprehensive model of perceptions of trust, including a comprehensive definition of trust, which is used for purposes of this paper. According to Migliore and DeClouette (2011), a comprehensive definition of trust includes both past and recent scholar definitions: “trust is the positive expectation that another’s motives, behaviors, and competence levels will produce positive outcomes, and distrust is the negative expectations regarding another’s motives, behaviors, and competence levels” (p. 2). When behaviors and outcomes align to expectations for how another person should behave and perform, perceptions of trust increase. Conversely, when behaviors and outcomes do not align to the expectations for how another person should behave and perform, perceptions of trust decrease.

Unique Challenges of the HEI and Business Models for Sustainability

The business model for the HEI centers on selling the intangible good of a college education. However, unlike most goods where the value is determined by individual consumption, the college education is valued typically by the perception of the common experience with other consumers of the purchased good, as well as the perceived value of network connections with alumni, employers, and other benefactors (Fried & Hill, 2009). Therefore, the purchasing decision of a college education has lifetime implications, based on the perceived brand of the institution and the credential of the degree when job interviewing, or pursuing entrepreneurialism. Most significant is the embedded foci of trust within the institutional brand to attract employers to the institution’s graduates and continue to attract matriculating students into the institution’s academic programs. As such, governing boards in the HEI need to keep the intangible value of the institution’s brand on the radar screen, as an overarching success indicator for educational performance outcomes.

Several multi-campus corporations have emerged over the past decade in the for-profit sector, created through purchase acquisitions or modular development and have large campus enrollments with online degree programs (Floyd, 2007). According to Floyd (2007):

> The largest of these corporate colleges, in terms of number of campuses and number of students, are the Apollo Group (primarily University of Phoenix), Corinthian Colleges, Career Education Corporation, Education Management Corporation, DeVry University, Kaplan Higher Education, Strayer Education, and Sylvan Learning Systems. (p. 122)

These multi-campus corporations have experienced success in the for-profit sector, due to a student-centered approach. Key success factors include customer service orientation towards student needs, degree offerings in curriculum with high employment demand (e.g. technology, computer science, and applied business), convenience in course availability, year-round operations, career placement, and low per-unit costs of operation with contingent faculty (Floyd, 2007).

Indication in the literature seems to imply that for-profit institutions may have a strategic advantage as compared to the public and/or nonprofit institutions, due to differences in organizational culture values and perspectives towards governance. Public and/or nonprofit institutions typically have the "Academic Ethic (Shils [1983]), or ivory-tower mentality," (Fried & Hill, 2009, p. 38). According to Fried & Hill (2009), these values of perspective view learning as an end in itself, without much focus on student needs in terms of efficient use of time and tuition. As such, the public and nonprofit institutions tend to hold cherished academic values that support tenured faculty, protected administrator positions, and weak board governance – all of which makes change difficult in reshaping and/or resizing business models to align with the changing economic and competitive landscapes. For example, the pitfalls of the "Academic Ethic" (p. 38) include non-standardization of instructional design, due to focus on faculty member, "research stars," (p. 38) where instructional focus varies based upon the individual professor interests. In addition, leadership structures are typically bureaucratic and prone to conflicts rather than innovation or collaboration (Srikanthan & Dalrymple, 2002), with lack of clearly defined institutional goals and implementation plans (Massey, 2003). In contrast, the for-profit institutions tend to have a strategic focus on the business model for selling the intangible good of a college education with student-centric processes, enabling a high degree of instructional standardizations and ability to deliver online education on a large scale and in a cost-efficient manner (Fried & Hill, 2009).

Diversity challenges have an impact on the effectiveness of board governance, such as differences in individual experience levels, technical and interpersonal relations competencies, personalities, motivations, and governing board roles and responsibilities – all of which influences perceptions of trust. Governing boards in the HEI are composed of various individuals, who often come from different business and industry sectors (AGB, 2010) with each organization having its own culture, along with the merging of

different personalities to affect perceptions of trust. According to Migliore and DeClouette (2011):

> Behaviors in different cultural settings will have different interpretations and carry different psychological significance. For example, the extroverted individual who exhibits assertive behavior by being the first to answer and talks frequently is many times perceived as one who knows more, even though research shows no correlations between competence and personality traits (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009). Perceiving another individual as having competence is an influencing factor in levels of trust. (p. 6)

While technical competence is important for positive perceptions of trust, interpersonal-skills competence or social capital may yield even greater influence of perceptions of trust among board members (Stevenson & Radin, 2009). According to Migliore and DeClouette (2011):

> Social capital develops from prior or personal relationships with other directors, board interlocks, or cliques. This finding may indicate trust is more a function of social capital, rather than of true competence. However, valuing one's social capital over technical competence can be dangerous, as Rose and Rose (2008) observe that BOD [board of director] audit committee members with less financial knowledge or higher levels of trust often accept faulty justifications for questionable accounting practices. (p. 6)

Other challenges in the HEI include pressures from the national level towards education quality, federal loan policies, graduation rates, and employment opportunities for graduating students – all of which have put a laser-light focus on the need for greater accountability and transparency in the HEI regarding student-learning outcomes. In addition, several other factors are brewing with possible convergence towards what some scholars are predicting to be a bubble burst in the HEI, similar to the real estate industry (Snair, 2010; Weisbrod & Asch, 2010). These factors include annual tuition increases of 5% averages; demographic changes of the college student body; U.S. unemployment; outsourced jobs overseas; U.S. government regulation to limit access to financial aid; increased student loan defaults; and the somber threat of the global debt crisis with further impacts to the U.S. economy. These factors create a compelling need for strategic planning and change in order to gain and sustain competitive advantage in the HEI marketplace (Falk & Braylock, 2010; Floyd, 2007; Fried & Hill, 2009), as well as effectively navigate through potentially rough waters ahead. To meet these unique challenges, governing boards in the HEI need trust for creating collaborative environments, innovative change, and achieving educational performance excellence.

Recent research conducted by the AGB produced a 38 percent response rate from 1300 surveys sent to Chief Academic Officers (CAOs) – college and university presidents and provosts – board chairs, and trustees with questions focused on understandings of student-learning assessments (SLA), board perspectives towards SLA, levels of meaningful discussion, and decision making (AGB, 2010). Respondents

included 77 percent from independent institutions and 23 percent from public institutions – with the majority consisting of CAOs (58 percent) and board trustees (28 percent). The key findings of this study indicate boards receive information about student learning (over 60 percent of respondents), but not enough time is spent on having meaningful conversations about student-learning outcomes with differentiation between what constitutes student learning versus student success. Conversely, more time is spent on finance and budget issues (56.9 percent of respondents) with 20 percent of all respondents indicating student-learning outcomes were not a board responsibility – "this response was consistent by role, with 10.4 percent of board members and 12 percent of chief academic officers answering this way" (p. 6). As with many governing boards, challenges include lack of time, other priorities requiring immediate attention, lack of the right types of key performance indicators (KPIs), and different perspectives regarding roles and responsibilities. These challenges impede meaningful boardroom discussions and weaken trust levels for effectively obtaining individual commitment, accountability, and the desired performance outcomes.

Another important finding in the literature is the research of Plinske and Packard (2010), which measured the perceptions of board trustees desired qualifications for selecting community college presidents and provided insight into specific characteristics, competencies, and professional experiences perceived to be critically important for future presidents in Illinois community colleges. Significant in the Plinske and Packard (2010) research, as related to this discussion, is the number one ranked competency of importance: the ability to establish trust. In fact, several trustee responses related the ability to build trust as related to moral character attributes of integrity and honesty. However, integrity and honesty are perceptions influenced by personality and values of culture, including the abstract influences of intuition as conceptualized in the Migliore and DeClouette (2011) *Self-Leadership Trust Model*.

Theoretical Models on Leadership-Education Strategies

The *Malcomb Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA)* program provides a comprehensive model for systematic quality improvement and innovation with criteria for performance excellence in seven areas. These seven areas include: (1) leadership, (2) strategic planning, (3) customer focus, (4) measurement, analysis, and knowledge management, (5) workforce focus, (6) operations focus, and (7) results (National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), 2010). The purpose of the Baldrige program is to improve U.S. business competitiveness via the Public Law 100-107, which established the *Malcomb Baldrige National Quality Improvement Act of 1987*, on August 20, 1987. Since 1987, the scope of the MBNQA program has expanded to include organizations in health care, education, nonprofit, and government.

The literature establishes the Baldrige model as a proven framework with empirical evidence for total quality management (Curkovic, Melnyk, Calantone, & Handfield, 2000). The Baldrige model promotes quality improvement in innovation and performance excellence and is useful for educational institutions, emphasizing visionary leadership and systematic assessments for change initiatives to help align processes and

resources across the organization (Furst-Bowe & Bauer, 2007). Organizations that win the Baldrige award receive high levels of credibility and recognition, as "the President of the United States traditionally presents the award at a special ceremony in Washington, D.C." (Baldrige Performance Excellence Program, 2011, p. ii). The University of Wisconsin-Stout (UW-Stout) provides an example of the first higher education institution to receive the Baldrige award in 2001. Since then, UW-Stout has provided assistance to educational institutions in 39 states and 25 countries, interested in the Baldrige quality improvement program and award criteria (University of Wisconsin Board of Regents, 2010). The mission of UW-Stout aligns well with the Baldrige model, because it centers on career-oriented academic programs with focus on driving "innovation in several areas of the campus, including academic, administrative, and student support services, and create new systems for shared leadership, strategic planning, student performance, and determining stakeholder satisfaction" (Furst-Bowe & Bauer, 2007, p. 8). The Baldrige model places innovation in the context of making meaningful change for purposes of improving organizational processes and services, in order to create new value for the organization's stakeholders (Baldrige Performance Excellence Program, 2011). For educational institutions, the Baldrige model offers a student-centered approach towards excellence as a strategic concept and a methodological approach for increasing the intangible value of the institutional brand. However, success in change management initiatives requires visionary leadership and trust.

The *Wedding Cake Model* for "shared or distributed" (p. 337) leadership in organizational learning assumes that teachers can be developed for effective leadership to "lead innovation and contribute to the development of professional knowledge" (Frost, 2008, p. 337). The concept of "leadership as a shared activity," (p. 337) was established as a core value in the foundation of the Leadership for Learning Network in 2001. Since then, there have been several research projects with the most notable being "the seven-country Carpe Vitam Leadership for Learning research project (MacBeath et al. 2007a) in which teacher leadership was an essential dimension" (p.337). As such, Frost (2008) adapted the *Wedding Cake Model* based upon the work of Knapp, Copland, and Talbert (2003) with the premise of creating distributed learning and leadership, in order to demonstrate the interrelatedness of learning at fours levels – students, teachers, the organization, and the learning system. Learning interrelatedness at all four levels, occurs through a culture of collaboration and innovation, but requires trust as the catalyst along with visionary leadership.

The five-level cohesive team model was established by Lencioni (2002) to demonstrate five dysfunctions of a team as told through a fictional leadership story with much relevance as related to CEO transitions, board member perceptions, interactions, and behaviors. This story depicts common team problems with perceptions of trust and resistance to change. For example, the newly hired CEO quickly creates perceptions of distrust among the executive team. Negative perceptions from direct reports include the CEO's out-dated image, as a blue-collar executive from the automotive industry with little experience in the high tech industry – distrust as related to the CEO's competence, ability to lead effective change, and achieve results. The story demonstrates a typical intervention for change with an offsite retreat facilitated by the CEO to build the team by

first building trust. The time invested helps team members recognize self-dysfunctions and related affects to the overall team dysfunction, which in turn leads to increased understanding of self and others to change behaviors and improve trust.

However, more time spent does not guarantee trust will improve, as there are several factors related to trust (Mayer, et al., 1995; Renn & Levine, 1991). These factors can be broadly categorized into two groups, individual competence (i.e. knowledge, ability, and expertise) and individual motive (i.e., integrity, honesty, etc.) (Twyman, Harvey, and Harries, 2008). According to Twyman, et al. (2008), past demonstrations of accuracy and reliability increase perceptions of credibility as related to trust in individual competence and values perceived as similar to one's own, increase favorable perceptions of trust regarding another's motives. Next, intuition is an abstract factor of trust in the non-conscious domain of cognitive function with research showing discrepancies between respondent statements of trust towards a given individual and actual behaviors of trust towards that individual (O'Neill, 2002). Another aspect of trust involves human emotions, governed by the affective domain of cognitive function with affects to interpersonal relationships (McAllister, 1995). According to McAllister, "people make emotional investments in trust relationships, express genuine care and concern for the welfare of partners, believe in the intrinsic value of such relationships, and believe that these sentiments are reciprocated" (p. 26). However, there is often insufficient evidence to determine alignment between cognitive and affective thought processing, given the roles of values and intuition in these domains, with recommendations in the literature that distinctions be made (Keren & Schul, 2006; Twyman, et. al., 2008). For example, "when an individual determines if another individual shares their values, the inter-cognition will involve thoughts, emotions, knowledge, competence, and intuition as determinates for trust" (Migliore & DeClouette, 2011, p. 8).

The *Self-Leadership Trust Model* (Migliore & DeClouette, 2011) aligns with the principles of the Lencioni (2002) cohesive team model, but focuses on the cognitive and affective domains, as influenced by personality, motives as cultural values, reliability, competence, and intuition. The *Self-Leadership Trust Model* represents a comprehensive approach from the literature with foundational aspects of McAllister's (1995) affect and cognitive-based trust model and the Siegrist, Earle, and Gutscher's (2003, 2005) trust-confidence-cooperation (TCC) model. In addition, the model supports self-leadership principles for understanding self and others through reflection of knowledge, experience, and personal beliefs. Most significant is the model's intellectual and empirical foundation based on the extensive work of Hofstede (1980, 2001) and Hofstede & McCrae (2004), with focus on the inter-relational aspects of the five-factor model (FFM) for personality and the five dimensions of national culture as individual motivations.

In the literature, corporate governance scholars recommend the need for more research into the inter-relational dynamics of individual interactions and behaviors, which include the following areas: strategizing, trust and emotions, cultural influences on decision-making, leadership styles, and actual board performance outcomes (Huse & Zattoni, 2008). In turn, Migliore and DeClouette (2011) provide a comprehensive model for measuring perceptions of trust between individuals and discuss its application to

corporate board member interrelations and the effects on organizational culture, using past Xerox Corporation CEO Joe Wilson and his trusting relationships with board members. However, the model has similar application to many types of governing boards including the HEI. The model offers the potential to understand perceptions of trust, build trust, and include applications in leadership development programs to harmonize the spectrums of the FFM personality and Hofstede's cultural dimensions, which can promote greater appreciation of diversity and building of inclusive organizational cultures.

Personality is a complex area of the human psyche with strong influence on cognitive and affective domains. Knowing self and understanding others is a key aspect for effective leadership, especially as it relates to trust, including self-trust and trust towards others (Migliore & DeClouette, 2011). The well-established taxonomy of the FFM for personality is strongly supported by numerous empirical studies showing the FFM to have consistency by participants to describe themselves and others with personality terminology that shows stability throughout adult-life spans (Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 2003; Norman, 1963).

At the broadest level of the FFM domain are the five personality traits, *agreeableness*, *conscientiousness*, *extraversion*, *neuroticism*, and *openness to experience* (Migliore, 2011). *Agreeableness* describes an individual's desire towards social harmony, getting along with others, and willingness to forego one's own interests for others in order to maintain peace and reduce tensions. *Conscientiousness* describes an individual's action-oriented behaviors towards accuracy, organization, and reliability. *Extraversion* describes an individual's preference towards human interactions of communication, typically outgoing, talkative, and attention drawing, whereas introversion is less talkative with preferences to think before taking action. *Neuroticism* describes an individual's reaction to life stresses with high levels indicating excessive worry and low levels indicating resilience and calmness. *Openness to Experience* describes an individual's preference to intellectual curiosity, new ideas, and creativity with low levels an indication of closed intellectual focus and narrow-minded perspectives.

Motivation is rooted in values influenced by national cultural (Hofstede, 1980; 2001). In addition, influences at the organizational, local community, and family levels include sub-cultures within these various domains (Schein, 1990). According to Schein (1990), culture is "what a group learns over a period of time as that group solves its problems of survival in an external environment and its problems of internal integration" (p. 111). Similarly, Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) define culture as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (p. 400). These definitions align with the classic theory of personality, where culture shapes personality as individuals assimilate group-like characteristics with corresponding personality structures (McCrae, 2000). However, scholars differ in theoretical opinion regarding which comes first, personality or culture (i.e., nature vs. nurture) (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). Nevertheless, the inter-relational component of the FFM personality and culture is strongly supported via the extensive work of McCrae and Costa (1996; 1999), including aspects of social capital as related to

perceptions of trust (Migliore & DeClouette, 2011). The influence of national culture on individual motivations with effects on behaviors include Hofstede's (1980; 2001) five cultural dimensions: (a) *individualism-collectivism*, (b) *power distance*, (c) *masculinity-femininity*, (d) *uncertainty avoidance*, and (e) *time orientation.*

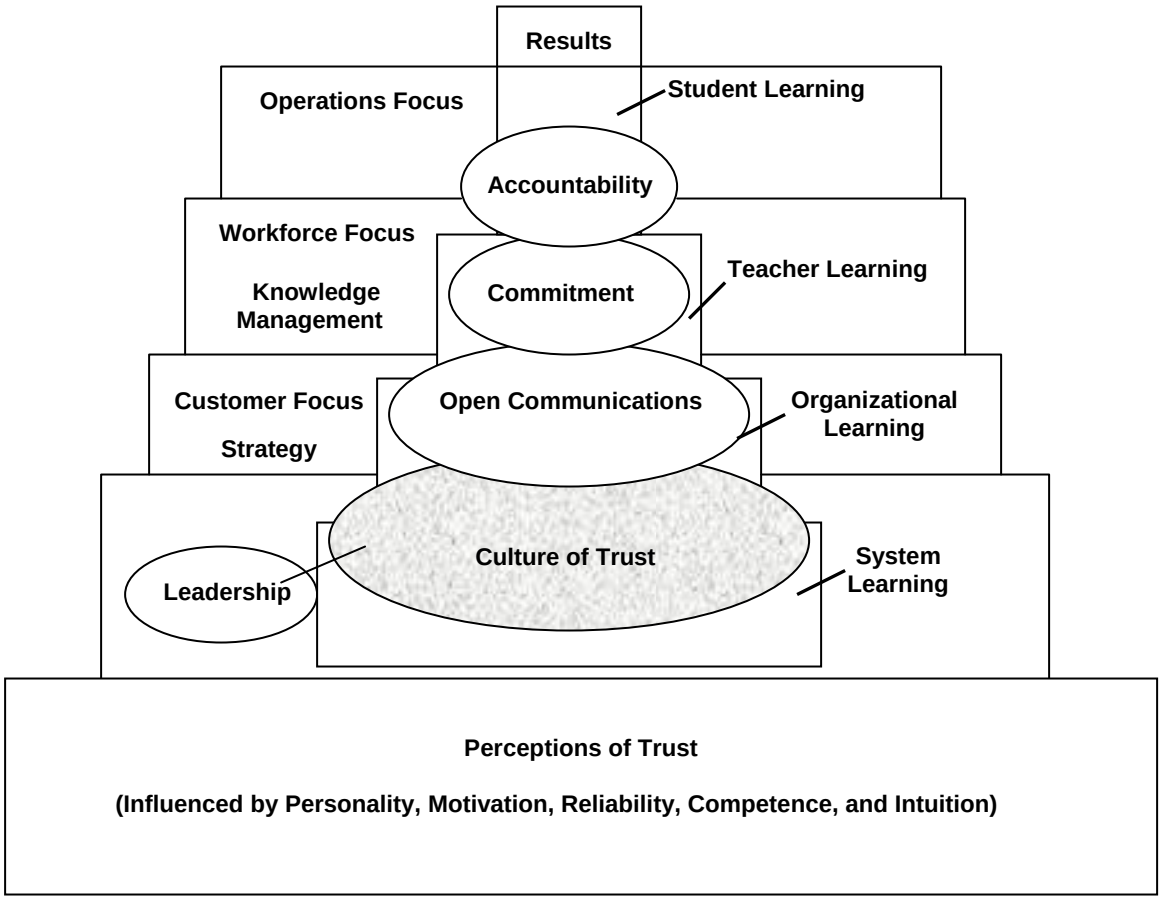
Hofstede's cultural dimensions vary from low to high-level scores and inter-relate with the FFM personality (Migliore, 2011). Brief descriptions for the five dimensions follow. *Individualism-collectivism* describes the extent to which individuals perceive scope of responsibility towards self and others – self-interests versus group interests and loyalties. *Power distance* describes the extent to which individuals "expect and accept that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005, p. 402). *Masculinity-femininity* describes expectations of gender roles with distinctions between men and women, where men focus on material success and women focus on building and maintaining harmonious relationships. *Uncertainty avoidance* describes the extent individuals are comfortable with perceived threats of unknown or ambiguous situations. *Time orientation* describes the extent individuals are willing to accept delays in material, social, and emotional needs – short term versus long term.

Recommendations/Implications

The inter-cognitional functions of personality, motivation, reliability, competence, and intuition operate at the individual level with impacts to leadership behaviors and effective board governance. As such, the contextual elements of the *Self-Leadership Trust Model* (Migliore & DeClouette, 2011) offer conceptual application as related to board trustee relations and present an integrated approach towards achieving educational excellence with trust at the center.

As discussed in the literature review, the four theoretical models represent common themes towards leadership and educational strategies for achieving a trust-centered, integrated approach towards educational excellence via effective leadership and effective board governance. The integrated approach provides a holistic perspective. In Figure 1, self-leadership forms the foundational base for building trust towards self and others, in order to establish a culture of trust between individuals for shared leadership. In turn, the concept of shared leadership helps create collaborative environments, innovative changes, and educational performance excellence.

Figure 1. Trust-Centered Integrated Approach for Educational Excellence



The illustration in Figure 1 is analogous to a towered building with three dimensions, integrating the four theoretical models as discussed in the literature review. The foundation is laid with individual trust for self and others, with perceptions influenced by variables of personality, motivation, reliability, competence, and intuition per the Migliore and DeClouette (2011) model. Trust is the central energy source to power the building and create a circular core stack of cohesive teamwork with open communications, commitment, accountability, and results, per the Lencioni (2002) model. Behind the circular core stack of cohesive teamwork resides the middle-tiered section, reinforced by the interrelatedness of the four learning levels – system, organizational, teacher, and student, per the Frost (2008) model, linking to results – the capstone of the building. The building floors are representative of the seven categories of the Baldrige criteria for educational performance excellence: (1) leadership, (2) strategic planning, (3) customer focus, (4) measurement, analysis, and knowledge management, (5) workforce focus, (6) operations focus, and (7) results (Baldrige Performance Excellence Program, 2011). All components of the integrated model align to the capstone of the building, which are results – educational quality and financial performance – to strengthen the intangible value of the institutional brand and to provide all stakeholders

with a sense of confidence that the college education of the institution has creditability with a name to be trusted.

Attracting and retaining the right leadership (i.e., right experiences and competencies, etc.) is a primary objective towards achieving educational excellence and financial performance objectives. However, even with the right leadership, people differ in personalities, motivations, and perspectives towards board roles and responsibilities. Therefore, it is important to cultivate teamwork, as well as provide development opportunities for executive leaders. Executive development programs and team building interventions can help chief academic officers and board trustees improve understanding of perceptions of trust, as related to differences in personality, culture, motives, and values. Executive training programs designed with focus on achieving the institution's mission that are aligned to organizational culture, core values, and strategic objectives fit with the Baldrige model for meeting the human resource capability and capacity needs, as well as engaging senior-level executives to adapt to change and collectively succeed as a cohesive, high-performing team (Baldrige Performance Excellence Program, 2011). These principles relate to human resource management, involving the strategic element of workforce planning and development, which fits the Baldrige criteria in the categories of leadership (category 1), strategic planning (category 2), and workforce focus (category 5).

The ultimate success goal is for board trustees to have meaningful boardroom discussions where commitment and accountability lead to achievement of performance outcomes and strengthen the intangible value of the institutional brand – all of which is reflective of effective board governance. However, identifying the right kinds of key metrics via institutional research is a challenge to having meaningful discussion. According to AGB (2010), institutions may lack standard processes to produce reliable data for key metrics or may have too many metrics, making it difficult to determine improvements in student success and resource allocations per student expense. The Baldrige model helps leaders to focus alignment of processes and resources, which in turn, can provide the relevant data and measurement system (i.e., category 4, measurement, analysis, and knowledge management) to support the institution's overall mission and programs (Baldrige Performance Excellence Program, 2011). Through use of trends and comparative data, leaders can be more effective in driving continuous and systematic performance improvement. However, relationships of trust are needed, in order to have meaningful boardroom discussions about the data trends and to make effective decisions, regarding actions for improvement.

Recommendations for future research include a pilot study of the *Trust-Centered Integrated Approach for Educational Excellence* (as illustrated in Figure 1) with HEI board trustees. The study could identify board perceptions of roles and responsibilities, assess leadership and organizational practices via the Baldrige framework, explore social capital (i.e., pre-existing relationships) and compare perceptions of competence as related to trust, as well as assess perceptions of trust via the *Self-Leadership Trust Model* (Migliore & DeClouette, 2011). Additionally, the study could provide further analysis in perceived conflicts of interest when trustees serve on multiple boards, and assess whether

it enhances or inhibits trust building, especially as it relates to “the broader institutional and political-economic dynamics that set the context in which networks of trustees shape institutional policies” (Pusser, Slaughter, & Thomas, 2006, p. 770). Perceptions of trust can be determined through use of interviews and surveys of board trustees. In addition, the value of trustworthiness among fellow board trustees and willingness to improve levels of trust with one another would be another benefit of such study.

Conclusions

This paper presented an integrated approach for achieving educational excellence centered in trust, as related to leadership themes from specific theoretical models in the literature. The scope of discussion focused on the strategic business needs of the HEI, given its unique challenges, competitive landscape, changing economic conditions, and student demographics. The *Trust-Centered Integrated Approach for Educational Excellence* (as illustrated in Figure 1) supports the case for innovative change to increase educational value for students and reshape business models for long-term sustainability (Frust-Bowe & Bauer, 2007; Fried & Hill, 2009), and it supports the case for building trust in governing boards. Collectively, governing boards have the power to build or destroy the educational institutions for which they serve. Therefore, trust among board trustees is essential for creating collaborative environments for innovative change, educational performance excellence, and overall effective governance.

Finally, the HEI plays an important role in the U.S. economy by providing a leadership pipeline of competent graduates. These graduates need to possess the relevant technical skills, leadership skills, and learning experiences, in order to meet the employment demands of the various industries and business sectors. Thus, governing boards in the HEI have an ethical responsibility to ensure candidates approved for graduation meet the educational standards of the institution (AGB, 2010). However, without meaningful discussions about academic standards, how standards are met, and reliable performance data, the board’s certification of the graduating students will lack authenticity and credibility. For these reasons, improving trust in governing boards is necessary and worth the investment of time and effort.

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From Theory to Practice: The Development of an Undergraduate Interdisciplinary Leadership Minor

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Abstract

The authors map the development of an interdisciplinary leadership minor to the International Leadership Association's *Guiding Questions: Guidelines for Leadership Education Programs*. The minor, which began in the Fall 2010 semester, addresses each of five specific areas: context, conceptual framework, content, teaching and learning, and outcomes and assessment.

Words of Wisdom from Senior Women Leaders to Aspiring Females

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Abstract

This qualitative study focused on the perceptions and experiences of senior female leaders. Twelve seasoned leaders were interviewed and shared the challenges and successes they had faced as females in leadership positions. Words of advice to aspiring, young females are a prevalent theme of this study.

Introduction

Numerous studies have been conducted regarding gender imbalances and stereotypes that women have experienced in the work place. It seems the same old story is told over and over again because the gender gap in education and the workplace is still present. According to the White House Project Report (2009), women receive the majority of all college degrees and are well represented in entry and mid-level positions in most sections of the economy. Equality still remains out of reach, however, as women have made strikingly little progress in advancing into boardrooms and executive suites. In some sectors of the economy, progress to senior leadership positions has been stalled for many years. Only 15 of the FORTUNE 500 companies, or three percent, were run by women by 2010. However, a first did occur at Xerox as Ursula Burns became the first woman CEO to replace another woman, Anne Mulcahy, as a Fortune 500 chief (Fortune, 2010). On the Financial Post 500, there were 30 companies with women CEOs/heads, but only 26 women actually led those companies, as Monique F. Leroux led four companies and Kathy Bardswick led two. Women make up only 6.4 percent of the 469 companies that are counted in this list (Pyramids, 2011). Today women account for only 18 percent of our top leaders and make only 78.7 cents of every dollar earned by a man—a wage gap that increases with age (The White House Project, 2009, p. 5). It seems that there are plenty of women in the "pipeline," but the transition to upper leadership positions is still elusive for many. Even a half century after Simone de Beauvoir and Betty Friedan stated that middle-class women were disillusioned with the isolation of domestic life, women are still facing challenges in the work place (Swackhamer, 2011).

Literature Review

Stark (2010) shared report findings from Catalyst, a group focused on expanding opportunities for women in business, that in MBA graduates of the top 25 business schools there is a pay gap of $4,600 between male and female graduates. "I was shocked," says Catalyst CEO Ilene Lang of the findings. "This really ate away, undermined my confidence that important change had taken place" (p. 1). McKay (2010) interviewed INSEAD, one of the world's leading and largest graduate business schools, Professor Herminia Ibarra who shared:

> We do see women entering the workforce at unprecedented levels but the fact is that there are two gaps that really remain. One is the pay gap … and what is even more astonishing or disturbing is that we see it in cases where there really are equal credentials

> and equal background. The other is the leadership gap and no matter how you measure it, or where you measure it, you have women at the entrance level in pretty healthy numbers, then … those numbers dwindle, they start getting smaller in the middle and when you look at the top, there are very few places where you see more than 13 to 15 per cent of women at the executive level. (p. 1)

The question becomes how do women rise to senior leadership positions? Tahmincioglu (2008) stated that a well-placed, successful, encouraging mentor can be a champion to a woman getting noticed by higher-ups. In addition, she shared that a mentor can help navigate the ins and outs of what is often still a good-ole'-boys network in the upper echelon of the business world. Similarly, Shambaugh (2008) encouraged women to form strategic relationships to serve them as a personal "Board of Directors." By creating a sounding board of other women, the collateral function of helping one another serves to promote and support. Carter and Silva (2010) also stated that women with a mentor increased their odds of being placed as a mid-manager by 56 percent over women without a mentor (p.3). The study additionally noted that "mentoring—especially from senior-level mentors—led to advancement up the corporate ladder for both women and men" (p.5).

In addition to mentoring, networking is often listed as essential for career advancement. Van Emmerik, Euqema, Geschiere, and Schouten (2006) examined the frequency with which men and women used both formal and informal networks and the resulting impact on career satisfaction. They found, perhaps surprisingly, that women used both formal and informal networks more often men. However, it appeared that women are less effective in their use of these networks than men. Many women felt torn as they perceived that the time they spent engaging in professional networking might have been better spent taking care of home responsibilities. In a similar study, Singh, Vinnicombe, and Kumra (2006) examined women's corporate networks and found that organizational citizenship behaviors such as helping, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, compliance, civic virtue, and self development increased with participation. In addition, corporate networks allowed women greater access to human resources activities such as career fairs and career enhancement opportunities such as conferences and social activities.

Despite the career advantages that stem from informal networking, Linehan and Scullion (2008), in their study of 50 female managers from international companies, found that women were either excluded from or did not participate in informal networks. The authors proffered two reasons for this situation: a) a lack of mentors or role models; and b) time constraints on networking because of family responsibilities. The authors suggested that improving access to networking opportunities would increase the number of women tapped for international management roles.

The overall message seems to be that young, aspiring female leaders need mentors and networks, or they will not gain the senior leadership positions they seek. Unfortunately, there are not a lot of women in top-level executive positions to serve as guides or mentors (The White House Project, 2009; Pyramids, 2011). This study attempts to fill that gap by using a qualitative approach to learning about leadership from senior women leaders. Conger (1998) has noted that qualitative research has been underutilized for studying leadership. He stated that qualitative

research must play an important role into the investigation of leadership topics because of the complexity of leadership itself. In addition, qualitative research allows researchers the opportunity to study things in their natural setting (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). In this way participants can speak freely within the context of their personal values and experiences, and researchers can use their responses to develop, rather than impose, research themes.

Methods

A cover letter and interview protocol and questions that were approved by the authors' university Institutional Review Board was sent to 24 senior female leaders who had been publicly recognized for their leadership in a large, metropolitan city. For the purposes of this study, a senior female leader was defined as one who had risen to a top management or leadership position within her organization. In addition, the women asked to participate were chosen because they represented diverse functional and organizational backgrounds. The letters requested a one-hour, confidential, tape-recorded interview about their experiences and contributions as leaders. From this list of 24 female leaders, 12 accepted the interview invitation.

The organizations of the female leaders ranged in size from less than 20 employees to over 500 employees. One interviewee came from education; three from media, communication, and technology; two from banking and finance; one from transportation; two from government, and three from nonprofit agencies. Job titles included CEO, executive director, senior vice president, executive vice president, associate dean, director, vice president, district attorney and broadcast editor. Years of work and leadership experience ranged from 11 to 45 years.

Individual semi-structured interviews were conducted to explore in depth the perceptions and thoughts of each senior female leader. A semi-structured format was used because of its highly individualized nature and its ability to elicit unanticipated information and insights by adapting to the interviewee's personality and priorities (Kellerman & Rhode, 1994). The interviewer, an MBA graduate student completing a Directed Study under the supervision of the primary researcher, guided the direction of the interview by using primarily five open-ended questions that encouraged each female senior leader to discuss her experiences as a leader. The five questions asked were:

1. What are the most critical problems you specifically face as a female leader?
2. What are the major reasons female leaders fail in positions like yours?
3. If applicable, can you share a story about a particular situation in which you perceived you failed as a leader?
4. If applicable, can you share what leadership lessons you learned from that experience?
5. What are some words of advice you would give a new leader or aspiring female leader?

The semi-structured interviews took place over a period of eight weeks at the convenience of the interviewees. Three interviews were conducted at the interviewee's place of work, eight were conducted by conference call, and one started face-to-face, but was concluded by e-mail. All interviews were audio taped and fully transcribed with the gathered materials being considered confidential. As suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990), throughout the interview the interviewer attempted to ensure no potential misunderstandings were occurring. The interviewer also verified with the interviewee that she was recording the answers accurately and that she had

interpreted the answer correctly before proceeding to the next question. Triangulation techniques were also used in that each interview participant was sent an electronic copy of her transcript and asked to comment on any inaccuracies. In addition, the primary researchers did the final analysis and coding of participant responses.

Using constant comparative analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Strauss & Corbin, 1990), the transcribed interviews were coded. Open coding (Boyatzis, 1998) provided a framework in which key word analysis allowed for an extraction of sequences of words about the subject of interest along with their contexts. In this way codes, categories and over-arching themes were initially identified. The researchers then used axial coding to develop a hierarchy of codes, categories, and themes. The final level of selective coding revealed the following key concepts in order of importance: a) attitude and confidence; b) negotiation, communication styles and power; c) networking and relationship building; and d) balance. Direct quotes are used throughout the remainder of this paper to provide a representation of these four concepts which emerged from the data.

Findings and Discussion

Attitude and Confidence

The first concept, attitude (of others) and confidence (in self) were often linked and mentioned in responses to four of the five questions. One interviewee noted that the most critical problem she faces as a female leader is:

> People not believing I'm the leader. I'm the DA for my County, but people will ask 'Oh are you the assistant? Who do you work for?' Fighting stereotypes that women would not lead law enforcement. The press thought it was a disservice for me to be out on maternity leave and thought it was a waste of taxpayer's money. I actually called the office almost every day while out. The other challenge is walking the fine line between being tough and fighting the stereotype that women who are tough, are bitches, and if you are too friendly, you would be taken advantage of.

Similarly, Adams (2011) determined that women managers did not score as high as men when it came to their employee's confidence in women managers to do their job. In fact, one senior female interviewee noted that "If a woman wants to run an operation, and she fails at it, people would say 'See, she should fail since she is a women.'" Typically, women have been held to a higher standard of competence than men and must demonstrate superior performance (Eagly, A.H. & Carli, 2003). However, recent research conducted by Ibarra and Obodaru (2009) found that women leaders actually scored higher ratings from their peers than their male counterparts along 10 dimensions of leadership; emotional intelligence, empowering, energizing, envisioning, global mindset, organizational designing and aligning, outside orientation, rewarding and feedback, team building and tenacity. Perhaps the confidence people have in women being leaders is starting to improve.

Besides facing negative attitudes from others, women are often their own worst enemy. One senior female interviewee stated that one reason women fail in leadership positions is because "Women tend to be self effacing (i.e., I could never do that.) Men are more confident, even if they aren't completely sure. Women want to get something 100% right before they go on to the next thing."

Turknett (2005) looked at 10 traits that are essential for female leaders and found confidence is one of those traits. In her research study that compared 360 feedback results for men and women executives, she found that women only scored lower than men on 1 out of 10 traits - self-esteem. Similarly, Ibarra and Obodaru (2009) noted that many women are not considered "visionaries" because they tend to hesitate and not "go out on a limb." Ribitzky (2011) declared that:

> One reason women stumble is because others perceive them to be too "maternal" and essentially, not strong enough to be a leader. "Men and women manage very differently," says Nell Merlino. "Women want to get it right. It's not that men are out there to get it

> wrong, but you can bet that when Bill Gates makes a decision, he isn't fretting about what people will think of that decision. (p.1)

In concurrence with Pestrak (n.d.), who stated that senior female leaders who reached the upper echelons of corporate American cite having a positive attitude as one of the most important keys to success, the senior female interviewees in this study also listed attitude and confidence as keys to success.

To build that confidence many of the senior women interviewees felt that pushing themselves, surrounding themselves with the right people, not giving up, learning from mistakes and looking for opportunities for growth were integral in helping them believe in themselves. They encouraged young, aspiring female leaders to do the same with comments such as:

> There are a lot of people who get insecure and think they always have to be right. You are better off being wrong. Hire people smarter than you in certain areas. Be proud of them, promote them. It only advances you. A lot of young leaders are insecure and are intimidated by people who are smarter than them. Stay open to new ideas.
>
> I learned that some things that people say are merely cosmetic, and that you can't believe everything they say. The best way to handle situations where you are being treated unfairly is to look for opportunities. Some times, you have to know when it is time to move on and look for other opportunities outside the company. You can't think that you will always be rewarded by the same company. Sometimes you can stay too long and actually hamper your career rather than changing jobs. Learn to value new opportunities in other areas.
>
> Also, you should never say never. You might start out saying, "I'm only interested in this or that" but you still can combine interests with other things you never thought about doing. Continue to look for opportunities every five years, or even shorter than that. That's how you grow, even if it is within the same company. Don't think you will forever be in the same position. You will advance in salary and opportunities.

Madsen (2008) noted "Looking at failure as an opportunity to learn and grow rather than denying mistakes or blaming others is a quality that makes an exceptional leader" (p.205). Similar to the senior female interviewees in this study, the women leaders Madsen studied felt they had to learn from mistakes and failures and that they could not just sweep them under a rug or blame someone else for their difficulties.

Negotiation, Communication Styles and Power

The second concept, which emerged in an overlapping fashion, was negotiation, communication styles and power. Example responses and a short discussion follow each of these sub-themes.

Negotiation

> Women are generally horrible negotiators. Men respond to negotiating similar to athletics; but for women, it is similar to going to the dentist.

> Not asking for what you want and settling for what is offered. I had a colleague who needed to negotiate her rate. When I told her what my boss was offering, she said "Well, I guess this is ok." I said "If it was me, and I wasn't the middle man here, I would probably not accept the offer and counter with something higher to meet in the middle." She said "I don't want to lose the opportunity" and I said, "You won't." I pushed to get more for her and the boss said he would meet in the middle. She would have been fine accepting the lower offer. Men negotiate better. Whether it is a car salesman, etc. women don't negotiate but say "That's fair, I'll take that." And we lose out because of that. It doesn't even have to be money, it could be an opportunity. We wait on the next level to be offered to us as opposed to bringing it up.

According to Babcock and Lashever (2003) women don't ask. The responses from the senior female interviewees in this study suggest that this still holds true for most women. They noted that women don't ask for raises, promotions, better jobs, recognition or help. Babcock and Lashever also found that women do not negotiate their beginning salary, but men do, resulting in a four times higher starting rate than women. By not negotiating a first salary, a female stands to lose more than $500,000 by age 60. As a result, women end up starting their careers doing equal work, but earning less money, amounting to hundreds of thousands of dollars over a lifetime career.

Gangone (2009) in a conference address to the American Council on Education in Hawaii stated:

> When we ask and higher ups say 'no' the first time, we don't go back . . .if you believe in what you are asking for, it's your personal responsibility to keep on asking. We often don't ask for clarification. Do they mean no for now? Or does it mean "no" for the next six months? Or does it mean "no" for forever? (pg. 3)

This comment demonstrates a major difference between many men and women. Generally, women don't ask again, but men keep asking. Evans (2000) stated that "no" simply means that whatever a woman asked for at the time didn't happen. The "no" should not mean that women question whether they are bright or talented enough. Evans' younger son, who is the president of a California outsourcing company, shared that her son loved the word "no" because for him it was the first step to thinking strategically about how to convince his boss or client to get to a "yes" (p. 142). The senior female interviewees in this study confessed that earlier in their careers they did not think of "no" as a first step or an opportunity. Instead, in their anxiety about hearing the word "no" they often avoided asking for something in the first place.

Women within organizations may have the authority to negotiate, but they are often unsure of how to bargain confidently. Unfortunately, women have few female role models of effective negotiators and find it difficult to develop a comfortable and effective negotiating style because the rules of negotiating were developed by men. Kolb and Williams (2009) interviewed women and found that for women "*who"* is at the table can be just as important to the eventual outcome as "*what"* is on the table. They coined the term "shadow negotiation." For women, when they are bargaining over issues, they are also conducting a parallel negotiation in which they work out the terms of their relationship and their demands. The professional women they interviewed showed that managing shadow negotiation did not require being brash or aggressive. It did, however, involve mounting an *effective advocacy*. A bargainer's advocacy essentially defines her

claim to a place at the table. It tells the other side not only that she is going to be an active player, but that she will not, and does not, need to settle for less than she deserves. This is definitely a key lesson for young, aspiring women to learn.

> ***Communication Styles***
> One personnel problem I had involved a senior manager whom I promoted quickly. This manager had great experience, but when the rubber hit the road, she wasn't performing. She looked the part, which was nice. I found it hard to say "Your work doesn't meet my expectations." I used some of that soft talking feedback, and I was thinking perhaps that she would see what I was getting at. We got to a point when I thought "She is not a fit for the team." When I finally had to have that kind of performance review, I had not prepared her for it. I had been so afraid of hurting her feelings; I couldn't bring myself to tell her. Once I did tell her and worked on what she had to do, she improved and it has been great.

Frankel (2004) has found that women use qualifiers to calm their fears about being too direct or opinionated, which some of the senior women leader interviewees in this study admitted to doing. Frankel shares when women do that it softens or weakens their message. Instead she recommended that women give their opinions in clear, certain terms. Riggio (2010), however, shared that in the workplace the same behaviors displayed by men are interpreted entirely differently when they are displayed by women. For example, a woman might be described as having a short-temper, or being overly assertive and petulant. On the other hand, a male colleague would be described as arrogant, grouchy, or eccentric.

Meyerson, Ely, and Wernick (2007) found women face unique challenges as many mainstream organizations conflate stereotypical masculine traits with competence and leadership. They stated that:

> This conflation places women who seek leadership roles in a double bind: those who enact idealized masculine images of leadership, by definition, violate idealized feminine images of women and vice visa. The result is that women who are tough, confident, and decisive are demonized as bitchy, strident, and insensitive. By the same token, women who are sensitive, relational, and warm are discounted as weak, passive and too nice. Either way, women are seen as unfit for leadership roles (p.454).

In addition to being aware of how they communicate verbally, women also need to be aware of the non-verbal communication signals they display. Goman (2010) found that women undermine their authority with non-verbal communications and may not even be aware they are doing so. For example, women are perceived as submissive when they use too many head tilts while engaged in conversation. She further stated that women need to take up more space in meetings, sit at the table not in the back or along the sides of the room, use a firmer handshake, and smile less frequently in conversations. One of the female leader interviewees confirmed Goman's assertions as she too spoke about men, but not women, using their physicality to successfully assert themselves.

While the senior female interviewees mentioned many communication aspects young, aspiring female leaders could work on, they also discussed a strength that is often unique to women -

strong interpersonal communication skills (LaMarr, 2010). When women listen they don't just hear words; they listen to both the content and the way in which the message was delivered. A study by Caliper (2005) found that women use an inclusive style of leadership based upon open lines of communication. In addition, this study suggested that women are more persuasive than their male counterparts. They are less likely to withhold information for personal or selfish reasons, feeling that it is better to over communicate than not communicate and fail. These women leaders excelled in an environment which fostered collaborative discussions, ultimately resulting in stronger communication. Similarly, many of the senior female leaders in this study spoke about including others in their discussions and decision making.

Power

> You have to be aware of the politics. You have to have your eyes and ears open and pay attention. You have to process what is going on so you don't make mistakes.
>
> Earn your chips and play them carefully. Don't be afraid to make a move. In my political career, I learned that you are governed by the permission of the people you work with. If people are well prepared and trust you, you can move. As a leader, you have the freedom to make decisions, but you also should have the ability to back up those decisions.

According to Lips (2009), a woman leader stimulates a different reaction than a male leader because of learned expectations that are shaped and supported by the surrounding social structure. Sometimes that structure invalidates and undercuts a woman's attempts to be effective, influential, and powerful. Furthermore, the socialization process for most women does not prepare them to handle male-oriented organizational power structures that exist in many work environments. Traditionally, women have not been taught how to compete and master the unwritten rules of the organization. Doing these tasks comes harder for most women than their male counterparts. Hagberg (2003) shared two levels of organizational power that one must master to be successful in one's career. The first is *Power by Association*. This power is granted when individuals learn the skills and abilities of their chosen profession. Individuals learn on the job as they try to understand and make individual contributions to the organization. They look for a powerful role model to emulate. The second stage, *Power by Achievement*, occurs as individuals move up into the ranks of management. As a manager, a female leader is expected to demonstrate independence in thought, action and decision making. While at the same time she must take risks, understand the unwritten rules of the organization, negotiate, strategize, compete, and build effective coalitions. All of this takes place while she is building a team and maintaining a healthy balance between self interest and the good of the organization. Hagberg generalized that the stage, *Power by Association*, could be called a more feminine expression of power, whereas the stage, *Power by Achievement*, has a more masculine demonstration. For men, moving from the first stage to the second one is typically an easy transition as men are socialized to expect to move into leadership roles. And, if they are talented, other senior male leaders will mentor them to success. For women, Hagberg asserted that this transition is the hardest; some of the agentic, individualistic skills that are demanded by the *Power of Achievement* stage are foreign to the upbringing of women and how they have been shaped by culture. For women to excel as leaders, they must reflect on their experiences, take opportunities

to role play challenging situations and seek help from a mentor who has learned how to navigate through the more traditional masculine-identified traits needed for power and influence.

Aspiring young, female leaders need to learn the tactics of effective communication, negotiation, and power so that they can ask for what they need while watching for nonverbal communication cues that may undermine their power. Delivering messages to employees at the right time and using the correct words is instrumental. Truthful communication, such as the example of the interviewed senior female leader who had to tell her employee directly that she was not meeting expectations, can help young, aspiring females to learn from someone's mistakes instead of making the same mistakes themselves.

Networking and Relationship Building

In this study, the interviewees did not cite networking or mentoring as being as important as the previous two concepts. It was a surprising finding, in that networking and mentoring were prevalent in the literature review. The authors surmise this may be due to the scarcity of mentors available to these senior women as they were developing their careers. Nevertheless, reflective responses on this concept did appear in four of the five questions. Examples include:

> My biggest difficulty is fitting in and getting entrance into the strong men's network. Good advocacy from a man is viewed as strong, but can be viewed as harsh or even patronizing when coming from a woman.
>
> Finally, I see women fail when they do not build relationships and network early in their life. It is critical that women leverage other male and female professionals and make a big effort to establish an external network.
>
> Networking is critical. It's not who you know, it's who THEY know. It's also not about what people can do for you; it is about what you can do for them. Also external connections helped me get my current position. I built my own external networks in the community and help make connections between my contacts.

According to a 2011 Harvard Business Review Research Report, "the vast majority of highly qualified women don't have political allies to propel, inspire and protect them through the perilous straits of upper management" (Birigwa & Sumberg, 2011). This report further stated that having a sponsor conferred a statistical benefit of up to 30 percent in terms of stretch assignments, promotions, and increases in pay. A sponsor can be anyone who is willing to stick out his or her own neck to create an opportunity to help a young, aspiring, female leader. Unfortunately, some of the senior female interviewees noted that women were not as willing to help each other as men are to help each other, or even men are to help women. As one female respondent noted "I find women do not have camaraderie with other women, but are somewhat competitive with them. You still have some of that Mean Girls high school stuff that you deal with." In support of this statement, Okello (2008) claimed that women managers were more likely to promote a man than a woman because they were afraid of the competition. She stated that women take competition personally, whereas men understand that it's just part of doing business. The competition between women is often vicious and holds women back in the

workplace. As such, young, aspiring female leaders need to be wise and cautious about whom they seek out as mentors.

Balance

Balance was the fourth theme that emerged, however, it was not brought up nearly as much as the previous themes. The authors surmise that balance may not have been as strong of an issue for the senior women leaders interviewed because they had already mastered juggling many balls. It was also interesting to note that the comments regarding balance had as much to do with balancing feminine and masculine characteristics as they did with balancing work and life. One senior female interviewee made this comment about balance.

> One of the things that is a challenge for me as I have gotten older is balancing. When I was newer to leadership, I was very hard nosed about things and took a tougher approach to things. As I have grown in my role, I have come to respect the softer side of myself. How do I be a strong leader while having compassion and respect for a person's life? How do I balance the hard and soft parts?

Both senior and younger aspiring female leaders may find themselves essentially stuck in a place where they must balance their feminine qualities with masculine qualities to gain respect as a successful female leader. As stated by one senior female leader interviewed, women often feel that they must have the perfect balance to gain the respect of their peers and subordinates.

In addition to seeking balance between male and female qualities, many women still struggle with finding balance between home and family life. According to *The ABA Journal*, Facebook's chief operating officer Sheryl Sandberg has highlighted three reasons why many women, particularly those in law, may not be getting into top leadership positions in the workplace. She explained that most women often a) underestimate their own abilities, b) accept more than their share of responsibilities when it comes to caring for their children and taking care of the house, and c) give up on taking on more challenging work because of premature work-life balance uncertainties (Aguiluz, 2011). Having to take care of family and household responsibilities has often discouraged women from seeking leadership positions. This struggle was noted by senior female leaders who were interviewed with comments such as "The most critical problem a female leader faces is the balancing of family, career, and community service" and

> Women have a lot on their plate to balance. The stress and workload of high positions force many women to choose carefully without creating overload. For women, there are other ways to get satisfaction. Women may decide to take themselves out of the running [for top positions] by working part time, working for a small organization, or not working at all [to create balance].

Indeed, Schings (2009) found that one of the main reasons women did not seek leadership positions was the growing demands of the work-place conflicting with the demands of their family. This supports the comment made by one senior leader interviewed that women may decide to take themselves out of the running for top positions. According to a survey conducted in *Working Mother* (Owens, 2010), many women felt that having an employer with flexible policies helps them to become successful at both work and home. Women are more successful in their job if their company affords them the opportunity to have a flexible work-life schedule.

At least one of the senior leaders interviewed did note that this was a real issue for her direct reports by saying that "I'm sensitive to work/life balance and making sure my employees have a well-rounded life."

The COO of Facebook, Sheryl Sandberg, recently discussed her experience of dealing with ambitious young women who are concerned about the ramifications of becoming pregnant. Sandberg has seen opportunities pass women by while they tried to achieve pregnancy, which often took years. She has taken a proactive approach to communicating with her young talent that they should not pass up an opportunity to advance based solely on the fact that they want to have children (Bartz, Jackson, & Sandberg, 2009).

Until organizational structures adapt to meet the needs of both men and women, women will struggle with the complex issues of work and family obligations. If traditional roles prevail at work and home, women will always find it difficult to penetrate the highest levels of leadership.

Implications

Young aspiring women may find themselves in more of a sieve than a pipeline to leadership. The senior women in this study believe that women often lack confidence, do not display a positive attitude, struggle with communication style, are challenged by negotiation, and do not understand how to use power. Women still do not have strong networks, are often barred from men's networks, continue to face gender stereotypes, and encounter family pressures that may bleed them from the hierarchy. Women bring much needed skills to the global economic world of work, but careers are often derailed by the challenges described by the senior women leaders in this study.

Most importantly, women need to build their confidence. One interviewee remarked that women do not advocate for themselves enough and miss opportunities; while another said that the same lack of results comes from a fear of risk-taking. Young women who avoid these pitfalls will have a better chance of avoiding negative attitudes from others about women in leadership.

In addition to enhancing self-confidence, the responses from this study imply that to avoid common pitfalls, young women seeking leadership positions need to examine how they communicate and negotiate. They should pay especially close attention to both verbal and non-verbal forms of communication. In addition, as one interviewee counseled, women must be politically astute to advance at work. Another interviewee advocated goal setting, while still another advised that women learn to negotiate their successes. A successful navigation of all of these skills will help young women build a strong base of power.

Additionally, women need to develop networks, seek a mentor, and have a high level sponsor who will serve as an advocate if they wish to advance to the upper ranks. Women need to strengthen and lift each other up since all women face similar challenges regardless of industry, race, or occupation. Mentors and sponsors can help young women seek transparency in intentions, increase self-awareness, and improve communication skills. Although mentoring may be just one facet of career development for aspiring, female leaders, research has suggested mentoring leads to increased performance and upper mobility, early career advancement, higher

income, greater job satisfaction, and enhanced leadership ability (Bahniuk & Hill, 1998). Young aspiring females need to learn the value of networking at a young age as the senior women leaders in this study appeared to have fewer networks and took less advantage of the connections they did have to propel their careers forward. Younger aspiring females have to connect with mentors and sponsors while cultivating both formal and informal networks to advance their careers. All of the senior women leaders emphasized the importance of relying on one another to help women break into leadership positions in sufficient numbers so that a women's presence at the top would be no longer remarkable.

Finally, equality progress on the home front also needs to take place before women can achieve much needed balance and assume top leadership roles at work. Women hold most of the responsibility for running the home, which often derails them from the fast track of promotion. Until that dynamic is changed, woman may find themselves on the outside looking in. Creative solutions such as a "Results-Only Work Environment," which Best Buys has implemented, are a step in the right direction. Employees are paid based upon results, not time in the office. This has helped many employees balance the struggles of work and home responsibilities (Ressler & Thompson, 2011).

Learning from someone else's mistakes may save a young aspiring female leader from a failure that she might initially have thought was a good idea. Wilson (2004) expressed belief that for best results, women should not replace men, but lead along beside them. She noted that the work place needs both genders to create new policies for old organizations and to shift the burden from one person being in charge to several sharing the leadership responsibilities. Making these changes will allow both men and women to be great leaders.

Conclusion

The old way of doing business often referred to as "command and control" is fading away, and a new style of leadership that includes collaboration, inclusiveness and building relationships is taking its place ("Women leaders: The hard truth about soft skills," 2010). The characteristics that have been traditionally ascribed to women such as caring, collaborating, being inclusive, and sharing decision-making are now being seen as necessary for effective leadership. Werhane (2007) postulated that today's global corporations need just the kind of leadership women possess to succeed. Once a critical mass of women is achieved, the means of doing business can change to accommodate female behavior, often exemplified by a "transformational" leadership style (Maitra, 2007). Transformational leaders promote collaborative efforts, ask for commitment and creativity from fellow workers, and help inspire others. Gaining followers' trust and confidence is vital for the transformational leader's success. Leaders who operate in this style are confident, engaging, inspiring, participative, and ethical. By being confident in their natural abilities, women will earn respect, which will increase the number of top female leaders in the global economy.

Young, aspiring female leaders do need to listen and learn from women who have risen to the top leadership positions within their organizations. While the current gender inequality and lack of parity between men and women may seem disconnected from that of the past, it is not. It took the women who currently hold senior leadership positions to pave the way for where women

stand today. Appreciating and respecting senior women leaders will fortify a foundation for mutual growth and progression. Much value and wisdom can come from the words of those women who travelled the path before us.

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Factors Influencing Leadership in Collegiate Agricultural Organizations: The Role of Gender

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Abstract

This study examined the sources of motivation among collegiate leaders, focusing on gender differences. The study also sought to understand the strength of motivation and relationships between race/ethnicity, leadership experience, and leadership courses taken. Results showed male collegiate leaders were motivated Instrumentally, meaning motivation came from tangible rewards and incentives.

Introduction

Agricultural science has long been known as being male-dominated (Buttel & Goldberger, 2002). However, females are increasingly taking on more leadership roles in FFA (Ricketts, Osborne, & Rudd, 2004), America's workforce (Eagly & Carli, 2003), and the agriculture industry. Land-grant universities are no different, and are experiencing an unequal influx of young females entering their agricultural sciences programs (Buttel & Goldberger, 2002). "When I look at the issues we face, and when I think of the changes we need, I am convinced as I have ever been that our future depends on the leadership of women-not to replace men, but to transform our options alongside them" (Wilson, 2004, p. 5).

The trend of increasing female leadership within colleges of agricultural and life sciences has drawn research attention among research. Buttel and Goldberger believed that, "Because of women's distinctive 'situatedness' in knowledge production processes, women can be expected to hold different views than men regarding research, sciences and technology: generally more critical, more questioning, and more public regarding" and therefore have different attitudes towards agriculture research and industry (Buttel & Goldberger, 2002). Although female faculty has increased at many colleges of agricultural and life sciences since the 1960s, there has been little attention to what these women are doing or feeling while serving in these positions (Crowe & Goldberger, 2009). This implies that female motivation to serve in leadership positions has had little attention as well.

Females play an integral part in the American Association for Agricultural Education's Southern Region College of Agricultural and Life Sciences ambassador teams at Auburn University, University of Arkansas, University of Florida, University of Georgia, University of Kentucky, Louisiana State University, Mississippi State University, North Carolina State University, Clemson University, University of Tennessee, and Virginia Tech. The responsibility of College of Agricultural and Life Sciences ambassadors is to engage in student leadership and academic success, support their state's food production and natural resources, and to interact with diverse populations through public speaking and networking while sharing career and academic opportunities with students.

Research has shown that men and women lead different ways (Lauterbach & Weiner, 1996), and the trends of female leadership have gained recent attention. In seeking to find factors contributing to the recent phenomena of female leadership within College of Agricultural and Life Sciences ambassador teams the research problem leading this study was, what is motivating collegiate leaders to seek and retain leadership positions and how do those sources differ between males and females? The study also sought to uncover reasons why women hold leadership positions in an ever changing, and evolving society and to provide professionals and educators with research to better understand gender role differences in the area of collegiate motivation and leadership.

This study is significant to collegiate leadership and our society today because society's definition of leadership is changing (Hammer & Champy, 1994) from a traditional hierarchical approach to a more team oriented approach. Kim Phipps, President of Messiah College, believes it is essential for females to hold highly recognized leadership roles because they are able to bring new perspectives to the decision making process (Fishlock, 2010). Discovering the sources of motivation that are driving females to take a more active role in college leadership will benefit the field of leadership studies and student development. Colleges of Agricultural and Life Sciences will be better able to customize leadership courses to help further understand those sources of motivation. Students who understand how they are motivated can positively build upon those sources of motivation, foster it in other students or employees around them, and become a more transformational leader themselves. Learning the underlying sources of motivation may also help explain why filling a leadership role with a female is so appealing to professionals in academia and America's workforce.

Student ambassadors may have had experience participating in leadership and personality assessments which presented a threat that their experience in leadership positions and extracurricular activities may lead them to give the 'socially desired' answer. This creates a question whether or not the ambassadors completed the assessment truthfully. This limitation was addressed by administering an informed consent form that ensured participants that their answers are kept confidential.

Literature Review

The primary foundation for this study was Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl's (1999) Self Concept-Based Work Motivation model. This model integrates many prior theories of motivation and their perspectives of the process of motivation and is most appropriate for researching sources of motivation when including the factor of self-concept, as this study did (Leonard, Beauvais, & Scholl, 1999). The purpose of developing the Self Concept-Based Work Motivation model was to adapt prior motivational theories and to create a unifying framework for motivation (Leonard, Beauvais, & Scholl, 1999). Traditional models of motivation may not offer explanations for more diverse behaviors in organizational settings (Leonard, Beauvais, & Scholl, 1999). This theory of self-concept strived to fill a gap in motivational theory research, because previously there was not a recognized theory that strongly supported the findings of motivational factors through research (Locke & Henne, 1986).

Leonard, Beauvais and Scholl (1999) proposed that there are five sources of motivation that integrated prior theories of motivation. These five sources of motivation include: intrinsic process, instrumental, self-concept external, self-concept internal and goal internalization and are listed as the first proposition made by Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl. Intrinsic process motivation will identify students that enjoy their work and view it as an incentive and fun. Instrumentally motivated students will seek tangible rewards, such as pay or promotions. Students with self-concept external motivation may seek social acceptance or status and have a strong need for affiliation. Self-concept internal motivation will identify students that have strong internal standards and behave in a way consistent with those believes and values. Finally, goal internalization motivation will relate to students with a sense of responsibility and are very goal driven (Leonard, Beauvais, & Scholl, 1999).

We know that the definition of leadership is evolving. Postindustrial leadership focuses on relationships and how they develop as well as a shared commitment to an ultimate goal or mission (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998), sharing responsibility, having to create change, and being inclusive (Rost, 1993), and these postindustrial leadership characteristics have been found in collegiate leadership (Shertzer & Schuh, 2004). There is also evidence that leadership is changing to favor the female gender role since contemporary leadership is modeling the role of an advisor or coach and is less hierarchical than traditional leadership (Eagly & Carli, 2003). Modern leadership may encompass collaboration, teamwork, having the ability to support, engage and empower your followers (Hammer & Champy, 1994). Eagly and Carli (2003) suggested that when organizations are more gender-balanced they have a larger selection of qualified and talented leaders. “Appointments of women signal an organization’s departure from past practices and help it to capture the symbols of innovation and progressive change” (Eagly & Carli, 2003, p. 827). Modern organizational practices have also opened a door for female leadership and presented a more ‘level playing field’ (Klein, 2000).

Also, the difference in how males and females connect emotionally with others could play a role in building professional relationship with superiors (Lauterbach & Weiner, 1996). Gender roles in leadership develop with females having a more community-oriented perspective and males having a more task-oriented perspective (Eagly & Carli, 2003). When researching possible gender differences among the five sources of motivation, Barbuto and Fritz (2002) discovered that males scored significantly higher in instrumental motivation. Although no additional differences were found, Barbuto and Fritz stated that no prior studies had examined gender using the Motivation Sources Inventory.

Prior research has found that females tend to display a lower level of extrinsic motivation than males and have a higher need for affiliation and need for power (Rohs & Anderson, 2001), and tend to lead more democratically with a participative style of leadership rather than a more directive style when compared to male leaders (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Although researchers linked leadership to risk-taking which is most commonly found in males, research has shown that the variance between gender and risk-taking has decreased (Byrnes,

Miller, & Schafer, 1999). These findings indicate one of the contributing factors to emerging female leadership may be the increase in risk-taking behavior in females.

While seeking to discover the underlying factors that contribute to the phenomenon of female leaders emerging in Florida FFA, Ricketts, Osborne and Rudd (2003) suggested seven components that contribute to a student's level of leadership and involvement. These components included: family, FFA, school, self, agriculture program FFA Chapters, community, and the student's agriscience teacher. The study showed that females were prominently leading in the rural Florida FFA Chapters and that females were more willing to work, more motivated, more mature and more likely to step outside of their comfort zone than male students. The researchers also suggested further research to "become more aware of the underlying factors that influence imbalanced gender leadership in local FFA chapters" (Ricketts, Osborne, & Rudd, 2004, p. 51). This study has sought to do so.

A 2008 Girl Scouts of America study found that young females from 8-17 years of age tended to reject formal leadership roles. These young ladies seemed to already consider themselves leaders because of their ability to make a difference in the world around them and bring about social change (Girl Scout Research Institute, 2008). Females enhance others' experiences while males tend to focus at their own experiences (Lerner, 1989), and the trend of female leadership is spread from young developing females, into high school, college, and throughout the workplace.

Over the years leaders have emerged within the agriculture industry, and cannot afford to leave out leadership within our colleges (Barrett, 1983). Agricultural students are taking advantage of leadership courses offered in college, as well as students outside the college of agricultural and life sciences (Fritz, et. al, 2003). This indicates that there is a strong demand for leadership education at a collegiate level. Over 72 percent of participants in college of agricultural and life sciences student organizations join the organization to further seek leadership development opportunities (Hoover & Dunigan, 2004), and leadership skills contribute to the success of college students (Fritz, et. al, 2003).

As shown in the literature, leadership experience, gender, and motivation are important components of collegiate leadership. The following conceptual model (Figure 1) displays these relationships. This study examined factors that may contribute to collegiate leaders' motivation, specifically focusing on gender differences.

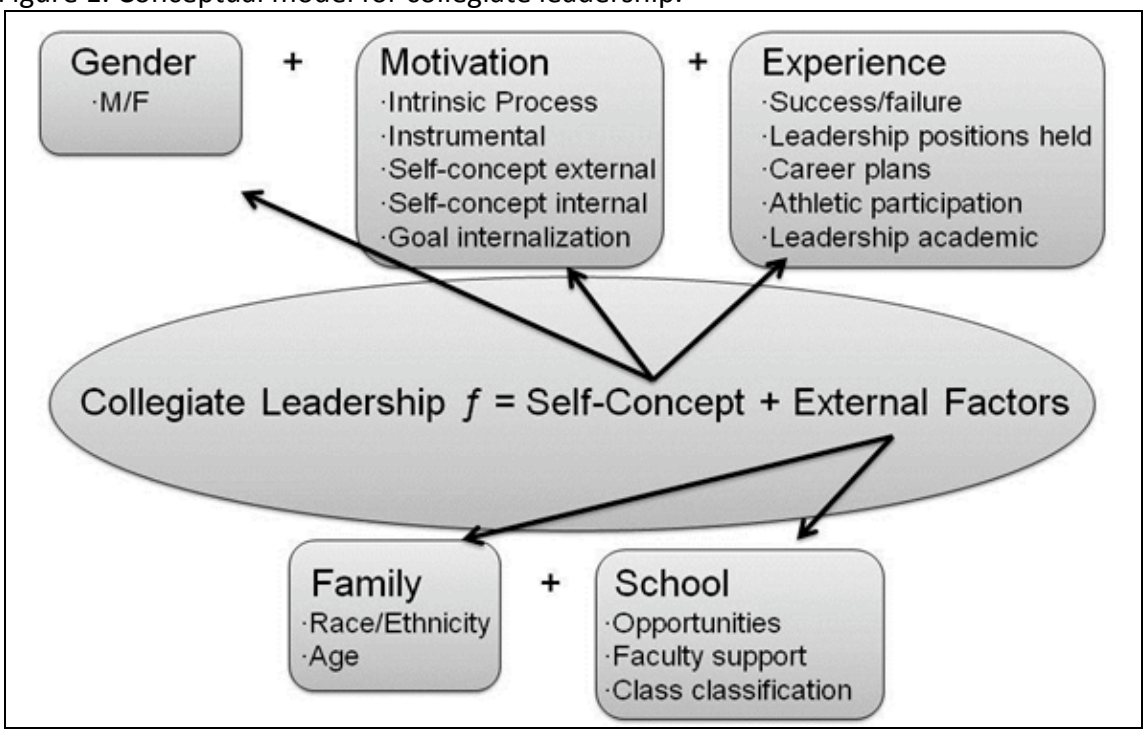
1. Collegiate leadership – Any position of leadership held by students within a university or college organization.
2. Self-concept – Adapted from Ricketts, Osborne, & Rudd (2003), self-concept is the component of Self from the Conceptual Model of Factors Affecting the Emergence of Leaders in Local FFA Chapters. Self-concept was made up of the following factors:
    a. Gender – For the purpose of this study gender was defined as female or male and was self-reported.
    b. Motivation – Includes Leonard, Beauvais, & Scholl's scale of Sources of Motivation that identify five sources of motivation: intrinsic process,

instrumental, self-concept external, self-concept internal, and goal internalization.

c. Experience – Components adopted from Ricketts, Osborne, & Rudd (2003) include: success/failure, positions held, career plans, athletic and academic participation. For the purpose of this study, the positions held were adapted to leadership positions held and academic participation was adapted to leadership academic.

3. External factors – Identified family and school as factors that are not able to be controlled. Included in family were factors of age and race/ethnicity and included in the component of school was class classification, opportunities, and faculty support.

Figure 1. Conceptual model for collegiate leadership.



The purpose of this study was to determine if male and female collegiate leaders are motivated differently. To do so, the researcher sought to compare the sources of motivation between male college female leaders. To guide this study, the following objectives were established:

1. Determine the source of motivation among female and male collegiate leaders.
2. Differentiate between sources of motivation in male and female collegiate leaders.
3. Examine the strength of sources of motivation and relationships between race/ethnicity, leadership experience, and leadership courses taken by the student or currently being taken.

Methods

Data has been presented in a quantitative method and the research design was descriptive survey, which utilized the Motivation Sources Inventory (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998). Possible errors with a descriptive survey include measurement error, sampling error, and non-response error. Measurement error was addressed by utilizing an instrument that had proven reliability and validity in past studies, "the relatively high validity and reliability of the measure indicate that the subscales capture the five sources of motivation" (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998, p. 1017), however; this study selected a population that had not utilized the instrument in prior research and a post-hoc reliability test was conducted. Each source of motivation produced a Cronbach Alpha score higher than .6, (Intrinsic Process=.65, Instrumental=.77, Self-concept External=.83, Self-concept Internal=.64, Goal Internal=.82).

A convenient sample was taken of the Southern Region American Association for Agricultural Education (AAAE, 2010), 1862 Land-Grant universities Colleges of Agricultural and Life Sciences (CALS) collegiate ambassador teams. Universities included: Auburn University, University of Arkansas, University of Florida, University of Georgia, University of Kentucky, Louisiana State University, Mississippi State University, North Carolina State University, Clemson University, University of Tennessee, and Virginia Tech. Each of the 11 universities participated and an overall response rate of 65.1% (*n*=177) was obtained. Collegiate ambassadors are elected by an application and interview process and are responsible for representing their College of Agricultural and Life Sciences by sharing student opportunities, traveling locally and representing their colleges, and traveling nationally to promote what their college is doing in the field of agricultural and life sciences. The size of ambassador teams ranged from eight to 48 team members.

The Motivation Sources Inventory (MSI) seeks to identify dominant sources of motivation in individuals and includes Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl's (1999) five sources of motivation: Intrinsic Process, Instrumental, External Self-concept, Internal Self-concept, and Goal Internalization. The MSI consisted of 30 questions, six questions for each of the five sources of motivation. The questionnaire also included 6 questions asking the student's gender, age, race/ethnicity, class classification, prior leadership experience, and prior of currently being taken leadership education. Participants were asked whether prior leadership experience was held during their high school or college careers at either a local, regional, state, or national level. Prior leadership education taken or currently being taken included Interpersonal Leadership, Leadership Development Theory, Communication and Leadership, Global Leadership, Leading Change or Change Leadership, Learning Organizations, Ethics, or other.

Data Analysis was completed of the 177 questionnaires and entered into SPSS to identify any statistical significance. ANOVA analyses were conducted so the five dependent variables of motivation were compared to the independent variable of gender. Descriptive statistics were run with the variables of: gender, ethnicity, age, classification, leadership experience, and leadership education. Means and frequencies were also calculated.

Findings

Demographics included in this study were: gender, age, race/ethnicity, class classification, prior leadership experiences, and prior or currently being taken leadership education courses. All demographics were self-reported by participating ambassadors. An overwhelming 68% (*n*=120) of the participating student ambassadors at southeastern Colleges of Agricultural and Life Sciences were female, 32% (*n*=57) male. Table 1 displays male and female involvement.

Table 1. Frequencies and percentages of participants gender.

	f	P	Total Answered
			177
Female	120	68.00%	99.90%
Male	57	32.00%	

Among class ranks, the senior class (44.07%, *n*=78) was the most represented student class. The majority of ambassadors were 20 (29.94%, *n*=53) and 21 (37.85%, *n*=67) years old. Although there was a diverse range of race/ethnicities present, results showed that 86% (*n*=153) of ambassadors reported being of White race/ethnicity. Table 2 further illustrates the demographics of the race/ethnicities of participants. The US Census (2010) was used as an example to follow when selecting which race/ethnicities to include as options on the questionnaire.

Table 2. Frequencies and percentages of participants race/ethnicity.

	f	P	Total Answered
			177
White	153	86.44%	99.90%
African American	10	5.65%	
Another Hispanic Latino/Spanish	5	2.82%	
Puerto Rican	3	1.69%	
Asian Indian	2	1.13%	
Korean	1	.56%	
Vietnamese	1	.56%	
Chinese	1	.56%	
Some other	1	.56%	

An overwhelmingly 92.66% (*n*=164) ambassadors reported having some type of prior leadership experience either holding an organization's Chair, Chair-Elect, President, Vice President, President-Elect, Captain, or Co-Captain position, being held in both high school (47.07%, *n*=297) and college (52.93%, *n*=334), primarily at a local level (81.93%, *n*=517). The amount of leadership education courses taken or currently being taken by ambassadors within their College of Agricultural and Life Sciences was over half of the participants (52.54%). Responses indicated that Communication and Leadership (29.38%, *n*=52) had been taken most often by students, and Global Leadership (3.39%, *n*=6) was the least taken course among participants. Table 3 explains these findings in more detail.

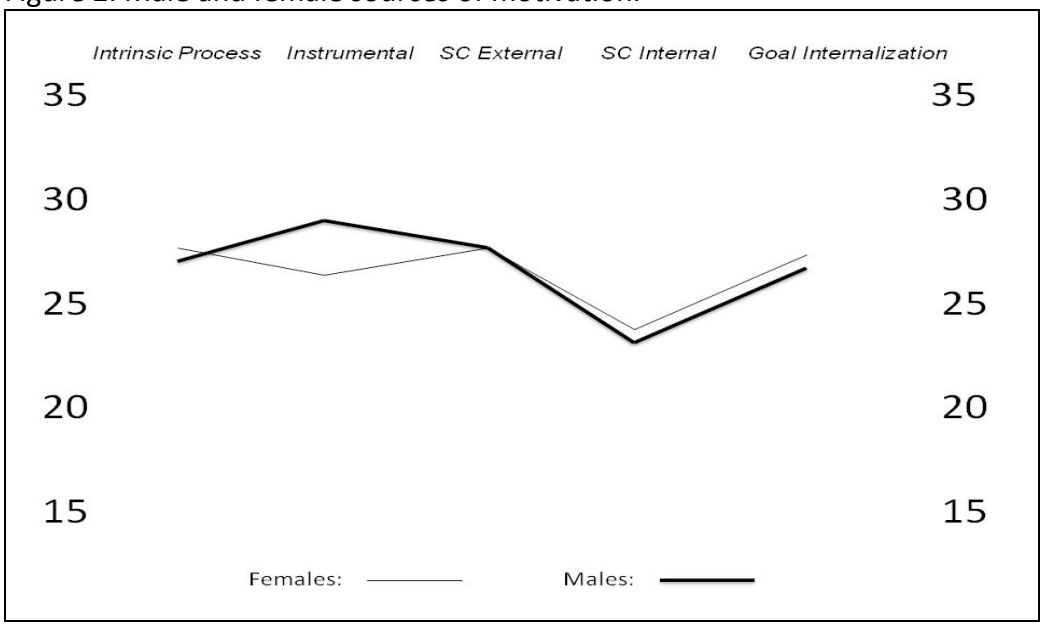
Table 3. Frequencies and percentages of participants leadership courses.

	f	P	Total Answered
			175
Interpersonal leadership	24	13.56%	99.90%
Leadership development theory	33	18.64%	
Communication and leadership	52	29.38%	
Global leadership	6	3.39%	
Leading change/change Leadership	13	7.34%	
Learning organizations	16	9.04%	
Ethics	15	8.47%	
Other leadership courses	16	9.04%	

Objective 1

Females scored highest in Intrinsic Process motivation (27.86%, *n*=39) and males scored highest in Instrumental motivation (36.76%, *n*=25). Both males (32.35%, *n*=22) and females (26.43%, *n*=37) scored second highest on Self-concept External motivation. Both females (.71%, *n*=1) and males (0%, *n*=0) scored lowest on Self-concept Internal motivation. Figure 2 further displays the distribution of MSI female and male scores.

Figure 2. Male and female sources of motivation.



Objective 1 sought to determine the source of motivation among collegiate leaders. Responses indicated that Intrinsic Process motivation had the highest mean average (*M*=26.77) with the lowest standard deviation (*SD*=.20). Instrumental (*M*=26.33, *SD*=.39) and Self-concept External (*M*=26.28, *SD*=.41) motivation followed closely behind, along with Goal Internalization (*M*=25.86, *SD*=.25) motivation. The lowest ranked source of motivation among ambassadors was Self-concept Internal (*M*=22.78, *SD*=.24). Data analysis revealed that the four highest

answered questions were all Intrinsic Process motivational source questions. Questions 6, (*M*=5.77, *SD*=.04), 1 (*M*=5.59, *SD*=.06), 16 (*M*=5.58, *SD*=.05), and 21 (*M*=5.46, *SD*=.03) were all questions related to the participant's excitement about doing activities that are considered fun and enjoyable, as well as spending time with others that were fun to be around.

Objective 2

Objective 2 sought to differentiate between sources of motivation in male and female collegiate leaders. Although differences were not significant between Intrinsic Process (F=2.76, p>.05), Self-concept External (F=.00, p>.05), Self-concept Internal (F=3.18, p>.05), and Goal Internalization (F=.40, p>.05), one significant relationship showed that gender does make a difference on a collegiate leader's Instrumental motivation (F=4.86, p<.05). Table 4 displays statistical results.

Table 4. One-way analysis of variance between gender and sources of motivation.

	F	*Sig*
Intrinsic process	2.76	.09
Instrumental	4.86	.02*
Self-concept external	.00	.97
Self-concept internal	3.18	.07
Goal internalization	.40	.52

**Statistical significance*

Objective 3

Objective 3 sought to examine the strength of difference between sources of motivation and race/ethnicity, leadership experience, and leadership courses taken by the student or currently being taken. Data indicated that students who had prior leadership experience scored higher on all but one source of motivation, Instrumental. Responses indicated that that there was not a statistical significance difference between sources of Intrinsic Process (F=.65, p>.05), Instrumental (F=.35, p>.05), Self-concept External (F=.01, p>.05), Self-concept Internal (F=.06, p>.05), and Goal Internalization (F=.22, p>.05) motivation and race/ethnicity. Responses also indicated that there was not a statistical significance difference between sources of Intrinsic (F=.11, p>.05), Instrumental (F=.18, p>.05), Self-concept External (F=.66, p>.05), Self-concept Internal (F=.53, p>.05), Goal Internalization (F=1.95, p>.05) motivation and leadership experience or a statistical significance difference between sources of Intrinsic (F=1.03, p>.05), Instrumental (F=1.73, p>.05), Self-concept External (F=.50, p>.05), Self-concept Internal (F=.03, p>.05), Goal Internalization (F=.22, p>.05) motivation and prior or current leadership education.

Recommendations/Implications

Females are seeking and retaining leadership positions in college. A description of the population sample indicated that 120 (68%) of the entire 177 participants were female. This conclusion follows the trend that females are more likely than males to take part in student clubs (Sax & Arms, 2008), especially if they were involved in similar student organizations while in high school (Astin, 2004). It seems that females are getting an earlier start at holding

leadership positions in grade school. This could be because also around the same time males are becoming very active in sports and athletics and may not be able to hold leadership positions in student organizations while also partaking in high school sports that require after school practice.

This conclusion also supports prior literature suggesting that females raised in more liberal households and that have been exposed to a more forward thinking perspective will be more aware of ways they can become involved in organizations that match their personal perspective (Biddix, 2010). Because females enter college with a lower self-confidence than males (Sax & Arms, 2008), taking part in a leadership position may be helping gain more self-confidence among young collegiate female leaders. This finding supports prior literature that states students who pursue leadership roles are more successful in further developing leadership skills (Cooper, et al., 1994). CALS ambassador advisors should continue to strive and obtain more male ambassadors to serve on their teams. Because this study shows that males are motivated more by incentives and rewards, by offering students boastful rights or non-materialistic prizes, such as an opportunity or pass from work, male ambassadors may be more likely to get involved and recruit other males to join.

CALS ambassador teams are diverse in age of students and class ranking distribution. The description statistics displayed a mean of 20.6 years old of participants and a mean of 3.3 that indicated an average class classification of participants was a junior, 3rd year student. Although there are many different race/ethnicities identified among CALS ambassador teams, data indicated that 153 (86.4%) student ambassadors are White. This discovery supports literature indicating that there are little cross-cultural understandings on college campuses and there is a need to offer more opportunities for international students to become more active within their university and ultimately raise the awareness of cross-cultural understandings (Sherry, Thomas & Chui, 2009).

CALS ambassadors have had prior leadership experience, specifically at the local level. The data indicated 164 (92.7%) ambassadors claimed they had held leadership position prior to becoming a leader within their college. Leadership experience is the highest percentage of any characteristic among participants. Although data did not indicate a significant difference between leadership experience and the sources of motivation of the student, participants with prior leadership experience scored above average on four of the five sources of motivation. Because our population sample was primarily female, this supports the literature that females who become activist leaders in college held similar positions while in high school (Astin, 2004).

Half of CALS ambassadors take advantage of leadership courses offered in their college. Data indicated that 93 (52.5%) of participants had taken or were currently taking a leadership course within their CALS. CALS leadership courses being taken by students are not evenly distributed. Among the 175 reported leadership courses taken by students, 52 (29.7%) were a Communication and Leadership course and only six (3.4%) of all courses reported been taken were a Global Leadership course.

Male and female collegiate leaders are Instrumentally motivated differently. A significant score of .029 was found at the $p<.05$, 95% confidence interval. This indicates that gender plays a role in whether the student is motivated by activities that promise rewards and tangible incentives. This discovery supports literature stating that women do not seek to own their own business or accumulate wealth as much as men do (Sax & Arms, 2008), and that women seem to be more concerned if the work they do is meaningful (Biddix, 2010). Although the finding was not significant, the majority of females were motivated intrinsically, that supports literature findings that females prefer work that is also fun (Biddix, 2010). The student's race/ethnicity, prior leadership experience or leadership education does not have an impact on how the CALS ambassador is motivated. Data indicated no difference existing between the student's source of motivation and the student's race/ethnicity, whether or not the student had leadership experience, or any leadership education

Recommendations for Practice & Future Research

CALS student organizations should promote the overall mission and purpose of the organization, as well as offer incentives and rewards to attract both instrumentally and intrinsicly motivated students. They should implement a work pattern model for college activist organizations, which guides student organizations through steps of recruiting diverse groups of students to get involved, stay involved, and get others involved (Biddix 2010). Steps included in the work pattern include: initial recruiting, the first meeting, electronic follow-up, planning an event, advertising the event, and the event occurring.

CALS should strive to seek and retain student leaders with diverse ethnic and racial background and promote cross-cultural differences because international students that do not gain social support and involvement may not succeed (Sherry, Thomas & Chui, 2010) when facing common struggles that international students face such as language barriers, being homesick, discrimination, financial problems, cultural barriers, and feeling alienated (Yeh & Inose, 2003). To help do so, CALS should hold lingual seminars to help international students with their most prominent struggle, to become more fluent in English (Sherry, Thomas, & Chui, 2010).

CALS faculty and staff should continue to encourage female involvement in collegiate leadership and student organizations. Females still face inequality when choosing a major (Astin, 1993), and at work salaries (Jacobs, 1996). But CALS ambassador advisors, faculty, staff, and Dean should still be aware of the small numbers of males participating in CALS ambassadors. High school student organizations should be targeted for CALS leadership organizations and leadership positions recruitment and Global leadership courses should campaign for more enrollments of CALS students. CALS should utilize Barbuto's Motivational Source Inventory in the classroom to assist students in discovering and learning about their personal sources of motivation and how it impacts how they interact with others and participate in organizations. Programs and policies should be regularly evaluated to consider difference male and female experiences and how those experiences have an impact on outcomes (Sax & Arms, 2008). To cater to student motives and engage both males and females,

CALS leadership should develop courses that is fun and enjoyable and offers incentives for students.

The methodology of this study should be repeated with a larger population sample that can equally represent both genders along with race/ethnicities as well as repeated in the remaining regions of CALS ambassador teams, alternative college ambassador teams, as well as the 4-H youth organization. And a qualitative study should be conducted to further examine the motives of collegiate leaders and to ensure conclusions. A more in-depth study should be conducted to examine student interest in leadership courses offered by CALS as well as why males are not seeking and retaining leadership positions within their CALS. A study should be conducted to examine the success of utilizing a work pattern model for college activist organizations in the recruitment process, and to examine what barriers are preventing international students to partake in CALS leadership ambassador teams.

Conclusions

This study's entire population was collegiate leaders. Although the study received a high response rate (65.10%) of the selected population sample (*n*=177), generalizability was limited due to the convenient sample which only included AAAE's Southern Regions CALS Land-Grant university ambassador teams. Results are generalizable to CALS collegiate leaders, more directly CALS ambassadors in the southeastern US region. Although CALS ambassador teams are evenly diverse in age and class rankings and there are many different race/ethnicities identified among CALS ambassador teams, student ambassadors are primarily White and he majority of CALS ambassador teams are overwhelmingly female.

CALS ambassadors have had prior leadership experience, specifically at the local level. Half of CALS ambassadors take advantage of leadership courses offered in their college and results indicated that leadership courses are not being evenly taken or encouraged to take by CALS. Also, CALS ambassadors are primarily Intrinsicly motivated and least motivated by Self-concept Internally. Gender does make a difference whether or not the student is motivation Instrumentally. This study showed that male collegiate leaders are more Instrumentally motivated and female collegiate leaders are more Intrinsicly motivated. Finally, the student's race/ethnicity, prior leadership experience or leadership education does not have an impact on how the CALS ambassador is motivated.

With females becoming more involved in southeastern Colleges of Agriculture and Life Sciences ambassador teams this study discovered the sources that are motivating them to serve in these leadership roles. This study looked at females in between high school and the workforce and focused on the motivation sources among college-aged females holding leadership positions in their colleges. This study hoped to further develop the knowledge base of student motivation as it relates to leadership and to confront the mystery of recent trends in female collegiate leadership.

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The Chefs of Gumbo University: The Experiences of Women Who Are Senior-level Higher Education Administrators in Louisiana

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Abstract

There appears to be a disparity of equitable representation between women and men in senior leadership positions in higher education. This study explored the lived experiences of female senior-level higher education administrators in Louisiana. Themes that emerged from the data collection and interviews will be presented.

Introduction

Throughout history, leaders have been males or women who had male-like characteristics (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Historically, society has continued to identify leaders as men, specifically *great men* (Bass, 1990). A *great man* earned leadership positions primarily because of personal wealth, whether earned or inherited. One can find examples of great men leaders in the Bible, religious institutions, politics, corporations, military, education at all levels, and in other organizations. Thus, society has excluded women as leaders because of many not having the sought after great man traits. Many viewed women leaders as ones who gained leadership positions by any means possible, including dishonest practices, causing women in contemporary times to have great difficulty in assuming leadership positions (Bolman & Deal, 2003).

The great man theory, though changing, continues to prevail today in both corporate organizations and in higher education (Bass, 1990). In higher education, the number of women college presidents has increased from 9.1% to 21.1% since 1986, but college presidents are still mostly men. The highest representation is (27%) women leaders in two-year colleges. Women represent 13% of presidents in doctorate-granting institutions. Women still represent the minority of individuals who hold senior-level positions. For example, the typical college president is a 57-year old white male, married, with a doctorate, in office for 6.6 years, and previously worked as chief academic officer or provost (American Council on Education, 2002).

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore the lived experiences of female participants. Experiences included skills and behaviors perceived as factors helpful for a female to ascend to a senior leadership position in higher education in Louisiana. The study participants were women who had experience and served as senior-level administrators within one of 14 four-year public universities. The purposive sample included a chancellor, an executive vice president, a provost, vice presidents, vice chancellors, and a vice provost. The research questions guiding this study explored and collected participant insights in the structures, processes, and career ascension experiences of female senior-level higher education administrators.

Literature Review

Research reviewed began with a historical survey of women in the academy, beginning as students and becoming administrators. Specifically, the review offered information about the purpose of higher education and discussion about the first generation of women attending higher education. Another purpose of the review was to offer information about the history of women working in higher education and concluded with identifying the first female senior-level administrator in Louisiana.

The literature review provided a discussion about the barriers women perceived that reduced opportunities for advancement in higher education, categorized as the meritocracy model, discrimination model, and place model. The meritocracy model was discussed by identifying internal barriers. Studies regarding internal barriers, woman's academic background and career plans and career paths, were identified and analyzed.

The discrimination model related to gender. Research revealed how external or institutional barriers inhibit women from obtaining senior-level higher education administrative positions. Empirical studies identified the laws implemented to prevent discrimination against women, impact of the campus climate and environment as related to the glass ceiling, and the processes to hire and promote women in the institution.

Theories and literature regarding the woman's place model were identified and discussed. Research focusing on societal barriers were selected and addressed. Findings from the studies were categorized into the role of a woman, what a leader looks like, which in turn causes stereotyping, bias behaviors, and sex segregation when a woman attempts to move out of her role.

The literature review concludes with reviewing the literature as related to the status of senior-level higher education administrators in Louisiana. The research in this section began with an explanation about the opportunities of women in the higher education system in Louisiana. Also, the literature review concludes with showing data about the lack of women in senior-level positions, particular in the four-year public institutions.

Methods

The research method selected for this study was qualitative. Qualitative research "examines human behavior in the social, cultural, and political contexts in which they occur" (Salkind, 2003, p. 13). A qualitative research method explores a research problem to understand a central phenomenon (Creswell, 2002; Neuman, 2003; Salkind, 2003). An investigation of a research problem was necessary because little research exists or researchers know only a limited amount about the phenomenon studied. In this study, a minimal amount of literature existed about the experiences of women in senior-level higher education administrative positions in Louisiana. Obtaining and maintaining a leadership position as senior-level higher education administrator is a complex study and required a qualitative method, including a thorough investigation (Creswell, 2002; Neuman, 2003; Salkind, 2003). A qualitative study was appropriate for this exploration and phenomenology and is the best method to use when seeking meaning and understanding of a phenomenon under study (Creswell, 2002). Certain factors determined the research method most appropriate for the problem. According to Creswell (1994), for quantitative research,

> the problem evolves from the literature, so a substantial body of literature exists on which the researcher can build. Variables are known, and theories may exist that need to be tested and verified. For qualitative studies the research problem needs to be explored because little information exists on the topic. The variables are largely unknown, and the researcher wants to focus on the context that may shape the understanding of the phenomenon being studied. (p. 10)

The phenomenological method facilitated in achieving the goals of the study because the method of reflection required by the participants "occurs throughout the phenomenological approach [and] provides a logical, systematic, and coherent resource for carrying out the analysis and synthesis needed to arrive at essential descriptions of experience" (Moustakas, 1994, p. 47). Hycner (1999) explained that selecting a group of participants and studying the phenomenon

dictates the design to use in research. The focus of this study was an attempt to provide new data that can help enhance and develop strategies implementing specialized training, support systems, or programs that might enable females to gain senior leadership positions in higher education. The research questions were broad and open-ended to explore the experiences of women in senior-level higher education administrative positions in Louisiana. Data collection and analysis methods used in this study were qualitative. An oral interview took place with the participants accompanied with audio recordings and typed transcripts. The interviews of the participants ultimately provided data essential to identify themes.

A phenomenological research design was essential because the literature lacks information about the experiences of women in senior-level higher education administrative positions in the state of Louisiana (Creswell, 2002). Performing a phenomenological research design allowed the women to tell their stories and to share their lives with others (Creswell, 2002). In addition, participants in this study provided their personal accounts about the barriers and status of female senior-level higher education administrators in Louisiana. In this study, a phenomenological research design provided the reader mental pictures of successful women through the descriptive narrative of the purposive sample of participants (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1997) who have acquired positions as senior-level higher education administrative leaders in Louisiana. This design allowed the participants an opportunity to reflect on their professional and personal experiences (Cortazzi, 1993).

Within this study, the purposive sample included a chancellor, an executive vice president, a provost, vice presidents, vice chancellors, and a vice provost. The following research questions guided the study and contributed information for analysis:

1. What patterns, themes, or trends do female senior-level higher education administrators perceive that characterize the professional skills needed by female senior-level higher education administrators?
2. What strategies do female senior-level higher education administrators use in establishing their professional identity?
3. What strategies do females use to gain entry into the role of a senior-level higher education administrator?
4. What norms, biases, or barriers do female senior-level higher education administrators perceive that limit the career advancement of women to senior-level higher education administration?
5. What insights can be gained from the demographic information pertaining to the female senior-level higher education administrative personal and professional background?

The target population or sampling frame (Creswell, 2002) included senior-level women in one of the 14 four-year public universities in Louisiana. Because senior-level women were not present at all 14 institutions, the study included the following: Grambling State University, Louisiana State University, Louisiana State University in Shreveport, Louisiana Tech University, McNeese State University, Northwestern State University, Southern University and A & M College, Southern University at New Orleans, University of Louisiana at Lafayette, and University of New Orleans.

The right instrument is critical to the success of the interviews and the research study (Meltzoff, 1998). A questionnaire and set of open-ended questions gathered the interview data,

followed by an analysis to identify emerging themes. A management tool to avoid a lengthy and redundant interview consisted of a questionnaire, which the participants filled out in advance. The questionnaire, collected before the interviews, served to obtain professional and personal information and assist with developing themes. Taped interviews served as a means by which to check interviewee information for accuracy with the field notes.

The data collection process occurred eight days during a three-week period. Week one consisted of 13 interviews: three on the first day, three on the second day, one on the third day, three on the fourth day and three on the fifth day. Week two consisted of three interviews: two on the sixth day, one on the seventh day. The final interview occurred during week three, which was a telephone interview. Interviews lasted a minimum of 25 minutes and a maximum of one hour and fifteen minutes. The distance traveled by the researcher to the various participant interviews totaled 1,082 miles round trip. Collecting data involved several e-mails, telephone calls, and faxes.

To ensure full understanding of the findings from the interviews, the researcher repeatedly listened to the audio-records and reread the transcripts of each interview "to become familiar with the words of 'the interviewee/informant in order to develop a holistic sense, the 'gestalt '" (Groenewald, 2004, p. 18). Neuman (2003) wrote, the "interview's meaning is shaped by its Gestalt or whole interaction of a researcher and a member in a specific context" (p. 395). As part of the last step in the data analysis process the researcher summarized all information, including the fundamental nature of the meanings, perspectives and perceptions, to capture the essences of the group of participants. The summary provides the reader an understanding as to the results of the data.

Findings

Nineteen female participants were invited; 17 (89%) participated in the interview portion and 16 (84%) completed and returned the questionnaire. One respondent noted she could not participate in the study due to family obligations. When asked if she could provide a telephone interview instead, she did not respond. Two subsequent follow up requests resulted in no response. Another respondent did not return the many telephone calls and e-mail correspondence. The one respondent who did not return the questionnaire did not respond after many contact attempts. Results from the 16 participants who completed the 21-item questionnaire are as follows:

Ten of the 16 (62%) participants who completed the questionnaire are natives of Louisiana. Birthplaces for the women included northern, central, southern, and southeastern parts of Louisiana. The remaining six (38%) participants who were not natives of Louisiana were born in various geographical locations. Three women were born in the Midwest, two in the south, and one in another country.

Fifteen (94%) women grew up in a two-parent household. One of the participants grew up in a single parent household. All the study participants had one or more siblings. Seven of the 16 participants (44%), were the oldest child in the family, while five (31%) were middle siblings, and four (25%) of the participants were the youngest.

The most common occupation for fathers of the participants was laborer/mechanic indicated by six of 16 (38%) responses. The most common occupation of mothers was housewife/homemaker indicated by 10 or 63% of the respondents.

The female participants in this study chose three activities or hobbies they participated in as a child. Eleven responses were given in the area of outdoor sports and activities, followed by six responses for arts and crafts, six for indoor sports and activities, and six for reading.

Eight of the 16 (50%) participants are married, while four (25%) are divorced, three (19%) are single, and one (6%) is a widow. Seven of 16 (44%) respondents are 58-63 years old followed by four (25%) who are over 63 years old. The youngest female senior-level administrator was less than 35 years old. Nine of the 16 (56%) participants are Caucasian while seven or 43% of the participants are African American.

Based on the 17 participants who completed the 19 semi-structured interview questions, four major themes emerged from their perceptions of their lived experience as a senior administrator in higher education. The following are the four themes:

Major Theme 1

The professional skills of female senior-level higher education administrators are categorized as collaborators and consensus builders.

Sub-theme

To collaborate and build consensus, female senior-level higher education administrators are task-oriented, thoughtful, and communicative.

All 17 (100%) participants commented they communicate by bringing all parties together when conflict arises. Fifteen (88%) of the 17 participants identified stated they communicate when conflict arises and become collaborative and consensus building leaders.

Ten of the 16 women completing the questionnaire indicated they are task-oriented or task-specific. When asked about how well do you meet the needs of the university on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 being the lowest and 5 the highest), two (12%) of the 17 participants commented they were too new at the institution to respond. The majority, 14 (93%) of 15 participants who answered this question reported 3 or higher. Seven (47%) of the 15 who responded to this question ranked themselves as a 5. One participant, code name Nurturer ranked herself as a 6.

Further, 16 of the 17 (94%) respondents provided percentages indicating how they spent time on different tasks. On average, the senior-level higher education administrators spend 35% on administrative tasks, 24% on university activities, 15% on community relations, 15% on planning, and 10% on other.

Major Theme 2

Female senior-level higher education administrators are hard workers, knowledgeable in the profession, confident, and rely on role models to establish their professional identities. Sixteen of the 17 (94%) participants stated self-confident, hard working, or knowledgeable as personal characteristics and traits that senior-level higher education administrators should possess.

Sixteen (94%) of the 17 participants reported having role models or mentors to assist with professional skills and influencing their career path. Role models and mentors included senior-level higher education administrators, family, college professors, K-12 teachers and colleagues, friends, famous women never met but read about, mentors, and members of their church. The participants explained their career paths and how they were inspired to becoming a senior-level higher education administrator. The inspiration to enter higher education administration came from other people or prior experiences. The data suggested that participants believed others motivated them to strive for senior-level positions in higher education.

Major Theme 3

Successful entry for women into the role of a senior-level higher education administrator includes education (master's or higher), tenure (length of time) at the institution, working at a four-year public institution, and attaining an age of 50 years or more.

Eight participants' (47%) indicated their first higher education position was as a faculty member. Two (25%) held a doctorate while the remaining six (75%) held a master's degree. The same participants described their first administrative role. Five (63%) of the eight were directors, one (13%) was a department chair, and one (13%) was an acting dean. Five (63%) held masters degrees, and three (38%) held doctorates.

Nine (53%) of the 17 participants had their first experience in higher education as an administrator. Of the nine, one (11%) was a coordinator, one (11%) was an assistant director, one (11%) was an associate director, four (44%) were directors, one served as a fiscal analyst, and one as a vice president. Out of the nine participants, eight responded to highest degrees held. Degrees of the eight participants included one (13%) held a bachelor's degree; one (13%) held a specialist degree (obtained after a bachelor's, but not equivalent to a master's degree), four (50%) held masters degrees, and two (25%) individuals reported having a doctorate.

On average, the 16 participants reported it took nine years to succeed in finding their first senior-level higher education administrative position, with the shortest time occurring less than one year and the longest 27 years. One notable comment from a participant, code name Spiritual was it took too long! Thirteen of seventeen (73%) of the women stated they became a senior-level higher education administrator while working at the same institution.

Sixteen participants were an average age of 58 years old when obtaining their first senior-level higher education administrative position. Of these, three women were 60 and three were 50 years old. The oldest woman, code named Strength, was 62 years old when she earned her first

senior-level higher education administrative position, while another participant, code named Intelligent was the youngest at 29 years old.

Seventy-six percent (13 of 17) of the participants indicated they were employees at the institution when either appointed or hired through a search committee for their senior-level administrative position. Slightly more than half (nine of 16 or 56%) of the administrators were appointed to their current position; therefore did not have a search committee. Of the remaining seven (44%) respondents who went through a search committee process, the makeup of the search committee for all seven (100%) respondents included administrators. Six (86%) respondents had faculty on the search committee, while four (57%) had students. Three (43%) respondents had classified staff on the search committee and community people.

Fifteen (88%) of the 17, participants indicated they remain employed at the same institution where receiving their first senior-level administrative position. The length of time during which the women have been senior-level higher education administrators ranges between few months up to 10 years.

Further, the majority (10 of 17 or 59%) of the participants were working at a public institution when they obtained their first senior-level higher education administrative position. The remaining seven women worked at either a HBCU (four of 17 or 24%), followed by one (6%) participant each at a private institution, a community college, and another career field other than higher education prior to her senior-level appointment.

Major Theme 4

Possible limitations to career advancement are due to unequal treatment (salary, gender, age, and position), culture of the institution, not working hard, and not having the needed education.

Based on the 16 questionnaires received from the respondents, approximately half (56%) were unsure if the state has *an old boys or girls network* that helps individuals obtain senior-level higher education administrative administrators. Four (25%) stated yes, while three (19%) stated no.

Nine (56%) of the 16 respondents said they believed the greatest hindrance to a female becoming and maintaining a senior-level higher education administrative position in Louisiana is the campus climate and environment. Eight (50%) of the 16 participants indicated that hindrances are due to discrimination as well as society's belief of a woman's role. Seven (44%) women selected career planning paths and stereotyping, followed by family responsibilities (five or 31%), characteristics of the search committee (individuals on the search committee) (three or 19%). The least chosen responses were academic background and institutional hiring and promotion practices, selected by two (13%) individuals each.

During the interviews, 16 of the 17 (94%) participants discussed hindrances encountered on their path to becoming senior-level administrators as well as current experiences. These hindrances were due to age, race, gender, pay, and culture of the institution. Further, the participants provided a list of recommendations for women aspiring to become a senior-level

higher education administrator. Thirteen (76%) of the 17 participants stressed working hard and being an expert or knowledgeable in the intended field.

Recommendations/Implications

The data from this study addressed the purpose of this study and presented perspectives of how females through higher education career experiences, perceived the factors and competencies that assisted them in ascending to the highest leadership roles at institutions in Louisiana. The researcher received a wide variety of responses when asked the questions:

1. What patterns, themes, or trends do female senior-level higher education administrators perceive as professional skills needed by females aspiring to serve as higher education administrators?
2. What strategies do female senior-level higher education administrators use in establishing their professional identity?
3. What strategies are needed to gain entry into the role of a senior-level higher education administrator?
4. What norms, biases, or barriers do female senior-level higher education administrators perceive that limit the career advancement of women?
5. What insights might be gained from the demographic data pertaining to the senior-level higher education administrator's personal and professional background?

Several of the emergent themes correspond with prior research done on women's advancement and promotion opportunities in the business sector. Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, and King (1999) declared high achieving women managers defined success at work as setting and accomplishing organizational goals, earning skills at a variety of positions within an organization, and doing something well. Recommendations include (a) being professionally competent, mindful of political behaviors that include managing impressions, and networking, (b) visibility and reputation management is advisable, (c) having a role model and mentor, (d) being known by your good reputation and hard work.

The themes that emerged from this study addressed the gap in the literature regarding the experiences of senior-level women who are college administrators in a four-year public university in Louisiana. The information gathered from this study may help women ascend into leadership or senior-level higher education administrative positions. Data collected included professional and personal barriers from the perspectives of women in senior-level higher education administrators. Other areas explored included the factors and personal competencies, such as professional skills and identity, which assist women to becoming senior-level higher education administrators. Professional skills in this study included being a task-oriented leader who collaborates and builds consensus, meets the needs of the university, organizes staff, and leads and manages change and conflict. Professional identity in this study included having at least a master's degree, length of time at the institution, having a role model or mentor such as another senior-level administrator or family member, and possessing personal characteristics and traits such as hard work, confidence, communication, and knowledge and capability to do the job.

Conclusions

This qualitative phenomenological study explored the lived experiences of females who are senior-level higher education administrators in Louisiana. The theoretical framework proposed that even though qualified women hold senior-level higher education administration positions, reasons exist that creates limited opportunities (Leconte, 2005).The literature implied internal, external, and societal influences do impact an individual becoming a senior-level higher education administrator and maintaining this position. While themes varied, the underlying conclusion of the interview datum suggests:

1. The professional skills of female senior-level higher education administrators are categorized as collaborators and consensus builders.
2. Female senior-level higher education administrators work hard and use role models to establish their professional identities.
3. Successful entry for women into the role of a senior-level higher education administrator includes education (master's or higher), tenure at the institution, working at a four-year public institution, and being in your 50s.
4. Possible limitations to career advancement are due to unequal treatment (salary, gender, age, and position), culture of the institution, not working hard, and not having the needed education.

The data that emerged from this study contained information that one may use to confirm a qualitative phenomenological approach remains the best method for exploration. The main reason for using this method was it allowed for the sharing of lived experiences of the females in higher education in describing what they thought was important in acquiring a senior leadership role in higher education in the state of Louisiana.

The conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future study and recommendations for future leaders to consider are in chapter 5. Insight into the career ascension of females in higher education has been included in this study. The study adds to the literature of senior-level women in male dominated organizations like higher education by examining the factors and personal competencies that enabled a purposive sample of females in higher education positions to acquire those leadership positions.

The researcher began this phenomenological study with the intent of exploring the lived experiences of females in higher education, and how they obtained their senior-level position. The participant perceptions, stories, and thoughts they shared in their interviews inspired and moved the researcher. The researcher is convinced that the shared ideas, thoughts, and stories will assist, inspire, and most importantly educate not only women, but men as both progress and ascend in their careers.

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Leadership Education: Integrating Social Media

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Introduction

In recent years, social media has become an increasingly pervasive aspect of life throughout much of the developed world. From Vimeo to blogs and from Facebook to Twitter, people are investing enormous amounts of time on websites used to share information and collaborate with other users. Emerging technological tools are igniting a phenomenon; people are exchanging ideas and disseminating information at a rampant pace, easily connecting with other users, organizations, and sources. It is a common happenstance for people to receive their news, gossip, and friendship updates via social media tools. Society is infused with the need to demand immediate information and dialogue, sometimes even before breakfast from the convenience of their mobile phone or laptop. Social media expedites conversation, whereas traditional media doesn't let participants create content (Hensel, 2010).

Social media technology—also referred to as websites or web tools—include Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, Tumblr, Wiggio, and any websites that enable users to interact with each other and create content instantaneously. Social media allows people to share content, like life updates, pictures, videos, quotes, or anything users create or find interesting (Boyd, 2010). Furthermore, social media—particularly within younger individuals—is being used to gratify both personal and professional needs. The CDW-G 21st Century Campus Report (2010) portrayed this current trend within the contexts of colleges and high schools within the US. Sixty-four percent of college students are using social media as a learning device. Additionally, 66% of students collaborate with classmates to study. Moreover, it is likely the trend of university students to engage in social media for academic purposes at an increasing rate, as 76% of students in U.S. high schools engage in social media for educational purposes. Relating to and connecting with participants is central to several theories and approaches to leadership such as transformational leadership (Burns, 1978, Bass, 1985), situational leadership (Hershey & Blanchard, 1969), charismatic leadership (House, 1976) and leader member exchange (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975, Graen & Cashman, 1975). In a world in which social media is progressively integral in the lives of the students and participants leadership educators serve, seeking to understand how such devices can constructively be used by leadership educators for relational and educational purposes within courses, trainings, as well as student and professional organizations is timely and relevant.

Advancements in technology, and the increasing use of social media for educational purposes have influenced, and in many cases generated, new teaching methods that facilitate the process of learning—generating progressive ways for instructors to utilize web tools in and outside the instructional setting. This new setting has created an evolved framework that encourages leadership educators to integrate social media into their daily curriculum. We are interested in understanding how the theory of social presence supports the utility and benefits of social media tools used for instructional purposes. Through illustrating the instructional and

interactive uses of social media, we will explain how the findings of specific cases and examples serve as evidence to support the efficacy of such tools to generate constructive learning benefits. Specifically, we will identify how the utility of Facebook, Tumblr, Twitter, YouTube, and Wiggio create an interactive landscape for learning processes to occur.

Theoretical Framework

The foundational idea that supports the use of social media tools for instructional purposes is based upon the social presence theory. Originally, this theory was developed within the fields of social science to explain the degree of salience (i.e. condition or quality of "being there") existing between two communicators using a particular communication medium (Short, Williams, & Christie, 1976). Connecting this theoretical perspective to the process of learning, a greater bandwidth of social presence and cues enhances cognitive development (Vygotsky, 1978); therefore, extensive social interaction—in addition to organized instruction conducted within the learning environment—can strengthen instructor and student engagement, as well as create a landscape of diverse opportunities for relevant material to be perpetually considered and discussed.

Learner Objectives

Using the form of social media integrated into the course or training by the leadership educator, students will engage with the content, the leadership educator, and each other in a manner than deepens understanding and facilitates student participation and engagement.

Description of the Practice

Educators and professionals are utilizing social media tools to create interactive and communal learning environments. According to Bernoff (2008), 75% of internet using adults in the United States engage in social media. With this ample participation, it is apparent that people are developing the skills and motivation necessary to utilize such tools for educational purposes. In order to demonstrate the benefits of social media tools, it is vital that current research and real-life cases be considered and brought to the forefront of innovative initiatives; initiatives that, if implemented, may transform how educators and professionals execute teaching methods and interactions with pupils. In this section, we will identify and describe five types of social media tools that leadership educators can engage in their attempts to facilitate learning and growth in a variety of contexts—and explicate ways in which these devices may be utilized for instructional purposes. Since we are a team of five undergraduates and one graduate student, we have not had the opportunity to personally incorporate these aspects of social media into a course. However, we have searched extensively for relevant examples from those who have, as professors and practitioners within and outside of ALE have sought our perspectives on how to engage students and participants through social media.

The first social media tool under discussion is considered a societal phenomenon with over 500 million users, 50% of whom log into this site every day (Facebook.com). Facebook's average user has around 130 friends, stimulating exponential potential for people to share information with mass audiences. The average user also shares 90 pieces of content each month.

As one of the largest platforms of social media, Facebook enables collaboration, communication, sharing, and outreach for teachers.

In a recent study, Cooperative Extension educators in New York and Wisconsin were interviewed about their use of social media and Facebook, as well as their views and perceptions of the opportunities, risks, and barriers of using social media to educate people (Fuess, 2011). The results of this study can be applied to instructional use as well. There were several main questions asked during the interview, though additional probing did occur:

1. What kinds of social media does your office use? Why or why not?
2. What do you think some of the best features of social media are?
3. What do you think some of the drawbacks or risks of social media are?
4. What are some of the barriers of Cooperative Extension using social media?
5. What kind of audience would Cooperative Extension be able to connect with if it incorporated social media into its outreach efforts?
6. What role do you see social media playing in the future?

Twenty-seven Cooperative Extension educators were interviewed to collect sufficient data. Educators were of varying genders, ages, and social media experience levels to ensure a wide variety of viewpoints were collected and accounted for representing a wide cross section of educator's views.

The second contemporary example of such social media tools can be observed through the escalating use of Twitter, which is a Web 2.0 social networking and microblogging tool (Stevens, 2008). This web technology that can help educational organizations create the structures essential for sustained, comprehensive, and meaningful learning (Huber, 2010). According to the Twitter website, this social media tool is a service for family, friends, and co-workers to communicate through the exchange of prompt, frequent responses to the common question: What are you doing? In order to facilitate the social process of learning, instructors from varied levels and contexts have adopted Twitter as a complementary teaching strategy. Two cases demonstrate the utility and functionality of this social media tool.

A trial study conducted by Dr. Joanna Dunlap (2009), a professor of education and human development at University of Colorado Denver, tested the instructional potential of Twitter usage by integrating this technology into a course's design between local (students and teachers) and global (outside professionals) communities. Student engagement and instructional value were observed through common functions that fulfilled specific needs. First, students tweeted questions about course material or inquired information about task-oriented skills; the instructor and students responded timely, and posted videos if visual replies were applicable. Secondly, participants organized meeting times efficiently through posts and updates. Third, participants shared information about current topics relevant to class by posting written reports or videos viewable to group followers. Finally, a friendly space was created for personal communication; both parties provided each other with support and feedback.

Dr. Jeremy Birnholtz, a communication studies and informational sciences professor at Cornell University, uses Twitter to involve students in course content and assess overall understanding (J. Birnholtz, personal communication, March 17, 2011). Specifically, he allows students to directly contribute to course lectures: "Students tweet by midnight the night before

each lecture, the tweets are aggregated by a TA," and then he incorporates the students' questions, comments, and examples into his daily power points. This method also motivates students to apply prior and new knowledge to class content, reinforcing the relevance of purposeful skills and information gained.

Third, leadership educators and professionals can utilize social media tools in the form of blogging. Tumblr, an innovative Internet blog site, allows the user to easily upload anything from text and photos to video and audio feeds. Tumblr can be used to promote learning through a collaborative effort between educator and pupil. A blog can also be contributed to by multiple people, providing an open space for questions and answers. According to Tumblr's homepage, there are currently 15,451,686 blogs on the Tumblr site alone. Tumblr is free and can save an educator time and money when additional resources are necessary. Once set up, an educator can use their blog as a forum for discussion if they are involved with distance learning. While there are many forms of blogging and multiple sites to use as mediums, Tumblr works for the purpose of the leadership educator because of its intuitive interface and multiple applications. Therefore, Tumblr offers tremendous ease and potential for leadership educator who has never engaged in blogging, or has found blogging too tedious or time-consuming in the past.

Some people are intimidated by the thought of harnessing social media for educational purposes. Tumblr, however, is user friendly and according to their tagline, "The easiest way to blog". Starting an account requires only an email address. From there, a world of communication opportunities awaits. The educator is able to pose questions, and the recipient replies based on previous communication or is able to ask new questions (Wheeler, 2009). Blogs also have a feature that allows readers to see an entire thread's history. This can be useful when carrying on a conversation or engaging in a question and answer session. Being able to view the thread's history would also be useful prior to an assessment of student or participant learning. Tumblr can be used as an extension of a training conference as well; for example, an educator may direct people to their blog in order to find more information, and help construct meaning about the development of transformational leadership within the participants' organization. Additionally, the educator could post the link to books or articles containing information on transformational leadership within the Tumblr blog. It is also beneficial to use the blog as a launching pad for weekly leadership training tips and then ask for feedback after readers have tried them (Williams, 2011). Tumblr can be used as a way of exchanging information with other professionals by opening a feed to question and answer (Ferriter, 2009). Finally, if an educator is considering a training program or approach to leadership, they can post it on their blog and ask fellow leadership professionals for advice or previous experience.

Fourth, watching instructional videos and documentaries for instructional purposes has been a tool of school reform for decades (Tyner, 1994), but the production of video within a learning environment is generally reserved for film and video classes. In the day and age where many students have access to video cameras and laptops (or cell phones with this capability) all students need are the resources, time, and connections to display their video work to the world. Producing and sharing video content in the context of the classroom is a relatively easy process that helps professionals and educators keep up with the evolution of technology, engaging students in class subjects. Video production can also be a gateway for students to not just

passively watch, but to actively engage in the material through sharing and connecting with others all over the world through social media.

Websites such as YouTube, TeacherTube, Vimeo, and Viddler, make it easy to upload, share, and watch videos. Mike Levy, school instructor at the Lehman Alternative Community School in New York, teaches his students how to film, edit, and act in educational films. He contended, "Writing in a different mode can be really interesting and useful for students" (M. Levy, personal communication, March 31, 2011). Instructors can take advantage of these websites and resources through learning how to record videos on a laptop, use editing software (such as iMovie), and upload videos to social media websites. Most advantageously, this medium is multifaceted and can be applied to many subject areas. For instance, if a class is discussing how leadership is perceived within cultures around the world, the instructor can help students create videos that offer questions concerning how leadership is viewed and operationalized within other cultures. Furthermore, students can upload "street interviews" with people concerning leadership or "leadership in action" within the community—so that participants in the course, and people around the world, can comment and view these projects.

Fifth, leadership educators can utilize virtual group collaboration sites. Wiggio, created and launched in 2008, is one such site whose vision is to "[make] it easy to work in groups" (Wiggio.com). Although young, Wiggio has proved successful as seen by the 70% growth in their user base in 2010. Wiggio is a favored group collaboration website, because it is user friendly, tailored specifically toward the technology un-savvy. This simple interface with useful tools makes it a valuable option for leadership educators and professionals. Wiggio is used for academic purposes – its original audience – but has also been effectively used by social groups, clubs, organizations, businesses and non-profits. Students need to learn communication and interpersonal skills in order to collaborate in groups. The ability to work effectively within groups is viewed as a key to success in the workplace, and yet it has been found that students (particularly undergraduate) are often unprepared to contribute to groups in the workplace. It has been found that the best way to develop these skills is through active learning (Edwards, 2010). The hands on involvement in a group site such as Wiggio will encourage active learning.

Wiggio strives to meet the needs of any group with the goals of simplicity and usability. Creating a Wiggio account is as simple as selecting an email account and password. Once created, you can manage several different Wiggio groups. Instructors can create different groups for each project, paper, or social organization by emailing all members of that group and choosing a group name. Once logged on, users can easily navigate between groups or view activity from all groups in one news feed. Wiggio prevents the hassle of long email chains and coordinates the most up-to-date version of documents by providing a central location for all group collaboration to occur. The feed tool chronologically summarizes activities, and allows comments to be made and sent to the group. A group calendar organizes all events with email reminders. A group folder allows for the organization and collaboration on group documents. The feed notifies group members when documents have been downloaded and uploaded. Each time a group member edits a document, Wiggio saves all prior versions but identifies the most up-to-date version. This feature is ideal for group projects, presentations, and papers. A group to-do list allows groups to stay on task and delegate responsibilities. A unique feature of Wiggio is its use of several communication types. Via Wiggio, it is possible to schedule a meeting in the

form of a conference call, virtual meeting, or chatroom. It is also possible to message the group not only via email but also text or voice message. These features provide flexibility for the group to organize and operate, as they desire. Lastly, the "Polls" feature allows team members to survey the group, such as, "When is a good time to meet?" Wiggio can serve as a useful tool for leadership educators both in practice and as a method to instruct those learning to effectively collaborate in groups.

Results to Date

The efficacy and constructive effects of social media tools utilized for instructional purposes, validates the significance of implementing these innovative ideas. The social presence theory supports the practice of integrating Facebook, Twitter, Tumblr, YouTube, and Wiggio into instructional methods. The greater bandwidth of cues and social presence facilitates a paradigm shift from an exclusively physical presence to a comprehensive, all-encompassing learning environment through online interaction. Since the innovation of integrating social media into leadership education—and in education in general—results in the literature are limited. However, the existing findings suggest that the expansive realm of web tool implementation will assist in generating positive learning and instructional benefits.

First, several main themes developed from studies applied to the uses of Facebook (Fuess, 2011). Interactivity was one of the largest benefits gained from utilizing Facebook as a teaching tool. Teachers, educators, and others can have interactive moments where each learns from one another. Second, immediacy was a factor cited by many educators as a large opportunity for utilizing Facebook. Others instantly see comments and postings on Facebook, simultaneously. Third, finances have played a large role in the development of Facebook as a large social media platform. As Facebook is free, it is readily and easily available for everyone to use. There are no monetary barriers in place to prevent users from interacting with others and utilizing the service. Additionally, observed uses have demonstrated Facebook is a platform that users, especially university students, already attend to, so users do not need to adapt to anything new. This has been particularly useful for classroom discussion boards and other interactive features. Facebook is a tool that facilitates immediate interaction on a platform that people frequently visit in their internet usage (Fuess, 2011).

Second, cases addressing Twitter use demonstrated that instructors and students reported instructional benefits. Major themes can be summarized by Dunlap (2009), who contended that constructive outcomes were established through the continuous nature of dialogue. Sharing, collaboration, brainstorming, problem solving, and creation of ideas within the context of moment-to-moment experiences, were valuable assets to implementation of Twitter in the classroom. Additionally, she claimed that "persistent presence" that complements in-class experiences promoted social interactions to occur more naturally and immediately. Furthermore, Dunlap (2009) attributed the effectiveness of Twitter integration to several constructive procedures practiced by instructors and students: 1) address student issues in a timely manner, 2) write concisely, 3) write for audience, 4) connect with a professional community, 5) support informational learning, 6) maintain on-going relationships. Birnholtz reported that student evaluations of a course utilizing Twitter were positive: 82% said the instructor should repeat the course structure and a majority claimed they enjoyed using Twitter in the classroom (J.

Birnholtz, personal communication, March 17, 2011). "Tweeting and "following" can now be viewed as more than buzz words or trivial methods for social connectedness, but also as tools that enable interactive and efficient communication over diverse contexts.

Third, enabling Tumblr as a tool for distance learning allows for reflection and immediacy. When a leadership educator posts a question a student is allowed time for self-evaluation; this is seen in the attention to detail involved with writing and drafting a response (Wheeler, 2009). On the same note, a blog links educator and student instantaneously. The ability to give immediate feedback gives the student a feeling of approachability and availability from the side of the educator (Wheeler, 2009). By posting weekly training tips and using Tumblr as an extension of resources a leadership educator can substantially lower cost by reducing travel and facilitation requirements inherent in communicating the information in-person (Williams, 2011). The educator can also accelerate learning and engage readers to become more tech-savvy (Wheeler, 2009). Using Tumblr as a way of exchanging information with other leadership educators can lead to professional growth. Thousands of accomplished educators are currently blogging, posting questions regarding problems they have faced or ideas they would like insight on (Ferriter, 2009). This interaction has created the perfect opportunity for leadership professionals to give feedback and receive advice on their own threads. Through a receptive diffusion of knowledge, a higher standard of leadership development can be achieved with Tumblr.

Fourth, a unique aspect about sharing video: students can construct the knowledge they have acquired through explanation and share experiences with others. This may be powerful in helping communicate and ultimately boosting the students' knowledge and understanding of the concepts, theories, and approaches they are engaged in. Another distinctive feature of this methodology is the potential of unveiling students' expression of creativity, a significant aspect of leadership education. Levy stated that his students claimed to have positive experiences, especially visual learners. "Movies can give a sense of flow, or a hands-on approach to learning," Levy said (M. Levy, personal communication, March 31, 2011). YouTube, TeacherTube, Vimeo, and Viddler can help students spread the knowledge they acquired during class, potentially leading to new discoveries.

Finally, leadership educators and professionals can leverage Wiggio to provide better education and experiences for their students (Berk, 2010). In the past, however, collaboration web applications have not been successful due to the complicated nature of the application and the technology learning curve. Google Wave was Google's attempt at group collaboration but the complexity left much to be desired (Woods, 2011). Wiggio, this user-friendly, simple, free software, simplifies the complicated process of group collaboration (Hoffman, 2008). Wiggio takes advantage of cloud computing and provides a means of virtual communication. A key benefit of cloud computing is the improved efficiency (Sultan, 2010). One Wiggio poll can eliminate a chain of emails that attempt to identify a good meeting time and a shared group calendar can eliminate uncertainty of due dates or important meetings. In addition to the benefits of virtual collaboration, the central site allows users to access the documents and information from any computer.

Recommendations/Implications

Leadership educators and professionals make constant efforts to connect with pupils and encourage positive learning experiences. Through an analysis of cases and studies on social media use, recommendations and implications can be identified to assist future application of these valuable tools.

Facebook is a platform that may allow leadership educators to effectively perform constructive instructional methods. Using this type of technology in educational environments can be incredibly important to expose students to various content and interactions (Fuess, 2011). Facebook can be freely and easily implemented to facilitate student success. Of all the platforms of social media, Facebook is the most utilized and (in many opinions) easiest to use to connect with people. In and out of the classroom, instructors can use Facebook to interact with others through discussion boards, postings, and other components that make social media popular. Facebook can help engage students that are usually not attentive, or it could be the additional component in marketing that allows educators to connect with a different segment of the population. Overall, we recommended that teachers become educated about Facebook's platform so they can use it in the best ways possible. Once teachers understand how to use the privacy and control issues, and feel confident in the use of Facebook as a whole, it is a great platform to facilitate student discussions, interact and continue learning outside of the classroom, and encourage student success.

Overall, instructor and student feedback associate positive learning experiences with Twitter integration in course curriculum. Based on results from previously discussed studies, instructional and learning benefits can be observed through the significance of instructor immediacy behaviors and participant interaction. Instructors should establish the relevance of Twitter utility with students (Dunlap, 2009). We recommend instructors make evident the use of Twitter, for learning purposes, is meaningful to student success and course satisfaction. If students fail to recognize the relevance, participation will be lacking; consequently, Twitter's value will not contribute to the comprehension of course curriculum. Additionally, defining clear expectations for participation will create an environment for efficient and constructive communication (Dunlap, 2009). Modeling effectual Twitter use will motivate student engagement and establish behavioral consistency (Dunlap, 2009). Instructors should be mindful that using Twitter effectively requires extra effort, organization, as well as the "human infrastructure" in place to perform specific tasks (J. Birnholtz, personal communication, March 17, 2011). For example, teaching assistants could serve as technical experts to solve procedural problems. Potential limitations include computer accessibility, as well as technological skill level of instructors and participants. Further research related to the utility of Twitter in the classroom will extend methods of use and illustrate the significance of social presence in an online space for positive learning experiences.

Given the easy, low maintenance style of blogging on Tumblr and the benefits associated with it, utilizing this resource is a simple choice for leadership educators. The use of Tumblr can help participants reflect more on their writing and connect rapidly with instructors and professionals. It is free and saves educators money on materials and travel. Blogging also opens the door to an exchange of knowledge, paving the way for innovations in leadership. It is recommended that leadership educators establish a clear plan that outlines desired goals for using

Tumblr in constructive ways. The benefits of blogging can be derailed by a lack of strategy and poor maintenance (Williams, 2011). Before setting up a Tumblr blog, instructors should decide specific purposes of blogging in relation to student success and content comprehension. Also, it is vital for instructors to maintain posts, tips, and feedback in a timely fashion. An outdated blog will not substantially further leadership education or stimulate conversation. Based on the popularity of social networking today, leadership education can be greatly enhanced by the creative opportunities afforded through Tumblr.

Sharing videos with the world can be a remarkable experience, but connecting this to the learning environment and curriculum can create a whole new conception of an educational experience. In order to make the social medium of video most meaningful, we recommend leadership educators seek to participate in video contests or online events that are relevant to course curriculum. Students can take part in this online process through applying information learned in class by uploading educational videos to and websites like YouTube, TeacherTube, Vimeo, and Viddler. Mike Levy (personal communication, March 31, 2011) also suggested for instructors to thoroughly plan video projects, divide participants into small groups, and use examples from previous years. The experience of connecting social media in the form of video to the classroom will bring together innovation and technology, which can facilitate an engaging, enjoyable, and productive educational environment.

Wiggio is a model medium for group collaboration and can be used by leadership educators in a variety of ways. Leaders can find that Wiggio is an ideal format for any organization whether it is a charity organization, social group or for an academic purpose. It will provide those leaders with the tools necessary to communicate, delegate and organize team members with means of interacting and responding to the group. We recommend leadership educators enable students to capitalize on their experience in a university class or organizational training by facilitating students' experience with Wiggio. With this tool students can effectively lead on campus or in their organization. Virtual collaboration also enables groups to work and communicate from a distance. Although smaller and relatively new, group collaboration software like Wiggio—which utilized cloud computing—will simplify the task of working in groups.

Conclusions

As society continues to advance and modernize, leadership education aims to connect with and engage students in learning experiences through incorporating innovative and exciting strategies. As advocates of technology race to develop innovative ways of communication, leadership educators can work to adapt a learning environment that integrates social media tools purposefully. Grounds for supporting this rationale are demonstrated through reoccurring themes identified in real life cases and examples of social media use. It can be resolved that leadership education is, in part, promoted by one's ability to influence; why try to influence students from afar? Leadership educators and professionals can facilitate positive learning experiences through merging meaningful curriculum with social media tools that students engage in, understand, and enjoy. Past research and examples show that various features and outcomes make social media integration an ideal complementary method for traditional instruction. Examples include (but are not limited to): accessibility of free learning tools; comprehension of use by students; hands-on experience gained through video production; efficacy of

communication; and increase of collaboration among working groups. Moreover, the social presence theory supports the extensive social interaction afforded by social media integration—which is an aspect of education that may increase cognitive development. Further research related to the utility of social media integrated into leadership education will extend methods of use, and illustrate the significance of social presence in an online space for positive learning experiences.

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Critical Thinking Skills Evidenced in Graduate Students Blogs

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Abstract

The objective of this research was to identify Facione's six critical thinking skills using graduate students blogs as a reflection tool in the context of leadership using structured and unstructured blogs. It was evident that providing students with guidelines for the purpose of blogging in the classroom was more thought evoking over the duration of the course compared to students following an open reflection.

Introduction

Technology has made an impact on what educators can do and the resources they can use in their classrooms. Blogs are one example of a pedagogical tool appropriate for stimulating student reflection of course content and experiences (Cannon, Stedman & Gifford, 2010). However, little research has been conducted identifying the specific benefits of blogs on student cognitive development. Critical thinking is one area of cognitive development necessary for student success (Halpern, 1990). The objective of this research study was to identify Facione's (1990) six critical thinking skills using graduate students blogs as a reflection tool in the context of leadership. Students often learn from reflecting on their past leadership experiences. Reflection using a social media tool like blogging was used to look at the impacts of critical thinking. Rudd, baker, and Hoover (2000) defined critical thinking as, "a reasoned, purposive, and introspective approach to solving problems of addressing questions with incomplete evidence and information for which an incontrovertible solution is unlikely" (pg. 5).

According to Hatton and Smith (1995) "reflective thinking generally addresses practical problems, allowing for doubt and perplexity before possible solutions are reached" (pg. 34). Reflection allows students to address course content in a deeper and meaningful context. Educators use reflection as a tool to engage students in critical thinking skills by means of reflecting on higher levels of thinking. Some research suggests that one must have the disposition to think critically and productively about issues (Norris, 1985). The disposition students have to critical thinking skills has not been measured but it has to be taken into consideration when researching critical thinking skills used by students. Facione, Giancarlo, Facione & Gainen (1995) suggest that it is quite different to have the ability of critical thinking than having the disposition. Educators need to use methods that build on the capacities students have to enhance critical thinking skills in students regardless of disposition or not.

Literature Review

The Delphi Report (1990) by Peter A. Facione on critical thinking skills was used as a framework for this research. Facione (1990) defined critical thinking as, "purposeful, self-regulatory judgment which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual

considerations…" (pg. 2). The Delphi panel of experts consensually agreed on descriptions of the following critical thinking cognitive skills: (1) Interpretation, (2) Analysis, (3) Evaluation, (4) Inference, (5) Explanation, and (6) Self-Regulation.

Facione's six critical thinking cognitive skills have sub-skills for clarification purposes. Facione (1990) defines interpretation as "to comprehend and express the meaning or significance of a wide variety of experiences, situations, data, events, judgments, conventions, beliefs, rules, procedures or criteria" (pg. 6). Interpretation's sub-skills are categorization, decoding significance, and clarifying meaning.

Facione (1990) defines analysis as "to identify the intended and actual inferential relationships among statements, questions, concepts, descriptions or other forms of representation intended to express beliefs, judgments, experiences, reasons, information, or opinions" (pg. 7). Analysis's sub-skills are examining ideas and identifying arguments.

Facione (1990) defines evaluation as "to assess the credibility of statements or other representations which are accounts or descriptions of a person's perception, experience, situation, judgment, belief, or opinion; and to assess the logical strength of the actual or intend inferential relationships among statements, descriptions, questions or other forms of representation"(pg. 8). Evaluation's sub-skills are assessing claims and assessing arguments.

Facione (1990) defines inference as "to identify and secure elements needed to draw reasonable conclusions; to form conjectures and hypotheses; to consider relevant information and to educe the consequences flowing from data, statements, principles, evidence, judgments, beliefs, opinions, concepts, descriptions, questions, or other forms of representation"(pg. 9). Inference's sub-skills are querying evidence, conjecturing alternatives, and drawing conclusions.

Facione (1990) defines explanation as "to state the results of one's reasoning; to justify that reasoning in terms of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological and contextual considerations upon which one's results were based; and to present one's reasoning in the form of cogent arguments" (pg. 10). Explanation's sub-skills are stating results, justifying procedures, and presenting arguments.

Facione (1990) defines self-regulation as "self-consciously to monitor one's cognitive activities, the elements used in those activities, and the results educed, particularly by applying skills in analysis and evaluation to one's own inferential judgments with a view toward questioning, confirming, validating, or correcting either one's reasoning or one's results" (pg. 10). Self-regulation's sub-skills are self-examination and self-correction.

Gifford (2010) found that when using the "What?, So What? Now What?" model students were more consistent in the quality of reflection in a blog. This study was conducted with undergraduates in a service-learning based course. The goal of the experience was to enhance critical thinking of leadership students through blogs. He recommended that leadership educators continue to integrate technology into the learning experience of students.

The purpose of this research was to identify the frequency and depth of skill used among leadership students in a personal blog. As reported by Halpern (1990), instructors are challenged to make students value "good" thinking and the amount of work necessary to make it happen. For the purpose of this research, structure and unstructured reflections will be used interchangeably with guided reflection and open reflection, respectively.

Methods

This qualitative study was descriptive in nature utilizing content analysis to capture the demonstration of critical thinking skills in graduate students' blogs. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) this analysis provided researchers an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of interest. As part of a graduate leadership theory course at a southern land grant institution students were assigned to blog for part of their course grade. The grades were determined by the content of the reflections; yet were not impacted by their specific reflection guidelines. Students were given one of two different options for their blog. The first was directed using guidelines associated with Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy of Learning where students had to address the following areas: Cognitive Growth, Affective Response, and Behavioral Application. The second group was given only the requirement to reflect on different topics throughout the semester.

Students in the course represented both master and doctoral students from five different specializations within a college of agriculture and life sciences. These were teacher education, leadership education, agricultural communications, extension, and wildlife conservation. A total of 17 students were included in these groups with nine being in the guided reflection group and eight in the open reflection group. Blogs were downloaded from Wordpress.com where students were required to host their blogs. All descriptive information was removed from the blogs prior to be reviewed by two researchers. The researchers were required to review each blog entry for each student evaluating the content for evidence of each of the six critical thinking skills identified by Facione (1990). After the researchers came to a consensus of the frequency and depth of skills used in each blog, the data was organized in a computer program for the purpose of running a comparison between the structured and unstructured blogs. In order to establish trustworthiness of the study, an audit trail and acknowledgement of the researchers' biases were disclosed. Upon completion of the content analysis, researchers shared their results to determine consistency in evidence.

Findings

Half of the students were given the three learning modes, the other half was not. The students that had the structure, the more conceptual and thorough the blogs were. The top three critical thinking skills used by students following the guided structure were self-regulation, explanation, and analysis as depicted in figure 1 below.

Figure 1. Average Frequency of Each Skill Over The Semester

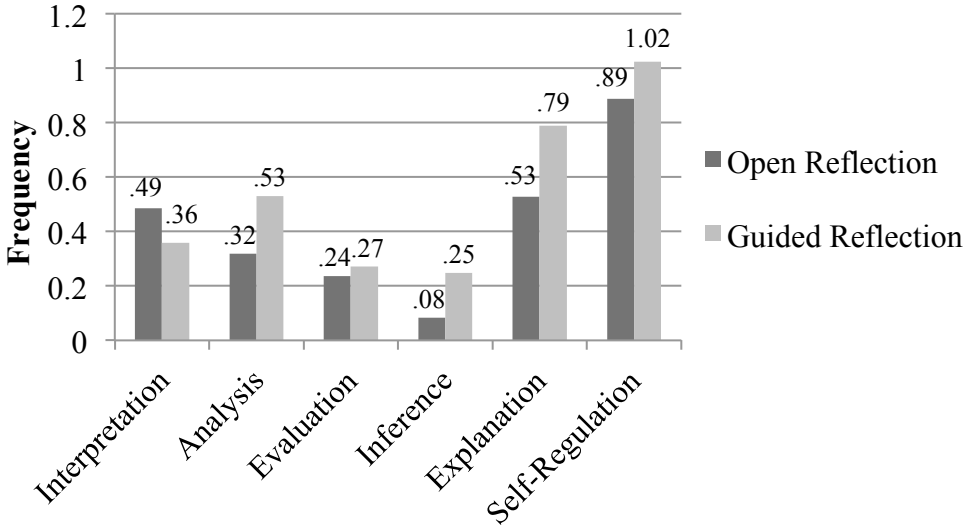

Figure 1. Bar graph comparing the average amount of times each skill was evident throughout the course of the semester by students following guided reflections and open reflections. Bar graph accounts for every blog written, nine weeks total. Figures inside the graph represent the actual frequency.

The top three critical thinking skills used by students following the unstructured reflections were self-regulation, explanation, and interpretation, also shown in figure 1. All blogs were self-regulatory although they were accompanied with other critical thinking skills. Second to self-regulation, explanation was a common theme among most blogs. This was to no surprise of the researchers as blogs are by nature a means of individual critique and perception. In the findings, interpretation and explanation overlapped as well as analysis and evaluation. These pairs were difficult to decipher in the context of the blogs. When analyzing the data, often it was clear if critical thinking skills where used in the reflection. The unstructured reflections were short in length, inconsistent and lacked clear focus. The structured reflections showed multiple critical thinking skills in one paragraph and elicited deep analogies.

Figure 2. Average Frequency of All Skills Used Over The Semester

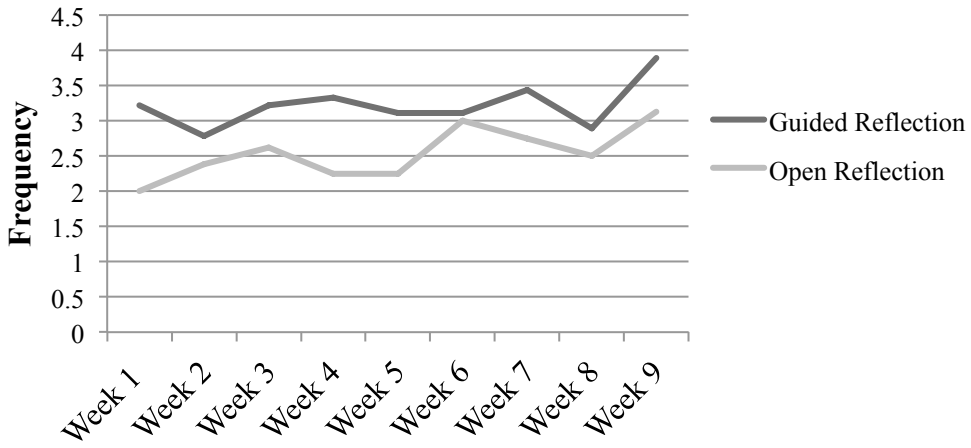

Figure 2. Line graph comparing the average number of skills used by students per blog who followed the guided reflections and students who reflected openly over the course of the semester.

Figure 2 shows that over the course of the semester, the structured reflections consistently showed more skills per blog than the unstructured reflections. Although both the structured and unstructured reflections in figure 2 have nonlinear relationships, the results indicate that on average when students are provided with structure such as Blooms (1956) Taxonomy of learning, the frequency and depth of critical thinking skills are greater compared to unstructured guidelines. Made evident in research, when a student is given specific guidelines, thinking capacity is expounded. The researchers have included samples below.

The following are examples of self-regulation:

> "Sometimes our perception of what we think we need to answer can skew our results. I believe that because I have become more aware of my issues that I need to work on, I am self-consciously harder on myself than I would have been had I approached this test with no pre-conceived notions." – Student 3
>
> "I chose to exclusively focus on tolerance of uncertainty after taking the LBDQ in August. My thought was that so much of this subscale is dependent on one's own self-concept. I knew I needed to make a change in the way I perceive myself." - Student 5
>
> "I usually have the mindset to be able to predict outcomes and make adjustments before the fact to avoid conflict, failure or grief. Therefore I cannot determine (ironically) why my scores went down in these areas." - Student 2

The following are examples of interpretation:

> "The value of this growth process is that I have learned that strengths without weaknesses can be perceived in different ways,

which is why a leader should withhold judgment on others."- Student 11

"It is one of those topics that can be seen as a managerial issue more than a leadership issue, but in small organizations where leadership and management overlap and resources are scarce, the allocation of resources can be an act of leadership as well as management."- Student 4

"As you think about taking on a new leadership role, organizing an event, taking a class, starting a new job or simply experience a change in your day to day routine, it is important to realize and comprehend the necessity of uncertainty." - Student 5

The following are examples of evaluation:

"Putting someone in the "in" or "out" group could be more damaging than you anticipate. Being in the "in" can be just as bad as being on the "out". If you have a fake relationship and pretend to be someone you are not to appease your boss, that could be potentially damaging psychologically. You could begin to think that the fake you is better than the real you." - Student 3

"The areas in which I chose to focus for my leadership development plan tended to improve more significantly than the other categories with the exception of production emphasis. This is not surprising since I was actively making behavioral changes which would affect the scoring in these categories." - Student 4

"If we all want to be leaders, how many of us are actually relating to each other through these leadership blogs…All it would take for me to establish a relationship with someone is a comment in response, so I know someone read it." -Student 13

The following are examples of analysis:

"Diversity is something most organizations view apprehensively – not because they don't like diversity, but because they don't like being sued. And that is the public's response to diversity."- Student 13

"I believe it is important as a leader to be able to differentiate between both listening and hearing because a good leader is able to list and allow other people to trust them. Individuals will follow a person that they can trust, shows compassion and competence." - Student 17

"Team composition refers to the knowledge and skills of team members. On the one hand, high diversity on teams might seem to

hinder its ability to be cohesive and or establish norms but on the other hand high diversity can enhance group learning, the sharing of resources, information, and creativity." – Student 10

The following are examples of inference:

"However, I feel that the best way to be in business situations is to find an individual who possesses both leadership qualities and managerial qualities. Although much of what we have learned in class says that you cannot be both, I believe it is possible."-Student 3

"The more people reach levels of acceptance and adaptation, the less likely the will say or do offensive things. Conversely, someone operating at these levels would probably be less offended by someone not understanding of their culture. In my opinion, it boils down to accepting others. We will always have differences no matter how hard we try, remember variety is the spice of life." - Student 6

"Communication with others takes place when they understand what you're trying to get across to them…People only understand things in terms of their experience, which means that you must get within their experience."- Student 16

The following are examples of Explanation:

"One of the hardest tasks for me through my college career has been my inability to focus on the goal itself not the process that I have to complete. Much of the culprit of the problem has been because I become enamored by the process of the project that must be completed that I forget the real reason on why I am completing the task."- Student 17

"I have come to realize that there is no 'normal' family and we have to accept what we are give – even if we don't necessary like it or agree with some things. This concept has brought many family members close, and some have pushed back but in the end, I know who is there during both the good and bad as well as who will not be there."- Student 2

"It's been a slow process and feedback, although solicited, has been slow in coming from members. I was worried that we would see the same low volunteerism when it came for elections again this semester. Surprisingly, we had more people go up for elections than we have positions to hold them. I have been absolutely

> stunned by how well the membership has responded to our minimal efforts." -Student 4

Recommendations/Implications

Blogging is used in the classroom as an experiential learning technique providing students with the abilities to think intuitively and reflect on the content. Reflection allows students to draw from past experiences and create relationships that increase critical thinking capacity. Leadership education is relying more on social media to provide an avenue for reflection and provides students the opportunity to share their reflections in an open and safe environment. As Gifford (2010) suggested in his work there needs to be the continued inclusion of these technologies in the classroom. This will enhance student critical thinking especially when students are given specific guidance as to *how* to reflect. This study has indicated that when students use blogging as a reflection tool and are given specific guidelines, the frequency and depth of skills used are more evident and profound compared to unstructured guidelines. As shown in the previous figures, regardless of whether the blog was structured or unstructured, self-regulation and explanation were the most frequently used skills among all students. This could indicate that blogging in nature is more provoking of these two skills. Additional research could help explain if this is a reoccurring phenomenon. In addition, the occurrence of these two skills could be reflective of the teaching methods used by educators or of the predispositions students have to these specific critical thinking skills. Future research could explore if students are predisposed to self-regulation and explanation or if educators are triggering students by means of a teaching method. Furthermore, would other teaching methods utilizing technology in the classroom trigger the use of other skills in a more thorough thought process? There is a need for future research to explain the relationship among teaching methods and the triggering of specific critical thinking skills.

Conclusions

The objective of this study was to examine the critical thinking skills used in graduate student blogs in the context of leadership using structured and unstructured blogs. In this study, it was found that two critical thinking skills were consistent among most students, self-regulation and explanation. It was evident that providing students with guidelines such as those associated with Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy of Learning, for the purpose of blogging in the classroom was more thought evoking over the duration of the course compared to students following an open reflection. The value of the study is to provide students with an environment that encourages the use of critical thinking skills. It was evident to the researchers when analyzing blogs that students have the capacity to exercise critical thinking skills however, self-regulation and explanation were by far more profound than any other skill, with respect to blogging. Blogging in the context of this study, cultivates self-regulation and explanation more often and thoroughly. Why blogging as a teaching tool is not evoking the use of other critical thinking skills remains an unanswered question.

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Using an Online Threaded Discussions Model for Leadership Case Study: Implications for Student Engagement and Learning in an Asynchronous Environment

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Abstract

This practice paper described Two-Stage Model for online threaded discussions in leadership courses. This model facilitated active student engagement in discussions, kept students focused on the topic and made assignment manageable for students and the instructor. The findings have implications and application for designing online threaded discussions for leadership courses.

Introduction

Distance education is becoming popular in higher education institutions in the United States and throughout the world. Instructors offering fully online or blended courses are looking for new technologies or using the existing ones in new ways to enhance student learning. Discussions designed as threaded discussions are integral to most online courses, and have been found to facilitate active learning among students. But, research indicates that threaded discussions sometimes digress into chat that is not in line with the intended purpose, thus causing the discussions to lose their focus. To address this problem, threaded discussions for an undergraduate level online leadership course were designed in a particular way to help facilitate more focused discussions. The findings indicated that this model facilitated active student participation in discussions, more focused discussions, and less deviation from the intended purpose. Threaded discussion posts also suggested that students engaged in reflection before posting their messages. A two-stage threaded discussion model was developed based on the experiences of designing and implementing threaded discussions for blended course to facilitate leadership case study analysis and discussion, and is presented in this paper. This model has implications for designing discussion boards in online/blended courses in leadership courses as well as course in other fields.

Background

Many universities in the United States are adopting distance education for their courses (Roberts and Dyer, 2005). Although distance education has been in use for a long time, introduction of the internet has considerably changed university level teaching and learning with many universities transitioning toward online courses (Davidson-Shivers et al., 2001). For learning to happen, it is imperative for instructors to design their online courses in ways that facilitate interaction among students and with the instructor. This interaction is usually provided in the form of discussions. Gunawardena et al., (1997) affirmed that "…true distance education is impossible without provision for interaction" (p.401). Online discussions are a central component of many online courses (Gao and Wong, 2008). These discussions play a vital role in acquiring knowledge during learning (Feng et al., 2006a). Among the various forms of online discussions, computer-

mediated conferencing discussions like threaded discussions are popular, and applicable to the field of education (Feng et al., 2006b).

A threaded discussion is an asynchronous, web-based discussion that takes place in an online environment under a number of different topics that are called threads (Kirk and Orr, 2003). More simply, a threaded discussion involves posting of messages pertaining to a specific topic (Middlesex Community College, n.d.). It includes an initial message and subsequent posted responses that are sequentially linked to the initial message (Feng et al., 2006a). It is a form of conversation in which people express ideas, elaborate arguments, and answer questions of other group members (Feng et al., 2006b).

Threaded discussions offer many advantages like improving higher-order thinking (Kirk and Orr, 2003; Meyer, 2003), meeting constructivist curricular objectives (Weasonforth and Meloni, 2002), helping students become participatory citizens (Larson and Keiper, 2002), building online learning communities (Edelstein and Edwards, 2002), improving students' writing skills (Jordan, 2001), improving computer and online skills (Davidson-Shivers et al., 2001), facilitating student collaboration (Miller and Benz, 2008), and promoting active and group learning (Kirk and Orr, 2003). In addition, students themselves perceive threaded discussions favorably (Miller and Benz, 2008). They enjoy them because of the convenience factor (Davidson-Shivers et al., 2004).

Despite the many advantages associated with threaded discussions and students' preference for them, it is often a challenge to design threaded discussions in a way that is interactive, yet manageable and focused on the topic and objectives of the discussion at hand. Knowlton (2001) noted that online discussions could digress into chat that is not related to the intended purpose, thus hampering student learning. Consequently, not being able to maintain the focus of online discussions is a concern for many instructors (Gao and Wong, 2008). It has been the author's personal experiences that some students lose focus and deviate from the discussion requirements, and can lead the discussion completely off track. Meyer (2003) categorized such responses under the "social" category.

In order to minimize responses falling under the "social" category (Meyer, 2003), we must evaluate our practices and show ways to incorporate discussion boards into online classes (Bailey and Wright, 2000). A review of literature suggested that there is no model or framework in the field of leadership that demonstrates an effective way of using threaded discussions. In order to fill this gap, I structured a threaded discussion assignment for an undergraduate level online/hybrid leadership course offered in spring 2010 at the [ ] university in a particular way that helped students focus on the topic of discussion and minimize deviations. Subsequently, this was developed into a model that could serve as a guide for instructors designing online threaded discussions.

The purpose of this paper is to present and describe the *Two-Stage Model for Threaded Discussions in Online/blended Leadership courses* (Figure 1) that was developed based on the teaching experience and outcomes of a undergraduate level online leadership class. Relevant literature support was also used in developing this model.

Description of the Practice

The author teaches an undergraduate junior level leadership course during the fall and spring semesters at ____ State University. Five chosen leadership case studies were designed using threaded discussions and students were required to participate in the discussions. Each case was broken into two stages (Figure 1). Clear directions were given for each case study to help maintain the focus of the discussions and minimize deviations from the topics. The directions as provided for each case study in the course are given below:

> Please read case study X and/or watch video clip and follow the steps given below to engage in the discussion:
>
> Step 1, week 1: Formulate and post your response to the case after reading the case/watching the case video clip. This has to be your intuitive and original response as to how you handle or respond to that situation. (One or two paragraphs long)
>
> Step 2, week 2: Review your peers' first posts and formulate your second responses to this case and post it. Did your response change in anyway? Why or Why not?
>
> Step 3: Students are encouraged to carry on discussion beyond the two required posts if the topic interests them, but they are not required to make more than two posts.

Larson and Keiper (2002) suggested requiring students to post only a specific number of postings. Duly following their suggestions, students were required to post a minimum of two posts for each case study. This minimum requirement ensured the manageability of the discussion for both the students and the instructor. Students had an option to continue discussions beyond the required two posts if a specific concept/idea sparked further discussion. Opportunities were provided for students to go through reflective process, and contribute quality and reflective original posts rather than feeding off of other students' posts/ideas right at the start of discussion. A Two-Stage Model was developed primarily based on the outcomes from this and other online classes teaching experiences.

The Two-Stage Model for Threaded Discussions in Online Leadership courses (Figure 1) consists of two stages: Stage 1 and Stage 2. Both stages have four clearly demarcated components: Input, Process, Output, and Outcome that explain the stages through which students pass as they participate and respond to messages in threaded discussions. Before starting the Stage 1 discussion, students review the case thoroughly and read the background literature provided by the instructor (input), reflect on and analyze the case (process), and post their first responses based on their personal experiences, the literature they read, and their overall perceptions about the case (output). The anticipated learning outcomes from this stage are critical thinking, linking of theory to practice, generation of new ideas, and problem solving.

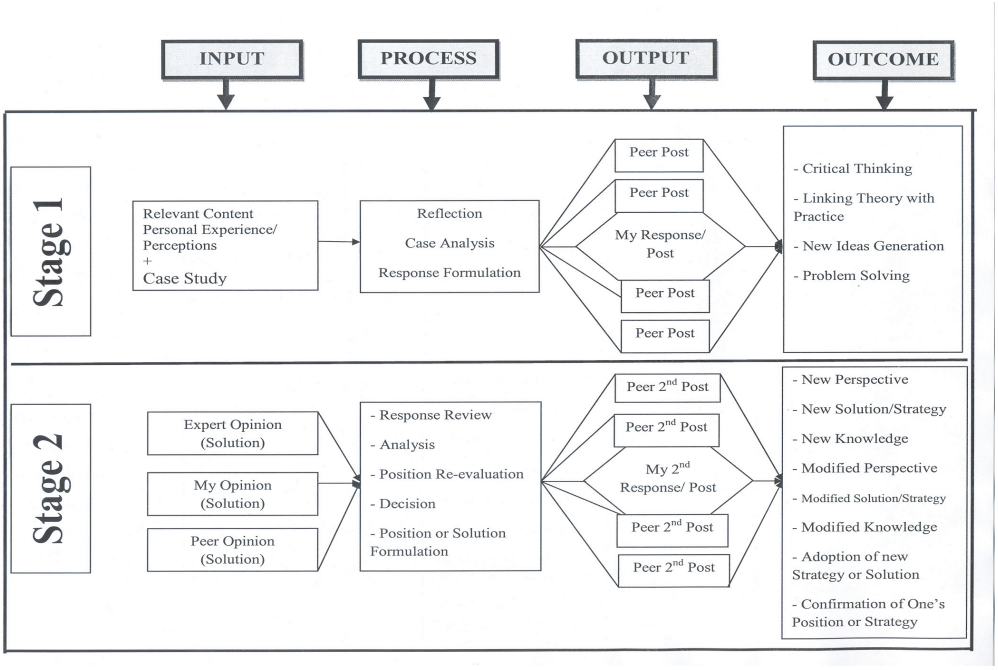

Figure 1. Two-Stage Model for Threaded Discussions in Online Leadership courses

In stage 2, students review their peers' first posts (input), reconsider their own first posts before articulating their second posts (process), and post their second responses (output). The anticipated learning outcomes from this stage are developing new perspectives and solutions, gaining new knowledge and adopting new strategies to solve similar problems, and developing new perspectives or simply confirming that their first strategies and/or perspectives were sound (outcome). The four components (input, process, output, and outcome) under Stages 1 and 2 provide a road map for threaded discussion design.

Additionally, students were encouraged to carry on discussions beyond Stages 1 and 2. At this point, students may focus on any particular concept, idea or issue that was raised within the two posts and pursue further discussions. This stage was not identified separately in the model because this was not a requirement for a grade; however, it is encouraged based on interest, but was left open for the instructors to decide based on factors like number of students in the class and the number of discussion cases instructors plan to include in their courses. The author identifies this to be an essential component of the model, as setting a minimum requirement to two postings makes the whole assignment manageable both for the instructor and the students, and helps maintain quality of those discussions.

Results to Date

There were 50 students enrolled in the class, out of which 32 were male (64%) and 18 were female (36 %). It was found that there were no personal discussions that were completely out of the scope of the topics that were discussed. The second postings, posted after students went through peer views, suggested that students reviewed and reflected on their peers' first posts, and then articulated their own views as required. Examples of student work supporting this finding

are presented below. The names of the students that appear in these examples are pseudonyms that have been made up to ensure the anonymity of the students. These student discussions posting examples are sampled from one case study threaded discussions completed online.

Example 1

> This case study discusses what I think is the best argument for small business against corporations. … It takes a leader to realize when a business is looking too much at quantity and decide it is time to leave and create your own road to success. It takes an even greater leader to use that success to help other people out (example is the base ball collection and charity donation), and that is exactly what this gentleman did. …. This is a perfect example of a great leader.

Example 2

> After reviewing all of the posts I can see why we have these discussion boards. It really gets people involved in the class outside of the classroom. Everyone put forth effort and seemed to really comprehend the article. It is great to see how other people perceived what Todd M. did. I also think many people were inspired by this article. It looked like some people thought about how they could apply it to something they may do in the future.

Example 3

> I did not notice when I watched the video the point that you made, "He also didn't let others guide his own future. He knew he could do something great and let nothing stop him." Looking back, that is an extremely good point. He ran into a lot of tough decisions and was starting from scratch several times and made it towards the top in everything he attempted.

Example 4

> A few people mentioned persistence and that was something I did not think about but should have. I also noticed that pretty much everyone felt that it was a “rags to riches” or “you can do anything you put your mind to” story.

Example 5

> One thing that I have taken from this case would to never give up. Rodd was turned down 300 times and eventually found a job. Then he left and started his own company that is now very successful because of his hard work and determination.

Example 6

> … I think the big take home message here is you really need to use your resources and be educated within your industry to become successful as an entrepreneur.

The six examples provided above indicate depth of students' insights and level of reflections. These discussion posts strictly adhered to the case being discussed and no digression from the focus of the assignment was observed. A majority of the students either added more insights to their first responses or made modifications to their views or positions, while a few maintained their original positions and provided rationale for their conclusions. These indicated that they reflected on the peers' responses and their own first postings as can be seen from the examples of student work provided. They also provided substantive responses for all the required postings.

The findings appear to be consistent with the findings of Davidson-Shivers et al., (2001), Kirk and Orr (2003), and Meyer (2003), as it was found that students provided clear and thoughtful responses for all the case studies, and showed evidence of higher-order thinking, especially in their second posts. This is evidence that they followed the assignment requirements. Further, Davidson-Shivers et al. found that threaded discussions facilitated reflective responses. The Model of the Experiential Learning Process developed by Roberts (2006) identifies reflection as one of the components of the experiential learning process, indicating that threaded discussions can also promote experiential learning.

Furthermore, it was observed that all students participated in all required case studies and posted reflective and meaningful messages. The instructor was able to read all the messages and provide timely and meaningful feedback, when needed. This indicates the utility and additional value of the depicted Two-Stage Model in facilitating learning through timely feedback on the discussions.

Recommendations/Implications

The author used threaded discussions both in graduate and undergraduate level fully online and blended courses. The instructor began using this model in an undergraduate leadership class in the fall 2010 semester in a blended class. Based on the findings, the author believes that this two-stage model will benefit educators in designing threaded discussions for online leadership courses. Therefore, the author recommends that instructors offering online/blended leadership courses should utilize this model for designing discussion boards in their courses.

Threaded discussions have been found to be useful for larger classrooms as well (Miller and Benz, 2008). The author recommends that larger classes be broken down into smaller discussion groups and that all discussions are carried out on the same case or topic simultaneously. This model can be successfully used in online courses in to engage students in asynchronous discussions.

Moreover, this model is resource-effective as the costs/resources involved in designing and implementing it are minimal. This model may be used in any online learning management systems to enhance discussions and interaction among students, and student learning as a result.

Conclusions

Designing threaded discussions for online courses in a way that is interactive, yet manageable and focused is a challenge facing many instructors. This paper presents and describes the *Two-Stage Model for Threaded Discussions in Online Leadership courses* that was developed based on experiences and outcomes after testing it in both graduate and undergraduate level

online/blended courses at Iowa State University. The author recommends that online instructors use this model for threaded discussion assignments in leadership and other fields.

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Leadership Lessons from Darth Vader? The Conundrum between Leadership Lessons and Psycho-Cognitive Processes

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Abstract

When the fictional character Darth Vader, a strong example of poor leadership, is presented as an example of effective practice, students are faced with a conundrum. Through class discussion, analysis, and evaluation this contradiction is addressed. Leadership theories and psycho-cognitive theories are compared, and new approaches are discovered.

Introduction & Review of Literature

The task of developing leaders is more imperative now, than any other time in our history. Society is changing quickly! As the world becomes more and more complex, our landscapes become more global, effective leadership is needed at all levels of our communities. Effective leadership is often balanced and well-rounded; good leaders know how to juggle assets and challenges. However insomuch as we, as educators, believe in the necessity of leadership education, our ability to teach is hindered by the very complexity of the subject matter.

Educators of all varieties face the inevitable challenge of trying to find realistic, meaningful examples of the concepts they are teaching (Hunt, 2001). Looking particularly at learners of leadership, research tells us that because of the complexity of the theories and the abstract nature of the concepts, learners can become bored and confused (Harrington & Griffin, 2001). Champoux (1999) however points us toward popular culture mediums as a way to bridge the gap between learner and concept in a more realistic way. Alvarez, Miller, Levy, & Svejenova (2004) reflect on using movies as a substitute for leadership case study, and posit that a movie's effectiveness lies in the learners' comfort with the media. In truth, great fictional characters, no matter how grounded in reality or how outlandish, are believable because "they reflect real, lived experience" (Drumm, 2006, www.sagajournal.com).

What happens when a fictional character, long believed to be an example of poor leadership is held up as an example of effective practice?

Description of the Practice

Star Wars is a cultural touchstone; as such, references to the movies or the main characters of the movies are understood by most people. Using Darth Vader as an example of questionable leadership tactics allows students to share a common character, and focus on the leadership examples rather than complex historical issues involved with non-fictional examples.

By asking students to examine the leadership tactics of Darth Vader they can demonstrate knowledge of leadership principles previously taught. Those principles are then reviewed and the differences are noted. Asking students to compare and contrast these elements deepens the understanding of the class objective leadership lessons. The psycho-cognitive research supporting Darth Vader's leadership decisions is then introduced. Students are faced with the cognitive dissonance of leadership theories that suggest Vader's choices are wrong and outside research that suggests those choices are valid. Through class discussion, analysis and evaluation this contradiction can be addressed. Students should then be able to discern a middle ground, an incorporation of both disciplines. Leading and supporting students through this exercise allows them to reach objectives at each level of cognitive processing (as demonstrated in Bloom's Taxonomy, Bloom, Engerhart, Krathwohl, Furst, 1956). Students will: Demonstrate their knowledge of leadership theories; Interpret theories of psycho-cognitive research; Apply each discipline's theories into the fictional movie world and their real world; Analyze and Evaluate the discrepancies via compare and contrast; Synthesize (create) a new combined theory of effective leadership.

Results

Darth Vader, rarely seen as an exemplary leader, was nonetheless successful in many of his endeavors. Many of his tactics are evidence-based and supported by experimental research. These tactics, however, do NOT agree with the leadership literature. There has always been, and will always be, disagreements among academic disciplines. In this case, instead of demanding readers to "take a side" we would instead challenge readers to think about a "middle ground" as we have. The conundrum is presented below with related principles numbered similarly (i.e. Dark Side #1 is contrasted with Scholar #1, with Middle Ground #1 presented as the compromise)

Leadership Principles from the Dark Side

1. **Thinking Evil Thoughts and Acting In an Intimidating Manner Makes You Stronger**
   Effective leaders require many skills; strength of will and determination are two that few would argue help leaders *lead*. Research at Harvard University indicates there are ways of fortifying those skills. What someone is thinking about can affect their stamina; an experiment compared the length of time one could cantilever a heavy object after doing or thinking about a morally specific act. Committing a charitable (positive moral) act increased endurance. Those who actions were morally positive were more efficacious than those whose actions were morally neutral. In fact, just imagining doing a good deed instead of a neutral one increased participant's willpower. However, imagining committing a morally negative or 'evil' act increased willpower and endurance more than both neutral and morally positive acts (real or imagined) (Gray, 2010).

   Additionally acting intimidating also increases determination. Hung & Labroo (2010) found that tensing or tightening arm or leg muscles or making a fist, increases willpower, resolve and

physical strength. She speculates that the act of tightening the fist appears to focus the participant on the task ahead (Hung & Labroo, 2010). This focus is stronger if the task ahead is an unpleasant one (leading soldiers to battle, leading students through a fund-raiser). The physical act, however, must happen just before the temptation or task. No wonder Darth Vader had a fist clenched all the time.

2. Arrogance Inspires Confidence

Body language can tell a lot about a person, but can it 'make' a leader? Social psychology researcher Amy Cuddy suggests it might. Cuddy explains the results from an experiment: Holding a power pose (an open pose that takes up space) increases testosterone and decreases cortisol (a stress hormone). These poses make you feel more powerful and more willing to take risks. The act of taking up space is similar to a peacock's display or a chimp puffing out his chest. These behaviors (animal & human) are all intertwined with alpha or dominance behavior. These poses needed to only be held for one or two minutes and were NOT posed in front of others (Carney, Cuddy & Yap, 2010). The distinction is the poses were not reliant upon the poser's perception that others saw them differently, but rather the body movement caused brain changes, the hormonal differences, that make the poser *feel* more powerful (Parry, 2010). This feeling allows the poser to feel, and therefore act more like a leader.

The poses can be used as a way to "prep" for a difficult or stressful situation. Both men and women had the same reaction to the poses. No gender difference existed. This research indicates that the mind body connection is not unidirectional. Changes in the body CAN affect changes in the mind (Carney, Cuddy& Yap, 2010).

3. Doom and Gloom Makes You Smarter

Pessimism does not inspire confidence and those who are melancholy are rarely looked to for leadership. But if doom and gloom make you smarter, maybe the sad should be in the lead. Research on emotions and its impact on thinking is relatively new. Jennifer Lerner (Director of the Harvard University Lab for Decision Science) contends that for much of the 20th century studying emotions was out of favor (Pincock, 2009). Therefore the *big* questions were not addressed or answered; such questions as how emotions shape the degree or depth of cognitive processes (Pincock, 2009).

It appears that the degree of happiness (or sadness) impacts focus, attention, and evidence (for decision-making) selection. Researcher Herbert Bless argues that being happy or sad fundamentally changes the way your mind processes information (Pincock, 2009). When one is HAPPY the brain subconsciously bases decisions on experience and already accumulated knowledge (like stereotypes). When one is SAD the brain pays more attention to new information available from the outside world (Eich & Forgas, 2003). Forgas suggests that all emotions, including sadness, must serve a purpose because emotions have survived evolutionarily. He explains that problems (incongruities) require more interpretations than things that make sense. More interpretations increase the need for creative thinking and evaluation which creates more opportunities for judgment to be affected by mood. Snap decisions are more influenced by stereotypes (memory).

Sad people tend to be more contemplative and more skeptical. They also wrote more clearly and convincingly when constructing arguments and reasoning. Accommodative thinking is thinking that allows (accommodates) more information into the decision making process. "We expected that accommodative processing should promote more concrete and factual thinking and result in superior persuasive messages" (Eich & Forgas, 2003, p. 70). The ability to construct more persuasive messages is a desirable skill for leaders.

4. **Be Authoritative, As the Leader You ARE the Alpha**
   No one doubted who was in charge on the Imperial Starfleet, it was clearly Darth Vader; and few doubted his commands whether belted from the ship's helm or as throaty directives in battle. He presented as *alpha*, but would he have been as authoritative if he sounded like Mickey Mouse? Research answers, no. Vocal qualities including tone, frequency, pitch, and volume alter the perceptions of an individual by others (Hodges-Simeon, Gaulin, & Puts, 2010). When in competitive or high-stress situations the dominant male's voice lowers (almost imperceptibly) more than the voices of the followers in the room (Hodges-Simeon, Gaulin, & Puts, 2010). Although, not everyone needs to sound like James Earl Jones (Darth Vader's voice) to lead, there is something to be said for adopting an authoritative timbre.

Leadership Principles from Leadership Scholars

1. **Leaders should strive to be transformational, ethical, and take a moral high road**
   Transformational leadership, now more than ever, is being discussed in classrooms, boardrooms, seminars and street corners. In a world where uncertainty is the only certainty, the idea of leaders who inspire and transform organizations (and followers) for the better is resonating in all corners of the world. A growing school of thought, the emphasis it places on ideas of intrinsic motivation and developing people into their best selves, is driving its popularity (Northouse, 2007). In truth, transformational leadership is the "attempt by leaders to move followers to a higher standard of moral responsibility" (Northouse, 2007, p. 348). As such, this type of leadership lends a great deal of credence to followers' needs, values and morals. It asks the question: Who are these people, really, and how can I as their leader, help them cultivate a life of value? Burns goes one step further, and adds that when adopting a transformational stance, leaders have a certain responsibility to help followers "assess their own values and needs in order to raise them to a higher level of functioning..." (Ciulla, 1998 in Northhouse, 2007, p. 348). Beauchamp and Bowie (1988) remind us all that followers must be treated as their own people; not as a means to someone else's end. In doing so, leaders demonstrate a respect for the decisions and values made by others. Northouse (2007) sums it all up by telling us that leaders listen, are empathetic, and tolerant. They treat subordinates in ways that confirm their beliefs so that they may feel validated. In short, the highest of moral high grounds, is when leaders treat others with respect.
   Leadership educators believe (and teach) that as leaders aspire to this moral high ground, they are also reaping great reward, because they are intrinsically motivated themselves…searching for a position of authentic leadership where something of real lasting value is being created.

2. **Leaders are Humble**

   Leaders influence; they do not intimidate. A leader is a servant before anything else. Collins (2002) espouses that leaders, while having a firm resolve in their convictions, should also be humble. Avolio et al. (2004) tells us that "humble servants of their followers engage the deepest levels of commitment" (p.18). One need just to look at some popular examples (Ghandi, Martin Luther King, Mother Theresa, Nelson Mandela), to understand the kind of commitment humble leaders can inspire toward a cause. But where does this humility come from? Bower (1997) answers simply…from great confidence. While that idea may cause major cognitive dissonance, Winston and Patterson (2006) go on to explain that even though confidence is often linked to pride, in this case it is confidence that enables a leader to let go of the fear that won't allow for humility.

   Robert Greenleaf developed the servant leadership approach in the early 1970s. This approach engages leaders with their followers in a deeply emotional way; being empathetic and attentive to follower concerns, to take care of them and nurture them. The key to this canon is that leadership is bestowed only on those who are by nature, servants. You only become a leader, if you are first a servant. Servitude is exemplified by humility not intimidation.

3. **Be positive, motivational, and inspire others by modeling the way**

   Capezio and Moorehouse (1997) describe leadership as the ability of a leader to make followers think and feel positively towards an organization's goals. Avolio et al. (2004) talk about an authenticity model of leadership where the "leader is confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, moral/ethical, future-oriented, and gives priority to developing associates to be leaders. The authentic leader is true to him/herself and the exhibited behavior positively transforms or develops associates into leaders themselves" (p. 243). The key is that all of these behaviors extend from a place of positivity. When Kouzes and Posner (2002) talk about leaders "enacting the meaning of an organization" or "making a conscious commitment to a shared way of being" (p.84) inherent in these statements is that the behaviors should all be those considered to be positive. Living out an organization's mission is positive, because, obviously, that mission will be a grand one, inspiring those who work towards it because of the profoundly positive mark it will leave behind.

4. **There are Many Ways to Lead**

   No doubt as leadership has become more popular, it has become no easier to understand. You can walk into any bookstore, in any city, and find as many different definitions as there are leadership texts on the shelves. But insomuch as there are so many different ways to think about leadership, we have also come to understand there are many different ways to lead. While some of history's most "popular" leaders have chosen, like Darth Vader, to employ the authoritative method of leading; leadership educators espouse other ways to think about the action. One need look no further than Blake and Mouton's Leadership Grid or Hershey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model as examples of these other ways of thinking.

Blake and Mouton (1985) advocate that a leader's style will change based on their varying concern for a task at hand and for the people completing the task. Within their Grid (cited in Northouse, 2007), there are five major styles (of which authoritative leadership is one):

a. Country Club style: A low concern for task, but a high concern for people style where leaders make sure the personal and social needs of followers are met.
b. Impoverished style: Where the leader is unconcerned with both tasks and people; and instead just goes through the motions of leadership.
c. Middle of the Road style: A compromising style that has "in-between" concern for tasks and people.
d. Team Management style: A style that places strong emphasis on both tasks and people, promoting teamwork and participation.
e. Authority style: Where the leader places strong emphasis on the task area, viewing people as a means to the end of production.

The Situational Leadership model, refined in 1985 by Hersey and Blanchard, demands that a leader tailor their style to the abilities of their followers. Dividing their grid into four styles that balance support and direction, Hersey and Blanchard see leadership styles in this way (Northouse, 2007, p. 93):

a. Directing style: focusing on goal achievement, gives instructions and supervises closely
b. Coaching style: focusing on achieving goals and social needs of followers, leader gets involved with followers, gives encouragement and asks for input
c. Supporting style: focusing on achieving goals and social needs of followers, brings out skills of followers around tasks to be accomplished
d. Delegating style: little direction or social support, instead focusing on facilitating employee's confidence and motivation to/for the task

The Middle Ground Compromise

1. **A good leader balances power and compassion.**
Although intimidation may get the reactions you want; it won't, in the long run, get the respect that creates good leader/follower relationships. Teamwork is often the best approach, but in certain circumstances, it is also too much and may tax resources where little or none exist. Or there may not be enough time to build those bonds and create that buy-in. A good leader balances power and compassion. Effective leadership is the right balance of strength and consideration. Thinking about the Leadership Grid, from Blake and Mouton, a good leader understands the ways and means of balancing the task concern with concerns for the people. But more than that, understands how to employ each of those leadership styles appropriately, and in a way to maximize the potential of followers.

2. **Strong leadership is knowing when and where to connect, finding the right opportunity and engaging in kind.**

Arrogance creates an imbalance and distance between the leader and the group. A great deal of personal involvement, however, may not be appropriate, or may not help. Again, time and the context may preclude tight relationships from forming. Strong leadership is knowing when and where to connect, finding the right opportunity and engaging in kind. This puts the group at ease and encourages members to reach out to meet the leader. The gap between is crossed, connections are made and the team gels. In this way, a leader will maximize the "forming" and "norming" stages of Tuckman and Jenson's Team Development strategy by inviting followers to be as comfortable with them as they are willing to be.

3. **Effective leaders are able to balance the group, their time, their talents, and their moods.**
   The doom and gloom leader endears no one to them. The Pollyanna leader is creating false hope and quickly loses followers' trust. Calm, quiet and thoughtful are the advantages to the emotions of sadness. Just as good leaders capitalize on the talents of each member s/he learns also to make the most of their own and their group's emotions. Dynamics are fluid; effective leaders are aware of the fluidity and are able to balance the group, their time, their talents, and their moods.

4. **Master rhetoric and you will master leadership.**
   It is important to recognize the difference between using a strong, deep voice and attempting to control or repress people. Leader who use these techniques in order to establish dominance, control or their *alpha* position do not understand leadership. Actions that are meant to intimidate or instill fear and leaders who yell, condemn, or condescend with their tone are soon abandoned. Leaders who err on the opposite end can be seen as weak, unsure or insecure. Again vocal control should be appropriate to the situation. A good leader is their group's cheerleader, coach, sounding board, and interlocutor; use your voice to encourage, direct, sympathize, and discuss. Master rhetoric and you will master leadership.

Conclusions/Recommendations

As we continue to grow and develop in our own teaching and learning as leadership educators, it is paramount that we make ourselves aware of what our social science brethren are teaching and learning. Discrepancies always exist within the rigors of academic disciplines and research. If, however, our ultimate goal is a well rounded student, aware of their own leadership strengths and challenges and equally so of follower needs and effective practices, then it is only appropriate to not just acknowledge opposing views, but incorporate those views within our own toolkit. Our Middle Ground Comparisons show that even Darth Vader got some aspects of leadership right. What he missed was an understanding of the context and the individuals involved. Good leaders are aware of these elements and demonstrate leadership skills that are balanced, appropriate, and focused on the needs. Good leaders develop a sense of what is needed and provide that element. Practice, concentration, and awareness allow individuals to develop that sense, just like the skills the Jedi used. May the Force of leadership be with you.

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Authentic Leadership in Literature: Teaching Leadership Via the Humanities

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Abstract

Authentic Leadership in Literature is a course of an interdisciplinary nature, in which students study authentic leadership through a variety of literature genres. In particular, a humanities-based approach that infuses the reading of literary classics offers students a novel and integrative approach to studying this timely and positive form of leadership.

INTRODUCTION

"Leadership is a human phenomenon that is embedded in culture, which includes art, literature, religion, philosophy, language, history, and generally all those things that constitute what it means to be and to live as human beings" (Ciulla, 2008, p.393)

This paper describes an alternative approach to teaching leadership in an undergraduate credit-bearing course. Instead of having a department-specific designation (i.e., PSY, BUS, or even LED) as is typical, *Authentic Leadership in Literature* was designed and offered as a capstone course in Elon's General Studies (GST) program. At the core of Elon's liberal arts curriculum, the GST program "aspires to develop excitement about intellectual discovery, a curiosity that transcends disciplinary boundaries, and a global vision with which to address fundamental issues in order to improve the human condition." Specific parameters of GST courses include an interdisciplinary nature, advanced subject matter, intensive writing, and high-level critical thinking to explore a topic from multiple perspectives. With leadership serving as the content vehicle, and with an infusion of a variety of literature genres, this humanities-type course squarely addressed these GST criteria and objectives in a highly novel, meaningful, and impactful manner. Favorable assessments from students and instructor indicate that this course is a highly innovative and integrated approach to studying leadership, as well as a highly effective one. Moreover, the infusion of classical literature also enabled students to gain a deeper appreciation for humanities and their role in a well-rounded education.

BACKGROUND

Authentic Leadership

All of the leadership-related programs at Elon begin with the fundamental assumption that leadership is a positive dynamic process through which an individual influences some purposeful and positive change in a manner that betters society, even at the smallest level. Unfortunately, in the wake of recent corporate and political scandals there has been a general weakening of people's faith in leaders over the past years. Out of this has come the phenomenon of authentic leadership, a term that has become increasingly popular among people in academics, businesses, and the general public. In short, authentic leadership refers to a values-and morals-based form of leadership, and leading by a guiding principle to 'simply do the right thing.' A number of authors (e.g., Avolio & Gardner, 2005) have proposed formal models of to define and assess the construct of authenticity; however, former Medtronic CEO Bill George's model is perhaps the most well-known and easily understood. Briefly, George (2003) describes authentic leadership as a lifelong process through which one remains true to himself while simultaneously serving the common good. He operationally defines authentic leadership through five dimensions: understanding your purpose, practicing solid values, leading with the heart (i.e., engaging and inspiring others), establishing enduring relationships, and demonstrating self discipline. Even in a cursory review of the literature will one find a plethora of theoretical and empirical articles dedicated to this widely popular and promising approach to leadership.

The Humanities and Leadership Education

The formal academic study and teaching of leadership and its related concepts is traditionally found in departments of management and social science (i.e., psychology, sociology, political science, etc.). As Howe (1996) noted fifteen years ago, this exclusive 'behavioral science perspective' can lead the study of leadership to be a narrowly focused

'institutionalized enterprise.' Using neo-institutional theory as the frame for discussion, Howe formally proposed that the humanities and their classical literary works could provide alternative yet equally powerful vehicles to more deeply and more broadly enhance students' understanding of leadership. Because the study of humanities and literary works typically approach leadership-related content from an entirely different perspective than would a traditional leadership text, and because the former more naturally allow for the simultaneous examination of a multitude of contextual variables (Gehrs, 1994), an increasing number of educators have been exploring this novel approach. Appreciating the necessity of the scientific approach from the social sciences, Ciulla (2008) calls for a complementary 'view from the humanities' to fully maximize the learning of the leadership. One of the most competitive peer-reviewed journals normally replete with sophisticated leadership-based research methodologies and analyses, *The Leadership Quarterly* in 2008 dedicated an entire special issue to the bridging of the humanities and social sciences. In this issue were articles discussing leadership through the classic works of Leo Tolstoy, Abraham Lincoln, Arthur Miller and others. The use of classical literature in leadership courses is certainly a growing trend as it challenges students to do more analyzing and deep thinking about the exemplification of leadership concepts rather than simply read about a more sterile theory alone. Recognizing this pedagogical trend, the Hartwick Humanities in Management Institute even created the Hartwick Classic Leadership Cases® which are a set of 86 case studies that include materials dedicated to teaching leadership topics such as managing change through reading Sophocles' *Antigone*, power through Shakespeare's *Richard II*, and overcoming resistance through Shaw's *St. Joan*. Clearly, humanities can play a role in leadership education. Perhaps Ciulla (2008) best summarized this by asking, "When it comes to leadership studies, the real question is not, 'What can humanities… add to the field? But rather how can leadership studies expect to develop without it" (p.395).

DESCRIPTION OF THE PRACTICE

The GST 392 course is capped at 25, and requires at least junior-year student status. An interdisciplinary course, students enroll in it from the entire gamut of majors – the overwhelming majority had never been exposed to any type of leadership course before, and some not even a social science. As such, the course begins with a brief overview of the history of leadership theory and basic definitions to help students appreciate the discipline as a legitimate and evolving science. This also involves reading and interpreting scientific articles, a new genre for many students. From there a grounding in the concepts of authentic leadership is developed through the critical reading of George's (2003) *Authentic Leadership* and other theoretical papers. To better understand the underpinnings of authentic leadership students read classic chapters from the likes of Carl Rogers and Erik Erikson to better understand the psychosocial dynamics behind the development of values, ethics, and morals and other concepts germane to authentic leadership. Paralleling these 'topical content' readings are classic literary readings such as *The Great Gatsby, Things Fall Apart, Billy Budd, All My Sons* (see Appendix A for a sampling of assigned readings). Students complete discussion prompts (see Appendix B) to turn in for a grade for each class; these require students to creatively apply the academic content to literary characters, as well as to other historical and/or present day contexts (i.e., 'how might this concept apply to a student on campus?'). During the seminar-format class, students engage in a variety of activities including discussion groups, mini presentations, and debates. Students are also required to write integrative papers blending the disciplines (see Appendix C); one of these papers is a modified autobiographical life story which challenges students to critically assess

themselves, their authenticity, and their leadership and life potentials (see Appendix D). The following subheadings provide more detail about the course description, objectives, and assignments.

GST 392 Course Description

Amidst the recent scandals among political and corporate leaders, a call has been made by academicians and practitioners alike to examine the authenticity of leaders. Authentic leadership considers the values, morals, and ethics by which an individual attempts to leads others. In addition to covering a sampling of current popular press and scholarly research literature on the topic, the course will follow a recent and popular academic trend of exploring authentic leadership through classical literary works ranging from Machiavelli's *The Prince* to Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby*. As such, students will not only be introduced to authentic leadership, but also study it in a creative manner which in turn can help them assess their own authenticity as they prepare for their own leadership careers.

GST 392 Course Objectives

The fundamental goal of the course is for students to gain a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon of leadership. As the topic has been discussed in some shape or form in various disciplines, this course will explore authentic leadership through a variety of literature genres. These will include the 'typical' literature of popular press management books, academic theoretical papers, and scientifically-based research articles. In addition, novels and plays will also be used as a means to explore characters' authentic leadership, in hopes of making the more academic literature come alive, so to speak.

It should be noted that this is not necessarily a literature course that one might find in the English department. While we will of course likely explore some of the works' other literary elements and themes, the primary focus is on *leadership*. What makes this interesting is some of these characters, on the surface, do not even have traditional leadership roles! As such, creativity in application and hypothetical thinking will be critical (and make for some fun exercises!) for making this course be a success. More specific goals include:

- Developing an appreciation for the role of authentic leadership in our society
- Gaining an appreciation for the fact that leadership can be studied and evaluated at the individual as well as group levels
- Learning different theoretical models of and criteria for authentic leadership
- Developing an understanding of the underpinnings of authentic leadership (i.e., morality, psychosocial development, ethics, etc.) and becoming familiar with major theorists in this area
- Becoming a critical consumer of a variety of literature genres
- Applying theoretical perspectives to assess authentic leadership in others, notably fictional characters
- Gaining a general appreciation for the roles that classic literary works can play in helping our understanding of human behavior
- Creating insight into one's own authentic leadership and life journey

GST 392 Course Assignments

A student's final course grade will be based on his/her performance on the activities listed below. More explicit instructions for each assignment will be provided later during the semester.

Class Preparation and Participation: In accordance with the GST guidelines, this course will be held, by definition, in a seminar format. As a general rule, there will be relatively little instructor-led lecture. Instead, students will be expected to come to class and actively participate in and lead class discussions. This necessitates that students 1) complete the readings assigned for each class period, and 2) come prepared to discuss them. In terms of discussions, students will be evaluated in terms of both the quantity and quality of their participation. Seminars are formats that often breed divergent perspectives and ideas; the nature of this particular course should offer plenty of opportunity for novel interpretations and applications. The key is to remember that there is often not a 'right answer' in these discussions, so students should not worry that their contributions will be wrong. In many instances we will be likely having discussions that have never been had before – thus, there cannot yet be any wrong answers!

To help students prepare for class discussions, the instructor will often provide prompts and/or questions about the reading to stimulate thought ahead of time. Students will answer these questions and turn them in on the day they are due. These will be graded primarily on effort, with students receiving a grade of +, √, -, or 0. Students will not be allowed to turn these in after class. Students may have one of these assignment grades dropped, but they may not be turned in late.

Application Paper: Character Analysis. Many of the characters we will discuss are quite well known and studied in literature. However, rarely have these characters been analyzed in the context of leadership; and even more rarely have they been used as case studies to highlight the particular aspects of leadership that this class will cover. This exercise will allow students to prepare an original analysis (5-7 pages) of these characters whereby they will apply George's model of authentic leadership, Maslowe's B values, and Roger's criteria for self-actualization to characters such as Jay Gatsby, Jesus Christ, or Willy Loman. More detailed instructions will be provided.

Integration Paper: Is Authentic Leadership Anything New? While the term 'authentic leadership' is a fairly new one in social science literature, it is by no means a new concept. In fact, people have for centuries been describing and proscribing authentic leadership without defining it as such. Moreover, some have discussed it without ever even referring to it as leadership! This exercise will allow students the opportunity to explore what some more ancient sources had to say about the elements of authentic leadership. Such sources could include the Books of Wisdom in Old Testament.; *Analects* by Confucius, *The Art of War* by Sun Tzu, etc. More detailed instructions will be provided.

Self Development Project: What is Your Authentic Life Story? One current line of study in authentic leadership is examining leaders' life paths and experiences; in other words, how was their authenticity shaped. Students will have an opportunity to assess their own life stories, with a particular focus on critical incidents (both bad and good) that have come to shape their orientation about life, their values and goals, and their underpinnings in general regarding authentic leadership. Even if a student is not planning on assuming a formal leadership role, a

goal of this course is to highlight how leadership can be applied to the individual or small group (i.e., family, work group) level. More detailed instructions will be provided.

Final Exam: There will be a final in-class exam during the regularly schedule final exam period. This exam will include identification of character quotes, description of theories covered in class, vocabulary words encountered in readings, and other material. More detailed information will be provided to help students prepare for this exam.

RESULTS TO DATE

Based on feedback from students, GST 392 has been a great success. Virtually all have expressed a great appreciation for the depth with which they learned about authentic leadership and how they can apply it to their lives. The insights they gained has resulted in many students gaining a much clearer appreciation for leaders (formal and informal), and for others raised for the first time an awareness that they themselves could assume a leadership role. Students particularly value the modules on the humanistic approaches for Maslowe and Rogers, and report having a much clearer view of their role and goals in life and their need to regulate themselves to achieve them. The course also has enhanced students' appreciation for literature, as well as given them the opportunity to examine works from new perspectives. Comments such as, "Wow, I read that in high school and had no idea that the character could be interpreted that way," are quite frequent. Most importantly, the discussions in class are clearly different than those typically heard in traditional leadership classes. In a sense, perhaps because these students are not 'weighted down' by excessive theories and terms, they are better able to explore applications of leadership in new ways. As the goal of GST courses is the generation of new perspectives and advanced critical thinking, this is quite promising. Finally, the course assisted in helping students adopt a life-long approach to not just their leadership development, but to their own personal lives as well. By midway through the semester most students realize that George's (2003) notion of authenticity is not just a recipe for successful leadership, but a meaningful and fulfilling life as well.

CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

GST 392 has been a great adventure in deepening students' knowledge of leadership through various literature genres, including the humanities. Given the growing trend for more integrative learning approaches, as well as its relevance to society today, authentic leadership has been an excellent focal point for this type experimentation. Aside from the substantial and multiple positive student outcomes, the course has also invigorated a professor by offering him a chance to challenge himself how he thought about, and, more specifically taught, leadership. Teaching a course like this is certainly likely to stretch one a bit out of his or her comfort zone, particularly if s/he is not a literary expert. However, early on, at the suggestion of an English department faculty member, I gave myself permission to accept the reality that I was not a literature scholar or critic, and not to feel guilty or scared about that. While I initially felt pulls to read lengthy critiques of the works we read in class, I reminded myself that my purpose was to get students to think about leadership in a new way – I did not have to pretend to be a literary scholar. The initial challenges of creating a syllabus and managing the course the first time were certainly real. In many respects, it was like preparing for multiple classes given the interdisciplinary nature (especially when one of those disciplines was new to me). That said, I look forward to incorporating more formal quantitative assessments to compliment the

qualitative ones I have obtained. It is a wonderful class, and I highly recommend that at some point leadership educators (particularly those at liberal arts institutions) challenge themselves and consider developing such a course.

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APPENDIX A
GST 392: Authentic Leadership in Literature Course Selected Reading List

Classical Literary Readings

Achebe, C. (1994). *Things fall apart*. Anchor.
Conrad, J. (2007). *Heart of darkness*. NY, NY: Penguin Classics.
Fitzgerald, F.S. (2004). *The great Gatsby*. NY, NY: Scribner.
Golding, W. (1999). *The lord of the flies*. London: Penguin Books.
Macchiavelli, N. (1966). *The prince and selected discourses*. NY, NY: Bantam.
Melville, H. (1962). *Billy Budd and other stories*. NY, NY: Penguin Classics.
Miller, A. (2000). *All my sons.* NY, NY: Penguin Classics.
Miller, A. (1977). *Death of a salesman*. London: Penguin Books.

General Leadership Readings

Ciulla, J.B. (2004). Ethics and leadership effectiveness. In J. Antonakis, A.T. Cianciolo, & R.J Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (pp.302-327). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
Den Hartog, D.N., & Dickson, M.W. (2004). Leadership and culture. In J. Antonakis, A.T. Cianciolo, & R.J Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (pp.249-278). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Related Content Theory Readings

Erikson, E.H. (1963). Eight stages of man. In E.H. Erikson *Childhood and society* (2nd ed.) (pp. 247-274). New York: Norton.
Kohlberg, L. (1983). The development of children's orientations towards a moral order. In W. Damon (Ed.) *Social and personality development* (pp. 388-403). New York: Norton.
Maslowe, A. (1971). Self actualizing and beyond. In A. Maslowe, *The farther reaches of human nature* (pp.41-56). New York, New York: Viking Press.
Rogers, C.R. (1995). What it means to become a person. In C.R. Rogers, *On Becoming a Person* (pp. 107-124). New York, New York: Mariner Books.

Authentic Leadership Readings

Avolio, B.J., & Gardner, W.L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root form of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16,* 315-338.
Ilies, R., Morgeson, F.P., Nahrgang, J.D. (2005). Authentic leadership and eudaemonic well-being: Understanding leader-follower outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16,* 373-394.
George, W. (2003). *Authentic leadership: Rediscovering the secrets to creating lasting value.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Scientific/Empirical Readings

Judge, T.A. (2009). Core self-evaluations and work success. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 18,* 58-62.
Khoo, H.W., & Burch, G.S.J. (2008). The 'dark side' of leadership personality and transformational leadership: An exploratory study. *Personality and Individual Differences, 44,* 86-97.

APPENDIX B
Discussion Prompt: *The Prince* and Khoo & Burch (2008)

The following questions are to be answered and turned in. They should be typed out, written in complete sentences, and free from grammatical errors. Remember to cite appropriately.

From Khoo & Burch (2008)

1. What does the word 'empirical' mean in regard to a research study? (the term isn't used in the article, but it is an empirical article – look elsewhere to find a definition).
2. What is the main purpose of the study?
3. What hypotheses are stated?
4. Who are the participants (subjects) in this study?
5. How is transformational leadership operationalized (i.e., how is it defined and measured))
6. What were the findings regarding gender differences?
7. What were the key overall findings?
8. If you were to conduct a follow up study related to the 'dark side' of leadership, how would you go about doing it?
    a. What would your hypothesis be?
    b. How would you test it?
    c. Who would your participants be?

From *The Prince*

1. For **each** of the chapters assigned to your group, identify the two or three (or maybe one if it is a very short chapter) most interesting pieces of advice that Machiavelli gives. By interesting, this could mean what you think the most important ones are (according to Machiavelli) or the ones that are simply most interesting to you for whatever reason – importance, novelty, practicality (or not), etc.

The following questions will be topics of discussion in class, so you should reflect upon them and be prepared to answer them. You do not have to prepare written responses to them or turn them in - just come prepared to share.

1. Each group will give a short presentation/demonstration of the key points in their chapters. Groups should plan on spending 10-15 minutes or so highlighting the most salient and/or interesting points and prescriptions in their reading. The group is not expected to provide a comprehensive, detailed overview of all of the content – you are just giving a flavor and some examples of your reading. Your group will have to make decisions about what to share, with the goal being that the themes in their chapters are covered.
2. In presenting their themes as described above, groups may want to assume that Machiavelli is President Lambert's leadership coach. In other words, if President Lambert were to follow Machiavelli's advice as outlined in your chapters, how might President Lambert go about actually applying these tactics at Elon?
3. You should come to class prepared ahead of time to discuss your thoughts with your group members. Groups will be given 20 minutes at the start of class to share their ideas and plan their presentations.

APPENDIX C
Integration Paper #1

Option 1.
Willy Loman is typically depicted as a sad literary figure who fell far short of achieving his dreams. Some might say this was a result of his failing to live a fully authentic life. Prepare a 4-6 page essay that critically assesses and comments on Willy's authenticity as an individual as well as a leader of his family and in his work. In preparing your essay, you will need to include a variety of literary resources, including the play itself, readings from class, and other resources you will locate. In your essay, you should include the following:

- A well developed assessment of his authenticity based on George's model (or Ilies et al.'s)
- What Maslowe would say about his degree of self actualization and B Values (you don't have to assess him on all of them, but highlight some of the relative highs and lows)
- What Rogers would say about his progress towards 'living the good life'
- An assessment of his self-efficacy, self-esteem, locus of control, and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation (these should also be defined and appropriately cited).

In addition to providing brief definitions for the terms you use, you should include examples and direct quotations from the story (as well as other sources) to support your assessments. In addition, you should use outside references (general psychology text book, research articles, etc.) for definitions of the psychological variables. Be sure to properly cite all such references and quotes using APA or MLA style.

Option 2.
Jesus is typically depicted as perhaps the most authentic leader who ever lived. Prepare a 4-6 page essay that critically assesses and comments on Jesus' authenticity as an individual as well as a leader. In your essay, you should include the following:

- A well developed assessment of his authenticity based on George's model (or Ilies et al.'s)
- What Maslowe would say about his degree of self actualization and B Values (you don't have to assess him on all of them, but highlight some of the relative highs and lows)
- What Rogers would say about his progress towards 'living the good life'
- An assessment of his self-efficacy, self-esteem, locus of control, and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation (these should also be defined and appropriately cited).

In addition to providing brief definitions for the terms you use, you should include examples and direct quotations from the story (as well as other sources) to support your assessments. In addition, you should use outside references (general psychology text book, research articles, etc.) for definitions of the psychological variables. Be sure to properly cite all such references and quotes using APA or MLA style.

APPENDIX D

Self Development Project: What is Your Authentic Life Story?

"To be a person is to have a story to tell," (Dinesen as cited by Simmons, 2002).

Context

As Shamir and Eliam (2005) note, most current leadership development approaches focus on skill development and training individuals 'how to be better leaders.' However, these authors propose that helping leaders develop, or even first understand, their own authenticity could be a more fruitful place to begin. The authors discuss the importance of understanding one's self-concept as essential to determining authenticity, believing that a valuable way to assess one's self concept is by examining that person's life story, stating, "…authentic leadership rests heavily on the self-relevant meanings the leader attaches to his or her life experiences, and these meanings are captured in the leader's life story," and that "…self-knowledge, self-concept clarity, and person-role merger are derived from the life-story."

Narrative/Life Story Defined

A life story is an autobiographical account of your life. Research shows that people are able to better explain and define themselves through the stories they tell. Although there are many definitions, the two below encapsulate them:

- "Personal narratives are people's identities because the life-story represents an internal model of 'who I was, who I am (and why) and who I might become" (Shamir & Eliam, 2005).
- Self narratives "refer to the individual's account of the relationship among self-relevant events across time. In developing a self-narrative the individual attempts to establish coherent connections among life events…The individual attempts to understand life events as systematically related….One's present identity is thus not a sudden and mysterious event, but a sensible result of a life story" (Gergen & Gergen, 1986, p.255).

Purpose

The purpose of this assignment is for you to have an opportunity to explore your self-concept (i.e., your understanding of who you are) through composing your own abbreviated life story. Research shows that our perceptions of our life's journey in large part shape how we make sense of and approach the world in general. Having this insight is an essential step to our leading fully authentic lives. Using materials and concepts from this class, your narrative will explore who you are, how you got here, and where are you going in the future.

Instruments

You should begin this assignment by completing a number of assessments to help you establish deeper self insight, particularly as it relates to authenticity and leadership. These should stimulate thought about yourself as a person and leader, and establish a reference point for your life story. You may use the ones provided in class, but you are also encouraged to include other assessments that you may have completed already, or would like to complete. The assessments provided are:

*Authentic Leadership Questionnaire, NEO-PI, Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Core Self Evaluation Scale, Servant Leadership Orientation, Mindfulness, Moral Courage, Instrumental and End Values, Strong Campbell Inventory** (recommended, and can be taken at the Career Center.)*

USING THE LIFE AND THEOLOGY OF DIETRICH BONHOEFFER TO TEACH THE CONNECTION BETWEEN PERSONAL SPIRITUALITY AND TRANSFORMATIONAL, SERVANT-LEADERSHIP

By

Mary C. Klein, EdD and Yung-Pin Lu, PhD

Introduction

Marian University began offering a minor in leadership as a way to fulfill the mission of its Center for Spirituality and Leadership. Generally, the Center works to integrate the core values of the University by developing leaders who create nurturing organizations led by transformational, servant leaders. To that end, the minor in leadership was shaped around two guiding principles: development of individual student's own leadership style through integration of values and individual talents and abilities, and development of a sense of service and social justice as a key component of effective leadership.

The conceptual framework around which the minor program (among other leadership programs at the University) is based in the work of the late Joseph Rost (1991), understanding leadership to be a relationship between leaders and followers aimed at achieving mutual goals for the good of the whole. To that end, the program seeks to form leaders who have a strong purpose and vision, self-knowledge, a sense of personal spirituality born out of self-discipline, anchored by integrity, and awareness of the importance of interdependence and social responsibility. (A copy of the conceptual framework and definition of spirituality are included at the end of the paper.)

This practice paper explores the efficacy of using the life and writings of Dietrich Bonhoeffer to help students understand the link between the importance of lived spirituality and the pursuit of transformational, servant leadership. Using the example of Bonhoeffer, college students study an individual who at their age confronted what he viewed to be the unethical practices of the Reich Church in Germany in the face of the rise of Nazism.

Connecting Spirituality and Leadership

The connection between personal spirituality and leadership is long standing. Just as effective organizations need to define core values and mission; individuals, particularly those who aspire to leadership, must also define their core values and intentions for leading. This process of self-awareness provides the foundation from which effective leaders lead.

Karin Klenke (2003) supports the link between spirituality and leadership when she concluded that spiritually "anchored leadership can add value to an organization by helping workers and managers align personal and organizational values around their understanding of spirituality. She found effective leaders possess an inward focus, potential for self-discovery, reflective analysis and personal reinvention (p. 56).

Kevin Cashman's work also bears this out. He explained, "Leadership is not simply something we do. It comes from a deeper reality within us; it comes from our values, principles, life

experiences and essence. Leadership is a process, an intimate expression of who we are. It is our whole person in action" (2008, p. 22).

Perkins, Wellman and Wellman (2011) raised this question in their study of the relationship between spirituality and leadership within the context of educational leaders. Using the Rayburn and Richmond *Inventory on Spirituality,* they found a significant correlation between spirituality and leadership practices as measured by Kouzes and Posner's *Leadership Practices Inventory.* Turning to the work of Jenlink in 2001, they concluded that "trust and authenticity developed from principled moral values, enhanced by an ethic of caring, justice, equity, fairness, democracy and community within the scholar practitioner, exemplifies the traits of the leader" (p. 1).

Cowan (2010) made the argument that spirituality underpins effective leadership when he wrote that the foundation of learning organizations "exists in well-grounded spirituality…rooted in real-world appreciation of all life…embedded spirituality evokes anticipatory and participatory ways of knowing leadership, doing leadership, and ultimately being a leader" (p. 90). He contended that this sort thinking and acting out of a sense of personal spirituality are essential to sustaining effective organizations and in the long run a healthy world.

A continuing challenge for the minor program is helping students, particularly those just beginning their development as leaders, to make the connection between personal spirituality and their approach to leadership. For our minor in leadership, much of this work is begun in the introductory course--*Theology of Leadership*, an interdisciplinary course that also fulfills one of the three-credit general education curriculum requirements.

Diane Berty (2007) in her work with undergraduate students found "the study of leadership creates opportunities for students to question and seek answers to their purpose in life while determining how that purpose affects those they choose to lead" (p. 260). She argued that if students are to be assisted in developing their spirituality by strengthening what she refers to as their "inner well-being, maintaining a sense of ethical balance" they must also develop their leadership potential and intentionally link theory to practice (Berty, 2007, p. 260). Basing her work in a similar sort of relational model of leadership, she maintained that ethical leaders need to be "grounded in their beliefs, values and principles, meaning to be worthy of trust and of good character" (Berty, 2007, p. 260). She noted that "being ethical also requires leaders to confront unethical practices and to act in congruence with their own principles" (Berty, 2007, p. 261).

The Course Curriculum

As noted, the course *Theology of Leadership* is offered regularly as an interdisciplinary course out of both the Department of Theology and the Department of Leadership. The course is taught by persons with degrees in both theology and leadership, and is occasionally team taught. The developer of the course and primary instructor has advanced degrees in both fields, frequently the course is taught by instructors with advanced degrees in theology.

Using a variety of resources, students use reflection to explore their personal spirituality, sense of vocation, and approaches to leadership within the context of their belief systems. Students are

encouraged to explore spirituality and spiritual development from a variety of points of view without a particular denominational approach being taken by the instructor (though it is important to know that our institution is a Catholic, liberal arts school sponsored by the Congregation of the Sisters of Saint Agnes).

The same can be said of how leadership is addressed in the course. A variety of models are discussed, but particular attention is given to relational models specifically transformational leadership (Burns, 1978, Bass & Avolio, 1994) and servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1991; Spears, 1998; and Keith, 2008). The work of Dietrich Bonhoeffer serves as the culminating example of how personal spirituality and transformational, servant leadership come together in one individual's lived experience.

Objectives of the course include the following:

- Exploration and assessment of a variety of leadership styles on the basis of historical models, roles, power-base, skills, motivation and values.
- Exploration and assessment of students' own leadership styles based on the leadership theories presented through reflection, diagnostic instruments, readings, and class discussion.
- Analysis of the spiritual dimensions of leadership, the part it plays in professional ethics and leadership practice.
- Assessment of students' own spiritual practices and reflect on their impact on leadership.
- Consideration of the elements which support a leadership-style which is values-based and students own practice of these elements.

As an interdisciplinary course, particularly one with a theological objective, finding ways to address learning objectives with materials that meet the educational goals and at the same time meaningfully engage students can be challenging. The theological writings of Dietrich Bonhoeffer combined with his compelling life story, personal writings and historical context has proven to be the sort of interdisciplinary approach needed to meet that challenge.

Some of the guiding principles for the course include finding "student friendly" materials; that is readings that are not overly challenging for freshmen and sophomores and that offer a story that is of interest. Bonhoeffer's historical context is also important because students have often studied World War I and World War II in history courses in both high school and college. Availability of ancillary resources is an additional a factor. Given Bonhoeffer's notoriety in theological circles, audio-visual aids are readily available (see resource list), along with a number of online materials such as time-lines, pictures and maps.

Another challenge is that the course is offered in two different formats: a traditional 14-week semester and a 7-week accelerated format for adults returning to school to complete undergraduate degrees. The interdisciplinary nature of the course remains the same in both platforms. It is anticipated that at some point the course may be offered in an online or hybrid format as well. However, regardless of format, the Bonhoeffer material works best as a culmination of other work in the course. Certain skills and foundational material needs to be covered prior to delving into Bonhoeffer's life and theology.

One skill students need to develop is reflective thinking which involved the continual evaluation of assumptions and interpretation about knowledge from multiple perspectives (King & Kitchener, 2002). Hannum, Martineau and Reinelt (2007) articulated that reflection is a process wherein individuals review ideas, understanding, and experiences by asking questions and creating awareness to explore greater insights and understanding as well as making connections to final decision-making. Reflective thinking is the third and last level of the stages of the reflective judgment models (King & Kitchener, 2002). They note that pre-reflective thinking focuses on learning knowledge and understanding, and quasi-reflective thinking provides connection with individual life experiences, while genuine reflective thinking results in integral meaning making through multiple perspectives, questions, and reevaluation. By practicing reflective thinking, students are able to integrate their personal spirituality and their approach to leadership. The very nature of this course pushes students to this higher level of reflective thinking.

Other specific content areas that need to be addressed prior to exploring the work of Dietrich Bonhoeffer include basic biblical understanding (note: this course works best as a second theological course rather a first). With knowledge of (or at the least some experience with) biblical study and interpretation, students have an easier time of understanding how and why Bonhoeffer drew his personal spirituality, vision of ministry, and leadership from certain key biblical teachings. Exegetical investigation of Matthew's *Sermon on the Mount* also gives students specific understanding of the basis for Bonhoeffer's approach to leadership. And, by so doing, they begin to make the connection between what they themselves believe and how it impacts their own approach to leading. This study leads easily into discussion of the development of the *Social Gospel Movement.*

Another interdisciplinary opportunity may be had by attending to the events of World War I as motivation for the rise of Hitler and the Nazi party in Germany, as well as the events that led to World War II. This sort of historical contexting also pushes students to make the link between their own situation and their call to leadership. Bonhoeffer's own spiritual developed circles around the death of one of his brothers while serving in the German Army during World War I, and his subsequent call to ministry shortly thereafter.

To bring this all together, various resources have proven helpful. A basic foundational text is essential. *The Cost of Moral Leadership; The spirituality of Dietrich Bonhoeffer* by Kelly and Nelson (2003), published by Eerdmans is just such a text. It contains a helpful biographical sketch, along with various discussions of the essentials of Bonhoeffer's theology. A chapter of his poetry is also used as a source for students' personal reflection and deeper understanding of how Bonhoeffer struggled with his ministry and the political challenges with which he was confronted.

A number of documentary materials are available as well. The most useful has been *Hanged on a Twisted Cross* by T.N. Mohan. Individual scenes and vignettes shown as needed and as time allows, gives students a visual underpinning of Bonhoeffer and his life. Students who are challenged by the tone and vocabulary of theological writing are given support in the class by the use of worksheets which point them to the specific elements of the writings that need attention. These have also formed the basis for in class discussion of the material.

The final reflection assignment which asked students to process Bonhoeffer's theology alongside the concept of the Social Gospel begins the analytical process of connecting personal spirituality and leadership. Dietrich Bonhoeffer's writings point directly to this connection and the actions he took as a leader in the German church. Students have little trouble making this connection. After a thorough investigation of Bonhoeffer in his situation, students are challenged to make the same connection between their own beliefs and how they lead.

Students must also wrestle with the paradox between writings of Bonhoeffer that are pacifistic in nature and his covert involvement with the plot to assassinate Adolph Hitler. This presents students with the challenge of balancing one's belief system and personal spirituality over and against the challenges of current events and resident evil. Discussion often becomes quite lively at this point in the study.

Through a thorough investigation of Bonhoeffer's theology, his pastoral ministry, and his historical setting students are confronted with bringing together their own spirituality and approach to leadership. Berty (2007) concluded that one of the primary points of assessment for undergraduate leadership education is "an exploration of how spirituality—a reflection of one's inner strength—affects one's leadership" (p. 26). The design of this course does this.

Assessing the course

To date, this course has been taught six times over three years using Dietrich Bonhoeffer, his life and his writings as culminating source material. The course has been taught twice with traditional undergraduates in a traditional 14-week semester, and four times in an accelerated 7-week format with returning adult students. Using student responses to questions on the final essay along with evaluation from the four instructors, the following evaluation of the methodology can be made.

A. What worked well:

After comparing the answers students made to the questions raised on the essay assigned, we found students demonstrated significant growth in maturity, this was particularly true of traditional students. In the process, students were also able to integrate their personal values, their spirituality and their individual approach to leadership. With Bonhoeffer as an example, connecting these three essential elements of transformational servant leadership on a personal level appeared to be a much clearer process for students.

Using the theological foundation behind Bonhoeffer's spirituality and leadership, students were able to articulate their own belief systems (whether within traditional Christian creeds, or non-traditional systems) and make direct connections to the impact those beliefs have on personal accountability and action.

An additional benefit of using the example of Dietrich Bonhoeffer was that students saw the challenges presented to those who try to live and lead through the model of transformational servant leadership. Bonhoeffer's example shows the effort one must make in remaining true to one's beliefs despite personal and organizational difficulties.

B. Challenges

The Bonhoeffer source material is rigorous. Students who are inexperienced with reading theological discussions found the text to present some challenges. We provided "worksheet" exercises to help ease the process. Further, students who had not had a great deal of experience with biblical exegesis also found that material to be difficult. Again, adequate preparation prior to delving into the Bonhoeffer readings seemed to ease the process.

An understanding of the historical context for both World War I and World War II was important for students in putting all of the pieces together. Much of Bonhoeffer's life works came out of his life as a teenager in and around World War I and his maturation and growth as a theologian and pastor prior to and during World War II. Students who couldn't draw from their prior knowledge of these world events struggled more with this aspect of the material.

As culminating material in the course, the underpinning objective is to help students create deep meaning personally from Bonhoeffer's example. Helping students to reach and then to write to a depth of reflection at times posed problems for them. Students were not always accustomed to reflecting at the third level of depth as referred to above. There was some resistance when pushed to do so. Many were looking for basic wrong or right answers. This was particularly true of traditional undergraduate students.

Finally, not all students wanted to or were able to connect the lessons learned from Bonhoeffer's example and theology to their own personal life-long journey toward transformational servant leadership; those that did found both inspiration and personal insight.

C. Next Steps

The foundational text is a fine starting point for students. However, additional material and articles could provide students with more opportunities for making connections between the historical context, biblical study and Bonhoeffer's theology. Some basic reading addressing the historical context for Germany during World War I and World War II could provide a refresher for students who have lost track of their knowledge of these conflicts.

Likewise, additional audio-visual materials that address the Jewish resistance movement during World War II may also help explain the impact of the Nazi Party on the Jews and other disenfranchised individuals in Eastern Europe.

For some students, the biblical exegetical study proved to be most challenging. Additional quizzes and biblical study would help lay a strong foundation for these students. As indicated above, students enter the study of the material at various points of preparedness. Offering supplementary material that supports them in all the areas mentioned here may prove helpful.

Conclusion

Over the years this course has been taught, greater emphasis has been placed on theological understanding and the importance of making the connection between spirituality and one's individual approach to leadership. Finding adequate examples that draw from theology, spirituality, leadership and historical accessibility while at the same time presenting students with an attractive model was challenging. Dietrich Bonhoeffer proved to be the answer to this challenge. Given his relative young age, his personal quest to develop the concept of the social gospel in the day-to-day experience of his pastoral ministry, set within the compelling historical context gave us such an example.

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RESOURCES ON BONHOEFFER AND SAMPLE MATERIALS:

PBS website: Brief biographical information, access to timeline of Bonhoeffer's life, and other material: http://www.pbs.org/bonhoeffer/

Films: (in order of preference)
Mohan, T.N. (n.d.). *Hanged on a twisted cross; The life, convictions and martyrdom of Dietrich bonhoeffer.* Lathika Film and Entertainment, Inc. (120 minutes) Distributed by Video Vision, #4863D

Dietrich Bonhoeffer; Memories and perspectives. Trinity Films (90 minutes) Distributed by Video Vision #500957D

Bonhoeffer; Agent of grace. Oregon Public Broadcasting and Wisconsin Public Television (90 minutes) Distributed by Video Vision #4638D

Spirituality

[Working definition of the term Spirituality as determined through a Delphi process of pertinent individuals at Marian University, Fond du Lac, Wisconsin, Spring 2010.]

For many people, spirituality is shaped by religious denominational affiliation that is expressed in creeds, rules and ritual experience. Others find their spiritual journeys lay the great teachers of philosophy, theology and spirituality. Still others discover their spirituality through pursuit of personal spiritual practices such as private devotion, yoga or meditation. However we walk this path, we are individually responsible for claiming who we are and our relationship to others and the Divine to transform the world.

Spirituality is process of discovering deeper meanings in our relationships with ourselves, others and the Divine. This journey is life-long moving us toward understanding our place in the cosmos; that is, discerning our meaning and purpose in life. This awareness is an intentional and inquisitive act that requires us to become aware of and develop a personal understanding of our vocation, personal values and beliefs, and the interconnectedness of all creation. There may be times when the presence of the Divine feels very real and close and at other times seems very distance and removed.

Marian University is a Catholic institution sponsored by the Congregation of the Sisters of St. Agnes. Our institutional spirituality is lived out through our core values: community, learning, service, social justice and spiritual traditions. Our mission calls us to education of the whole person, striving to nurture intellectual, spiritual, aesthetic, psychological, social and physical dimensions of life. Marian University welcomes anyone who desires to deepen their own spirituality and to engage others on the journey.

BONHOEFFER AND THE BIBLE

Essay Rubric

Objective: To demonstrate knowledge and understanding of Dietrich Bonhoeffer's beliefs and the biblical principles underlying his work.

Task: Write an essay which responds to each of the following questions

1. Using the image of Christ as *Emmanuel* (God with us), the Beatitudes as presented in the Sermon on the Mount (Matthew) and the Sermon on the Plain (Luke), explain the concept of the Social Gospel as understood by Dietrich Bonhoeffer, and he lived out that concept in his life.
    A. Begin by explain the scriptural basis for his belief then…
    B. Consider using examples of his experience in the United States
    C. Consider using examples from his experience as a young pastor in Barcelona

2. Bonhoeffer was known as a pacifist, but yet became involved in the plot to assassinate Hitler. Explain how he reconciled this for himself.
    A. Define pacifism
    B. Explain his reasoning behind being a pacifist and the need to "love your enemies"
    C. Explain his justification for becoming involved in the plot against Hitler

3. Ultimately, this course has been about self-awareness about personal belief and personal spirituality. And second, how that awareness impacts one's leadership.
    A. Generally speaking, what did Bonhoeffer believe?
    B. Describe his personal spirituality
    C. Explain how his beliefs and his spirituality impacted how he led

4. We have discussed several thinker's understanding of effective leadership: Kent Keith's 7 key practices of servant leaders and the paradoxical commandments of leadership, Kouzes and Posner's 5 leadership practices and 30 behaviors, a variety of theories of leadership, and the call to moral leadership understood by Dietrich Bonhoeffer from the Gospels of Luke and Matthew.
    A. Discuss the alignment between these various understandings of effective leadership.
    B. Formulate a composite picture of your understanding of effective leadership based on this alignment.
    C. Describe and discuss the connections between Bonhoeffer's approach to leadership and effective leadership as shown in this alignment

The successful essay will:
1. Respond to each of the questions raised
2. Demonstrate insight and knowledge of the material
3. Adhere to the conventions of effective writing with regard to grammar, punctuation and etc.
4. Be double-spaced, page numbered
5. Be turned in on time.

Discovering Strengths: Personal Development Experiences in Leadership Education

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Abstract

This study examined students' learning using an *Awareness of Personal Strengths Educational Module* within a college-level, undergraduate *Personal Development Leadership Course*. Students engaged in a six-week strengths education program as part of a semester-long course. The program was based upon the *Now, Discover Your Strengths* book and supplemental StrengthFinder.com website (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001). The learning module was taught utilizing the strengths inventory, a strengths versus weaknesses debate, an identifying strengths movie assignment, as well as discussion of the *Now Discover Your Strengths* book. To evaluate the programs impact, the researchers employed an assessment of strengths awareness survey, an assessment of student engagement survey and compared the students' self reported data with scores earned on an strengths development quiz. Results of the three evaluation tools were analyzed to look for possible relationships between students' perception of strengths awareness and students' lesson engagement and an evaluation of students' performance on an instructors-developed strengths assessment. According to the results of the study, implementing the strengths curriculum in a collegiate-level course successfully develops students' strengths awareness, knowledge of personal strengths, general strengths knowledge, and application of the strengths philosophy.

Introduction and Theoretical Framework

To become successful leaders, students must fully understand their strengths and then effectively use those strengths in making future decisions (Jackson, 2011). One popular method of teaching leaders to understand their strengths is using the *Now, Discover Your Strengths* book and supplemental StrengthFinder.com website (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001). The Gallup's Clifton StrengthsFinder is a popular measurement tool which has been successfully employed in academic and business settings to measure an individual's personal talents and identify areas which demonstrate the greatest potential for building strengths (Lopez, Hodges & Harter, 2005). Specifically, leadership programs can support students' personal development by providing opportunities which enable students to become more aware of and learn to implement their strengths (Jackson, 2011).

A strength is "the ability to provide consistent, near-perfect performance in a given activity" (Anderson, 2005, p.186). A strengths-based educational program can be used to improve students' strengths awareness, self confidence, collaborative respect, and future achievement (Clifton & Anderson, 2006). Prior research indicated that students report a better understanding of course concepts when steps are taken to provide actively engaging learning experiences (Ahlfeldt, Mehta, & Sellnow, 2005).

The strengths-based development process encourages individuals to build strengths by acquiring skills and knowledge to complement their greatest talents (Lopez et al., 2005). Students need to take time to understand and appreciate their strengths and values when considering their future

leadership roles (Jackson, 2011). In a recent qualitative study at a large public university, researchers found that students who participated in strengths-based training experience demonstrated an increase in their confidence, relationship quality, and goals (Mosteck, 2010). When students understand their unique leadership strengths they gain a better understanding of themselves and others which cultivated achievement on many levels (Jackson, 2011).

Prior research indicated that using StrengthsFinder in classrooms benefits students in terms of personal strengths development awareness, confidence, respect, and achievement (Hodges, 2003; Hodges & Clifton, 2004; Rath, 2002). However, it is important to note, the majority of the research on the effectiveness of the StrengthsFinder has been conducted internally by Gallup. Additional research is needed for StrengthsFinder to receive more acknowledgement within higher education (Mosteck, 2010).

This research study proposes to make four contributions to the study of strengths-based leadership education. First, describe students' perceptions of participating in a strengths-based educational experience using the constructs of strengths awareness, self-confidence, collaborative respect, and future achievement. Secondly, evaluate possible relationships between students' self-reported assessment of the strengths awareness program and their participation in the program. Thirdly, understand relationships between students' perceptions of their awareness and their performance on an instructor-developed strengths assessment. Finally, examine the possible relationship between students' academic major and their engagement in course lessons.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of the study was to determine the impact of using an *Awareness of Personal Strengths Educational Module* in an introductory, college-level course. Specifically, the researchers sought to understand the relationships between students' perceptions of their strengths and their engagement in the program, as well as their performance on an instructor-developed strengths assessment. Additionally, the researchers studied relationships between these variables and selected student characteristics. The specific research questions that guided the study were as follows:

1. What are the selected characteristics of students in the *Personal Development Leadership Course*?

2. What are the students' perceptions of their course engagement?

3. What are the students' perceptions of their strengths development related to the constructs of overall strengths awareness, self-confidence, collaborative respect, and future achievement?

4. How do the students perform on the instructor-developed strengths performance assessment by academic major?

5. Is there a significant relationship between course engagement and personal strengths development?

Methods

This study was descriptive and correlational and was conducted using a combination of survey research method (Creswell, 2002) in which post-data was collected. The independent variable in the study was the level of engagement while the dependent variables were the strengths awareness, and strengths performance. All members of the population were encouraged to participate in the study, a method, referred to as a census survey (Gay, Mills, and Airasian, 2009). The population for this study included two sections of students taking an introductory, college-level personal leadership development course during the fall 2010 semester. Surveys were administered during a scheduled class meeting. Forty-five students participated in the study of a total of fifty-three students enrolled in the courses resulting in an eighty-five percent response rate. Surveys were collected during the week following the final strengths lesson.

Three instruments were used in this research study. A team of experts including leadership educators and researchers reviewed the instruments for content and face validity. The first instrument was the Assessment of Strengths Awareness Program Questionnaire (Anderson, 2005) which was intended to measure the strengths awareness of students and focuses on areas which were organized into four major constructs by the researchers to include personal strengths development awareness, confidence, respect, and achievement. The participants indicated their agreement with 45 items by responding to a five point Likert scale. The items on the scale were "1" = "Strongly Disgree," "2" = Disagree," "3"= "Undecided," "4" = "Agree," and "5" = "Strongly Agree." The 45 items were divided into four constructs. The Cronbach's coefficient alpha reliability estimate (Gay et. al, 2009) was calculated for each construct: "Strengths Awareness" (.82), "Self-Confidence" (.84), "Collaborative Respect" (.83), and "Future Achievement" (.84). The overall scale yielded a reliability estimate of .95.

The second instrument developed by the researchers enabled students to evaluate their engagement in the course and included the following areas for engagement: course readings, lesson activities, and assignment completion. For each activity students were asked to rate their engagement using a five point Likert scale. Participants indicated their agreement with fifteen items. The points on the scale were "1" = "Strongly Unengaged," "2" ="Unengaged," and "3" = "Undecided," "4"= "Engaged," and "5" = "Strongly Engaged."

The third instrument was designed to allow the instructors to evaluate the students' actual knowledge of the course concepts, strengths terminology, and students' personal strengths performance using a Likert scale. The instructors evaluated the students' performance using the following Likert scale. The points of the scale were "1" = "Poor Performance," "2" = "Below Average Performance," "3" = "Average Performance," "4" ="Above Average Performance," and "5" = "Excellent Performance."

The data were analyzed using Version 17.0 of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and the research questions were tested using descriptive statistics, means, standard deviations, and Pearson's Product Moment Coefficient of Correlation (Creswell, 2002). The strength of relationships was described using Davis' (1971) coefficient conventions: $.01 \geq r \geq .09$ = "Negligible,", $.10 \geq r \geq .29$ = "Low," $.30 \geq r \geq .49$ = "Moderate,".$50 \geq r \geq .69$ = "Substantial," and$r \geq .70$ = "Very Strong."

Findings and Conclusions

Selected characteristics of the accessible sample are described in Table 1. The demographics of students by major were as follows: leadership (*n* = 11), education (*n* = 14), communication (*n* = 12), and students from outside the department (*n* = 8). Fifty-eight percent of students surveyed were female and 42 percent were male. The students academic classifications are as follows: 51 percent were juniors, 27 percent were sophomores and 22 percent were seniors.

Table 1

Selected characteristics of students in the Personal Development Leadership Course (n=45)

Personal Characteristics	*f*	*%*
Academic Majors		
Leadership	11	24.4
Education	14	31.1
Communication	12	26.7
Outside the Department	8	17.8
Total Participants	45	100.0
Gender		
Male	19	42.0
Female	26	58.0
Total Participants	45	100.0
Classifications		
Freshman	0	0
Sophomore	12	27.0
Junior	23	51.0
Senior	10	22.0
Total Participants	45	100.0

Students' perceptions of their course engagement are described in Table 2. The construct of course engagement was measured using a fifteen-item survey asking students to rate their participation in three areas including course readings, class session engagement, and assignment completion. The responses were then indexed to derive an average participation in each of the course engagement areas. In the four areas of engagement students reported being engaged in reading participation and class session. However, students reported the greatest engagement in course assignment completion.

Table 2

Students' perceptions of their course engagement

Course Engagement for all students	*M*	*SD*
Reading Participation Index	3.54	1.27
Class Session Engagement Index	4.08	1.05

Course Engagement for all students	*M*	*SD*
Assignment Completion Index	4.68	0.90
Overall Course Engagement Index	4.10	1.07

Note. The "real limits" of the scale were 1.00 to 1.49 = strongly unengaged, 1.50 to 2.49 = unengaged, 2.50 to 3.49 = undecided, 3.50 to 4.49 = engaged, and 4.50 to 5.00 = strongly engaged.

Students' perceptions of their course engagement by major are described in Table 3. Students in all academic majors reported the lowest participation in the area of reading course materials ranging from communications majors who reported the lowest mean score of 3.27 to students from outside the department which reported the highest reading engagement with a mean score of 4.00. In terms of overall course engagement the highest mean score was found in the students from outside the department group. The lowest mean score in overall course engagement at 3.98 was reported by students majoring in agricultural education.

Table 3

Students' perceptions of their course engagement by major.

Course Engagement by Academic Major	*M*	*SD*
Leadership (*n* = 11)		
Reading Participation Index	3.84	1.17
Class Session Engagement Index	4.01	1.19
Assignment Completion Index	4.66	0.74
Overall Course Engagement Index	4.17	1.03
Education (*n* = 14)		
Reading Participation Index	3.41	1.18
Class Session Engagement Index	4.03	0.90
Assignment Completion Index	4.52	1.27
Overall Course Engagement Index	3.98	1.12
Communication (*n* = 12)		
Reading Participation Index	3.27	1.24
Class Session Engagement Index	3.93	1.12
Assignment Completion Index	4.83	0.51
Overall Course Engagement Index	4.01	0.96
Outside the Department (*n* = 8)		
Reading Participation Index	4.00	1.19
Class Session Engagement Index	4.46	0.85
Assignment Completion Index	4.90	0.27
Overall Course Engagement Index	4.45	0.77

Note. The "real limits" of the scale were 1.00 to 1.49 = strongly unengaged, 1.50 to 2.49 = unengaged, 2.50 to 3.49 = undecided, 3.50 to 4.49 = engaged, and 4.50 to 5.00 = strongly engaged.

Students' perceptions of their strengths development related to the constructs of strengths awareness, self-confidence, collaborative respect, and future achievement is described in Table

4. Students in the leadership course reported they agreed that their strengths awareness and collaborative respect had increased. However, on average the students were undecided if the program impacted their self-confidence and perceptions of future achievement.

Table 4

Students' perceptions of their strengths development related to the constructs of strengths awareness, self-confidence, collaborative respect, and future achievement by major.

Strengths Development	*M*	*SD*
Strengths Awareness	3.55	0.46
Self-Confidence	3.17	0.40
Collaborative Respect	3.50	0.59
Future Achievement	3.30	0.49

Note. The "real limits" of the scale were 1.00 to 1.49 = strongly disagree, 1.50 to 2.49 = disagree, 2.50 to 3.49 = undecided, 3.50 to 4.49 = agree, and 4.50 to 5.00 = strongly agree.

Students' perceptions of their strengths development related to the constructs of strengths awareness, self-confidence, collaborative respect, and future achievement by major is described in Table 5. It was found that the average score within all of the academic majors showed that students agreed their strengths awareness had increased. In contrast the mean score of all majors showed that students were undecided in whether the program had increased their self-confidence.

Table 5

Students' perceptions of their strengths development related to the constructs of strengths awareness, self-confidence, collaborative respect, and future achievement by major.

Strengths Development by Academic Major	*M*	*SD*
Leadership (*n* = 11)		
Strengths Awareness	3.50	0.67
Self-Confidence	3.15	0.56
Collaborative Respect	3.68	0.63
Future Achievement	3.30	0.62
Education (*n* = 14)		
Strengths Awareness	3.57	0.36
Self-Confidence	3.22	0.40
Collaborative Respect	3.50	0.53
Future Achievement	3.31	0.51
Communication (*n* = 12)		
Strengths Awareness	3.53	0.41
Self-Confidence	3.20	0.29
Collaborative Respect	3.56	0.59
Future Achievement	3.33	0.44
Outside the Department (*n* = 8)		
Strengths Awareness	3.63	0.39
Self-Confidence	3.23	0.42

Strengths Development by Academic Major	*M*	*SD*
Collaborative Respect	3.35	0.62
Future Achievement	3.34	0.46

Note. The "real limits" of the scale were 1.00 to 1.49 = strongly disagree, 1.50 to 2.49 = disagree, 2.50 to 3.49 = undecided, 3.50 to 4.49 = agree, and 4.50 to 5.00 = strongly agree.

Table 6

Students' performance on the instructor-developed strengths assessment is described in Table 6. According to the assessment, students demonstrated excellent performance in strengths recognition, explanation, and implementation. The largest mean with the smallest standard deviation was found in the strengths implementation section of the assessment.

Students' performance on the instructor-developed strengths assessment.

Students Performance	*M*	*SD*
General Strengths Knowledge	4.67	1.02
Application of Strengths Knowledge	4.73	0.94
Personal Strengths Awareness	4.80	0.50

Note. The "real limits" of the scale were 1.00 to 1.49 = poor performance, 1.50 to 2.49 = below average performance, 2.50 to 3.49 = average, 3.50 to 4.49 = above average performance, and 4.50 to 5.00 = excellent performance.

Students' performance on the instructor-developed strengths performance assessment by academic major is described in Table 7. The assessment of students' strengths performance showed that on average students demonstrated excellent performance. The scores showed little difference in scores based upon academic degree. However, the greatest mean score of 5.00 was found in assessments completed by communication majors in General Strengths Knowledge and students from outside the department in Personal Strengths Awareness. In comparison the highest strengths Personal Strengths Awareness of 4.91 were found in assessments completed by leadership majors.

Table 7

Students' performance on the instructor-developed strengths assessment by academic major.

Students Performance	*M*	*SD*
Academic Majors		
Leadership (n = 11)		
General Strengths Knowledge	4.55	1.21
Application of Strengths Knowledge	4.91	0.30
Personal Strengths Awareness	4.91	0.30
Education (n = 14)		
General Strengths Knowledge	4.43	1.45
Application of Strengths Knowledge	4.50	1.29
Personal Strengths Awareness	4.86	0.53

Students Performance	*M*	*SD*
Communication (*n* = 12)		
General Strengths Knowledge	5.00	0.00
Application of Strengths Knowledge	4.67	1.15
Personal Strengths Awareness	4.75	0.45
Outside Department (*n* = 8)		
General Strengths Knowledge	4.88	0.35
Application of Strengths Knowledge	5.00	0.00
Personal Strengths Awareness	4.63	0.74

Note. The "real limits" of the scale were 1.00 to 1.49 = poor performance, 1.50 to 2.49 = below average performance, 2.50 to 3.49 = average, 3.50 to 4.49 = above average performance, and 4.50 to 5.00 = excellent performance.

The relationship between students' perception of their strengths development and their course engagement is described in Table 8. The strength of the relationship between strengths awareness, self-confidence, and future achievement with course involvement was found to be moderate at the 0.01 and 0.05 levels. However the collaborative respect construct was shown to be only weakly related to the students' course engagement.

Table 8

Relationships between students' perception of their strengths development and course engagement

	Course Engagement
Strengths Awareness	.394**
	.007
Self-Confidence	.329*
	.027
Collaborative Respect	.278
	.064
Future Achievement	.397**
	.007

Note. Person-Product Moment Correlation Coefficient; *$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Research Implications and Recommendations for Future Research

According to the study, all students, regardless of major, benefitted from course lessons related to strengths. The strengths-based curriculum successfully developed student strengths awareness based on both the personal strengths assessment and the student performance criteria. The strengths curriculum also successfully developed awareness of personal strengths, general strengths knowledge, and application of the strengths philosophy.

In this study there appears to be differences in how students perceive their strengths development by major. Specifically, leadership majors appear to have the strongest development in the area of collaborative respect and the lowest rating in self-confidence. The rating in the area of self-confidence is surprising as other research, notably Hodges (2004), has found that students reported dramatic increases in self-confidence as a result of participating in the program. Future researchers may decide to focus on the area of self-confidence to better understand this incident.

The students in the course report reading classroom assignments and classroom engagement. Students appear to be actively engaged in course activities. Students reported being most engaged in turning in completed homework assignments. Students appear to read course assignments but at a lower level in comparison to their engagement in course activities and graded assignments. It appears that students may be more extrinsically motivated by graded assignments. According to Schreiner (2006), strengths-based curriculum results in higher levels of student motivation, greater engagement in the task at hand, increased personal satisfaction, and greater productivity and higher levels of performance. Yet, it is interesting to note that while in the area of course engagement students performed at acceptable levels the greatest engagement was found in completing assignments which included an extrinsic motivator in the form of grades. Future research into the motivational dynamics related to strengths-based curriculum may help leadership educators to better understand the extrinsic and intrinsic motivating factors which impact students' personal development experiences.

In addition, students from outside the department appear more actively engaged in the strengths curriculum in comparison to students inside the department in terms of overall course engagement. Realizing that students from outside the major appear to be very engaged in the strengths-based curriculum and performed well in the strength performance assessment it may be beneficial to advertise the course beyond the department. The connection between academic major and student engagement in the strengths-based curriculum should be researched further. A qualitative case study may make it possible to better understand this incident. Implementing a mixed methods research plan would enable the researchers to triangulate the data to better understand difference in the data (Creswell, 2002).

Additionally, future research with a larger population will enable the researchers to study possible correlations within various majors based upon the variables of personal strengths development, performance, and course engagement. Continuing this study in future semesters will also enable researchers to identify possible trends. The majority of students participating in the *Awareness of Personal Strengths Educational Module* within the college-level, undergraduate *Personal Development Leadership Course* are upperclassmen who are not leadership majors. Future research could also focus on this phenomenon and discuss the possible

implications of an introductory course using a strengths-based learning module with a majority of students being upperclassman.

Continued research of strengths-based curriculum in leadership courses is needed (Mostek, 2010). According to Lopez et al. (2005), future studies should enable researchers to continue exploring and better understand the benefits of strengths-based development on desired outcomes in academic settings."It may be possible to study similar initiatives at multiple institutions to better understand the impact of the strengths-based curriculum on students' perceptions of strengths development and their strengths performance. This line of inquiry would benefit not only the scholarly community but also classroom practitioners.

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Promoting the Development of Self-Authorship through Leadership Education

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Abstract

This practice paper describes Baxter Magolda's Learning Partnerships Model, highlighting the concept of self-authorship as an outcome of leadership education. The authors describe how educators can intentionally design instructional activities that challenge students to develop self-authorship skills. Three instructional activities are discussed, illustrating examples of the Learning Partnerships Model in practice.

PROMOTING THE DEVELOPMENT OF SELF-AUTHORSHIP THROUGH LEADERSHIP EDUCATION

Introduction & Background

"A common educational goal in American higher education is to improve student learning for the purpose of preparing young adults for the professional, civic, and personal challenges of adult life" (Baxter Magolda, 2004a, p. 2). Accomplishing this goal requires transformative educational practices that move learners from knowledge acquirers to knowledge constructors (Baxter Magolda, 2003). Today's undergraduate students will enter a workforce that both influences and responds to strained economic conditions, governmental ethics and decision making, political and civil unrest, military conflict, and humanitarian challenges around the globe. From this environment, colleges and universities recognize the need to teach more than technical skills. In order to solve complex problems, student's need interpersonal skills, critical thinking skills, and communication skills; but more importantly our future citizens will need to have developed the cognitive maturity necessary to make meaning of oneself and her relationship in and with world (Baxter Magolda, 2009).

Adding to the challenge are cultural and generational influences on students. Elmore (2010) brings attention to "Generation iY" (born 1990 and after) who have been impacted by the "i" world--the internet, iMac, iPod, iPhone, iChat, iTunes, and iPad just to name a few. Elmore (2010) suggests the resulting consequence is an "iBrain", which has tuned in to artificial community, high speed, instant access, and a "What's in it for me?" attitude (p. 33). The challenge for higher education, especially leadership educators, is to help "iLearners" explore multiple perspectives, respect diverse views, think independently, and establish and defend their own informed views in order to take action for the good of both themselves and the larger community (Baxter Magolda, 2003, 2004a; Elmore, 2010).

Self-authorship is a holistic, situated approach to learning that interweaves the dimensions of cognitive development (ways of knowing), identity formation, and interpersonal relationships (Baxter Magolda, 2004a). Self-authorship is developed at the intersection of these dimensions and represents the integration of cognitive maturity, integrated identity, and mature relationships, which Baxter Magolda (2004a; 2004b) considers the ingredients for effective citizenship. Using a constructive-developmental approach, educators can create environments that focus on student experience as a context for making meaning of their experiences and their own role in knowledge creation (Baxter Magolda, 1999).

Leadership has become increasingly recognized as a credible field of undergraduate study on college campuses. As leadership education programs gain popularity and support, there is a unique opportunity to meet not only individual student needs, but also the larger goals of higher education institutions. Indeed, most leadership education program focus on the holistic development of learners through the application of leadership concepts and skill within a variety of contexts. According to Bennis (1989), one cannot become a leader until they have developed an understanding who they are and who they want to be. This sentiment has been echoed through much of the research associated with leadership programming for college students, specifically in student affairs. Self-awareness of skills, personality, and values has led to a

strengthening of self-confidence and a focus on self-improvement among college student leaders (Komives, et al., 2005). Komives and Wagner (2009) further elaborate about the importance of self-awareness in relation to the social change model of leadership development. In describing the model, improving consciousness of self may lead a student to better examine if his or her actions match personal values and enhance commitment to those values (Komives & Wagner, 2009). To foster self-awareness, Komives and Wagner recommend journaling and reflection on past experiences in working with others with focus on values, beliefs, attitudes, and emotions. Given the similarities between what Komives and Wagner recommend for developing self-awareness in leadership development and what Baxter Magolda (2003) recommends as practices for improving self-authorship, there is a need to determine effective instructional activities that may promote students' understanding of themselves, especially in leadership education.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the concept of self-authorship through the lens of teaching and learning practices used in undergraduate leadership education. Three instructional activities are used to that illustrate the Learning Partnerships Model in practice.

Theoretical Framework

From a review of higher education studies, Baxter Magolda (2004a) concluded that a comprehensive vision of 21st century learning outcomes should include students' development in three primary dimensions: 1) epistemological (outcome: cognitive maturity), 2) intrapersonal (outcome: integrated identity), and 3) interpersonal (outcome: mature relationships). Cognitive maturity is exhibited by intellectual power, reflective judgment, decision making, and problem solving. Within the outcome of integrated identity, learners should have an understanding of their history, develop confidence, and display integrity. Finally, for the outcome of mature relationships, learners have respect for their own and others culture (Baxter Magolda, 2004a). The *process* by which this development takes place is called self-authorship, which is the "the capacity to internally define a coherent belief system that coordinates mutual relations with others" (Baxter Magolda, 2004a, p. 8). The *outcome* of self-authorship is effective citizenship, or "coherent, ethical action for the good of both the individual and the larger community" (Baxter Magolda, 2004a, p. 6).

Baxter Magolda (2004b) describes a *Learning Partnerships Model* constructed of three key assumptions and three key principles that, when used intentionally, create an environment that moves learners towards self-authorship. The three assumptions model expectations that challenge learners in each of the three developmental dimensions:

1. The assumption that knowledge as complex and socially constructed challenges internal belief systems;
2. The assumption that the self is central to knowledge construction challenges internal identity; and
3. The assumption that authority and expertise are shared in the mutual construction of knowledge among peers challenges interdependent relationships. (Baxter Magolda, 2004b, p. 41)

Generally these assumptions are not explicitly stated; rather, they are accomplished through the educator's interaction with learners. The three principles provide the support needed to bridge the gap between students' current level of development and a desired level of self-authorship. These principles include:

1. Validating learner's capacity to know (inviting them into the knowledge construction process);
2. Situating learning in the learners' experience (utilizing prior knowledge, as well as learning in context); and
3. Allowing for the mutual construction of meaning (welcoming participants as equal partners in knowledge construction, clarifying perspectives, and negotiating with others). (Baxter Magolda, 2004b, p. 41)

How can educators use this model intentionally to promote self authorship? Baxter Magolda suggests the importance of, "capitalizing on the assumptions and principles naturally occurring in a context and building on others to achieve the combination of challenge and support that the collective set of assumptions and principles provide" (2004b, p. 43). It could be said that many leadership educators currently employ strategies in the classroom which assist students in developing self-authorship. However, instructors could enhance educational discourse by intentionally planning learning activities that utilize the Learning Partnerships Model for learners to reach their maximum potential.

Description of the Practice

[State] University offers a series of leadership courses as part of a Leadership and Social Change Minor program. The core theory and praxis (applied topics) courses have traditionally been offered to first-year students who participate in a leadership living-learning community. Upper-level elective courses in the program focus on dynamics of leadership, teamwork, and social change. A wide variety of assignments and assessment techniques are utilized within the courses, including e-portfolios, reflective journaling, team project presentations, and workshop development. Instructors of these courses actively seek ways to integrate support and challenge mechanisms necessary for the development of self-authorship in undergraduate students.

The following three examples represent learning activities and/or assessment methods designed for the development of self-authorship. For each activity, there is a brief description of the practice, followed by an explanation of how the strategy or method illustrates components of the Learning Partnership Model.

Monday Morning Meetings (MMMs) - Peer-Facilitated Small Group Discussions

A very common format of leadership development within organizations is small group study. Rather than pay for expensive training seminars, individuals and organizations may invest in personal leadership development through lunch-and-learn sessions, or intentional readings and facilitated discussion during regular or specially designated meetings. The Monday Morning Meeting (MMM) is a strategy designed to simulate such an environment. The goal is for students to develop the skill and confidence to plan and facilitate a small group discussion

around a leadership topic. It is utilized in a course for first-year students that focuses on leadership training and development skills.

In this particular case, there are 18 students in the class. The instructor of the class first provides an example by modeling small group discussion. The students are also provided with resources and readings on facilitation, small-group discussion strategies, and types of questioning techniques. Students then take turns leading one discussion on his or her own (with a small group of 4-5 people) , and then lead a second group discussion as part of a team (with a small group of 8-10 people). For each MMM, students in the class are assigned to read a short chapter from a skills-based leadership text. To prepare to lead the discussion, the designated facilitator(s) must: a) decide what key content should be discussed, and b) choose facilitation strategies to best engage their peer learners. At the end of each session, the instructor, small group leaders, and participants spend a few minutes debriefing the experience. Students know that their evaluation is not based on their subject knowledge alone; rather, the emphasis is on facilitation--their ability to engage the group in discussion, reflection, and application. After the experience, the small group leader writes a short self-reflection on their own observations and goals for improvement.

The MMM develops and supports self-authorship in several ways. First, it creates a context in which the instructor moves out of the "expert" role, and empowers the student to share authority and co-construct not only the content, but also the experience. Students learn how to lead a small group training session by being placed in an authentic situation. The very nature of small group interaction challenges the definition of internal beliefs, the formation of a leader identity, and the development of mutual relationships. In this way, they are self-authoring their experience, developing effective skills necessary for a variety of workplace and community contexts.

Team-Based Learning (TBL)

Small group or team related activities are among the most common instructional strategies used by teachers. A more recent development in team learning, team-based learning (TBL), provides a more structured approach that allows students to see the benefits of collaboration (Michaelsen, Knight, & Fink, 2004; Michaelsen & Sweet, 2008). The TBL approach uses case studies and applied learning, with teams remaining intact for the entire semester. In the leadership program's upper level teamwork course, students participate in small group discussion, assignments, tests, and projects as a team (Michaelsen & Sweet, 2008). They are directly involved in setting up the grading system, including weighting the different assignments or projects. This provides an opportunity for students to develop consensus building skills, as all teams must agree on the grading requirements and weights. In this way, they have a voice in how they will be evaluated throughout the course. It is the responsibility of the instructor to provide application learning activities for the students that represent real world issues and situations.

A key component of TBL is the use of a readiness assurance process. This process ensures that the students complete the required readings prior to arriving to class. When students arrive, they complete an individual readiness assurance quiz or test to evaluate their understanding of the

readings. After the individual testing is complete, the team takes the same quiz or test, this time as a team. This provides students an opportunity to discuss the answers within their team, without the use of the reading. By completing the readiness assurance process, the instructor is able to spend a larger percentage of the class time facilitating higher level skills and application activities. A final application activity is needed to integrate course material and to apply the content to a real world problem or issue.

Team-based learning focuses on the interpersonal dimension of the Learning Partnerships Model. Through the use of groups and teams, students are exposed to individuals who have differing perspectives from their own. Team members are dependent on one another and they must develop positive working relationships with their team members to complete class requirements. TBL is also grounded in having the learners understand that their experience provides a basis for their continued learning (situated learning) and decision making, one of the key principles of the model.

Individual Learning Artifacts

Educators are always looking for non-traditional methods that can be used for assessing student learning. While multiple choice quizzes or exams are able to assess if knowledge has been gained, they do not provide an effective way of measuring authentic learning or self-reflection. One assignment that can be used to have students demonstrate their knowledge of course material is the use of an individual learning artifact. Students are intentionally provided with very few guidelines to complete the assignment, as one of the goals of the assignments is for students to use their own experience and knowledge to create a meaningful learning experience. One of the key components of the intrapersonal component of the Learning Partnerships Model is to have the learner understand their personal belief system and to understand how their belief system affects their experiences. Students are instructed to create their own artifact that exemplifies an important aspect of leadership in their daily life, challenging them to take the time to think for themselves about how they are affected by leadership. Because of the lack of strict guidelines, the possibilities are endless for students.

Currently, the artifact assignment is being used in a leadership and popular culture class with 30 students. Examples of artifacts include keeping a self-reflection blog, producing a movie, painting or sculpting a piece of artwork, and photography. There is also a short written component to the assignment that requires students to explain their artifact and how it demonstrates leadership in their daily life, which they will share with their classmates. Students utilize decision making skills and reflection to determine the appropriate theories and how to best show the theory in their artifact. The individual learning artifact aides in the development of self-authorship by validating the learners' capacity to know and in situating the learning in their experience, through the use of reflection for continued learning. Because students are actively engaged in thinking about how leadership affects their daily life, students are challenged to construct their own knowledge and make meaning of the experience.

Results to Date

Anecdotal evidence suggests students who have engaged in Monday Morning Meetings have greater awareness and understanding of the time and intentionality that goes into leadership training. Even when it is not the student's turn to "lead" the discussion, they are still learning about leadership. They are able to not only engage in the content, but observe and reflexively consider the strategies used by the facilitator. They have also learned how to give constructive feedback. Students have developed greater confidence in their own skills, demonstrating observable improvements in their use of questioning techniques to guide the discussion, versus just "presenting" information to the group. They have learned how to read and respond to participants' body language. The challenge of team-facilitating adds a layer of complexity through which to navigate their decision making and communication processes. Most importantly, students are able to connect the value of the skills they are learning to future school and workplace scenarios.

In past teaching experiences, student have indicated that they enjoy using Team Based Learning because it encourages them to complete the assigned readings prior to class, as they are now responsible to their team members, in addition to themselves. Students have also indicated that they enjoy learning from their classmates through the sharing of their personal experiences. Because less class time is devoted to traditional lecture, students are able to spend more time learning how to apply what they are learning to real world situations. At first, students see the approach as something that is non-traditional and challenging but by the end of the semester they are able to see the value in the strategy.

Individual artifacts have provided students with an opportunity to utilize their strengths and creativity to demonstrate their understanding of course material. Traditionally, students are not asked to develop their own assessment techniques in their courses, so they are motivated to complete the artifact assignment. Students are able to see the importance of the leadership theories being taught in the classroom and then making the connections to what is going on in their lives related to leadership. Most importantly, students are learning how leadership affects their daily lives. As we teach about leadership theory, it is often difficult for students to make the connections they need to understand how the theory is seen in practice. Through the use of the artifact assignment, students are challenged to take a step back and examine their lives through the leadership lens.

Recommendations/Implications/Conclusions

These examples bring to light learning partnerships that exist in leadership education practices. While it is highly likely that leadership educators already use activities which promote self-authorship, it is important for educators to reflexively evaluate their methods in relation to contemporary theoretical and practical outcomes. Two simple questions to ask are, "How can we, as leadership educators, more purposefully integrate the Learning Partnerships Model into our existing curriculum?"; and, "How can we intentionally design new learning activities which promote self-authorship?" Based on these questions, the authors recommend the following actions:

- Leadership instructors and program administrators should consider the key assumptions and principles of the Learning Partnerships Model when reviewing and evaluating program outcomes and course objectives. While individual instructors in individual courses can create contexts for self authorship, it should be the goal of the larger leadership program and campus community to both recognize and design opportunities for learning partnerships.

- When designing learning activities, there is a need to create opportunities for students to not only reflect about their experiences and *what* they learned. but to also reflect about *how* they learned. It also seems important to challenging students to articulate and defend their personal beliefs or opinions to further develop self-authorship.

- There is the potential to further explore theoretical and practical connections between the Learning Partnerships Model and other student leadership development models. Are there more specific ways to define and model the dimensions of self-authorship within the context of leadership education?

- As more educators intentionally plan experiences for students to develop self-authorship, there is a need to develop relevant and authentic methods for the evaluation for self-authorship and the Learning Partnerships Model. How can we design assessment techniques that will properly measure increases in self-authorship?

It is important to recognize that many higher education outcomes and leadership education outcomes are one and the same. Through the intentional use of the Learning Partnerships Model, leadership educators help to develop mature and socially responsible leaders who are ready to engage the economic, social, and political challenges, today and in the future.

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Un-clouding Reflection: Using Word Clouds as a Method of Reflection

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Abstract

Keeping students intrigued and interested is a key element to successful teaching and learning. Finding a creative way for students to reflect on topics will assist instructors in keeping students attentive and interested. Word clouds are a fun and useful way to reflect on work that students do.

Introduction

"There can be no words without images," this quote from Aristotle shows the importance of word clouds. Word Clouds are defined as a visualization of word frequency in a given text, as a weighted list. This means that a person can download a paper of their choice to software such as, Wordle, and a word cloud will be generated based on the frequency of words used. Wordle is a free and easy-to-use tool that creates word clouds that show which words appear more frequently in the original text. Users can customize the cloud using different fonts, layouts, and color schemes (Web2teachingtools.com, 2009). Below (Figure 1) is an example of how a word cloud can be used to portray critical thinking.

Figure 1: Critical Thinking Word Cloud

The intent of this paper is to provide leadership educators options to use creative means, specifically word clouds, to enhance the experience of leadership students. The objective of using word clouds is to allow learners to see their idea in an artistic format. Instead of seeing their words in a plain layout, they can insert their papers into Wordle and make their own work of art. Being innovative often means taking risks and trying new strategies (Stedman, 2008). Giving learners different outlets to reflect on their work is important in expanding their critical thinking skills and in some cases, their emotional intelligence. Expanding emotional intelligence could come into play when students take a paper that is personal and generate a word cloud from it. See the figure (Figure 2) below to read about what makes up emotional intelligence

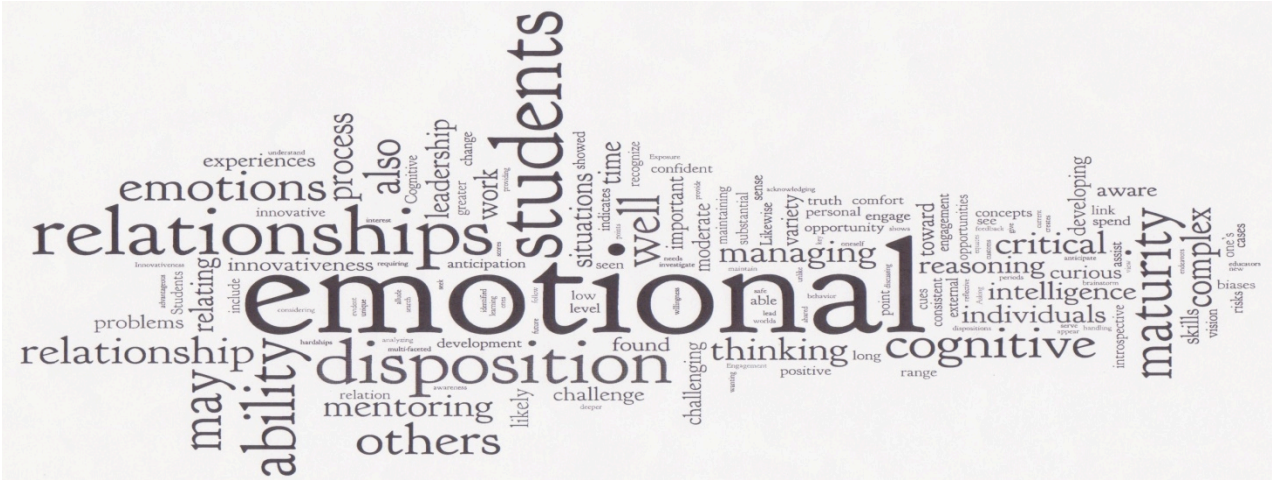

Figure 2: Emotional Intelligence Word Cloud

Background

Dewey (1938) explained that learning occurs through a cycle of action and reflection. Using word clouds using both of these components, students create a document based on a topic and then use a word cloud to reflect on the words used in the document. Kolb (1984) showed that learners need to reflect and observe experiences from different perspectives. He also stated that instructors are included as a source of perspective for students (Kolb, 1984). Word clouds are a new perspective for students to view and reflect on their work. Knapp (2001) suggests that instructors need to carefully planned and guided reflections. Instructors will walk students through making word clouds so the students can then reflect on what they see in their word cloud.

Boud et. al. (1985) created six strategies for instructors: 1.) ask for a detailed account of what happened; 2.) draw out events that may have gone unnoticed; 3.) draw attention to overlooked interpretations; 4.) avoid offering their own interpretations; 5.) encourage learners to be aware of feelings; 6.) give free and undivided attention to learners. Based on these strategies, Densten and Gray (2001) inferred, "reflection provides a meaningful way for leaders to gain genuine understanding." When thinking of these statements and strategies, word clouds go hand in hand with reflection. Students are looking at detailed accounts of what happened within the word cloud, instructors can also use the word clouds to draw out anything that may have gone unnoticed. The word cloud uses larger words when a word is used more frequently, this inadvertently draws attention to things that may have been overlooked. Instructors do not need to offer their interpretations because the word cloud does such a good job of showing what the students said on their own. Finally, seeing the words in a different form will encourage learners to be aware of their feelings. For example, if an emotional word is displayed in large words, the learner may need to address that word, but they will be able to do this on their own. With respect to giving free and undivided attention to learners, word clouds allow learners to have their own work in their hands; there is not more free and undivided attention than that. Densten and Gray (2001) explained that the role of reflection in leadership development shows the meaningful examination of thoughts and experience by providing students with a clearer understanding of the, "leadership and learning episodes they experience." Word clouds provide the meaningful examinations by putting their thoughts on paper and in an artistic format.

Emotional intelligence (EI), the ability to recognize our own and others' feelings, is gradually gaining attention in the workforce, in education, and in leadership development (Goleman, 1998). The use of word clouds may help learners increase their emotional intelligence by allowing them to recognize their own feelings through the words in the word cloud. During the past two decades, no psychological concept has had a greater influence on leadership development than emotional intelligence (Lajoie, 2002). This statement shows that adding to a learner's emotional intelligence can help them in the future. Word clouds can help bring out feelings that students did not know existed.

Richard Paul (1995) defined critical thinking as "A unique and purposeful thinking in which the thinker systematically and habitually imposes criteria and intellectual standards upon the thinking, taking charge of the construction of thinking, guiding the construction of the thinking according to [critical thinking] standards, and assessing the effectiveness of the thinking according to the purpose, criteria, and the standards [of thinking] (p. 21). Word clouds encourage learners to think critically by giving them an artistic element to analyze. By reading over their word clouds and deciphering why certain words are displayed in certain ways will encourage the learners to think critically while reflecting on the assignment. Word clouds are unique and also encourage the learner to think in a unique and purposeful way.

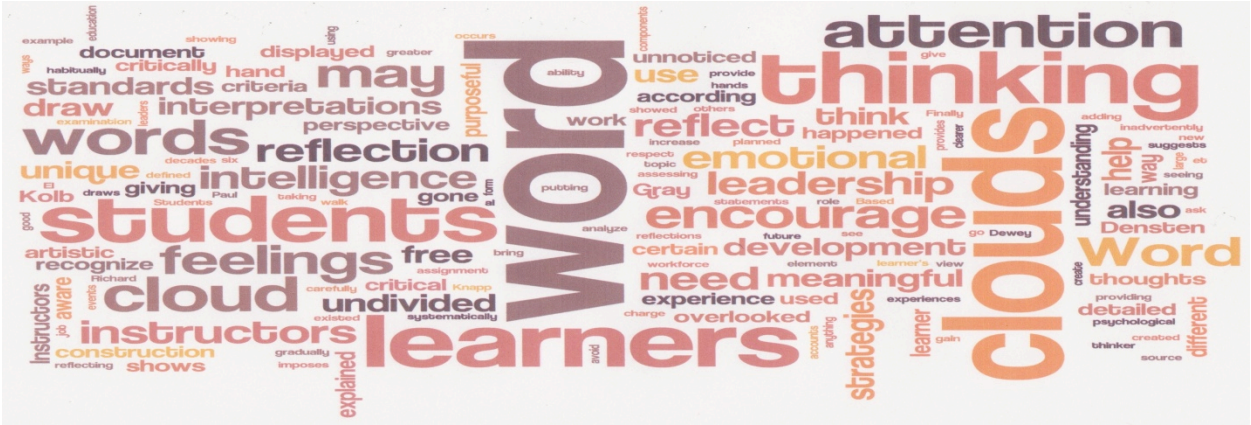

Figure 3: Background Section Word Cloud

Description of the Practice

Students in a Leadership class at a southern land-grant university are required to submit the following assignment.

<u>Philosophy Statement:</u> Due Wednesday, April 20th, 2011 BY NOON – 100 points

Situation: Every successful leader carries deep within a statement of leadership and the beliefs held about leadership. A philosophy statement is the critical analysis of fundamental assumptions or beliefs – it is highly personal. The philosophy statement serves as your final exam of this course. It is expected to be introspective, as well as cumulative of the course experience.

Assignment: This assignment contains two components: 1) a Philosophy Statement of beliefs and 2) Justification and explanation of your beliefs.

<u>First Component:</u> Philosophy Statement of beliefs, 1 page, single-spaced statement.

The philosophy will only be effective if it is read, so keep it short. Most leaders are able to keep theirs to no more than two typewritten pages. A one-pager is even better. Some key ingredients should be:

*How do you define a leader?

~Traits, Competencies/Skills, Behaviors, etc. you believe a leader should have.

*How do you define leadership?

~What is the process like, what do you believe it should be

Second Component: Justification and Explanation, 5-6 page double spaced paper (1 inch margins 12pt. font)

*What environmental, organizational, or cultural experiences contribute to your understanding of leadership?

*A theory you may ascribe to.

For each "belief" statement, be prepared to provide examples from personal experiences and support those statements with theories from the text. Although there is no wrong answer – please continually ask yourself "why?" – Why you might hold the beliefs you do and the impact they have made on your leadership philosophy. Use any personal stories or examples. Please see rubric for full description.

After the students turn this assignment in, the professor will help them make word clouds out of their philosophy statement. The professor will then explain how using this word cloud will help them when reflecting on their future assignments.

Results to Date

Results will be available pending the completion of the semester (4/20/11).

Recommendations/Implications

This method of reflection is creative, interesting, and thought-provoking. Students should be encouraged to think more critically by using word clouds as a reflection method. The great thing about word clouds is that they can be used for any situation, from papers to group project reflection. Seeing their work in a different form, will help the learners analyze the words and get an idea about how their feelings come out on paper. Recommendations include: performing reflection using word clouds in many different settings, using word clouds to go through intensive curriculum, and having learners create word clouds for different assignment. Word clouds help break up the monotony of regular lecture classes while giving students an opportunity to think critically and increase their emotional intelligence.

Conclusions

We anticipate that the students will find this tool exciting and easy-to-use. In turn, they will be encouraged to reflect on their experiences. We also anticipate that the students will think critically about the word clouds they produce and dig deeper into what the words mean. When the students are thinking critically, instructors will encourage them to explore their emotional intelligence. With help, the students may become more in tune with their level of emotional intelligence and from here begin to build on that. Using word clouds may be a very useful tool when reflecting, thinking critically, and exploring emotional intelligence.

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How Effective Leaders Learn from Life: A Grounded Theory Study of the Impact of Significant Life Experiences on Leadership Development

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Abstract

Fifteen effective leaders from diverse organizational backgrounds described their significant life experiences and the impact upon their development as leaders. Using grounded theory methodology, a theoretical model emerged for assisting leaders absorb greater learning from their various life experiences.

How Effective Leaders Learn from Life: A Grounded Theory Study of the Impact of Significant Life Experiences on Leadership Development

Introduction

It would seem, based on historical writings, legends, artifacts and other forms of evidence, that humanity has been interested with the study of leaders and leadership for thousands of years. From the earliest writings of the Bible in the Middle East to Aristotle and Plato in ancient Greece to Lao-Tzu in China, leaders and leadership have been studied and various theories have been proposed and debated. Based upon the volumes that have been written regarding leaders and leadership, it appears that two general questions are continually asked and have yet to be satisfactorily answered:

1) What is leadership? and
2) How do leaders develop? or From where do leaders come?

The purpose of this study was to explore the impact of significant life experiences upon the development of perceived effective leaders. While the leadership literature is heavy with research and writing pertaining to the development of leaders and leadership abilities, very little research exists pertaining to the role of life experiences in the development of effective leadership behaviors and thereby effective leaders. Of particular interest were those experiences which the leaders determined were "significant" in their development, meaning that they were times of greater learning or understanding. This study provides a foundation or theoretical base for leaders, leadership developers and mentors of rising leaders to assist them in absorbing learning from past and current experiences and in applying this learning resulting in more effective leadership behaviors.

The definition of *leadership* used for this study is:

> An "influence relationship among leaders and followers" in which both "raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" while realizing group goals and demonstrating full respect for individual freedom. (Burns,1978; Rost, 1991)

This definition is strongly based upon the work of James Montgomery Burns (1978) and Joseph Rost (1991) respectively. Burns (1978) was one of the earliest scholars to question the "command and control" paradigm of leadership that dominated the early to mid-twentieth century in Western culture. In his comprehensive review of the available leadership literature, Rost (1991) noted that in spite of the nearly fifteen years that had passed since Burns published his seminal work, the "industrial paradigm" still prevailed in the leadership literature. This definition was selected to provide a broader definition of "leadership" beyond that of the industrial paradigm.

Review of Related Literature

Leadership training and development has been a rich area of study for academics and a lucrative field for consultants for the past approximately fifty years (Conger, 1992; Fulmer, 1997). Much of the leadership training and development world has emphasized the transfer of

identifiable skills or behaviors that can be delivered in brief training interventions or workshops (Fulmer, 1997; Dixon, 1993; Day, 2001). While providing prime opportunities for students of leadership to gain important content knowledge, many have protested that these brief interventions or what could be termed the "event-based" approach isolates the learner from the real-world and therefore application suffers (Conger, 1992; Fulmer, 1997).

The latter half of the twentieth century as well as the beginning of the next has seen the rise of more of a developmental (see definition above) approach to leadership education (Fulmer, 1997). Most noticeably the 1980's saw a rise in experiential programs and workshops, designed to move leaders out of the classroom and into a more dynamic learning environment (Conger, 1992). While providing value in the type of environment, as well as moving many leaders out of their comfort zones and into trees or high ropes, the criticism of these programs has been that they are still isolated from the real world or the lived experiences of the learner (Conger, 1992).

Beginning with James Montgomery Burns' (1978) development of the concept of the transforming (or now transformational) leader, many in the leadership field have begun to explore more of the positive types of leadership: transformational, servant, authentic and spiritual (Greenleaf, 1970; Avolio & Luthans, 2006). Coinciding with the development of the positive theories of leadership, interest in the concepts of Emotional Intelligence (Goleman, 1995) and the learning organization (Senge, 1990) have assisted in shifting the focus in leadership development towards examining the lessons that leaders have learned through experiences in their lives and emphasizing the need to continually learn from these lived experiences.

While common sense would seem to tell us that there is much learning to be absorbed from the experiences we have had, very little research has been conducted in this field to help determine what type of experiences are full of learning and how does one maximize these experiences for their learning potential.

Methods

The following question was central to this grounded theory study: How do leaders describe the impact of significant life experiences upon their development? From this central question, several sub-questions initially led the inquiry: 1) How do these individuals describe their own leadership growth or development? 2) Are there one or two events in an individual's life that happen to help shape them into the person they are? 3) Was there a certain "preparedness" in the individual's life that enabled them to learn more from these particular events than others? 5) Are there common themes impacting leadership development that emerge from various individuals' experiences? 6) Are there common experiences that contribute to the development of certain effective leadership traits or behaviors?

Participants for this study were sought from a diverse leadership population as one goal of this study was to be able to demonstrate that the development of effective leaders is not limited to a particular field or discipline, but rather that effective leadership traits and behaviors have the potential for transfer. Names for potential participants were solicited from the author's

colleagues in the leadership development field as well as members of the academic community who study and teach in the leadership field.

Criteria used for selection included the following: individual is perceived as an effective leader; individual is currently in a formal leadership role, or has been in the recent past; names were solicited from an organizationally diverse perspective. Ultimately of the 28 names provided for the population, 15 individuals were contacted who met the criteria and these individuals all agreed to participate. The leaders selected represented a diverse population and a total of 4 states and 5 types of organizations (including business, non-profit, government, educational and religious). In addition to the above criteria, participants were also asked to complete the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionaire (MLQ). The MLQ has been found to be a valid instrument in measuring the 9 factors of Full-Range Leadership (Antonakis, Avolio and Sivasubramaniam, 2003) and has also been found through multiple studies to be a predictor of leadership effectiveness and work group performance (Howell and Avolio, 1993; Lowe, Kroeck and Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Rowold and Heinitz, 2007). Each of the participants scored within either the "effective" or "very effective" categories on the MLQ further validating their effectiveness. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participants at sites of their choosing as the primary means of data collection.

Data Analysis

This study utilized the data analysis procedures for grounded theory research as described by Creswell (1998). This research approach calls for three distinct phases of data analysis: open coding; axial coding and selective coding. In the open coding phase of analysis, each of the transcriptions were read and initial codes and memos were documented in the margins. Transcripts were also analyzed using qualitative analysis software (MaxQDA 2007) to group similar codes into initial categories. Following open coding, the data set indicated that how effective leaders learned from significant life experiences was the central phenomenon that was emerging. Utilizing axial coding major themes or conditions were identified from the data. These major themes were identified as the causal and other conditions that impacted the central phenomenon. In the selective coding phase of analysis, the researcher identified the story line that connects the various categories and conditions throughout the emerging theoretical model. The main story line that was revealed in the data was how effective leaders learn from significant life experiences and the strategies that they use to maximize these experiences as learning opportunities.

The initial focus of the study was to explore how leaders described the impact of their perceived significant life experiences. As data was gathered and began to be analyzed, a theory of how effective leaders learn from their life experiences began to emerge. While the data did not point to any single formative event, it did support the idea that significant life experiences impact the development of leaders and that these leaders had utilized strategies in order to absorb learning from these experiences.

A theoretical model (Figure 1 following page) describing how leaders make meaning and learn from life experiences was developed. This theoretical model was completed by the causal conditions of the types of experiences had by leaders (adversity/loss; inspirational; stretch

assignments; and conflict) and their impact upon the central phenomenon. The context of the experiences (timing; openness to learning by leader; and the personal nature of the experience) and the intervening conditions (family influence; reasons for moving into leadership; role of mentors or significant others; leadership philosophy; and view of development) influenced the strategies used (reflection and seeking to apply) by the leaders. These strategies then resulted in the consequences of the learning from the experience (consideration of others; self-awareness; resiliency; change; embrace life; confidence; humility).

Findings

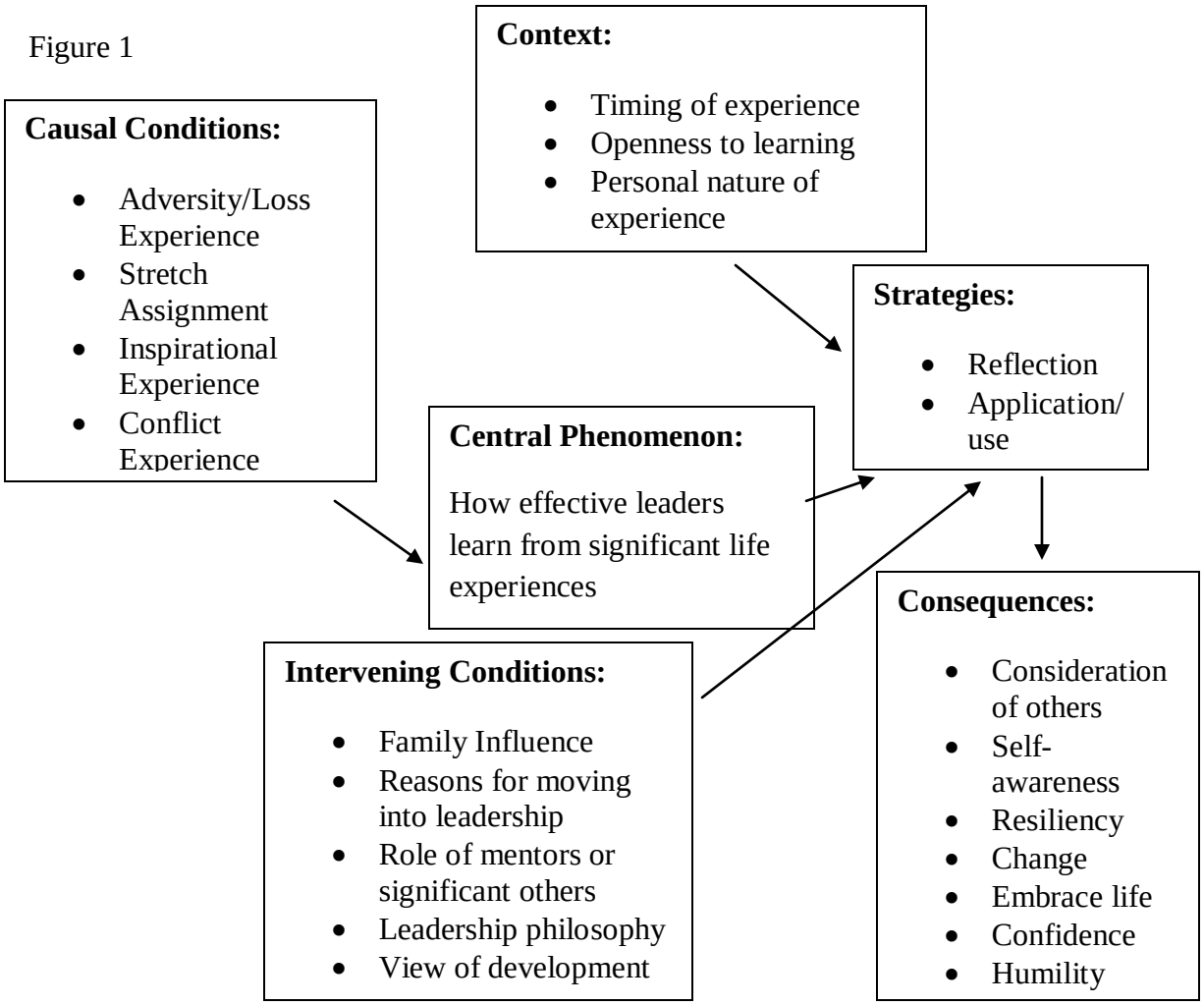
Clearly the context of the experiences, the intervening conditions and the consequences of the learning from these experiences are all very important as well and will be discussed in regard to the propositions developed from this research. However it would seem that the results of this study which have the most bearing upon the practice of leadership development are the four types of experiences these leaders had and the strategies they utilized to absorb learning from the same.

Experiences of Adversity or Loss

The broad descriptive term of "adversity or loss" are terms selected by the author as he felt they best described the feelings that were communicated by the leaders as they told their stories. These stories detail experiences in which the leader him/herself either lost a loved one or they experienced some form of personal adversity. Mary (note: all names used are pseudonyms to protect anonymity), a recently retired school administrator, related how she lost both parents within the same weekend. She described how close she was to her parents and how she particularly relied upon her dad for guidance and advice and then suddenly both parents were gone within a few days of one another. Another participant talked of how he and his wife had lost an infant daughter: "…the thing that defines me to some point and that is we lost a, a child. She was an infant at the time." Pat went on to talk about the pain that this experience brought him, yet how he sought to find answers and lessons even in this tragic circumstance.

Other participants talked about the adversity they faced in the form of personal physical difficulties. Pam contracted polio at a very young age and relates that "without a doubt" her "disability…has affected and does affect really every area…" of her life. In 1952 on her sixth birthday, Pam was admitted to the hospital with polio and she remained hospitalized for thirteen months. She related how this event not only has had a life-time impact upon her, but how her farming parents learned quickly to deal with circumstances that the other farm families around them were not faced with, yet they were always loving and supporting. Another participant related the story of suffering a cerebral aneurism at the age of 34 and not being expected to live, or at least to be left in a vegetative state, yet she went on to say that she is so glad this happened to her. Other stories of painful maladies, businesses burning to the ground and loss were related by these leaders, yet each of them went on to speak of the important lessons of perseverance, treasuring life, understanding the struggles of others and humility that were learned in each of these situations.

Figure 1



Visual Display of Theoretical Model

Stretch Assignments

A second type of causal condition that was seen in the data is what this author has termed as "stretch assignments." These are experiences that seem to have pushed or "stretched" the participant harder or further than they had been before, yet through these experiences they were able to learn valuable insights about themselves and valuable leadership lessons.

Jeff related a story from his childhood where he learned the value of seeing a job through and accountability to commitments. He was recruited to help plant trees to create windbreak and he wanted to do this task, but his father knew he had difficulty in seeing tasks through to completion. Knowing Jeff wanted to play baseball that summer, his father used this opportunity to emphasize the importance of following through on commitments and hard work. He made a deal with Jeff that he could only play baseball if he followed through on his commitment to help plant the trees. "…I went out and worked hard. I mean there were long days, we worked and planted all these trees…and of course I was just younger than probably what most would be in that situation." While a seeming simple childhood story, Jeff talks about how this experience

and reflecting upon it has helped him in his leadership commitments and project work in the customer service organization in which he works.

Other leaders related experiences which stretched their comfort and confidence levels. One participant was asked to serve as a chair for the site selection committee for her political party's national convention during a presidential election year. Through this experience she gained valuable confidence in her ability to work with members of the national media as well learning how to influence significant members of her party. She credits this experience in helping her gain the confidence and abilities she needed as she eventually ran for a state legislature position, and won. Other participants found themselves working on important legal issues at both the state and local levels, learning how to network and use those connections to accomplish goals. Others took on stretch assignments by delving into new areas of education and training and then seeking to apply this new knowledge in the workplace to help their direct reports as well as the overall organizational climate. Nearly all of the leaders who had experienced these stretch assignments talked about how they had learned not to fear failure or making mistakes, but rather seeing those opportunities for themselves and for others as chances to learn and grow even more.

Inspirational Experiences

A third category of significant life experience that emerged from the data was that of inspirational experiences. In these stories leaders talked of how an event or individual inspired them to do more and be more and many of them view these experiences as significant points in their development. One leader talked of how reading the book *Cry the Beloved Country* as a young adult inspired her to take more action in the Civil Rights movement in this country; other participants talked about leaders they had in the past who saw potential in them and inspired them to pursue leadership and in turn develop others.

Conflict Experience

One type of experience that kept emerging in the stories related by the participants was that of learning from conflict with other individuals. Sometimes these individuals were family members, sometimes they were bosses and other times the conflict was with general groups of people. In spite of these difficult and sometimes painful experiences, these leaders were able to draw meaning out of them and move forward in their own development.

One participant talked of a management retreat he attended which quickly deteriorated into a "white versus minority" situation. Being a minority, he had worked for change within his organization and had felt they had made great strides. While this experience was painful personally to him, rather than wallow in self-pity or accuse others, he used this situation to spur him on to continue striving for change and to realize that there was still much to be done in regard to tolerance and diversity. Another individual talked about the criticism he experienced when he moved into a principal role in a high school. He had served as the athletic director and a coach for many years in this same school and felt he had a strong relationship with many families and faculty members. He was unprepared for the level of scrutiny and criticism that came with the new role. Again, he used this as an opportunity to reflect on his actions and to

determine where the criticism was justified and how he could improve his own leadership to better address the concerns of all the parties within the school community.

Strategies

While the stories that these leaders related were of great interest, what became even more important and consequential in the research was the strategies used by these individuals in turning difficult and often painful situations into prime learning opportunities. The data seemed to reveal two primary strategies used by the participants: reflection and desire to apply. Initially these strategies may seem underwhelming and very broad, however through further explanation it will be shown how these truly were valuable tools for absorbing learning from the experiences.

In regard to reflection, research has shown the value of reflection by both students and professionals as a means to solidify learning from experience (Cooper & Stevens, 2006; Lizzio & Wilson, 2007). The application of reflection in this study was not haphazard, but rather it involved the intentional contemplation by the leaders on the experience with a focus of what they could learn from each one. Often this reflection involved a large degree of self-examination to determine how they could improve or change personally as a result of the experience.

The desire to apply the learning from their lived experiences was strong for the leaders in this study especially as a following step to reflection. As one stated, "Because thinking about something without being able to apply any learning moving forward probably doesn't benefit you." The application that these leaders sought went beyond self and went beyond thinking of how they could be more successful in the future. Rather the comments of the leaders pointed toward seeking to apply the learning in a way that would benefit the people with whom they worked and their organizations as a whole. They sought to be generous in sharing the learning they had the privilege of gaining.

Propositions and Discussion

The development of the model led to six propositions regarding effective leaders' learning from significant life experiences.

Proposition 1: The influence of family plays a significant role in the response of leaders to life experiences.

The findings of this study would seem to indicate that family, in general, and parents, in particular, do play a significant role in the development of certain leadership philosophies or mindsets. A recent study by Avolio and colleagues (2009) demonstrated a significant correlation between certain parenting behaviors and the assumption of leadership roles into adulthood. Additionally, Anita Hall (2007) identified family influence as a strong factor in helping the women in her study develop leadership behaviors and attributes. This study too seems to emphasize the importance of parents and other family members encouraging their children to learn from their experiences. Statements by the participants regarding parents serving as educational role models and emphasizing the importance of learning and education provided a consistent theme of family influence as an intervening condition in the model.

Proposition 2: Learning from significant life experiences provides a valuable foundational, case-based knowledge that leaders can utilize in times of uncertainty and change.

Mumford, Friedrich, Caughron and Byrne (2007) explored the role of leader cognition in true-life settings, particularly theorizing regarding the role of leaders' thinking in crisis situations. Based on their review, Mumford, et al (2007) stated that case-based or autobiographical knowledge seems to be a likely candidate for use by leaders in crisis situations (Mumford, et al, 2007). "Case-based, or autobiographical, knowledge represents knowledge abstracted from past experience" (Mumford, et al, 2007; pg. 523). Connecting the findings from this study with the concepts from Mumford et al (2007) it would seem that these significant life experiences may provide a fruitful ground for the development of case-based knowledge and consequently an opportunity to further develop leaders' abilities to face uncertainty and change within their organizations.

Proposition 3: Significant life experiences can serve as the trigger point for the development of Authentic Leadership.

In their theory of Authentic Leadership Development (or ALD) Avolio and Luthans (2006) emphasize the importance of "moments that matter." These "trigger events" which help move a leader forward in meeting his/her goals and the goals of others by challenging his/her existing theory of leadership can range from large to small, be either positive or negative and happen across an individual's entire life (Avolio & Luthans, 2006). In examining the types of experiences related by the leaders in the current study, a wide variety emerges: the length of time the experiences occurred; the point in time within the leader's life when the experience occurred; the types of experiences had by leaders.

Part of the make-up of an authentic leader is that of Psychological Capital (Avolio & Luthans, 2006). This capital which moves beyond personal and social capital is comprised of four capacities or components: hope, optimism, self-efficacy (confidence) and resiliency (Avolio & Luthans, 2006). Based upon this review it would seem that the significant life experiences related in this study could potentially serve as the moments that matter or trigger moments for the further development of Psychological Capital and therefore Authentic Leadership (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007; Avolio & Luthans, 2006).

Proposition 4: Significant life experiences can provide a means for developing Emotional Intelligence within leaders.

The concept of Emotional Intelligence (or EI) has seen a sustained level of popularity since it was first introduced to the business world approximately 15 years ago. Popularized and applied to business by the Harvard psychologist Daniel Goleman, EI brought a different perspective to leading and managing as Goleman stated that technical skills, while important, are not nearly as significant as the "soft-skills" of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995; Goleman, 2003). As defined by Goleman (2003) EI is comprised of five components: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skill. While EI can be learned and developed, Goleman (2003) acknowledges that it is not easy to do so, it takes time and is best viewed as a

process. This study would seem to support the idea that the significant life experiences of leaders can be utilized to help develop emotional intelligence in the same leaders. This could be done through current experiences a leader is having and by also reflecting on past experiences to better absorb meaning and learning from them.

Proposition 5: The strategy of reflection used by leaders in significant life experiences can be utilized as an effective learning tool in leadership development.

In 1990, Peter Senge introduced the concept of the "learning organization" which essentially means an organization comprised of individuals who are active and life-long learners. One of the methods recommended by Senge (1990) is that of reflection or reflective practice. This idea has been incorporated by many organizations, particularly within the academic field (Cooper & Stevens, 2006). While reflection can occur in a variety of ways, one method that many have found helpful and highly effective is the act of journal keeping or reflective writing (Cooper & Stevens, 2006; Lizzio & Wilson, 2007). In their study of final year behavioral science students required to critically reflect on their practices, Lizzio and Wilson (2007) discovered the students found particular value in those reflective practices that assisted them in connecting insights from critical incidents to wider patterns of behavior (Lizzio & Wilson, 2007).

Similarly Cooper and Stevens (2006) conducted a qualitative analysis of the journal keeping of four higher education professionals finding that the journal keeping seemed to help these professional adults cope more effectively with the multiple demands of work and life as well as helping them to reflect on overall career goals (Cooper & Stevens, 2006). It is believed that with some additional help and guidance, leaders who are experiencing significant life events could learn to utilize a journal to facilitate their reflection and potentially increase the learning from these experiences. While these experiences may not always be known, certain experiences such as key life or career transitions, stretch assignments or others are known and reflective journal keeping could be utilized.

Proposition 6: Significant life experiences, as related in this study, may serve as means to develop the Servant Leadership characteristics of altruistic calling, emotional healing and wisdom.

A 2006 study by Barbuto and Wheeler identified five characteristics of servant leadership: altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping and organizational stewardship. Altruistic calling is described as a leader's desire to make a difference in the lives of others (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). One of the categories of consequences or lessons learned that emerged in this study was that of "consideration of others." This result often came through the experience of conflict with a poor example of a leader, but the leaders in this study took that experience and realized the need to serve others and create a positive environment for them. This would indicate a development of the characteristic of altruistic calling.

Emotional healing describes leaders who have the ability to foster spiritual recovery from trauma or hardship; these leaders also tend to be great listeners and display empathy (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Again in this study as these leaders experienced periods of adversity or loss,

they seemed to develop that ability to empathize with others and to desire to help others who are struggling. Servant leaders also have the characteristic of wisdom which is the ability to not only read the situation or pick up environmental cues but also understand the implications of this (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). While the consequences noted in this study do not speak directly to this characteristic, it would seem that these leaders developed an ability to think more broadly as a result of their experiences. Whereas prior to these experiences they may have had a more limited view of their world, following the experiences many of them seemed to have the ability to see and think more broadly, which would seem to support the development of the characteristic of wisdom.

Recommendations for Future Research

Some implications for future research are seen in the propositions offered earlier. Additionally, as demonstrated above several possibilities for additional research exist in this area. This study should be replicated with a larger sample size in order to further verify the theoretical model developed in this study as well as to explore additional components which may be revealed in a larger data set. While organizational and personal diversity was established, it would also be beneficial to replicate this study with a more geographically diverse population, potentially broadening to a cross-cultural comparison to determine if the model holds across geographical and cultural boundaries. Attention was given to securing a diverse population regarding organizational affiliation and gender, however consideration was not given to generational diversity. Therefore a potentially interesting study would be to compare generations in regard to the types of experiences related as significant as well as in relation to the strategies used to make meaning of the experiences and then the consequences realized through the strategies. A study of this nature could help provide insight in regard to the timing of certain types of experiences especially in regard to openness to learning at the different stages of life.

There was one grouping of data from this study that holds potential for further study. These leaders were asked regarding their "leadership journey" and were asked to trace their path of leadership from their earliest experience up to their current position. Nearly all of the participants spoke of their earliest leadership experiences occurring in high school or college and generally involved some type of elected position or revolved around athletics. Avolio's study (1994) pursued this line of research via a forced choice survey and was limited to exploring characteristics of transformational leadership. Based upon the findings from this study, there is potential for further exploration of the formative and predictive power of these early leadership experiences.

A final potential study is recommended that aligns with the leadership, rhetoric and potentially literature fields of study. Joseph Campbell's *The Hero with a Thousand Faces* published in 1949 has come to be viewed as the seminal work on comparative mythology and advances Campbell's theory of the "heroic journey." Campbell's theory regarding the heroic journey is summed up in the following quote: "A hero ventures forth from the world of common day into a region of supernatural wonder: fabulous forces are there encountered and a decisive victory is won: the hero comes back from this mysterious adventure with the power to bestow boons on his fellow man" (Campbell, 2008, pg. 23). A potential study exists in analyzing how effective leaders describe their leadership journeys with particular attention being paid to the

descriptions of significant life experiences. This data could be collected through the leaders' journal writings or even biographical writings and then analyzed in comparison to Campbell's theory of the heroic journey. Some of the experiences and the resulting lessons learned, as described by the leaders in this study, often reminded the researcher of Campbell's work. This type of study could potentially provide insight into the self-concept of effective leaders and how this impacts their interpretation of life experiences.

Recommendations for Practice

One of the biases that this researcher brought to this study was that of a practitioner in the leadership development field. Employment as a leadership development advisor to identified high-potential leaders in a major national corporation greatly contributed to the researcher's interest in this field of study. Unfortunately the researcher has seen fewer rather than more of the leaders he works with walk away from seemingly significant experiences with very little, if any, change.

The potential for the application of this study in the field of practice is significant. One potential application is for leadership advisors, coaches or even mentors to rising leaders to spend time assisting these leaders in reflecting on their past life experiences. As was seen in this study the power of reflection assists leaders in absorbing learning from experience and consequently in developing greater self-awareness as well as examining other potential areas for application of valuable lessons. A particular exercise that the researcher participated in was to write a brief life history focusing on key turning points, or what could be viewed as significant life experiences. In a private session a coach then asked the researcher to explain in more detail about these experiences and to relate why they were important to him. This process helped provide deeper insight into self as well as to gain a renewed purpose on some long-forgotten commitments. A similar exercise could be conducted focusing on the type of life experiences mentioned in this study as it stands to validate the power of reflecting on the same.

A second application that appears from this study is the value of "guided experience" in the lives of developing leaders. While significant life experiences cannot always be controlled and it would be suggested that they should not always be, there are certain events which are more within the sphere of control of both leaders and those helping them to develop. Using such stretch assignments or career transitions as valuable learning opportunities should be sought by practitioners in the field. By employing reflective strategies mentioned in this study and using the findings in this study to assist with other strategies as well as to guide potential questions, practitioners can potentially offer more assistance and guidance to those developing leaders with whom they work.

Another application exists for those in the area of leadership education, particularly on college campuses. Within these courses, students can be required to engage in reflective journaling for the purpose of absorbing meaning from their life experiences. Additionally, while one would not wish for these students to face the more adverse or difficult types of experiences outlined in this study, students can be encouraged to pursue what has been termed here as "stretch assignments." By volunteering for projects or work that will stretch them beyond their comfort zones, these leaders have the potential to maximize the learning available on college

campuses. Through requirements to engage in community service or service learning type projects, these students also may be able to absorb learning from both stretch and inspirational experiences. Beyond reflecting on these experiences, leadership educators should also assist students in seeking to apply what they learn through these experiences. If these students can develop these habits while they are young, they will be better positioned to take full advantage of future learning opportunities.

Conclusion

This study began as an exploration of the significant life experiences of leaders who have been perceived as effective. In the spirit of full disclosure, the researcher had hoped to discover that there were one, two or maybe even three formative events in the lives of these leaders that were their turning points. The hope was to find that "moment of truth" when all became clear to the leader and their path was straight before them. However, this treasure was not to be discovered.

Rather a treasure of a different sort revealed itself in the data and in the interviews and encounters with these leaders. The treasure that revealed itself was a method by which these leaders learned from a variety of significant life experiences some being long journeys others being single points in time. Many of these leaders described themselves as learners and the stories that they related bore testimony to this fact as they not only related significant experiences, some painful, some challenging, all meaningful, but they also related what they had learned and how they had grown as a result of these experiences. The researcher found himself drawn in time and again to the stories and identifying with one of the leaders who commented that as a child he always wanted to "ask just one more question."

The most important discovery of the study was to see how these leaders took meaning from their experiences and used the meanings to better lead and to better serve. The participant Pete best summed the approach of seemingly all the leaders: "But I think that real growth comes in taking that knowledge, coupling it with experience and turning it into wisdom." These effective leaders have truly learned how to turn their many experiences into wisdom for leadership.

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Impact of Personal Growth Projects on Leadership Identity Development

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Abstract

Within personal leadership education courses, leadership educators should include experiences which help students develop themselves as leaders. Personal Growth Project assignments were analyzed using the Leadership Identity Development model (Komives et al., 2005). All aspects of the developing self component of the model were evident in student reflections.

Introduction

"Personal growth is such an interesting thing that it almost isn't fully learned or understood until after the season of growth." (Student B19)

To effectively lead others, one must first be able to lead themselves (Neck & Manz, 2007). "The instrument of leadership is the self, and the mastery of the art of leadership comes from the mastery of the self" (p. 344). Being aware of your strengths and weaknesses, what you value and believe, and your preferences for learning, thinking, and relating help you relate to others and establish credibility in those relationships (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2006).

Leadership occurs in the context of interpersonal relationships. Interpersonal skill development enhances our capacity to lead others as we learn from our experiences, acquire new skills, and develop our self-concept (Fritz, Brown, Lunde, & Banset, 2004). Interpersonal skill development is really about discovering who you are. This self-discovery which leads to self-confidence is "really awareness of and faith in your own powers. These powers become clear and strong only as you work to identify and develop them" (Kouzes & Posner, 1990, p. 298).

Boyd and Williams (2010) identified a classroom assignment designed to foster life-long learning in students in a personal leadership education course. Students in this course are required to complete a personal growth project where they are learning a new skill or gaining new knowledge. Students are allowed to choose their project with the approval of the instructor. The students must choose to learn something completely new. Examples of projects include learning a musical instrument, learning to cook, learning a new physical activity such as yoga, or expanding their spiritual awareness. Students document and reflect on their personal growth throughout the project.

This paper discusses the impact of using Personal Growth Projects (PGPs) to help students "develop self" in a personal leadership education course. Students' reflections from completing a personal growth project were analyzed using the Leadership Identity Development model as the framework (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005).

Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

London (2009) describes leadership development as a process contributing to continuous growth of the person. One of the four primary components to leadership development is personal growth (Conger, 1992). An integral part of the development process is the concept of continuous learning. London states that continuous learning is imperative if leaders are to keep up with the rapid pace of technological change and the expansion of the global economy. London and Smither (1999) defined continuous learning as "a self-initiated, discretionary, planned, and proactive pattern of formal or informal activities that are sustained over time for the purpose of applying or transporting knowledge for career development''(p. 81).

Leadership educators should try to foster continuous learning experiences in students to help them develop as leaders. One way to do this is through experiential learning activities such as the PGP. Kolb (1984) described experiential learning as a process which links education, work, and personal development. Kolb's model, based on the work of Dewey (1938), Lewin (1958), and Piaget (1970) revolves around four key points in cyclical form. First, individuals have a concrete experience, which is followed by reflective observations, abstract conceptualizations, and active experimentation (Kolb, 1984). Each point is unique to the learner's experience. Giving learners an opportunity to reflect on and observe experiences is key to learning in Kolb's model (1984).

PGPs allow students to experience something new (concrete experience), reflect on their experience and what they learned (reflective observations), state changes they foresee or may encounter (abstract conceptualizations), and apply it to other aspects of their life (active experimentation). By purposefully constructing the PGP assignment, leadership educators create an experiential learning activity for students.

The Komives et al. (2005) model for developing a leadership identity is a useful framework for assessing the effect of PGPs on student learning and development. Komives et al. (2005) proposed a model for developing a leadership identity based on an emergent design. In the study by Komives et al. (2005), a sample of students who exemplified relational leadership were identified and interviewed to arrive at the process of developing a leadership identity. "Leadership identity develops through six stages moving from awareness to integration/synthesis" (Komives et al., 2005, pp. 608-609). Developing self was one of the categories emergent in Komives et al. (2005) study. Dimensions of personal growth were evident in the developing self category, which includes "deepening self-awareness, building self-confidence, establishing interpersonal efficacy, applying new skills, and expanding motivations" (Komives et al., 2005, p. 599).

Deepening self-awareness involves moving from having a vague sense of self to affirming your strengths, weaknesses, and roles in which you thrive. According to George (2007), members of the Stanford Graduate School of Business Advisory Council listed self-awareness unanimously as the "most important capability for leaders to develop" (p. 69). Self-awareness includes affirmation of personal values, sense of personal integrity, strengths, and weaknesses.

Self-confidence evolves through meaningful experiences, which support a positive self-concept. This self-confidence results in taking more risks and a feeling of empowerment (Komives et al., 2005).

Learning to "relate to and communicate with people different from themselves" (Komives et al., 2005, p. 601) is a part of establishing interpersonal efficacy. By working closely with others who are different from you, an appreciation of diverse points of view and the valuing of different perspectives occurs (Komives et al., 2005).

Applying new skills occurred as a result of being involved in different experiences. Public speaking skills, delegating, motivating, team-building, facilitating, and listening skills are examples of new skills which can be acquired due to engagement in multiple experiences (Komives et al., 2005).

While making friends or participating in interesting activities was an initial reason to get involved in experiences, as students gained more experience, their goals were refined and their focus changed to that of seeking out those things which meant something to them. Their experiences sparked a "deep sense of commitment to something and knew that passion would be a strong motivation to action" (Komives et al., 2005, p. 602). Expanding motivations includes following your passion or interest, exploring and engaging in a concept beyond the initial introduction to it.

The use of PGPs promote leadership identity development in students by providing experiences from which they can develop their sense of self. Through their PGPs, students are challenged to participate in an experience which takes them out of their comfort zone and creates new conditions and contexts from which to grow. By reflecting on these new experiences, students deepen their self-awareness, build self-confidence, establish interpersonal efficacy, apply new skills, and expand their motivations.

Methodology

Understanding how a leadership identity is formed is a severely multifarious phenomenon. According to Conger (1998), qualitative research "can be the richest of studies, often illuminating in radically new ways phenomena as complex as leadership" (p. 107). Basic qualitative methodology was chosen as the most effective means to investigate the research question.

As Flaum (2002) noted, effective leadership is often learned during leadership experiences. Because of this and based on the work of several leadership scholars (Flaum (2002); Brungardt, 1996; Bass & Bass, 2008), the researchers chose to frame this study in the inquiry paradigm of phenomenology. Phenomenology explores "how human beings make sense of experience and transform experience into consciousness" (Patton, 2002, p. 104).

Population and Sample

The population for this study is undergraduate students enrolled in a Personal Leadership Education course at Texas A&M University. One of the objectives of the course is for students to

become more aware of, apply, and reflect upon personal leadership capacities. Students achieve this objective is by participating in a PGP.

The sample of this study consists of 90 students' PGP reflection papers. Three different instructors during the Spring 2010 and Fall 2010 semesters contributed random samples of students' PGP reflections (a total possible n of 229). A sample of 34 reflections came from the Spring 2010 section, 26 from one section in the Fall of 2010, and 30 from another section in the Fall of 2010. Purposeful random sampling was chosen to "to reduce bias" (Patton, 2002, p. 244) in sampling three different sections of Personal Leadership Education. Each reflection paper was given a code identifying which section it was taken (S, J, or B) from and then numbered at random.

Data Collection

The type of data collected should be emergent from the research design and the purpose of the research. In this phenomenological study, it was concluded that students' reflections of their experiences in their personal growth projects would yield the most rich data. In phenomenology, reflection is retrospective, not introspective (Van Manen, 1990), so asking students to reflect on their lived experiences within the PGP assignment fulfills this retrospective reflection. As part of the PGP assignment, students were asked to reflect on their PGP experience. Students cogitated on how their chosen project effected their leadership development as well as how the PGP helped them experience models and theories covered in class. The random sample yielded 90 usable reflections. These reflections vary on length and chosen PGP.

Data Analysis

Deductive content analysis was conducted on the 90 student sample reflections. The developing self component of the Leadership Identity Development (LID) model (Komives et al., 2005) was used as the deductive lens. In order to establish inter-rater reliability, all three researchers conducted separate content analysis. Each researcher coded the reflections into unitized data in accordance to their perception of LID application. Data units were extracted from the original sources and then categorized (Lincoln & Guba, 1989). The combined efforts of the researchers resulted in over 200 unitized data segments. Inter-rater reliability or the triangulation of analysis, in which "two or more persons independently analyze the same qualitative data and compare their findings" (p. 560) adds to the reliability of data analysis (Patton, 2002). Because the same procedure of unitizing data was used by all researchers, triangulation was established by comparing the data units which were assigned to the five sub-categories of the LID. Data units which were coded the same by the researchers were used as a viable pool for describing the findings of the research.

Findings

This study examined the leadership development of students who completed a PGP in an upper-level course on personal leadership education. Specifically, the researchers examined students' development as it relates to the Developing Self component of the LID model (Komives et al., 2005). The Developing Self component consists of five sub-categories: Deepening Self-

Awareness, Building Self-Confidence, Establishing Interpersonal Efficacy, Applying New Skills, and Expanding Motivations.

Deepening Self-Awareness
85.5% of the sample described becoming more aware of certain personal traits than they were before the personal growth project. Areas of self-awareness that were reported included realizing how they learn and solve problems, their levels of patience when tackling new and unfamiliar tasks, as well as their levels of drive and persistence in completing their projects.

One student noted, "It (the project) forced me to take a long hard look internally, where I came to realize things about me that I thought were good, but also many things that I know I need to improve on." Student B21 observed, "I normally rely on people for help with many things in life. This project made me see that I am capable of learning new things and doing tasks on my own."

Other students, such as S26 noted that "I really like learning new things" and "I learned that I excel under pressure!"

Building Self-Confidence
Almost 52% of the sample described an increase in self-confidence as a result of completing their growth project. This increase in self-confidence instilled within the students a desire to continue attempting new things and move out of their comfort zone. Many students noted that this new-found confidence would encourage them to seek leadership roles and be more vocal in their organizational meetings.

Student S19 claimed that "My life has already changed a great deal from taking this class (Crossfit), it has truly inspired me to be better in every aspect of my life." Another noted "…a new confidence in me has come with it. Now I am no longer afraid to tackle new challenges that are placed in front of me." (S21) This same sentiment is echoed by other students. "This experience has helped me realize that I should not let fear keep me from trying something new" (B22) and "In the future, if a strenuous assignment is place before me, I know that I have the capability to go out and accomplish it." (J4)

Establishing Interpersonal Efficacy
More than 44% of the sample reported increases in their interpersonal efficacy. This lower percentage might be explained by the number of projects where students worked independently and thus did not have the opportunity to interact with others and build this skill. Those who did report gains in this area noted stronger relationships with family members and friends who shared an interest in their topic as well as new friendships that were established.

"My ego has had to take a back seat while learning this skill (archery) and I am now more empathetic when others come to me for help." (J12)

This student understood the need to identify followers who can compensate for her weaknesses as a leader. She described in the context of her cooking project; "…I see with greater clarity the

need for people on my team or in my community that complement what I do well by picking up the slack where I am weak. If I am an especially salty and starch-heavy course of chicken and dumplings, then I need people with me who add sweetness like a pie or crisp, lively energy like a green salad." (B5).

Applying New Skills
Nearly 57% of the sample reported learning new skills that could be applied in their leadership roles. The ability to listen to others was a key skill noted by students. Other leadership skills included improved problem solving and time-management skills. Continuous learning is an essential attitude for leaders.

This student proclaimed "I can take the steps I used in cake decorating and apply them to any new thing that I want to learn in the future. " (B2) Another student stated "I have always taken the easy route in life and this project helped me to see that sometimes it is more beneficial to stray away from the safe zone in order to expand your knowledge." (B4) Student S12 observed, "I actually saw that in different situations that I actually could see my strengths take action."

Expanding Motivations
Expanding motivations is described as narrowing or focusing goals and seeking a deeper commitment to something (Komives, et al., 2005). Almost 39% of the sample noted growth in this area.

Student B15 stated, "This project alone made me realize the importance of finding a career that suits my strengths and addresses my personality type. …I am determined to find a career that addresses my creativity and allows the artistic side of me to flourish." Student S11 found a new passion in his/her project, "I think that this experience is going to become a pastime that I will embrace for the rest of my life." "I realized that even knowledgeable leaders also have room to grow and learn more." noted student J33.

Student B26 noted that,

> "…in many situations, you may have all of the resources sitting right before your eyes, but be unable to put them all together. The project helped me look at those pieces and instead of just seeing pieces, I saw the big picture that those pieces, when working together, could create. As a leader, people will look at you to be that person who is able to take those pieces and create the 'bigger picture' that no one else can see."

Student J10 learned that leaders cannot do it alone:

> "…I cannot do everything by myself no matter how strong I think I am at any given thing. I need a team of people around me to tell me how they were able to succeed and give me perspective when I look at something too narrowly." (J10)

The actual number of students making at least one comment for each sub-category is listed in Table 1. Additional themes emerging from the sample included:

- Their chosen project reduced stress in their lives.
- Increased patience
- Learned independence

Table 1. Number and percentage of students reporting in each sub-stage of the LID Model, N=90.

LID Subcategory	**n***	**Percentage**
Developing Self-Awareness	77	85.5
Building Self-Confidence	45	51.8
Establishing Interpersonal Efficacy	40	44.4
Applying New Skills	51	56.7
Expanding Motivations	35	38.9

*Note: n=number of students from the sample of 90 that exhibited growth in that trait.

Conclusions

The PGP assignment seems to be very effective in promoting the development of students' leadership identity, especially in the "developing self" category. Researchers found evidence of each component of developing self (deepening self-awareness, building self-confidence, establishing interpersonal efficacy, applying new skills, and expanding motivations) in students' reflections. The greatest area of growth was in Developing Self-awareness with the fewest number of students indicating growth in the Expanding Motivations subcategory.

Recommendations/Implications

Having students complete a PGP assignment can be effective in helping them develop self. Developing self is important in leading others (Neck & Manz, 2007; Komives, 1998). As leadership educators, we should be concerned about how students learn leadership. Huber (2002) stated "as leadership educators, we help people to understand what it means to be a leader" (p. 31).

This PGP assignment has implications for leadership educators who teach personal leadership education courses. Leadership educators could use this PGP assignment to help students develop self. The reflection is a critical component to this assignment. Providing students with a few questions to think about in regard to their personal growth is important in this process.

This assignment gives students the opportunity to learn something new, take risks, learn outside the classroom, and do something they really enjoy. This ultimately leads to promoting "developing self" in order to work effectively with others.

More research should be focused on other outcomes of the PGP assignment. Other possible avenues include the effect of the PGP on emotional intelligence and stress levels of the student.

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More than Pompoms and Parades: The Leadership Development of Collegiate Cheerleaders

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Abstract

More than Pompoms and Parades: The Leadership Development of Collegiate Cheerleaders is a qualitative look into the leadership development of collegiate cheerleaders. The research provides further evidence that athletics is an avenue for leadership development, and shows the leadership qualities that are unique to the collegiate cheerleading experience.

Introduction

Burns (1978) states that leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth. Peter Northouse, in *Leadership Theory and Practice* Northouse (2003) defines leadership as "… a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3) Kouzes and Posner (1987) note that leadership is an observable, learnable set of practices. If you accept that leadership can be taught and is not an inherit ability we must ask ourselves, who is teaching leadership skills?

Leadership development of students at all levels is a rising concern as society becomes increasingly more complex; but as budgets tighten and programs face an uncertain future, Accountability is increasingly important. Universities everywhere must be concerned, now more than ever, with what experiences are providing the most beneficial return on learning outcomes (Association of American Colleges and Universities , 2007). Considering leadership development is at the forefront of institutional priorities, whether expressly stated in mission mandates or implicitly touted in a myriad of other avenues (Austin, 2000) not much has been done to really put our finger on which programs are "delivering the leadership goods." Organizational cultures, hierarchy, and environment all have a tremendous effect on how student learning may occur (Logue, Hutchens & Hector 2005); because we know this, there is a need for focused research on specific areas of student life. (Gellin, 2003) This study begins to answer that call by providing a snapshot of the kinds of leadership development happening within a small sampling of college athletes- the collegiate cheerleader.

Rooted in that there must be a physical outlet for children during a rigorous academic school day, physical education is a mainstay within our educational system. Extending from the traditional physical education setting, competitive athletics has become a singular phenomenon in the American culture. One need look no further than the impressive stadiums, legions of rabid fans, and outrageous amounts of money that pour into intercollegiate athletics each year to understand the impact athletics has on a university (Kent & Chelladurai, 2001). Taking into account this amount of money that is coming into a college or university because of the success of a particular team, and one has an incredibly significant component of an institution. No longer just involving coaches and players, one now has to extend the lens to see media personnel, trainers, medical professionals, legal professionals, transportation crew, administrators and the

list continues, to get the full picture of an athletic program. But underneath all that, lays the notion that these programs are still student development programs. The question however remains, are they delivering the leadership goods? Doh (2003) tells us that "leadership skills are best acquired as part of a practical, experiential educational program" (p.64). Too often, our views on this subject are limited to what kind of education is going on in the classroom, but an entire world of student development happening in other parts of campus contribute greatly to leadership growth of our students (Extejt & Smith 2004).

Framework

When students have a chance to work with a peer group, in situations like student organizations or athletics, leadership learning can occur (Austin, 1993). In fact, Astin, (1993) also tells us that those students who interacted most frequently with peers in activities such as intramural sports showed the largest increase in leadership. Athletic programs certainly offer a very hands-on learning environment and many argue that the environment fosters the growth of leadership potential. Pascarella and Smart (1991) described the impact of collegiate athletic participation on a wide array of variables including leadership behavior. They concluded that athletic participation in college had a positive impact on leadership behavior and interpersonal skills (Pascarella & Smart 1991). Holt, Tink, Mandigo, & Fox, (2008) explains that though athletics offers little direct teaching of leadership life skills, players were able to produce their own experiences through which leadership skills were learned. Ewing, Overway, Branta, Seefeldt (2002) tells us that when students participate in organized sports they are learning the skills to succeed not only in the classroom but in their future workplace and throughout their lives. These ideas are explored in (Eiche, Sedlacek, & Adams- Gaston, n.d.) who found that because of their participation in sports, college athletes demonstrated a desire to succeed and the ability to commit to a project and see it through. While in school, these students were found to have a/an: 1) expectation of obtaining higher grades, (2) positive expectations from the college experience, (3) decreased expressed need for emotional/social counseling, (4) increased ease of social adjustment, and (5) lower expectancy of transferring to another school.

Glenn and Horn (1993) discovered a linkage between leadership and problem solving abilities. When looking at these linkages, these researchers discovered that leadership was connected to a sense of internal control and problem solving. Further, they tell us that as student athletes are put into situations that develop their leadership skills, students who may not have otherwise been given the opportunity to develop skills may do so, successfully. (Glenn & Horn 1993)

As we continue to talk about leadership development within collegiate athletics, it is important, to define the kinds of skills developed through this outlet. Danish (1986) defines the skills in this way:

- perform under pressure
- Solve~~s~~ problems

- Meet deadlines and challenges
- Set goals
- Communicate
- Handle both success and failure
- Work in a group and within a system
- Receive feedback and benefit from it

Research tells us that intercollegiate athletics provides the opportunity for growth and development of leadership potential, but the research is sparse in focusing on particular aspects of student life. Holt, et.al. (2008) suggests that athletes were able to produce their own experiences through which leadership skills were learned; with this lens we seek to understand the kinds of situations that afford collegiate cheerleading athletes the opportunity to develop skills that will carry them through their college experiences and into a successful future

Purpose and Guiding Questions

Previous research has identified the benefits, including leadership skills, of athletics on youth development. However, none of this research has focused on cheerleading. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to discover what activities, if any, are present in collegiate cheerleading that enhances leadership development. In order to accomplish this purpose, some guiding questions were posed:

- Question One: What leadership skill development occurs as a result of participation in collegiate cheerleading that is similar to other athletic disciplines?
- Question Two: What leadership skills are uniquely developed as a result of participation in collegiate cheerleading?

Methods

In qualitative research unequivocal objectivity is unattainable (Lincoln, Guba 1985). To remove human interaction from the research context could, in effect, keep researchers from rich information (Erlandson,Harris,Skipper & Allen, 1993). A naturalistic researcher understands that one cannot insulate the results from researcher "contamination," and instead trusts in the confirmability of the findings (Erlandson, et. al, 1993). It is important to note that, in this case, the researchers have intimate knowledge of the context under study, as university faculty member and former student athlete respectively, which most certainly informs the inductive reasoning and data analysis of this study.

Erlandson, et.al. (1993) tell us that random sampling is not the preferred method when doing qualitative research. The major concern is not to generalize the findings of the study to a larger population, but to maximize discovery of the issues and nuances under study (Anderson, Bruce & Mouton, 2010). In this case, the researchers used purposive sampling, a technique that intentionally seeks out participants because of certain qualities. For the context under study, the researchers chose young people who: a) had participated in the sport of cheerleading at both the high school and collegiate levels, and b) were willing to discuss their experiences for purposes of research. By seeking out those who have been involved in cheerleading for a significant time, they can be more reflective on their development from their sport; this criterion was established because the literature states that time is essential to leadership development. Qualitative research

looks for data saturation and not a certain number (Pope, Ziebland & Mays, 2000). This study paid attention to 15 participants; 4 males and 11 females either currently cheering, or who had recently concluded their final year of cheerleading.

When a group of people is brought together and asked the same questions at the same time in order to collect data it is called a focus group. According to Patton (2002) "in a focus group participants get to hear each other's response and make additional comments beyond their own original responses as they hear what other people have to say. However, participants need not agree with each other or reach any kind of consensus" (p. 94). In this case, because of the depth and breadth of the information being sought, focus groups were the right fit for data collection. Researchers conducted three focus groups, each lasting approximately one hour. The focus group was audio taped and transcribed, serving as the primary data source. Secondary data consisted of field notes written by one member of the research team. Because researchers were seeking to understand the current state of a situation, this inquiry can be considered a true "basic qualitative study" (Merriam, 2009). The goal was simply to understand how collegiate athletes viewed their cheering experiences in terms of personal development; an idea grounded in the constructivist epistemology (Merriam, 2009). Latent content analysis was used to interpret the data; so analysis was extended to interpretations of the symbolism underlying the data. (Berg, 2001). Open coding was used by the team to construct meaning from the data (Berg, 2001). Open coding allows researchers to: "ask the data a specific and consistent set of questions, analyze the data minutely, frequently interrupt the coding to write theoretical notes, and never assume the relevance of traditional variables like age, race, gender, etc" (Berg, 2001, p. 251) It is important to note at this time, that it was for this reason that the population under study is not more richly described, demographically.

Trustworthiness of the study is an important part of any research team's methodology. Peer debriefing and member checking was done to increase the credibility of the research. A copy of the transcripts was sent out to the participants and asked if they agreed to the interpretation of the interview. Three peer debriefs (a review of all content analysis) occurred over the course of the data collection. To establish transferability the researchers used thick description and purposive sampling. Purposive sampling, as discussed above allows the researcher to study individuals or contexts that will provide rich and pertinent detail. Thick description is often misunderstood. (Berg, 2001 p. 33) describes this description as "sufficiently detailed descriptions of data in context and reports with sufficient detail and precision." An audit trail and journaling were used to establish dependability and confirmability.

Findings

The researchers found that collegiate cheerleaders developed leadership skills through participation in the sport and, additionally, were afforded numerous unique opportunities because of their participation therein. Findings are organized based on the categories defined by Danish (1986), with additional findings following.

Ability to perform under pressure

For these athletes the ability to perform under pressure is tantamount to success in the collegiate environment. They are placed in high stress situations including performing in front of thousands of people in game situations and high stakes competitions.

> In college game day situations it's intense, there was a lot more crowd interaction and positions are different [than I was used to]. At first it can be overwhelming, but you learn to adapt. C6.FG1.6

> Personally, I enjoy the pressure at the games; it makes me want to perform better because there are thousands of eyes on me; whether it's cheerleading or any other sport. C15.FG6.1

College cheerleaders also compete once a year for their National Championship. Several athletes considered this event stressful because of the pressure to perform well; however, many also mentioned that they came to enjoy the feeling.

> I wonder why I compete sometimes, it's so much stress on my body, and in college it's harder [all around] with a tougher course load but when we're done, it feels good [to know we did well under pressure]. C5.FG1.7

> There's so many emotions where we compete; but focus and determination sort of takes over, 2.5 minutes run together in a blur. C13.FG5.1

> I absolutely love competing, I get so nervous but it feels good to do well. C8.FG2.2

Problem Solving

Problem solving is not unique to college athletics, but the situations in which athletes learn to problem solve is. Within the team environment, the ability to solve problems was believed, by all individuals, to be an important skill to master.

> We had a checks and balance [system within the team] so we didn't have to run to the coaches every time we had a problem. This was the key to success with any upper level team. C6.FG1.6

> When times are tough throughout the sport your team members are always there to help you cope. C14.FG6.1

> Problem solving on a team is important especially on a participant level. As a team, coming up with a solution to a problem can bring teammates together. It also makes a team stronger being able to get through an issue together as a team. C15.FG6.1

Participants also talked about problem solving in terms of the actual mechanics of the sport. Several individuals discussed being able to solve problems effectively made the team better at what they did.

> If the team gets it [routines] done right, we can all go home. If there's a problem, we fix it and we bond together doing that. C9.FG4.2

> If somebody is doing something wrong, we all pitch in and try to fix it and make it right. C10.FG4.3

Meet deadlines and challenges

With the amount of time spent in practice, in class, making appearances, doing service hours, time management is important. Several athletes talked about how learning to balance competing priorities is one of the most valuable skills learned.

> The balancing is tough; my mom would make me finish my homework before I went to the gym. So now my motto is "if I'm not ahead I'm behind" C4.FG1.4

> It's like a full time job, lifts, practice, games. But you learn to figure it out. C13.FG5.1

> I learned self discipline; school and sports a lot is going on so I had my planner full of anything & everything, so that I could stay on top of things. C3.FG1.3

A few participants found that the help of teammates, specifically upper classmen in most cases, made figuring out how to balance all of their responsibilities much easier.

> We have to balance school and cheerleading which is a struggle; study hall, coaches, and teammates all help. Cheerleading has helped me deal with the stress and time management. C1.FG1.3

> My roommate is a cheerleader, so we do work together a lot of the time. It helps having someone who understands my schedule. C9.FG4.2

Numerous participants stated that having cheerleading in their life made it easier to deal with commitments outside of the sport because they had a rigorous schedule.

> I'm ok with the amount of time I spend in cheerleading; it keeps my life together, time management made me realize how much I liked cheerleading. C10.FG4.2

Goal setting

Goal setting is a necessary skill for leaders. Success is often associated with the ability to set a goal and attain it. The desire for athletes to start college with the intention of doing well is evident in the literature and in my findings.

> No choice but to get work done I have to take responsibility to get a good education C11.FG4.2

> I should want to get good grades for myself. I want to come out of college with a good job. C9.FG4.5

> I love competing it's a huge rush, gives you something to work toward.C7.FG2.2

Goal setting as it pertained to cheerleading itself was just as prominent. Several participants discussed their desire to continue cheerleading was based on a goal they set for themselves.

> I wanted to keep cheering because there is always someone better [that I can try to beat], constantly pushing boundaries. I aspire to get better. C13.FG5.1

> Being a [NAME] cheerleader you strive for perfection daily. C12.FG5.1

> We adjust to each other's personalities to make each other outstanding individuals and an even better team. C14.FG6.1

Communication

Communication was developed quickly because of the extensive required time and physical and emotional proximity of team members. Several participants discussed the need to learn how to effectively communicate quickly because of divergent personalities.

> Cheerleading has helped me with communicating with people. When you're in cheerleading you have a lot of personalities to deal with so you learn [fast]. C7.FG2.2

> My communication skills have improved, you have to [communicate] effectively without hurting someone's feelings. C3.FG1.3

> We all try to work with each other knowing we are adults and have different personalities we aren't naïve enough to think we should all just get along no matter what. C16.FG6.1

The athletes learn how to communicate with others through necessity, they are put in front of a crowd and forced to communicate with fans to support their team.

> Cheerleading has allowed me to learn how to talk to people. When I was in high school I had to become ok with talking/ cheering in front of a large crowd and talking to people in general. When I came to college it was the same thing. C8.FG2.2

Handle both success and failure

Within any athletic discipline there is success and there is failure, strengths and challenges. These athletes discussed

> Cheerleading offers youth a chance to understand competition and friendship; it's good for learning you can't always win. C11.FG4.4
>
> You can't always win but you still must do your personal best. This is a lesson that carries over to other aspects of life, for sure. C10.FG4.4

Work in a group and within a system

Teamwork is thought to be the foundation for success in a group setting. The athletes in this study discussed respect as the building block on which teamwork was built.

> [We have a lot of] respect for each other, the time we put in, not just with cheerleading but with everything else we do as well. C3.FG1.2
>
> We respect and listen to mentors/ upperclassmen because you know they have been in similar situations. C1.FG1.3

Numerous participants mentioned the fact that their teammates become like a family.

> The team is your family; we stay positive and encourage each other. We are together a lot and we develop good relationships. C3.FG1.1
>
> We may not like each other all the time but we love each other and would do anything for each other. C2.FG1.2

Receive feedback and benefit from it

Evaluation is part of any individual's growth and development. Being able to receive feedback and benefit from it makes these individuals better at their sport and in their daily lives.

> I'm a freshman so I try to listen to what the upperclassmen have to say and fix what they are suggesting. C8.FG2.2
>
> I give and try to take advice as much as I can. Keyword is try. C7.FG2.2
>
> Receiving feedback is key for any individual to grow in any field. No person is able to understand everything necessary for a particular activity on their own. Having someone else give them feedback is going to help them grow in whatever field or activity they are involved in. C15.FG6.1

Skills outside of those discussed by Danish (1986) emerged from this study. A strong theme that arose from the data was the development of responsibility, particularly as it pertains to becoming a role model and representative. As a college cheerleader these athletes serve as a readymade role model for aspiring young people and spokesperson for their respective universities, just by making the team. Several individuals discussed having to learn very quickly how to become the role model they once looked up to.

> [Being on {UNIVERSITY} cheerleading team] it's an honor, it's an ACC team. Little girls look up to you. People know who we are and I enjoy that. C9.FG4.4

> Its different going back to gym, younger girls look at me differently now that I am an [NAME] cheerleader.C1.FG1.3

> This is one of the best programs in the country. Being a part of a good program, representing the [TEAMNAME], [NAME] means a lot to a lot of people so we have to do things right.C10.FG4.3

> When being a role model to little kids, you can't be just a good cheerleader; you have to be good overall. C2.FG1.2

A second theme of personal motivation arose in this study. Motivation in areas of upholding tradition, overcoming personal setbacks and working for little recognition were all identified. In terms of upholding tradition, some participants believed they were obligated to protect the reputation of the program they were involved in.

> It's a large commitment; our program has been around since the 60's so we have a tradition to uphold. C7.FG2.2

> There's an indescribable pride and respect for our program. It affects peoples' lives. It's this huge, lifelong family and you want to maintain that for yourself and leave it for the people coming behind you. C12.FG5.1

A few of the participants talked about being motivated by their own personal sense of pride, since little recognition is offered.

> Cheerleading offers youth a sense of pride, you work hard for very little recognition, so it's really about a sense of accomplishment and pride in yourself. C6.FG1.8

> College cheerleading is a lifestyle; but you get little recognition and yet we still do it because it is worthwhile. C1.FG1.4

The personal motivation that is needed to push through personal setbacks is also important to these athletes. They push through these personal mental blocks for their own personal development and the betterment of the team.

> Self discipline is important within the team and each individual. You have to push through mental blocks, if you're always scared or don't try things, you will never get anywhere. C9.FG4.5

Conclusions and Discussion

For purposes of clarity, conclusions will be presented by guiding research question.

Question One: What leadership skill development occurs as a result of participation in collegiate cheerleading that is similar to that already discussed within other athletic disciplines?

Cheerleading provides an avenue for leadership development. This is similar to other studies done on athletics and leadership (Eiche, Sedlacek, & Adams- Gaston (1992), Glenn & Horn, (1993) and Pascarella & Smart (1991)). As leadership educators we concern ourselves with how students acquire leadership skills. By providing different kinds of avenues for skill development, we open the door for more young people to develop their leadership potential. (Pascarella & Smart, 1991) concluded that athletic participation in college had a positive impact on leadership behavior and interpersonal skills which was found to be true in this study as well. The ability to perform under pressure is not unique to cheerleading but the experience that it provides athletes to learn to think logically in these situations is unique to athletics (Holt et.al, 2008); skills that will benefit athletes the rest of their lives. With cheerleaders the interpersonal skills were developed through necessity to efficiently communicate to achieve set goals of the team. Problem solving skills that are developed through cheerleading allows athletes a chance to learn with a safety net, (the team atmosphere and the coaching staff). The team atmosphere allows for successes and failures to take place as tools for greater learning. Finally athletes have the chance to receive feedback from a number of places, their coaches teammates included. What they use that feed back is integral to grow their personal success and the success of the team.

Question Two: What leadership skills are uniquely available as a result of participation in collegiate cheerleading?

Beyond those skills that are developed across athletics discipline, there are skills uniquely developed via cheerleading. Those skills are self motivation and learning to be a role model. These athletes are often seen as "the face of the university," and as such develop a vested interest in making sure they are leaving a strong, lasting, positive impression. From the hundreds of fans to the little girls and boys who idolize and look up to them, the impact these athletes have is far and wide and sense of responsibility runs deep. Flowing directly from that sense of responsibility is the self motivation that is developed. Be it a strong education, doing better in the sport, or supporting the team, the desire to drive and push themselves toward excellence was strong.

Recommendations

For research

More research should be done to see if the same academic support is offered to non student athletes to ensure their success also. This question arose because academic support was offered to student athletes and they were forced to attend a study hall where tutors were available.

In practice

As leadership educators we should encourage athletes to participate in other leadership activities. These athletes already are developing the necessary skills and motivation to be successful. Having these athletes as part of a current program would bring a whole new facet to programs.

We should also encourage these students to participate in a mentoring program for younger athletes. These athletes have developed a set of skills that would be beneficial to younger student athletes.

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Teacher Behavioral Integrity as the Pathway to Classroom Trust and Student Performance

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Abstract

We introduce behavioral integrity (the perceived pattern of alignment between one's espoused values and action and promises made and kept) as a critical lever for influencing trust in the classroom. We identify specific actions teachers can take to model behavioral integrity in order to promote trust, and to create a safe and environment conducive to student character-building.

Introduction

We assert that high levels of trust in the academic context (i.e., between student and teachers), have dramatic performance-enhancing consequences, to include increased understanding, academic achievement, engagement, participation, and ultimately, character development. Conversely, the absence of trust in this environment manifests itself in equally dysfunctional outcomes. Teachers, in addition to being the largest group of potential leaders in schools, are in the best position to influence students, and hold the most promise for fostering educational progress (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). Regardless of the type of performance desired, a trust-based relationship between the teacher and student is necessary for success (Quay & Quaglia, 2004). Therefore, teachers must understand and manage those factors that influence trust formation (and loss).

In this paper, we will underscore the importance of trust in the teacher-student relationship, highlight the role of behavioral integrity as a key "lever" in trust development, and recommend specific approaches for teachers to use behavioral integrity as a technique for building a classroom climate of trust, effort and performance. We also assert that these trust-building behaviors, modeled by the teacher, will "trickle down" to contribute to students' character development and an enhanced classroom environment.

Literature Review

Simply stated, trust is the fundamental ingredient in any enduring relationship; especially so in relationships where there is a perceived power/status gap. In fact, Bennis and Nanus (1985, p. 43) suggest a leader's effectiveness cannot exist without a climate of trust, calling trust "the lubrication that makes it possible for organizations to work." This holds particularly true for the relationship between teacher (as leader) and students, where trust is often seen as being central to effective development

(Watson, Ecken, & Kohn, 2003). Yet the factors that contribute to trust development (and loss) are often ignored or unappreciated in faculty recruitment, training, development, and daily interactions.

Trust has long been demonstrated to be a key factor driving individual and organizational outcomes such as performance, leader-member relationship quality, support for leader, satisfaction, commitment, citizenship behavior, and effort, while a lack of trust leads to counterproductive behaviors such as cynicism and reduced risk-taking (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Similarly, Berkowitz (in press) identified trust as one of the key, empirically-supported elements promoting students' moral development. Researchers have also demonstrated that trust is an essential ingredient for perceptions of fairness and the willingness to work together. For example, De Cremer and Tyler (2007) found that the trustworthiness of an authority figure significantly influenced the relationship between the procedural fairness and the amount of cooperation. Said another way, a fair system is not enough to overcome the negative ramifications on group collaboration of a low-trustworthy authority figure. Students involved in classrooms not characterized by mutual trust are often forced to rely on unequal power positions in which the teacher controls or forces students to fulfill established requirements (Ennis & McCauley, 2002). Trust matters.

Despite the importance of trust in relationships (Ferris, Liden, Munyon, Basik, Summers, & Buckley, 2009; Fisher & Brown, 1988), little research has examined how and why trust develops, how it is maintained, and how it deteriorates over time (Simpson, 2007; Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). By identifying and engaging the key "levers" of trust formation, we can directly and deliberately impact the teacher-student relationship, the classroom climate, and the desired learning outcomes. In addition, instructors who model these trust-building approaches will provide students with behaviors worth emulating.

Definition and Dimensions of Trust

By definition, trust represents the willingness of a party (trustor) to be vulnerable to the actions of another party (trustee) based on the expectations the trustee will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the trustee (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995, p. 712). Over decades of conceptual and empirical study, three antecedents of trust have consistently emerged: ability, benevolence, and integrity (Mayer et al., 1995). Faculty development programs focus primarily on skills and ability, and typically ignore the benevolence and integrity dimensions of trust. For example, delivery techniques, rubrics, exercises, and packaged presentations are typically offered to instructors as keys to success. Bain (2004) indicated that both ability and benevolence are key factors in the classrooms of some the best university level teachers, however the teachers' perceived integrity was not an area of focus in his study. Arguably, all three dimensions are necessary, although not sufficient for trust development and maintenance. The antecedents of trust are defined as follows:

Ability reflects "a group of skills, competencies, and characteristics that enable a party to have influence within some specific domain" (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). *Benevolence* is the "extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor," and to perform in a way that disregards a self-centered motive (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995, p. 718). Finally, *integrity* represents "the perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable" (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995, p. 719), and can encompass aspects of promise-keeping, reliability, and the extent to which the trustor's actions are congruent with his or her words.

Two Trust-Outcome Processes

The trust literature indicates that several opportunities exist to impact desired outcomes in the classroom context. We propose two pathways emanate from the perception of trust in teachers (see Figure 1).

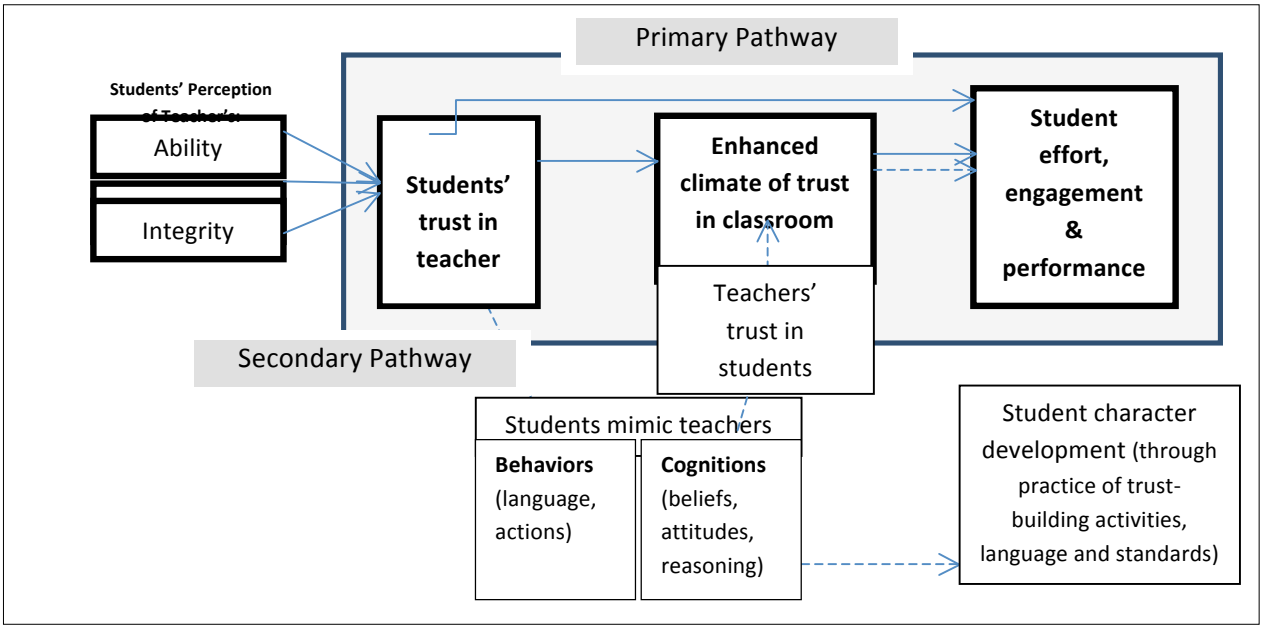

Figure 1. Proposed outcome paths of students' trust in teachers

First, a primary pathway exists (bold boxes and gray background) where students' trust in their teachers – informed by perceptions of their ability, benevolence and integrity - fosters a classroom climate and climate that, in turn, fosters student effort, engagement, and performance. These outcomes can be not only mediated by the trusting classroom climate, but can also naturally emerge from the personal relationship between the teacher and student. Classroom climate has been portrayed as the ambience generated from rules and expectations, the manner in which the teacher(s) and students interact and the manner in which a classrooms physical environment is experienced (Creemers & Reezigt, 1999). For the purposes of this paper, the authors restrict our focus to the first two aspects of classroom climate. . Research has demonstrated that leaders have a fundamental role in creating a climate where followers are open to speak up and learn from mistakes. Recent research has demonstrated that psychologically safe environments result in demonstration of vulnerability by members, such as admitting mistakes they would have otherwise not divulged (i.e., nurses being more willing to admit to accidents; Leroy, Dierynck, Simons, Halbesleben, & Savage, 2010). Furthermore, an agreeable learning environment significantly influences student achievement (Fraser & Walberg, 1991).

This climate of psychological safety "fosters open reporting, active questioning, and frequent sharing of insights and concerns" (Edmondson, 2004, p. ii3). In turn, individuals and the group as a whole can benefit by learning from the safely admitted mistakes of others. These skills represent important habits of character that are often ignored in the selection and development of faculty.

In addition, a secondary process exists (indicated with dashed arrows in Figure 1), informed by literature in both role modeling (i.e., Rich, 1997; Basik, 2010) and "trickle down" effects, whereby subordinates imitate the behaviors and cognitive aspects of important models, often in positions of authority or power. Although similar, role modeling effect speaks more to the tendency of individuals to mimic the target, while the trickle down phenomenon tends to indicate an adoption of attitudes and beliefs

that then translate into behaviors. Specifically, research in role modeling has demonstrated that subordinates emulate the attitudes, behavioral work habits, and goals of their managers, whether positive or negative (Rich, 1997). Bandura's (1977) social cognition (or social learning) theory offers support to the argument that teachers occupy positions of role models, and concludes that much of our behavior results from observation and imitation of others in a social context. In addition, Schein (1985) summarized the most powerful mechanisms for creating and reinforcing ethical cultures include: what the leaders pay attention to/measure/control, the leader's reactions to critical incidents, deliberate role modeling, teaching, and coaching.

Similarly, evidence has emerged in a number of areas for a "trickle-down" phenomenon, where attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors from one level of an organization are adopted by members in another level. For example, managers who perceive their supervisors as abusive or threatening tend to, themselves, act in ways that are seen as abusive or threatening by their own subordinates – thus a "trickle down" effect (Hambrick, Finkelstein, & Mooney, 2005; Breaux, 2009). Similarly, Simons, Friedman, Liu, & McLean-Parks (2007) found that managers who felt their supervisors had low behavioral integrity were more likely to be rated as having low behavioral integrity by their own subordinates. On a more positive note, the 2003 National Business Ethics survey demonstrated when executives and supervisors keep promises and model ethical conduct, the amount of misconduct by employees decreased. All of this evidence demonstrates people tend to follow the leader. Within the context of education, the influence of teachers is increasingly relevant considering that increasing numbers of students are entering classrooms without having had positive, preceding experiences with familial trust (Ennis & McCauley, 2002).

Therefore, trustworthy teachers provide students with examples of behaviors and language worth emulating. As students mimic these behaviors, it will potentially provide teachers with evidence of the students' ability, benevolence, and/or integrity, thereby elevating the students' trustworthiness in the eyes of their teacher. Just as students' trust in teachers contributes to a positive classroom climate, teachers will also trust students who act with integrity – improving the classroom climate. In addition, students who emulate the trust-building behaviors of their teachers will be practicing and possibly creating habits of competence, benevolence, and integrity.

All this is to say that teachers' behaviors, language and standards model the very things that either enhance or diminish trust, and likely influence the behaviors students will, themselves, demonstrate. Trevino and Brown (2004, p. 72) remind us "most people, including adults, are followers when it comes to ethics," and they tend to "look up and around," mirroring what those around them do. In this respect, teachers have a great responsibility and burden to model those behaviors that contribute to students' academic and character development.

Potential Levers for Trust

Given the important role of trust in achieving such important outcomes, the question becomes, "How can instructors increase students' trust in their teachers in a manner students can mimic?" Of the three antecedent of trust (i.e., ability, benevolence, integrity), the role of integrity may be particularly important.

With regard to ability, too often in organizational and educational contexts, people in leadership positions (e.g., managers, administrators, teachers) are selected based on a competency-criteria model (i.e, hiring for "pedigree"). Although technical ability and experience is important, it should not be the sole concern. If instructor selection is based primarily on subject matter expertise, excluding the other two factors, we should not be surprised to find student outcomes (i.e., attitudes, emotions, behaviors, performance) are consistent with low trust relationships. Many of us have likely experienced brilliant

instructors who, despite being experts in their fields, fell far short of creating an environment where students excelled.

Benevolence is manifested in instructors' acting in the best interest of the students' development while not taking advantage of their vulnerabilities. In this regard, teachers understand and take into consideration, the students' educational and professional development in course design, instruction, and assessment. Teachers also have an advantage in that many students see education as a gateway to success and understand the important role teachers play in their development. Students may give teachers the benefit of the doubt and assume the teacher has their best interest at heart. However, the challenge in leveraging benevolence is that students' initial belief in their teacher's concern wears thin quickly if the course does not demonstrate applicability to their development. This is reflected in the often-recited lament, "I do not understand why I had to take this course." Thus teachers must invest considerable time and energy to understand the individual needs of their students' to fully leverage benevolence. Opportunities for these interactions are infrequent in large course and time intensive, reducing the opportunity to practice benevolence to the point of habit.

In contrast to benevolence, the instructor's integrity is constantly on display; a frequently occurring (almost moment to moment) event that is easily identified, assessed, and discussed. Instructors can purposefully introduce a framework and conversation of integrity by declaring their own word-deed alignment as a target that is safe to be evaluated and openly discussed. By defining the teachers' integrity as their word-deed alignment in terms of importance and effectiveness instead of morality, teachers can minimize the emotional and ethical concerns associated with the discussion. Integrity has been described as the most important and heavily-weighted antecedent of trust (Craig & Gustafson, 1998; Posner & Schmidt, 1984). It is also the hardest dimension to rebuild, once violated (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). Despite the crucial role integrity may play in student achievement and development, integrity rarely (if ever) discussed in faculty development or selection processes. In addition, it is questionable if faculty members even understand its role in trust formation and development. For these reasons, we feel that integrity serves as the most promising and important target as a modeled trust development "lever."

The Behavioral Integrity Lever

In 2005, integrity was the most looked-up word in the Merriam-Webster's Dictionary website, suggesting people know it is important, but they are not sure what it means (Simons, 2008). Palanski and Yammarino (2007) suggested the surprising lack of progress in the formal study of integrity is to a large degree due to definitional inconsistencies. In their broad review of the literature on integrity, Yammarino and Palanski (2009) proposed that the moral/ethical elements of leaders' behaviors (reflected in some of the definitions of integrity) should not, in fact, be considered "integrity." Instead, they argue these morality-based definitions are more appropriately assigned to discreet substantive virtues, such as *honesty*, *fairness*, and *compassion*. By contrast, they and others (i.e., Erhard et al., 2010; Simons, 2002) argued integrity is most appropriately viewed as a morality-free (i.e., amoral) construct, reflecting the degree of consistency between the leaders' word (e.g., promises, espoused values) and actions relative to that word. In this sense, the "offending" person is not *bad* (immoral), but rather, is simply "out of integrity" with regard to a specific promise/value at that time.

This conceptualization provides access to integrity in a way that is manageable, measurable, and able to be formally introduced into the teaching context to improve performance. This amoral conceptualization of integrity parallels that of Erhard et al. (2010), who suggest a individuals are "in-integrity" if they either keep their word or "honor" their word by acknowledging any word-deed inconsistency, and take steps to rectify the impact. Likewise, Simons' (2002) conceptualization of behavioral integrity also supports this morality-free notion of word-deed consistency. Simons' model differs from that of Erhard in that the latter focuses on the individual while the former (behavioral

integrity) targets the perception of others in the relationship. In other words, Erhard requires a person of integrity to reflect on the "what and how" of their promises while Simons would ask how others perceive a person of integrity in terms of the word-deed alignment. Both models seek improved performance or workability and both have the capability to incorporate moral components. For the sake of increased applicability, we decided to use a moral-free basis for our integrity model.

Behavioral integrity is defined as the perceived pattern of alignment between leaders' words (i.e., espoused values or promises) and their actions (Simons, 2002). Therefore, an individual's integrity is less about them as a person, and more about their perceived pattern of word-deed misalignment (thus, "behavioral" integrity). These events of (non-)delivery on promises or values represent the *real* source of the (dys)function in trust-based relationships. Therefore, increasing perceptions of behavioral integrity can improve trust and all the outcomes that follow.

Recent research has demonstrated significant and consistent support for the relationship between subordinates' positive perceptions of their managers' behavioral integrity and their trust in that manager, as well as many other positive outcomes from subordinates (i.e., retention, job satisfaction, commitment, effort, performance, leader effectiveness, high leader-member exchange relationship quality, citizenship behavior, retention, customer satisfaction, organizational profit, and reduced deviant behavior) (see Basik, 2010 for review). To the degree that the subordinates' (i.e., students') perception of the leaders' (i.e., teachers') behavioral integrity can be improved, significant trust-related outcomes can be realized. Therefore, teachers are well served to identify and manage those factors influencing students' behavioral integrity perceptions, to include improving the *actual* alignment between their teachers' actions and their promises/espoused values. Intentionally doing so over time and repeated events will create a "perceived pattern" of the teachers' word-deed alignment (Simons, 2008). This will foster a positive impression of the teacher's trustworthiness and, consequently, create a sense of perceived safety for vulnerability in the classroom environment in addition to the aforementioned positive outcomes.

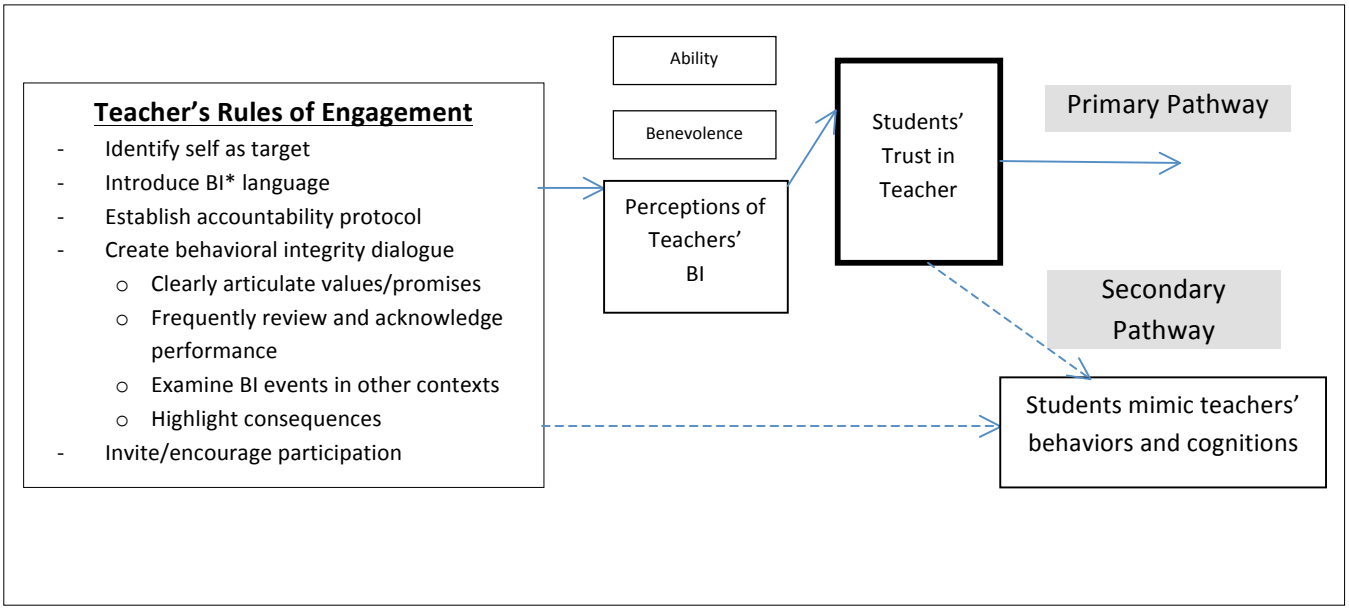

Figure 2. Proposed relationships between behavioral integrity, trust, and classroom outcomes
*BI= Behavioral Integrity
Dashed line indicates Trickle-down pathway in Figure 1.

Recommendations/Implications

Figure 2 describes a process by which teachers use behavioral integrity to foster a performance-enhancing and character development climate in the classroom. Specifically, certain unique rules of engagement are followed to elevate and highlight behavioral integrity as a fundamental feature of the classroom context, creating a safe environment for students to explore the concept and possibly "try on" the behaviors modeled by the teacher (note that the two rightmost boxes indicate the tie-in to Figure 1). Additionally, if the teacher facilitated an environment in which students could safely respond to the teacher as a model of behavioral integrity, and thus, a source of discussion as a self-designated target, the teacher could potentially serve as a coach and mentor for students in this area. The prospective impact of this approach is substantial bearing in mind one of the most significant sources of students' perceived capability is the evaluative and encouraging feedback provided by teachers (Stipek, 2002).

Rules of Engagement

The introduction of behavioral integrity into the classroom will likely require the teacher to familiarize students with the "rules of engagement," to include personal accountability, new language, feedback, and an ongoing dialogue about the process. To successfully implement this model of integrity, the teacher must implicitly understand three factors: 1) Full scale implementation begins with the teachers' critical self-evaluation of their own integrity, 2) teachers must model vulnerability, trust, and a desire to develop in order to identify their current state of integrity as a target for evaluation, and 3) student feedback should be utilized to determine the current state and potential areas for improvement as well as to create an educational climate in which integrity is discussed and potentially developed. The following elements of the rules of engagement help to support these three considerations:

Identify Self as Target

Given that trust, by definition, requires a willingness of one party to be vulnerable to another party, the teacher can establish the safety of such vulnerability by offering him or herself as the willing (i.e., "at risk") member. In doing so, the teacher introduces the concept of behavioral integrity in a manner that is "low threat" to the student, and also highlights trust-building behaviors the students may appreciate. This experiment is simply offered to the students as something the teacher is using as a self-directed accountability system, appealing to the students for support and feedback. This point is easy to understand but perhaps the most difficult to implement. Traditional views of the teachers are infallible, expert, and all-knowing. Creating an understanding that teachers have shortcomings and faults that must be identified and improved is arduous for both teacher and students.

Introduce the New Language

The teacher should introduce and define the concept of behavioral integrity, and clarify specific terms that may be important in discussing future incidents revealing behavioral integrity and its consequences. It may be particularly important to clarify that integrity violations are not indicative of the target's moral standing, but rather contribute to the perceived pattern of alignment observers may have about the person. Using phrases such as, "I feel like I'm in integrity with this" or "I realize I'm out of integrity on the promise I made" can be useful to maintain an amoral focus on the event. Other important terms may include "espoused values" and "commitments," in that these serve as the criteria against which actions are evaluated. As will be discussed shortly, a new, more intentional language should be introduced to clearly present promises and espoused values.

Clarify the Accountability Protocol

Obviously, there should be a proper and respectful manner for the students to help hold the teacher accountable on his or her behavioral integrity. The teacher should describe the appropriate

methods and approaches for students to provide feedback and identify breaches in the teachers' word-deed alignment soon after identifying themselves as a target and soliciting feedback. Clarifying the manner in which this feedback should be offered serves multiple purposes. First, it preserves the level of respect that should be present in the classroom. Second, it signals to the students what is safe for them. A chief objective is to minimize the awkwardness associated with a student "calling out" a teacher. Role playing this during the introduction period can help demonstrate how teacher will fairly and respectfully respond to any appropriately-delivered feedback. As teachers and students discuss the suitable methods of providing coaching and feedback, students are exposed to the language the students might expect to hear from the teacher, should they be willing to engage in a student-centered behavioral integrity exchange in the future. Early on, the teacher may identify areas where they feel they are "out of integrity" (e.g., being fully prepared for today's class) or "in integrity" (e.g., timeliness of returning graded projects), in order to invite safe contributions from the students. The researchers caution beginning teachers or teachers who have substantial concerns about the relational dynamic within a particular group of students from engaging in this process until a more settled climate can be fostered.

Create an Ongoing Dialogue

Students should be informed that behavioral integrity discussions will be a consistent and frequent occurrence. Initially, the focus may simply be on the teachers' own performance. For example, having specific time set aside at the end of a class to discuss behavioral integrity successes and shortfalls may be useful, especially early in the process. Eventually, students will identify behavioral integrity issues in contexts outside the class (e.g., politics, administration, parents, etc). This increased sensitivity to behavioral integrity events and consequences will only serve to guide their own behavior. Throughout this discussion, the teacher should emphasize the consequences associated with perceptions of high or low behavioral integrity. In addition, teachers should remind the students (and themselves) that, while occasional individual misalignment events can be excused, it is indeed harder to explain away a *pattern* of misalignment.

Clearly Articulate Values/Promises. It is critical that teachers clearly articulate their espoused values and promises in a way students can monitor. This may be as overt as offering students a short list of "values I plan to live by" or "my commitments to you" at the beginning of the experience (i.e., semester). This very well might include the phrase, "When I say I will do something, I will do it" (capturing in one broad statement the notion of behavioral integrity). At least some of these espoused values should be observable on a reasonably frequent basis (e.g., "Sarcasm is not a useful tool for a teacher—I will not use it," "Every student will be treated with respect," "I will begin and end class on time").

Many perceived breakdowns in integrity occur because of misperceptions about what was promised or espoused. Simons (2008) suggests that the relationship between behavioral integrity and follower outcomes is significantly dependent on clear communication. In support of this, instructors can create a language of specificity to drive this point home. For example, someone can use the technique of restating and clarifying the commitment (i.e., "What I want to clarify is that I am committing to working out – that is, doing 30 or more minutes of cardio or weight training 3 days this week" or "Just so I'm clear, you are committing to a completed reflection paper turned in to me electronically by the beginning of class Wed"). In addition, being explicit and intentional about espoused values may include examples. For example, an instructor that espouses the value of fairness or student support can describe instances where fairness/support can be successfully demonstrated (e.g., "No matter the excuse or reason, everyone who is more than 6 minutes late by this clock will be assigned an additional reflection paper," or "If you come into my office during office hours, and I am not there, leave a message and I will call you within the hour to meet up"). This specificity also facilitates assessment and accountability.

Frequently Review and Acknowledge Performance. In such examples, the teacher can easily call him or herself out on a misstep (i.e., "Let me acknowledge I was out of integrity with that last statement, and I apologize"), demonstrating the importance of constant vigilance to behavioral integrity perceptions. In the same respect, it is just as important for the teacher to acknowledge and invite acknowledgement of their behavioral integrity *successes* (e.g., "In order for me to be 'in integrity' about my espoused value of punctuality, we are going to start class in 2 minutes," or "Ms. Davis, do you feel I delivered on my promise to use a number of modes of teaching today?").

This modeled behavior should not be confined only to very public displays of values alignment and promise-keeping. One-on-one discussions (particularly on sensitive topics) can be powerful ways to demonstrate attention to behavioral integrity (i.e., "Mr. Taylor, I want to make sure I'm honoring the promise I made to you to be supportive while you're dealing with this issue," or "I'm concerned the comment I made in class came across as being sarcastic, which you know is something I am committed to avoid."). Of course, any promise of confidentiality is a critical one to demonstrate successfully. In all these instances, the teacher is modeling not only a dedication to behavioral integrity, but also a willingness to be vulnerable in the classroom environment – thus, setting the tone for a trusting relationship in the opposite direction.

The final point is to obtain timely feedback. End-of-course critiques are done at the end of the semester when it is impossible to repair a damaged classroom relationship. We suggest you administer simple surveys at multiple points during the semester. A simple eight question survey on behavioral integrity (Simons et al., 2007) is included in Appendix A. Self-deception is a strong psychological mechanism that may lead us to believe we are in integrity when in fact our students perceive the opposite (Brekelmans, 1989). The feedback instrument provides accountability as well as a vehicle to create dialogue on how to improve. The honest dialogue that results from this instrument enhances integrity and builds trust.

Examine Behavioral Integrity Events in Other Contexts. As students become more familiar with and sensitive to the concept of behavioral integrity, they will see its importance in areas well beyond the classroom. Students will likely be more frustrated than ever by common events such as cable providers who unapologetically show up late for their scheduled appointments (despite the 8-hour window they gave themselves!), hypocritical politicians who rail for family values but cheat on their spouses, the friend who is habitually 15 minutes late, or the teacher who holds people to standards to which they do not abide. By extending the concept to new contexts, it will not only underscore the prevalence of behavioral integrity breaches (and how comfortable we've become in making and accepting them), but will also identify areas in their lives where they can practice or improve their behavioral integrity performance.

Highlight Consequences. The language of integrity used by Erhard et al. (2010) may be a very useful tool for discussing how individuals can respond to being "out of integrity." Simply, he defines integrity as *honoring* your word, which (similar to Simons (2002) definition of behavioral integrity) means keeping your promises by doing what you implicitly or explicitly said you would do when you said you would do it.

Erhard et al. extended the definition to also state that, when you cannot keep your word, you must immediately acknowledge this breakdown to those impacted, state whether you will be keeping your word (and by when), and accept that you will be accountable for the consequences for not keeping your word. This last condition is important, because it highlights the range of possible responses to someone being out of integrity. For example, in some cases, an apology may be enough to re-establish integrity, while other instances may require some sort of punitive action. This places an obligation on the violating person to try and limit the negative impact of the word-deed misalignment (i.e., getting "back into

integrity"). While this concept can be powerful in acknowledging the consequences of behavioral integrity violations, it is important to remember that, by definition, behavioral integrity is about the perceived pattern of word-deed alignment. As such, even if each event is brought "back into integrity" in the manner described by Erhard, there is still a consequence for being someone who tends to have word-deed misalignments in a repeated manner. For example, if you are consistently late for meetings you agreed to (i.e., having a pattern of violating the promises you make about be somewhere at a certain time), simply apologizing and vowing to fix the impact does not erase the perception you have created about yourself (i.e., "doesn't honor meeting times") in the eyes of others.

Invite and Encourage Participation

In an environment of authenticity and openness, students feel safe to become involved and practice the behaviors they value and respect in others (Schrader, 2004). If a respectful, open and engaging accountability protocol has been demonstrated in the classroom, and the instructor has modeled how to respond to feedback in a way students can easily mimic, the stage may be set for students to "wade into the surf" and try this process out for themselves. In addition, instructors can easily reframe students' commitments during normal course conversation to align with the language introduced and used by them early in the course. For example, if a student says, "I'll get it to you this week," an instructor can demonstrate that this is a potential behavioral integrity event by stating, "So, are you formally committing to me that by the last minute of class on Friday, I will have this paper? If you need any help staying in integrity on that, let me know."

As students engage in this process, instructors can challenge them to articulate (in an assignment or something less formal) more substantial values to which they would like their actions to align. This effort can naturally lead to a character development coaching-type relationship, where the instructor engages and supports their students on their journeys of "walking" their espoused values. In this relationship, the teacher can identify integrity shortfalls or successes occurring in the classroom, and also seek feedback on their progress outside the classroom. A humble, reflective, improvement-focused example provided by the teacher can serve as an ideal model for students working to elevate their own integrity.

Not surprisingly, students who assimilate such activity in their own lives tend to be more predictable, engaged, and trustworthy in the eyes of the instructor. This enhanced relationship, now based on mutual trust and respect, can create a dynamic that facilitates learning in and outside the classroom.

Conclusions

In this paper we offer behavioral integrity as a lever to enhance students' performance by increasing trust in their teachers, answering the call by Simons, Tomlinson, and Leroy (in press) for consideration of behavioral integrity in specific settings (in this case, the educational context). When the practice of behavioral integrity is properly introduced, it may enhance the classroom learning environment, and ultimately, student performance. Additionally, in fostering that trust, teachers model the types of behaviors students see as valuable and worthy of emulating. As a result, students behave in a way that makes them more trustworthy to the teachers (and likely, other students), enhancing academic and character development outcomes.

Using this amoral conceptualization of integrity (i.e., one focusing on keeping promises and acting in accordance with espoused values) as a "lever" for fostering trust in a classroom is ideal for multiple reasons:

- It is easily introduced and modeled by the instructor. Teachers' commitments and values can be clearly stated and framed in a way that clearly "marks" them as something to which they will visibly hold themselves accountable. Violations and successes can be highlighted and discussed, thereby reinforcing the importance of giving and delivering on one's word. As such, this offers a character-based identity tool that is "manageable" day-to-day.

- Because of this amoral approach to integrity, violations focus on specific events and behaviors, and do not condemn the "violator" as a bad person. For example, if the teacher promises to have tests graded by Thursday and does not deliver on that promise, he/she is "out of integrity" for that event, but is not, therefore, considered a person of low/no integrity or a "bad" teacher. Teachers should acknowledge the breach and its implications for trust in the classroom. After acknowledgement, they then must mitigate the impact by stating how the correction will be done and by when. This openness reinforces the importance of the topic and demonstrates it is safe to be vulnerable when trying to improve one's integrity.

- The behavior-focus creates a low-threat system of accountability. Just as teachers can highlight their violations, trusting classroom environments can be facilitated by teachers inviting the students to help hold them accountable. The word-action focus can create a language that removes some of the awkwardness associated with confronting others about failures. Again, one can be out of integrity for the event, but can still be a person of integrity.

- There are multiple opportunities to demonstrate and observe behavioral integrity every class period. By contrast, the morality-based definitions of integrity are much less observable on a frequent basis, often requiring some sort of moral dilemma to test, which may or may not be appropriate to include in a particular educational environment. The Aristotelian view of character describes it as a habit that requires practice over repeated opportunities; character is what we repeatedly do. The behavioral nature of integrity, as described here, allows for frequent practice (and therefore demonstration) of acting in accordance with one's promises and values. Trevino and Brown (2004, p. 79) stated that, in order to create an ethical organization, leadership needs to "make ethical values visible." This approach increases visibility of integrity as a value, and illuminates multiple opportunities we all have to act in accordance with our promises and values.

- As the leaders of the classroom, teachers' emphasis on their own integrity (through incidents of success and failure) causes others to attend to it. Likewise, this emphasis not only serves to model the right behavior, but establishes expectations and standards students can easily transfer to their own lives (Trevino & Brown, 2004). With many students bring histories of distrust with them into the classroom, teachers should acknowledge and embrace their opportunities and role as initiators and facilitators of the trusting process (Ennis & McCauley, 2002). Teachers who acknowledge their own missteps demonstrate humility, personal accountability, and the importance of continual attention to one's word.

- This conceptualization can be used at multiple levels of analysis. For example, individuals can focus on their own word-deed alignment (i.e., "I am a person of integrity"), just as a collective group can pursue the same goal (i.e., "We are a class of integrity," "This is an institution of integrity"). In all cases, perceptions by outside audiences on this dimension can contribute strongly to trustworthiness, and therefore, one's reputation, brand, and competitive advantage (Barney, 1991).

If trust is, in fact, the fundamental ingredient in all relationships, then it is imperative we attend to those things that promote and inhibit trust. Teachers have the remarkable opportunity to do so in a way that positively impacts the classroom environment and sets the stage for students' character development.

The understanding and practice of behavioral integrity can be introduced in any classroom, regardless of the academic topic grade level, and its effect can carry over into countless areas of life for both teachers and students.

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Appendix A

Behavioral Integrity Survey

Rate the following items on the following scale:

5 - *strongly agree*,
4 - *agree*,
3 - *neither agree nor disagree*,
2 - *disagree*,
1 - *strongly disagree*

There is a match between my teacher's words and actions.

My teacher delivers on promises.

My teacher practices what he/she preaches.

My teacher does what he/she says he/she will do.

My teacher conducts himself/herself by the same values he/she talks about.

My teacher shows the same priorities that he/she describes.

When my teacher promises something, I can be certain that it will happen.

If my teacher says he/she is going to do something, he/she will.

Exploring Instructional Strategies in Undergraduate Leadership Education

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Abstract

This research explores the instructional strategies used by instructors teaching academic credit-bearing undergraduate leadership studies courses through a national survey. The findings suggest an emphasis in discussion-based and inclusive pedagogies and a milder use of highly interactive skill-building pedagogies than once thought.

Introduction

Since 1990, only a few studies have reviewed or identified instructional strategies utilized in undergraduate leadership education (see for example: Allen & Hartman, 2009; Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1990; Conger, 1992; Day, 2001; Eich 2008; London, 2002; Yukl, 2002). While these studies have addressed various stakeholders' perceptions of leadership development programming (and student perceptions in depth), only a handful collected data from leadership practitioners (not identified specifically as university instructors). For example, in a grounded theory study of "high quality" leadership programs, Eich (2008) interviewed 62 stakeholders in leadership programs that ranged in type from an academic course, to a week retreat, to a co-curricular program, to a service leadership program. Yet, only 17 of the stakeholders were practitioners (instructors). Despite the interest in student leadership development programming, the sparse few studies that have investigated instructors who teach academic credit-bearing courses have been limited to an insufficient number of participants. To address this overlooked question, this study specifically targets instructors that teach academic credit-bearing courses through a national survey.

Despite the rapid growth in academic credit-bearing undergraduate leadership studies courses, instructors who teach these courses have not been profiled in the literature. In a recent study Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt, and Arensdorf (2006) reviewed undergraduate leadership degree programs in the U.S. And while this study profiled the major, type of degree, credit requirements, delivery options, student population, and major description, they profiled only the number of Full-Time Equivalent Faculty and academic host department of each program. Thus, the web-based questionnaire will collect data addressing the following questions of interest to the researcher:

1. Who teaches leadership studies courses?
2. What are their academic credentials?
3. What are their roles at their institution?
4. What types of institutions employ them (basic demographics)?
5. What types of leadership training or experiences have they had?
6. Through what academic area or department are the leadership course(s) they teach offered?
7. What degree(s) do their departments offer in leadership (if any)?

In fact, nearly no research exists in regard to leadership educators. Indeed, only in the last two years has information profiling leadership studies programs been central and available (e.g., International Leadership Association Directory of Leadership Education Programs; National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs). These resources identify only the existence of these programs and their academic profile (curricular or co-curricular), while profiles of instructors still need exploration.

Also, in previous studies of instructional strategies utilized in leadership studies, the literature has discussed pedagogy chiefly from students' points of view. These studies have not addressed specifically the pedagogical methods used by leadership instructors from the

instructor's point of view. To address this problem, a quantitative survey of most commonly utilized instructional strategies is needed.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to identify the instructional strategies that are most frequently used by instructors when they teach courses in the leadership discipline, identify potential signature pedagogies, and inform practitioners about alternative instructional strategies used to teach these courses. A quantitative research design will be used. Here, a national web-based questionnaire will be used to identify the instructional strategies most frequently used by instructors teaching academic credit-bearing undergraduate leadership studies course.

Research Questions

1. What are the most frequently employed instructional strategies used by instructors teaching undergraduate leadership studies courses?
2. Are there identifiable signature pedagogies in the leadership discipline?

Significance of the Study

In the ULE discipline, relatively few studies have focused on the teaching methods, instructional approaches, or leadership studies curriculum design and content while a greater number have focused on leadership studies programs (e.g., Allen & Hartman, 2009; Eich, 2008; Komives, Dugan, Owen, Slack & Wagner, 2006; Ritch & Mengel, 2009; Roberts, 2007). Yet, today, more than 1,000 leadership studies programs exist (Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt, & Arensdorf, 2006). This study is the first of its kind to collect data regarding instructional methods and established learning goals in academic credit-bearing ULE courses through a national survey. Thus, research that identifies specific and effective instructional strategies in the leadership discipline will serve as both a resource and guide for instructors, student affairs programmers and academic administrators.

As well, despite the increased interest in leadership education, the literature has only sparsely reviewed specific leadership pedagogies as a group. In the 1992 work *Learning to Lead*, Jay A. Conger explored five innovative leadership training programs outside universities and joined them as a participant and observer (p. xiii). Following his documented experiences in these, Conger and his research team reported no "one best" program for leadership training. Instead, they found that instructional methods each had distinct strengths and drawbacks and the researchers categorized leadership training into four key approaches: 1) personal growth, 2) conceptual, 3) feedback, and 4) skill-building (p. 155). Sixteen years later (in 2008 and 2009), Allen and Hartman built upon Conger's work and published three articles in peer-reviewed journals that identified 40 commonly used "sources of learning for leader development" (2008a, 2009b, & 2009). As a result, Allen and Hartman created one of the first comprehensive lists of leadership development teaching methods found in the literature (see also Avolio, 1999; Day, 2001; London, 2002; Yukl, 2002). Yet, through their research on students in ULE courses, no distinguishable leadership pedagogy emerged. Instead, they had a collection of sorts, identifying 40 sources of learning commonly used in leadership development programming for collegians.

This study builds upon the work of Conger (1992) and Allen and Hartman (2008a, 2008b, & 2009). Through a national survey investigating instructional strategy use in ULE this study aims to address these gaps in the literature and identify distinguishable or *signature* pedagogies within the discipline.

Literature Review

With the current state and growth of leadership studies, the need for research exploring the various strategies for teaching and learning in the discipline has never been greater. While there are several bodies of relevant literature that informed this study such as research on signature pedagogies and different types of instructional strategies, studies investigating the profile of instructional strategies used across the disciplines are still very limited. As well, few studies have looked at students' preferences of leadership development (e.g. Allen & Hartman, 2009). Further, the quality or use of specific instructional strategies such as reflection (Burbach, Matkin, & Fritz, 2004; Densten & Gray, 2001), service learning (Church, 2001), teambuilding (Moorhead & Griffin, 2009), research leadership (Jones & Kilburn, 2005), critical thinking (Jenkins & Cutchens, 2010), feedback (Day, 2001), self-assessments (Buschlen, 2009), role-play (Sogurno, 2003), simulation (Allen, 2008), assessment (Goertzen, 2009), and the case-in-point approach (Parks, 2005). Yet, the literature is sparse of exploration into the preferences of leadership educators. Gaining an understanding of leadership instructors' preferences at the most basic level is the critical first step to further inquiry within the discipline.

In order to provide relevant leadership education, it is important to carefully assess stakeholders responsible for delivering knowledge within the discipline. Allen and Hartman's (2008a, 2008b, 2009) conceptualization of Conger's (1992) framework of sources of learning in leadership development was used as the conceptual framework giving meaning and direction to the instructional strategy inquiry in this study. Further, this study was informed by Schulman's framework of signature pedagogies. These frameworks place the research within its intended context of collegiate teaching and learning within the leadership discipline, which begins with the exploration of the target population in order to identify and explore their teaching preferences.

Still, there is a growing but underdeveloped body of literature focused primarily on instructional strategies in leadership education, resulting in a gap in the literature related to best practices within the discipline. Further, the literature offers just a mix of research on various teaching and assessment strategies in leadership education. There is clearly a lack of research that specifically addresses this literature gap in the field of leadership education.

An examination of the literature related to signature pedagogies was also performed. The literature included a fair number of studies that investigated or identified signature pedagogies in other disciplines such as physics, history, and psychology. Yet, no studies looked at the emergence of signature pedagogies within the leadership discipline. The absence of research studies assessing signature pedagogies within the leadership discipline renders the current study vital for identifying them.

Methods

This section includes a summary of the methodology used in this study including the participants' demographics, type of research data, data collections procedures, and data analysis techniques.

Participant Demographics

The final sample of 303 instructors that teach academic credit-bearing undergraduate leadership studies courses to undergraduates is the largest reported study of this population in any area. The majority of participants were white (83.8%) and female (54.8%). Also, the majority of participants reported a graduate degree—doctorate (58.4%) or master's (38.6%)—as their highest degree attained with 60.2% reporting more than five years of teaching experience. Only 7.9% of the participants earned their advanced degree in leadership or leadership studies. Instead, degrees in organizational studies (13.9%), higher education (12.9%), college student affairs, development, or personnel (12.2%), and miscellaneous education-related degrees (11.6%) were more prominent. Participants' primary activity at their institutions was teaching (46.2%), student affairs (23.4%), or administration (19.5%)

Additionally, 95% of participants taught at a four-year public or private university or college. At these institutions, the academic college delivering the undergraduate leadership courses taught by the participants was usually Business (13.9%), Arts and Sciences (12.2%), or Education (11.6%). The specific academic department delivering these courses was Leadership (19.1%), Business, Management, or Organizational Studies (16.2%), or Student Affairs (14.9%). As well, more than half of all participants reported having leadership experiences while in college (50.2%) and 74.3% reported taking graduate coursework in leadership. Additional demographic data was collected such as the physical location of the institution and the type of leadership degrees offered for the purpose of adding to the profile of the study sample.

Type of Research Data

The analyzed data was collected from a web-based questionnaire through a national study. The questionnaire format of the web-based survey in this study implemented as many principles from Evans and Mathur (2005) and Dillman, Tortora, and Barker (1999) as possible .The questionnaire was modeled after the approach used by Djajalaksana (2011) to collect data identify the most frequently used instructional strategies for teaching Information Systems (IS) courses and identify possible signature pedagogies found within the IS discipline. In this study, the survey instrument was used to collect demographic information to profile the participants and identify the most frequently used instructional strategies for teaching leadership courses, to identify possible signature pedagogies in the leadership discipline, and asses the learning goals instructors teaching these courses emphasize most. Based on Shulman's (2005) description, signature pedagogies are those teaching methods that first come to a faculty member's mind when he or she is asked to identify the most dominant instructional strategies used to teach a specific discipline. The 24 instructional strategies included in the survey were derived chiefly from Allen and Hartman's Sources of Learning in Collegiate Leadership Development Programs (2009), reviewed by a panel of experts, and tested in a pilot study.

Data Collections Procedures

The primary data collection targeted thousands of leadership studies instructors through two primary sources from October 25, 2010 through December 1, 2010. The first source was the organizational memberships and/or databases of the following professional associations/organizations or their respective member interest groups: the International Leadership Association (ILA), NASPA (Student Affairs Professionals in Higher Education) Student Leadership Programs group), and/or the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs (NCLP). The researcher was granted written permission by these organizations to contact their members via e-mail to solicit participation in the study. The second source was a random sample of instructors drawn from the ILA Directory of Leadership Programs, a searchable directory of leadership programs available to all ILA members. While the first source was more of a "shotgun" approach--these organizations were most likely to have ideal participants as members—return rates for the 303 analyzed surveys for the ILA (7.84%), NCLP (10.04%), and NASPA (0.93%) were less than desirable. Conversely, the second and more directly targeted source from the ILA directory provided a 52.49% return rate. These data collection procedures provided the researcher with the best possible sources to generalize the population.

Data Analysis Techniques

Answering Research Question One involved creating a frequency tabulation and percentage of responses for the items on the survey that looked at instructional strategy use. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the mean and confidence intervals of the item responses indicating frequency of instructional strategies use.

Answering Research Question Two involved an explanatory factor analysis—specifically principal axis factoring (common factor analysis)—in order to identify the patterns of instructional strategies most often used in the leadership discipline. Cronbach's alpha was used to assess reliability. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the composite scores of each subgroup.

Findings

Instructional Strategy Use and Signature Pedagogies in Undergraduate Leadership Education

To answer research question one, frequency tabulations and percentage of responses for each of the 24 instructional strategies in Section 3 and Section 4 of the survey were analyzed. Overall, instructors teaching undergraduate leadership studies courses use varying forms of class discussion more so than any other instructional strategy (see Table 1). Specifically, *class discussion*, *interactive lecture/discussion* and *small group discussion* had the highest means scores and were used more frequently in 66-100% of class sessions than all other instructional strategies surveyed. Conversely, these instructors use skill-building instructional strategies such as *simulations*, *games*, and *role play activities* far less. Specifically, two out of three instructors surveyed used *class discussion* or *interactive lecture/discussion* in 66-100% of their class

sessions and 88.5% use them at least one third of the time. Further, 54.5% of instructors listed *class discussion* and 47.2% listed *interactive lecture/discussion* in their "Top 3" most used instructional strategies. At the same time, only 10.2% of instructors use *role play activities*, *games*, or *simulation* 66-100% of the time with only 20.1% using them at least 34% of the time. Also of note, only 11.2% of instructors use *quizzes* or *exams* 66-100% of the time with only 19.8% using them at least 34% of the time. Likewise, only 4.3%, 3.0%, and 2.6% of instructors, respectively, listed *simulation*, *games*, and *role play activities* in their "Top 3" (see Table 2). Additionally, only 4.3% of instructors listed *exams* in their "Top 3" and only 2.6% listed *quizzes*.

Table 1
Percentage of Instructors' Instructional Strategies Use in Class Sessions

Instructional Method	0-33% of class sessions	34-65% of class sessions	66-100% of class sessions
Class Discussion	2.0%	6.9%	91.1%
Interactive Lecture/Discussion	11.6%	21.8%	66.7%
Small Group Discussions	18.5%	29.7%	51.8%
Group Projects/Presentations	25.7%	30.7%	43.6%
Research Project/Presentation	38.3%	19.1%	42.6%
Reflective Journals	46.5%	15.8%	37.6%
Teambuilding	50.5%	19.5%	30.0%
Self-Assessments & Instruments	42.6%	29.0%	28.4%
Individual Leadership Development Plans	56.8%	16.5%	26.7%
Media Clips	47.9%	28.7%	23.4%
Lecture	60.7%	17.5%	21.8%
Icebreakers	65.7%	13.9%	20.5%
Service Learning	66.0%	14.2%	19.8%
Case Studies	61.4%	21.5%	17.2%
In-Class Short Writing	70.0%	12.9%	17.2%
Exams	76.9%	6.3%	16.8%
Story or Storytelling	71.9%	11.2%	16.8%
Interview of a Leader	70.6%	13.5%	15.8%
Student Peer Teaching	70.0%	14.5%	15.5%
Guest Speaker	71.3%	14.5%	14.2%

Instructional Method	0-33% of class sessions	34-65% of class sessions	66-100% of class sessions
Simulation	76.6%	10.2%	13.2%
Games	70.6%	16.5%	12.9%
Quizzes	80.2%	8.6%	11.2%
Role Play Activities	79.9%	9.9%	10.2%

Table 18

Instructor's "Top 3" Most Used Instructional Strategies

Method	*n*	% of Sample
Class Discussion	165	54.5
Interactive Lecture & Discussion	143	47.2
Group Projects & Presentations	87	28.7
Self-Assessments & Instruments	72	23.8
Small Group Discussion	72	23.8
Reflective Journals	64	21.1
Case Studies	34	11.2
Service Learning	34	11.2
Research Projects & Presentations	33	10.9
Media Clips	26	8.6
Individual Leadership Development Plans	20	6.6
Lecture	20	6.6
Teambuilding	20	6.6
Guest Speakers	18	5.9
Peer Teaching	14	4.6
Exams	13	4.3
Simulation	12	4.0
Other	10	3.4
Leader Interviews	10	3.3

Method	*n*	% of Sample
Games	9	3.0
Stories or Storytelling	9	3.0
Quizzes	8	2.6
Role Play	8	2.6
Ice Breakers	4	1.3
In-Class Short Writing	4	1.3

To answer research question two, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was applied to explore which of the 24 instructional strategies from the questionnaire related most closely to one another (see Table 3). Then, the groups or "factors" from this statistical procedure were analyzed to see which groups emerged as those used most frequently. It was anticipated in the current study that the instructional strategies would group together similarly to the "Four Approach" models of leadership development posited by Conger (1992) and Allen and Hartman (2009). The four approaches in these models were: a) Personal Growth, b) Conceptual Understanding, c) Feedback, and d) Skill Building. While Personal Growth and Skill Building were retained, Conceptual Understanding was split into three separate dimensions: *research/observation conceptual understanding, interactive conceptual understanding, and conceptual understanding & feedback*. Accordingly, the third dimension of Conceptual Understanding from this study, *conceptual understanding & feedback*, included instructional strategies found in both the Feedback and Conceptual Understanding approaches of the original models.

Table 3

Factor Loadings for Promax Oblique Seven-Factor Solution for the Items of the Web-Based Questionnaire

	Item	Factor Loading
	Factor 1: Skill Building	
17.	Role Play Activities.	.88
20.	Simulation.	.56
4.	Games.	.54
	Factor 2: Personal Growth	
15.	Reflective Journals.	.61
19.	Service Learning.	.49
7.	Icebreakers.	.41
9.	Individual Leadership Development Plans.	.39

	Item	Factor Loading
8.	In-Class Short Writing.	.37
	Factor 3: Conceptual Understanding & Feedback	
11.	Interview of a Leader.	.59
12.	Lecture.	.54
22.	Story or Storytelling.	.47
9.	Individual Leadership Development Plans.	.45
13.	Media Clips.	.42
16.	Research Project/Presentation.	.37
18.	Self-Assessments & Instruments.	.35
	Factor 4: Traditional Assessment	
3.	Exams.	.73
14.	Quizzes.	.72
	Factor 5: Research/Observation Conceptual Understanding	
5.	Group Projects/Presentations.	.59
16.	Research Project/Presentation.	.51
6.	Guest Speaker.	.44
	Factor 6: Interactive Conceptual Understanding	
21.	Small Group Discussions.	.77
23.	Student Peer Teaching.	.42
24.	Teambuilding.	.33
	Factor 7: Class Discussion	
2.	Class Discussion.	.70
10.	Interactive Lecture/Discussion.	.50

Note. N = 303 and α = .88

Of greatest interest to the researcher was the emergence of two new approaches not included in the original models. These dimensions are *Class Discussion* and *Traditional Assessment*. While *Traditional Assessment* (exams and quizzes) proved to be the least frequently used group of instructional strategies, *Class Discussion* was used more often than any other group. The *Class Discussion* group includes traditional class discussion where the instructor facilitates sustained conversation and/or question and answer segment with the entire class as well as interactive lecture/discussion where the instructor presents information in 10-20 minute time blocks with period of structured interaction/discussion in-between mini-lectures.

The analysis of the composite scores based on the mean of the items in each group resulted in findings similar to those from the initial frequency tabulations. Specifically, Class Discussion was group of instructional strategies instructors reporting using most (*M* = 4.16/5.00), while Skill Building (*M* = 1.79) and Traditional Assessment (*M* = 1.59) were the strategies instructors reported using least. The means of Research/Observation Conceptual Understanding (*M* = 2.78), Interactive Conceptual Understanding (*M* = 2.40), and Conceptual Understanding & Feedback (*M* = 2.24) were separated by only .38. Personal Growth (*M* = 2.24) was used slightly less than the three Conceptual Understanding groups and more so than Skill Building and Traditional Assessment.

Signature Pedagogies in Undergraduate Leadership Education

Until now, no one has investigated signature pedagogies in leadership education. According to Shulman (2005), signature pedagogies are the forms of instruction that leap to mind when we first think about the preparation of members of particular professions. They implicitly define what counts as knowledge in a field, how things become known, and how knowledge is analyzed, criticized, accepted, or discarded. One of the unique characteristics of leadership studies is that it transcends the disciplines and prepares students for all professions (Doh, 2003; Wren, Riggio, & Genovese, 2009; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). This question prompted the researcher in this study to ask: "What are the signature pedagogies used to prepare the future leaders of our organizations?"

The findings of this study suggest that class discussion whether in the form of true class discussion or interactive lecture and discussion are used most frequently. Perhaps, class discussion or "discussion pedagogy" is *the* signature pedagogy for undergraduate leadership education. Yet, the results of this study also indicate that instructional strategies that include group and individual projects and presentations as well as self-assessments and instruments, small group discussion, and reflective journaling are also used far more frequently than most others. Thus, the signature pedagogies in undergraduate leadership education might be a collection of class discussion, projects and presentations, self-assessments and instruments, and critical reflection.

Implications for Action

This study was undertaken with the vision that it could be pragmatically used by leadership educators and student affairs professionals. This exploratory study of instructional strategies and learning goals within the leadership discipline has numerous implications for practice for a variety of individuals who seek to advance teaching and learning leadership. As well, the findings of this study have implications for leadership studies and pedagogy. These findings can provide a foundation to develop workshops for leadership educators or enhance existing ones. Findings from this study may also catalyze ideas for innovations to the way leadership is taught or promote focused research on the use and best practices of the most frequently used instructional strategies.

Instructional Strategy Use

There ought to be workshops on best practices in leadership education. For example, while simulation, games and role play are used quite infrequently by the instructors surveyed in this study, perhaps they value it but do not know how to use it effectively. Workshops that emphasize best practices including the design of these activities, what high quality work looks like, and how to assess their effectiveness could prove extremely beneficial in the discipline.

Equally, if discussion-based pedagogies are the most frequently employed instructional strategy used by instructors teaching academic credit-bearing undergraduate leadership studies courses, it is imperative that this strategy is utilized effectively. Yet, a review of the research uncovered no publications that help faculty facilitate class discussion. Experts agree that leading a producing discussion is among the most challenging and demanding tasks of an instructor—and one of the most satisfying when things go well (Cross, 2002, p. 10). According to Davis (1993, p. 63):

> A good give-and-take discussion can produce unmatched learning experiences as students articulate their ideas, respond to their classmates' points, and develop skills in evaluating the evidence for their own and others' positions. Initiating and sustaining a lively productive discussion are among the most challenging of activities for an instructor.

Cross (2002) stresses that participation is a necessary but hardly sufficient condition for learning. Further, like leadership, leading productive discussion takes planning. Cross used a basketball metaphor to explain that just as a basketball coach goes into the game with a strategy, one flexible enough to change if conditions demand it but firm enough to reach the goal, a teacher must do likewise and have their eye on the objective. This is related to the leadership practice and application in meetings posited by Eich (2008). Meaningful discussions and episodes of difference might very well occur during class discussion; the most frequently reported instructional strategy from this study. However, what we do not know is whether leadership programs or their instructors are doing these things effectively. How will student affairs professionals such as leadership program directors or leadership studies faculty know they are being effective?

Resonating with the well-known research of Kouzes and Posner's (2007) "Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership," leaders must inspire a shared vision. Likewise, instructors teaching leadership to undergraduates must have a vision for the class discussion. Where will it go? What, specifically, do they want students to learn from each class meeting? Undergraduates in leadership studies courses aptly enjoy these courses. In fact, the unique pedagogical practices in undergraduate leadership courses are a magnet for many. Yet, instructors must—*must*—be purposeful in their pedagogical processes.

Conclusions

In closing, the findings from this study offer new knowledge into the instructional attributes—specifically from the instructor's point of view—of undergraduate academic credit-

bearing leadership studies courses. The purpose of this study was to identify the instructional strategies that are most frequently used by instructors when they teach courses in the leadership discipline, identify potential signature pedagogies within the discipline, and inform practitioners about alternative instructional strategies used to teach leadership courses. In the absence of any prior studies exploring instructional strategies from the educators' perspective, signature pedagogies in the leadership discipline or from an empirical perspective, the findings from this study provided insight in the current state of undergraduate leadership education and identified the instructional strategies most currently utilized.

The most widely used instructional strategies in leadership education were at one time considered limited to approaches that emphasized personal growth, conceptual understanding, feedback, and skill building. Yet, instructors teaching leadership education may succumb to modeling behaviors as much as they also emphasize active and experiential learning strategies. The text that encompassed Fink's (2003) taxonomy of significant learning and model of integrated course design was titled "Creating Significant Learning Experiences *across* the Disciplines." Fink stressed the importance of his perspective and its ability to transcend the disciplines. In the same way, leadership education is uniquely positioned to prepare future leaders across the disciplines. Leadership education is defined as learning activities and educational environments that are intended to enhanced and foster leadership abilities (Brungardt, 1996). Arguably, this definition is limited. Leadership education can and should do more than enhance and foster leadership abilities in a vacuum. More so, leadership education should be transcendental. Regardless of a student's major or career path, leadership education compliments any academic track and helps prepare students across the disciplines to be leaders in a global society. And it does so in educational environments that both model inclusiveness and utilize inclusive pedagogies.

At the largest level the researcher hopes that institutions, academic departments, and leadership programs will be able to use these findings to evaluate and plan leadership education in meaningful ways. Moreover, it is an aim of this research that future scholars implement workshops, conference sessions, and publications on best practices in instruction within the discipline. At the more scalable level, the researcher hopes these findings will be able to catalyze innovation in leadership education and stimulate new ideas in the classroom. At the very least, these findings should offer attributes that a variety of leadership educators have shared as effective for teaching and learning within the discipline. In addition, the findings from this study may facilitate the development of new leadership programming policies, provide direction for future research, and contribute to the existing body of literature. Incorporating ideas for the sake of quality and innovation in leadership education can offer opportunities for further assessment and research that can contribute both nationally and globally to instructor teaching and student learning.

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Testing the Impact of Transformational and Transactional Advising on Student Retention and Graduation Success

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Abstract

Four hundred and seven students were sampled to test the relationships between full range advising behaviors and both student retention and graduation success. Results indicated several significant relationships, and the best predictive model for advisees' intention to transfer and advisees' intention to graduate on time was inspirational motivation.

Introduction

The importance of quality academic advising in higher education is supported by the past decade of higher education literature on the subject (Abernathy & Engelland, 2001; Gordon, Habley, & Grites, 2008; Light, 2004; Schreiner & Anderson, 2005). However, the lack of scholarship in this area also is well documented (Creamer, 2000; Nadler & Simerly, 2006; Saving & Keim, 1998). Because academic advising is able to provide opportunities to ensure student success and help students transition into careers (Winston, Miller, Ender, & Grites, 1984), continued research is warranted. Focused testing of the advisor-advisee relationship and its outcomes are necessary to effectively guide advising efforts (Barbuto, Story, Fritz, & Schinstock, in press).

Numerous variables have been tested with the advisor-advisee experience, for example, student satisfaction (Fielstein & Lammers, 1992), retention (Shields, 1994), trust (Nadler & Simerly, 2006), and morale (Wilder, 1981). Despite this research, studies testing advisor behavior and student outcomes are too few (Creamer & Scott, 2000). Drawing from the field of leadership, a new form of academic advising, full range advising (Barbuto, Story, Fritz, & Schinstock, 2008), reported positive relationships with students' self-ratings of extra-effort, satisfaction, and advisor satisfaction (Barbuto et al., in press).

Perhaps there are no more important outcomes to study academic advising than with its relationship to retention outcomes. Retention is the proportion of students who remain or graduate from an institution after enrolling (Crosling, Thomas, & Heagney, 2008). From 2000 to 2006, the U.S. graduation rate, measured by students graduating with a degree from a college or university within six years, was only 56.4% (Raisman, 2008). Taking extra time to graduate, transferring to different institutions, and simply forgoing post-secondary education before graduation have financial consequences. Retention should be considered the single most

important factor in reducing the cost of post-secondary education for students and their families (Sullivan, 2010).

Academic advising, as part of the student-faculty interaction, is considered a benchmark of effective educational practices by the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE, 2010). Several studies have reported that advising can improve student retention (Crockett, 1979; Wilder, 1981; Metzner, 1989).

The significance of student retention and timely graduation in higher education, along with the recent development of full range advising, support the exploration of their relationships. The purpose of this study is to test the relationships between full range advising and students' intentions to graduate from their respective institutions, their intentions to graduate on time, and their intentions to transfer.

Literature Review

Full Range Advising

Contrasting the leader-follower relationship with the advisor-student relationship, it makes sense to consider ways of capitalizing on what is known in the leadership field to enhance advising. The full range leadership model has been widely studied; it is comprised of three groups of behaviors, laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational. Transformational leadership research has demonstrated consistent, positive relationships between its use and most positive interpersonal and organizational outcomes – including extra-effort, satisfaction, and perceived effectiveness (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivsubramaniam, 1996). These results have been consistent across populations, settings, and contexts (Bass, 1996), and the same results were found in full range advising (Barbuto et al., in press).

Barbuto, Story, Fritz, and Schinstock (2008) argued that advisors that use more transformational behaviors are likely to bring about increases in positive student outcomes. Leaders operate across three groups (laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational), but operate decidedly more in one of the groups, and consequently, exhibit the associated behaviors. Laissez-faire (hands-off leadership) is best characterized as non-transacting. Followers of laissez-faire leaders perceive their leaders are ineffective at their jobs (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transactional behaviors include: management-by-exception-passive (leaders deal with problems after they occur); management by exception-active (leader allows followers little latitude); and contingent reward (leader creates clear mutual expectations and exchanges). Followers of transactional leaders have reported inconsistent relationships with positive organizational outcomes. Contingent rewards behaviors are normally associated positively to most positive organizational outcomes while active and passive management by exception behaviors are associated with negative organizational outcomes (Lowe et al., 1996). Transformational behaviors include: individualized consideration (considerate leader); intellectual stimulation (leader encourages independent thought); inspirational motivation (leader excites followers about the future); and idealized influence (leader as role model). Followers of transformational leaders feel trust, admiration, respect, loyalty towards the leader, are motivated to perform extra-role behaviors, are highly satisfied, and perceive that the organization they work for is highly

effective (Lowe et al., 1996). The full range leadership construct is applied to academic advising with similar tenants and expectations evident in the literature (Barbuto et al., 2008).

Full Range Advising Behaviors

The conceptualization of full range advising (Barbuto et al., 2008) described advisor behaviors based on the full range leadership model. Laissez-faire advising is characterized as behaviors that demonstrate to the advisee that they are on their own, and that the advisor is not available to help the advisee. Management-by-exception passive advising is characterized by advisors' who would not take action until after students' had made a mistake and it was brought to the advisors' attention. Management-by-exception active would be described as advisors who would actively search for mistakes and seek to enforce university policies and rules. The last transactional advising behavior, contingent reward, is characterized by advisors who would reward advisees for achieving desired outcomes. Inspirational motivation advising is conceptualized as advisors who would create compelling visions for advisees, and the advisors would use this vision to direct advising. Intellectually stimulating advisors would challenge their advisees to question assumptions and to be creative and innovative in solving problems. Individualized consideration behaviors are characterized by advisors who would identify the needs and aspirations of each advisee and who might develop individualized programs to help advisees. Idealized influence is conceptualized as advising that encourages student development and attempts to create positive differences in advisees' lives. Idealized influence can be further broken down into behaviors and attributes (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Idealized influence behaviors would be described by advisees as actions that demonstrate idealized influence. Idealized influence attributes would be described by advisees as attitudes or traits that demonstrate advisors' idealized influence.

Outcomes

The graduation rate at American four-year, post-secondary institutions was 55.9% for students starting in 2002 (Knapp, Kelly-Reid, & Ginder, 2010). Low graduation rates are spurring a great deal of attention, with major initiatives and funding to improve graduation rates being backed by the both Federal and state governments (Nelson, 2010) and major foundations (Gonzalez, 2011). Anecdotal evidence linking advising and increased graduation rates (Ensign, 2010) provides support for exploring the links between full range advising and advisees' graduation timelines.

Research on the impact of advising reported that high-quality advising positively influenced retention, and suggested that higher-quality advising should be considered as a strategy to reduce freshman attrition (Metzner, 1989). McArthur (2005) attributed, in part, a 15% increase in student retention over a three-year period to new advising initiatives. More research linking academic advising and retention is needed (McGillin, 2000). Students' intentions to stay at their current universities and their intentions to transfer are outcome variables that can be used to help predict the success of full range advising.

Full Range Advising and Outcomes

The extensive research on full range leadership provides a solid framework for studying the outcome variables chosen for this study. Prior research on organizational commitment, nurses' intention to leave their jobs, and organizational citizenship behavior are used to predict advisees' intention to graduate from their respective institution and their intention to transfer. Objective performance of followers, follower motivation, personal initiative, and self-efficacy are used to predict how full range advising will affect advisees' intention to graduate on time.

Bono and Judge (2003) reported a significant correlation between transformational leadership and organizational commitment of followers. Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995) reported that transformational leadership and contingent rewards were modestly associated with reduced levels of nurses' intentions to leave their job, while management-by-exception had a significantly weaker association with nurses' intentions to leave their job. They also reported that transformational leadership and contingent reward had a strong positive correlation with employees' affective commitment to the organization, and management-by-exception was negatively correlated with affective commitment to the organization. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) reported that contingent reward behavior was positively correlated with organizational citizenship behavior, specifically a willingness to tolerate less than ideal circumstances. Pillai and Williams (2004) reported that transformational leaders were associated with an increase in followers' internalized commitment to the organization. In a study conducted in a post-secondary athletic department, Kent and Chelladurai (2001) reported that transformational leadership was significantly and positively correlated with commitment to the organization.

Based on these studies, we expected that transformational leadership and contingent reward would have a positive correlation with advisees' intention to stay at their particular institution and reduce the advisees' transfer intentions. However, both active and passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire behaviors would have the opposite effect.

H1a: Transformational leadership behavior and contingent reward behavior will be positively correlated with advisees' intention to stay and negatively correlated with advisees' intention to transfer.

H1b: Management-by-exception (both passive and active) and laissez-faire behaviors will not be correlated or will be negatively correlated with advisees' intention to stay and will not be correlated or will be positively correlated with intention to transfer.

Military leaders trained in transformational leadership had a more positive impact than the control group leaders who received eclectic leadership training in measured objective performance of indirect followers (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). A study conducted by Yammarino, Spangler, and Bass (1993) reported that naval officers' transformational leadership was positively correlated to military performance, a combination score of both objective performances factors and evaluations. Passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire leadership were negatively correlated with military performance, while passive management-by-exception also was negatively correlated with academic performance. Bass, Avolio, Jung, and Berson (2003) conducted a study using the full-range leadership model to predict, among several outcomes, performance of platoons in a combat exercise as rated by multiple highly-trained field observers. This quasi-objective performance measure was positively correlated with both

transformational leadership and transactional contingent reward ratings, and negatively correlated with passive-avoidance. The passive-avoidance consisted of ratings of passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire, while transactional contingent rewards consisted of both contingent rewards and active management-by-exception.

Bono and Judge (2003) reported that followers of transformational leaders believed that their work was more important and self-congruent, that is more congruent with their own values and interests. Gullo and Gerstle (2004) reported that the transformational behaviors of middle-level nurses can enhance staff nurses' sense of empowerment. Pillai and Williams (2004) reported that transformational leaders increased follower self-efficacy. The meta-analysis conducted by Judge and Piccolo (2004) reported several significant correlations. Transformational leadership and contingent rewards were both positively correlated with follower motivation, while management-by-exception active had a weak, positive correlation with follower motivation. Management-by-exception-passive was negatively correlated with follower motivation, while laissez-faire leadership had no significant correlation with follower motivation. Wang and Howell (2010) reported that transformational leadership was significantly and positively correlated with personal initiative.

The correlations among the three groups of full-range leadership behaviors with self-efficacy, self-congruency, follower motivation, and objective performance lead to the following hypotheses.

H2a: Transformational leadership and contingent reward behavior will be positively correlated with advisees' intention to graduate on time.

H2b: Active management-by-exception will be positively, but weakly, correlated with advisees' intention to graduate on time.

H2c: Passive - management-by-exception and laissez-faire behaviors will not be correlated or will be negatively correlated with advisees' intention to graduate on time.

Method

The methods in this study replicated those of a prior study (Barbuto et al., in press), except for the outcome variables.

Subjects

The student population used for this sample consisted of 1,017 students from a land-grant university in the Midwest region of the U.S. Responses were received from 407 (40%) students that were solicited by their advisors to anonymously complete an online questionnaire. Sixty-nine percent (281) of the advisees were women. Seventy-five (305) percent were earning bachelors degrees, 13% (53) were earning masters degrees, and only 2% (8) were earning doctoral degrees. Out of the complete sample, 25.2 % (103) of the students were majoring in social sciences--12% (50) in elementary education, 7.3% (29) in middle level education, and 5.9% (24) in family and consumer sciences; 22% (89) were majoring in life sciences--7.7% (31)

in biochemistry, 4.9% (20) in biological sciences engineering, 4.7% (19) in biology, and 4.7% (19) in entomology. The remaining 52.8% (216) were in programs spanning 43 majors.

Procedure

Data were collected through an intact group of advisors as part of a semester-long transformational advising training seminar. Advisors were asked to distribute the link to an online student survey to their entire advisee roster. Advisors were instructed not to select or de-select advisees for participation so as to avoid potential response bias. Instruments were coded to protect the identities of raters. Data were processed electronically using Survey Monkey, which generated the data set automatically. Participants and their raters were provided letters detailing their participation and rights, which included the right to withdraw at any time during the research process consistent with Institutional Review Board guidelines for research on human subjects. None of the participants asked to withdraw from the study. Thirty-seven of the eligible 50 advisors that signed up for the workshop participated in the study. This high participation rate (74%) indicates that participants were interested in the information.

Instruments

Full Range Advisor behavior. Advisor behaviors were measured using an adapted version of Bass and Avolio's (1995) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5x-Short. The MLQ was developed and validated to measure transactional and transformational leadership behaviors (Bass, 1985). It has been updated periodically and the most recent version of this instrument was used in this study as a basis for measuring advising behaviors. The MLQ has been used in hundreds of studies with varied populations and has been consistently found to be both reliable and valid for predicting positive organizational and interpersonal outcomes in followers (Lowe at al, 1996). The items from the MLQ were re-worded for an advising context. For example: "The person I am rating fails to interfere until problems become serious" to "My advisor fails to interfere until advising problems become serious". The four scales used to measure transformational advising were (a) idealized influence – behavior (my advisor talks about their most important values and beliefs, $\alpha = .82$), (b) idealized influence – attributes ($\alpha = .78$), (c) inspirational motivation (my advisor talks optimistically about my future, $\alpha=. 89$), (d) intellectual stimulation (my advisor re-examines assumptions to question whether they are appropriate, $\alpha=.81$), and (e) individualized consideration (my advisor spends time teaching and coaching me, $\alpha= .87$). The three scales measuring transactional advising were (a) contingent rewards (my advisor provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts, $\alpha=. 79$), (b) active management by exception (my advisor focuses' attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards, $\alpha= .79$), and (c) passive management by exception (my advisor fails to interfere until advising problems become serious, $\alpha=. 64$). Laissez-faire was measured by two questions of the MLQ (my advisor avoids getting involved when important advising issues arise, $\alpha=.64$).

Outcomes. Three outcomes were measured in this study, advisees' intention to transfer to another institution, advisees' intention to graduate from their respective institutions, and advisees intention to graduate on time. Outcomes were measured with three single-item responses: (a) I plan to transfer to another school, (b) I plan to graduate from this university, and (c) I will graduate on time.

All subscales and outcomes were measured on a five-point, Likert-type scale. The full range advising subscales were anchored by *not at all* (0) to *frequently, if not always* (4), and the outcome items were anchored similarly but from 1 to 5.

Analysis

Results of this study were analyzed using SPSS - PC. Analysis of the MLQ of student raters' report began by calculating the subscales of laissez-faire, management by exception passive, management by exception active, contingent rewards, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, idealized influence behaviors and idealized influence attributes. Simple statistics and correlations were calculated ($p<.05$) to interpret the data and test the hypothesized relationships. Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test the best predictive model for the significant findings.

Results

We calculated simple statistics and provided them for all variables tested in this study. Of the nine full range behaviors tested, advisors, as perceived by their advisees, demonstrated inspirational motivation (m=17.15; 3.39 sd) more than the others. The lowest observed transformational advising behavior was idealized influence - behavior (m=11.82; 2.71 sd). The lowest observed full range advising behavior was laissez-faire (m=5.43; 2.11 sd). Transformational advising behaviors, in general, were observed more than transactional advising behaviors. All means and standard deviations are calculated and reported (Table 1).

All correlations are calculated and reported (Table 1). Several significant correlations exist between full range leadership behaviors and the outcome variables. Positive significant relationships were found between advisees' intention to graduate from their respective institution and idealized influence - attributes ($r=.10$, $p<.05$), inspirational motivation ($r=.16$, $p<.01$), and individualized consideration ($r=.10$, $p<.05$). A negative significant relationship was found between intention to transfer and inspirational motivation ($r=-.11$, $p<.05$). There were several positive significant relationships found between full range advising behaviors and intention to graduate on time: idealized influence - behaviors ($r=.17$, $p<.01$), idealized influence - attributes ($r=.27$, $p<.01$), intellectual stimulation ($r=.17$, $p<.01$), inspirational motivation ($r=.30$, $p<.01$), individualized consideration ($r=.25$, $p<.01$), and contingent rewards ($r=.26$, $p<.01$). Negative significant relationships were found between advisees' intention to graduate on time and passive management-by-exception ($r=-.16$, $p<.01$) and laissez-faire ($r=-.21$, $p<.01$).

For each of the three outcome variables, the full range advising behaviors were entered into step-wise hierarchical models to help determine the best predictive model. Inspirational motivation explained 8.5% of the variance for advisees' responses in intention to graduate on time (see Table 2). Though idealized influence, both behaviors and attributes, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent rewards, and passive management-by-exception were all significantly correlated with advisees' intention to graduate on time, the behaviors did not significantly add to the predictive model.

Inspirational motivation explained 1.2% of the variance for advisees' intention to transfer, and inspirational motivation was the only full range behavior correlated with intention

to transfer (see Table 3). The relationship was negative, suggesting that inspirational motivation negatively impacted advisees' intention to transfer. The predictive model for advisees' intention to graduate from their respective institution did not produce significant results.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Idealized Influence – behavior	11.82	2.72	(.82)											
2. Idealized Influence – attributed	16.61	3.56	.55**	(.78)										
3. Intellectual Stimulation	15.03	3.60	.56**	.75**	(.81)									
4. Inspirational Motivation	17.15	3.39	.50**	.88**	.72**	(.89)								
5. Individualized Consideration	16.94	3.53	.53**	.85**	.76**	.83**	(.87)							
6. Contingent Rewards	16.47	3.19	.58**	.83**	.76**	.84**	.79**	(.79)						
7. Active MBE	9.76	3.67	.21**	.13**	.14**	.09	.08	.20**	(.79)					
8. Passive MBE	6.27	2.64	-.07	-.39**	-.33	-.40**	-.45**	-.37**	.06	(.64)				
9. Laissez-Faire	5.43	2.11	-.43**	-.74**	-.76**	-.75**	-.81**	-.70**	.06	.40**	(.64)			
10. Intention to graduate	4.88	.48	*-.01*	*.10**	*.08*	*.16***	*.10**	*.07*	*-.04*	*-.07*	*.09*	(1)		
11. Intention to transfer	1.25	.73	*.03*	*-.05*	*-.04*	*-.11**	*-.07*	*-.07*	*-.02*	*-.01*	*-.07*	-.67**	(1)	
12. Intention to graduate on time	4.00	1.23	*.17***	*.27***	*.17***	*.30***	*.25***	*.26***	*.01*	*-.16***	*-.21***	. 22**	-.23**	(1)

Note. *p<.05. **p<.01. MBE = Management by Exception. Hypothesized relationships in *italics.*

Table 2

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Graduating On Time

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Step 1			
Inspirational Motivation	.102	.018	.292**

Note. R^2 = .085 for Step 1
**p<.01

Table 3

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Intention to Transfer

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Step 1			
Inspirational Motivation	-.023	-.011	.-108*

Note. R^2 = .012 for Step 1
*p<.05

Discussion

Full range advising and the outcome variables in this study, advisees' intention to graduate on time, intention to graduate from their respective institutions, and intention to t had several significant correlations as hypothesized (Table 4).

As hypothesized, a negative significant relationship was found between advisors' p management-by-exception and advisees' intention to graduate on time. Advisors who wai advisees to make mistakes before intervening are more likely to have students who believe will not graduate on time. Advisors should avoid passive management-by-exception to en students to graduate on time.

A negative significant relationship was found between advisors' laissez-faire behav and advisees' intention to graduate on time. Advisors who avoid helping advisees through advising process are likely to have students who believe they will not graduate on time. Advisors should avoid laissez-faire behaviors in order to help students graduate on time.

A positive significant relationship was found between advisors' contingent reward behaviors and advisees' intention to graduate on time. Advisors who setup reward system positive exchanges, and provide recognition for advisees who meet specified criteria may l to help students graduate on time. Advisors can use contingent reward to help students gr on time; however, past leadership studies have shown that contingent rewards behaviors ar likely to encourage followers to exceed expectations (Lowe et al., 1996).

A positive significant relationship was found between advisors' idealized influence behaviors and advisees' intentions to graduate on time. This suggests that advisors behavi that help them be seen as role models, demonstrating determination, persistence, and perha ethical and moral behaviors, can help students graduate on time. Perhaps the trust advisor helps advisees respect and value their advisors and the directions they offer.

A positive significant relationship between advisors' idealized influence attributes intention to graduate on time also suggests that advisors who earn the trust and admiration their advisees can help them graduate on time. A positive significant relationship also was between advisors idealized influence attributes and intention to graduate from their respect institutions. Advisors attributed with persistence and determination may reduce the advise intention to leave institutions.

A positive significant relationship was found between intellectual stimulation and intention to graduate on time. Advisors who are able to help their advisees challenge the s quo and who encourage imagination are more likely to have advisees who intend to gradua time. Perhaps advisors who help advisees think for themselves encourage creative solutio enable students to see themselves graduating on time.

A positive significant relationship was found between advisors' individualized consideration and both advisees' intention to graduate on time and intention to graduate at respective institution. Advisors who take into account the individual needs of each advise be more likely to help students earn a timely graduation, while at the same time, increasing likelihood that students will stay at their respective schools.

A significant relationship was found between inspirational motivation and all three outcome variables. Advisors who demonstrate the ability to form an attractive vision for the future and who can help advisees see the vision as attainable may be able to help advisees graduate on time, increase advisees' intention to graduate from their current institution, and decrease advisees' intention to transfer. Advisors who can help advisees understand how their actions fit within the advisees' own needs and project a path for the future may help advisees' graduate on time. Perhaps advisors who can help advisees picture their futures and who align the required tasks with their future goals help advisees see themselves finishing their degrees and increase advisees' intention to stay at their current institution.

All four transformational advising criteria were significantly correlated with advisees' intention to graduate on time. This would suggest that advisors should focus on transformational advising to increase students' beliefs that they will graduate on time. However, individualized consideration and inspirational motivation were the only two full range advising behaviors that were linked to advisees' intention to graduate from their respective institutions. This suggests that to keep students in schools, advisors should try to develop inspirational motivation and individualized consideration behaviors. Finally, to decrease advisees' intention to transfer, advisors should demonstrate inspirational motivation.

Advisors' inspirational motivation accounted for nearly 9% of advisees' intention to graduate on time. Inspirational motivation accounted for just over 1% of the advisees' intentions to transfer. Both of these models, though accounting for relatively small variance in student responses, do suggest that advisors may have some impact on advisees' intentions to graduate on time and reduce advisees' intentions to transfer. Advisors who can help advisees visualize their futures may be able to help students graduate on time and prevent students from transferring to other schools.

Table 4

Hypotheses and Results

Variable	I plan to transfer to another school	I plan to graduate from this university	I will graduate on time
13. Idealized Influence-behavior	Negative	Positive	*Positive***
14. Idealized Influence-attributed	Negative	*Positive**	*Positive***
15. Intellectual Stimulation	Negative	Positive	*Positive***
16. Inspirational Motivation	*Negative***	*Positive***	*Positive***
17. Individualized Consideration	Negative	*Positive**	*Positive***
18. Contingent Rewards	Negative	Positive	*Positive***
19. Active MBE	Positive or not at all	Negative or not at all	*Positive but weak*
20. Passive MBE	Positive or not at all	Negative or not at all	*Negative or not at all***
21. Laissez-Faire	Positive or not at all	Negative or not at all	*Negative or not at all***

Note. *p<.05. **p<.01. MBE = Management by Exception. Correctly hypothesized relationships in *italics*.

Limitations and future research

Single method variance increased the strength of the correlation reported in this study. The correlations reported in this study were collected using a single source, increasing their strength. The reliabilities of the laissez-faire and passive management-by-exception were weak. The interpretations of laissez-faire behaviors and passive management-by-exception should be considered cautiously. Also the generally weak correlations among the full range advising subscales and the outcome variables also should be considered with caution before any practical implementation of the model. The psychometric properties of contextually-derived measure of full range advising could also be improved through refinements of the measure.

The outcome variables in this research were recorded as advisees' subjective beliefs about graduating on time, their intention to transfer, and their intention to graduate from their respective institution. Measuring these outcomes objectively could give stronger evidence supporting the direct link between these outcomes and full range advising. Also, many factors can contribute to students' intention to transfer, graduate on time, and staying at their respective institutions. It may be appropriate to measure other outcome variables with full range advising, for example, advisees' intention to change majors, classes advisees will take that won't count toward graduation, GPA at graduation, perceived ability to find internships, perception of career preparedness, and overall good-will towards their universities.

The importance of academic advising is more evident now than ever before, however the strategies for developing advisers are still lacking (Habley, 2004). Capitalizing on the possibilities of effective advising can have dramatic impacts on the student experience and needs further attention. The success of full range leadership and the current research on full range advising warrant further exploration of its potential.

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International Leadership Skill Development: Effective Student-centered Instruction within an International Context

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Abstract

To effectively lead within today's global setting it is imperative that we include international leadership skills within the leadership development process. Using student-centered instruction, three faculty collaborated to develop a course and international leadership immersion experience for students. Implications include integrating global perspectives into leadership education and integrating student-centered learning more effectively.

Utilizing an Innovative Curricular Model to Teach Leadership in the International Environment

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Abstract

This practice paper describes a unique new curricular model that is being used to teach organizational leadership in the international environment. The growth and demand for higher education overseas has created a unique opportunity to educate a new generation of leaders. Best practices from this model can inform other institutional endeavors in Leadership Studies and related disciplines domestically, virtually, and internationally.

Preparing Tomorrow's Leaders for a Global World through Study Abroad Experiences

John Montgomery & Jill Arensdorf, Ph.D.
Fort Hays State University

Abstract

No one could argue with the fact that our world is changing at an exponentially rapid pace. As leadership educators, it is our role to prepare students for change in the global workplace and communities. This session will focus on one university's experiences taking leadership students abroad and using unique activities/discussions to study leadership. Sample activities, syllabi, and personal testimonies will be shared.