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DISCOVERING THE KEYS TO INNOVATION IN LEADERSHIP EDUCATION

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Internal Communication and Morale in a Natural Resources Public Organization

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Introduction & Literature Review

Effects of Internal Communications in Organizations

Given the importance of communication in leadership development (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002), it is important to understand how communication fits into the organizational process that future leaders will occupy. This importance of communication was illustrated in Ricketts and Rudd's model for developing formal leadership education curriculum. While communication is also important for this model, they also emphasized intrapersonal and interpersonal relations were also significant components of the model.

Internal communications are important to organizations. Schein (2010) considered a "commitment to full and open task-relevant communication" (p. 369) a central component of learning organizations. Organization members have to be able to communicate with each other effectively in order for the organization to operate effectively and efficiently (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Schein, 2010).

This ability to communicate and share information is considered a key component of organizational success (Clifton et al., 2004; Smith, 2008). Kraut, Fish, Root, and Chalfonte (1990) stated that informal communications are necessary for coordination in organizations. Members of an organization need to use a common language in order to communicate effectively and reduce uncertainty and anxiety within the organization, which helps the organization work toward its goals (Schein, 2010).

In the case of internal communications, it is perception of communication effectiveness that matters. Taylor (1984) suggested that employee perceptions of internal communications were more important than objective measures of communication quality. If there is not an environment of open communications, individuals might resist sharing critical information, adversely affecting the organization (Bolman & Deal, 2008).

Along with these broader impacts on the organization, internal communications can be particularly important to organizational leaders. Pichault (1993; as cited in Bolman & Deal, 2008) stated understanding of an organization's internal communication structure is necessary to understand the internal politics of the organization. Bolman and Deal (2008) consider it necessary for leaders to be effective politically within organizations.

Another aspect of internal communications that is important to organizational leaders is the effects of what they are communicating to other employees. Leaders' own actions within an organization communicate their expectations for employees (Moore, 1995). Communication behaviors are a significant component of how leaders embed and transmit organizational culture (Schein, 2010). Internal communications also offer an avenue for organizations' leaders to "communicate their strong belief in people" (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 362) to improve morale.

Affecting Internal Communications of Organizations

Internal communications are, of course, not static within organizations. Boyle and Kochinda (2004) found that an intervention targeted toward collaborative communication was able to improve the communication skills of leaders, with the leaders also reporting that their leadership skills improved at the same time. The intervention lasted 23.5 hours, spread out over an 8-month time period in 2- to 4-hour sessions.

Wood (1999) made suggestions to improve internal communications of organizations: ensure that communications are two-way, use face-to-face communication when practical, address the clarity of communications, "understand how your employees listen" (p. 148), and create a climate of trust so information can be shared freely.

Beyond recommendations for specific actions, such as those made by Wood (1999), organizational structure can affect internal communications (McPhee, 1985). It is important to understand the effects of organizational structure on internal communications because the advent of written communications has allowed the effects of structure to last longer and reach further (McPhee, 1985). How focused organizations are on structure versus achievement can affect the impact of internal communications. Garnett, Marlowe, and Pandey (2008) found that increasing communications in organizations focused on achievement increased performance. On the other hand, increasing communications in organizations focused on structure did not improve performance.

The structure that is in place can improve or hurt communications through the implicit and explicit limitations made on what individuals do and how they interact with each other (McPhee, 1985). Tourish and Robson (2006) stated that formal and informal mechanisms were in place to limit critical upward communications (CUC) within organizations. Leaders create reasons why CUC is not occurring, such as justification that things are going well or deferring blame to non-leaders (Tourish & Robson, 2006). Non-leaders, in turn, justify not providing CUC by stating leaders do not really want the feedback and not want to be punished for CUC (Tourish & Robson, 2006). Non-leaders may also not engage in CUC because they want to please leaders (McPhee, 1985). Tourish and Robson recommended increasing informal communications between members of different levels of the organization to improve CUC.

This recommendation to increase informal communications within organizations is supported by other research. Krackhardt and Stern (1988) stated the friendships, a type of informal

communication, do not naturally occur between organizational units, but these between-unit friendships can have a positive benefit in the event of organizational crises. For organizations that depend on different units to work together, friendships that cross between the units benefit the organization. Similarly, Hinds and Mortenson (2005) found that spontaneous communications, another type of informal and unplanned communication between organizational members, mediated the conflicts caused because of geographically distributed units in an organization. Spontaneous communications reduced conflict because it improved shared identity and shared context of organizational members in the different units. If the organization's members have a shared identity, the organization can be more confident in its actions (de Chernatony, 2001).

Creating shared vision and identity are important components of transformational leadership (Bass, 1990). Bass reported that the outcomes of transformational leadership lead to higher outcomes from the leaders themselves and the employees they oversee. An important consideration in the development of transformational leaders is that the employees will emulate leaders: if the leader exhibits transformational qualities, the employees will be more likely to exhibit transformational qualities, leading to more transformational leadership within the organization (Bass, 1990). As for the role of creating shared vision in leadership education, Ricketts and Rudd's (2002) dimension of interpersonal relations in their model for developing formal leadership education curriculum includes shared vision as a part of that dimension.

Along with these examples of the benefits of informal communications between different organizational units, there is work showing that organizational members perceive benefits of informal communications. Johnson, Donohue, Atkin, and Johnson (1994) reported differences between employee perceptions of formal and informal communications. Compared to formal communication, informal communications were reported as more salient and more useful, but formal communications were evaluated more highly in terms of comprehension and credibility. Organizational members are adopting technology to reduce communication formality. Cameron and Webster (2005) found that instant messaging was being adopted because organizational members viewed other communication channels, such as the telephone, as too formal. Instant messaging was also viewed as more private when compared to conversations that could be heard by others nearby.

Internal Communications & Morale

Morale affects organizational success. Parker et al. (2003) showed that overall work climate, which morale is a component of (Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1976), is related to individual attitudes and performance. The importance of employee morale is also evident in the fact that employees are often the face of organizations because they are the ones interacting with members of the public (Franzen & Moriarty, 2009). The public can perceive when employees are not satisfied (Schneider & Bowen, 1985). The organization benefits from satisfied employees through the positive interactions the employees have with members of the public (Franzen & Moriarty, 2009).

Organizational climate and internal communications are related. Hinds and Mortenson's (2005) work showing that spontaneous communication mediated conflict through increasing shared identity and context is an example of this. Carrière and Bourque (2009) showed the communication satisfaction mediated the relationship between communication practices and organizational satisfaction. Similarly, Gould-Williams (2007) showed negative communication exchanges increased stress, reduced motivation, and increased employee attrition, whereas positive exchanges were linked to improved attitudes and improved the likelihood that employees were engaged in work-related activities that benefited the organization without providing immediate benefits to the employees.

Quality of information being shared has been shown to be a predictor for an employee's trust in coworkers and leaders (Thomas, Zolin, & Hartman, 2009). The researchers stated that the relationship between trust and communications was complex because trust is necessary for open communications to be possible, and if employees do not perceive open communications within the organization, it could hurt their trust in the organization. This effect of the organizational environment on internal communications is evident in work by Smith (2008), who showed that defensive environments hindered internal communications, while supportive environments improved internal communications.

Public Organizations

Public organizations are funded by the public and mandated through government and political processes (Moore, 1995). Public organizations are legitimized by providing public value, which occurs when the public is satisfied with the product or service provided by the organization (Hoggett, 2006; Moore, 1995). Because of accountability through the political process, public organizations need to be successful in creating public value to ensure they continue to be supported (Butler & Collins, 1995).

Public organizations can face more difficulties than private organizations because public organizations are generally considered more complicated. Because public organizations depend on political support, the first of these complications is that public organizations must have approval from everyone, not only those who are immediately served by the organization (Hoggett, 2006; Moore, 1995). Second, public organizations often have multiple roles and identities (Hoggett, 2006; Wæraas, 2008). Public organizations risk the losing credibility if they do not represent the multiplicity of their roles (Wæraas, 2010). Given that organizations are more effective when members have a shared identity (de Chernatony, 2001; Hinds & Mortenson, 2005; Schein, 2010), having multiple roles could hinder public organizations' ability to create this shared identity.

Purpose & Hypotheses

Internal communications are important for organizational success because they help organizations operate more effectively and efficiently, help organizations avoid and deal with difficulties, and are a central component of how leaders share expectations and organizational

culture (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Clifton et al., 2004; Schein, 2010). Internal communications, though, can vary between organizations based on the structure of the organization and organizational climate (Krackhardt & Stern, 1988; McPhee, 1985; Tourish & Robson, 2006). With work showing the importance of communications for leadership development (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002) and the ability improved communication skills to improve leadership skills (Boyle & Kochinda, 2004), it is important to understand how perceptions of communication interact with perceptions of the organization and morale within the organization. This study seeks to help understand the implications of internal communications in the broader environment of the organization.

The organization in this study was a state public organization with geographically distributed units. The purpose of this study was to address employee perceptions of the internal communications, awareness of issues within the organization, organization, and employee morale. Based on the literature, four hypotheses were tested:

- H₁: A positive relationship exists between perceptions of internal communications and perceptions of the organization.
- H₂: A positive relationship exists between perceptions of internal communications and perceptions of morale.
- H₃: A positive relationship exists between perceptions of awareness of issues within the organization and perceptions of the organization.
- H₄: A positive relationship exists between perceptions of awareness of issues within the organization and perceptions of morale.

Methods

Survey methodology was used for this study. The target population for the study was all full-time employees of the organization ($N = 1175$). The director of the organization sent the employees an e-mail soliciting their participation in the study. A reminder e-mail was also sent. The final sample size was 593 (50.4%), which does not include incomplete responses. Because the e-mails soliciting participation were sent from the director of the organization, it was not possible to ensure contacts completely adhered to the recommendations of Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2009) to send successive e-mail waves until the number of new responses was no longer great enough to warrant further contacts.

To address the potential for non-response error, early respondents were compared to late respondents (Lindner, Murphy, & Briers, 2001). Early respondents were operationally defined as participants who completed the questionnaire before the reminder e-mail was sent, and late respondents were participants who completed the questionnaire after the reminder e-mail was sent. There was not a statistically significant difference between responses of early and late respondents, indicating the results can be generalized beyond the sample to the entire sampling frame, which included all full-time employees of the organization.

A researcher-developed questionnaire was used to address the purpose and hypotheses of this study. The questionnaire addressed employee perceptions of the organization, employee

morale within the organization, the internal communications of the organization, and awareness of issues within the organization. Five-point scales were used for all four sections. The instrument was evaluated by researchers familiar with survey methodology and individuals within the organization for face and content validity. Reliability was assessed *post hoc* using Cronbach's alpha. Reliability scores were as follows: employee perceptions of the organization was .90, perceptions of morale was .83, perceptions of internal communications was .68, and perceptions of awareness of issues within the organization was .77. A .80 reliability score is more ideal (Norcini, 1999), but .70 is considered acceptable (Kline, 1998).

Grand means were calculated for each construct. Point-biserial correlations were used to analyze the relationships between constructs. These correlations were used to test the hypotheses with statistical significance set at .05, a priori. Davis's (1971) conventions were used to describe the correlations (as cited in Miller, 1998): negligible was .01-.09, low was .10-.29, moderate was .30-.49, substantial was .50-.69, .70-.99 was very high, and 1.0 was perfect.

Findings

The employees had favorable perceptions of the organization (Table 1). In particular, the employees believed the organization was important ($M = 4.56$) and beneficial ($M = 4.51$). Though still favorable, the employees' evaluation of the organization was lower in regards to the organization being ethical ($M = 3.97$), positive ($M = 4.09$), and good ($M = 4.19$). The employees' self-reported morale was relatively neutral ($M = 2.89$), but their perceptions of overall morale in the organization were slightly low ($M = 2.21$; Table 2). The employees perceived that internal communications were important for the organization ($M = 4.78$), but they had neutral evaluations of the effectiveness ($M = 3.30$) and consistency ($M = 3.33$) of the organization's internal communications (Table 3). The employees believed they were aware of issues within their own organizational units ($M = 3.58$) and that their supervisors were aware of state-level organizational issues ($M = 3.70$), but they did not believe they were aware of issues outside of their organizational units ($M = 2.61$) or that state-level employees were aware of issues within the organizational units ($M = 2.56$; Table 4).

Table 1

Employee perceptions of the organization.

	Scale					<i>M</i>
	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	
Bad-Good ^a	3.0	4.7	12.7	30.0	49.7	4.19
Unethical-Ethical ^b	4.2	6.9	18.2	29.1	41.6	3.97
Unimportant-Important ^c	1.2	1.9	6.6	19.7	70.5	4.56

Not Beneficial-Beneficial ^d	1.1	2.5	8.1	20.9	67.5	4.51
Negative-Positive ^e	3.1	5.6	16.7	28.6	46.0	4.09
Grand Mean						4.26

Note. Due to rounding, totals may be slightly above or below 100%.

^aScale ranged from 1 = Bad to 5 = Good.

^bScale ranged from 1 = Unethical to 5 = Ethical.

^cScale ranged from 1 = Unimportant to 5 = Important.

^dScale ranged from 1 = Not Beneficial to 5 = Beneficial.

^eScale ranged from 1 = Negative to 5 = Positive.

Table 2

Self-reported employee morale and perceptions of overall morale.

	Scale					<i>M</i>
	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	
Your morale	22.0	20.0	20.3	21.9	15.8	2.89
Overall morale	32.4	32.6	18.8	13.9	2.2	2.21
Grand Mean						2.55

Note. Morale coded as 1 = Low, 2 = Slightly Low, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Slightly High, 5 = High. Due to rounding, totals may be slightly above or below 100%.

Table 3

Employee perceptions of the organization's internal communications.

	Scale					<i>M</i>
	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	
Effectiveness ^a	13.1	17.9	12.2	39.1	17.7	3.30
Consistency ^b	11.1	18.6	15.7	35.5	19.1	3.33
Importance ^c	0.7	1.5	2.6	9.5	85.7	4.78

Grand Mean	3.80
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Note. Due to rounding, totals may be slightly above or below 100%.

^aCoded as 1 = Ineffective, 2 = Slightly Ineffective, 3 = Neither Ineffective nor Effective, 4 = Slightly Effective, and 5 = Effective.

^bCoded as 1 = Inconsistent, 2 = Slightly Inconsistent, 3 = Neither Inconsistent nor Consistent, 4 = Slightly Consistent, and 5 = Consistent.

^cCoded as 1 = Unimportant, 2 = Slightly Unimportant, 3 = Neither Unimportant nor Important, 4 = Slightly Important, and 5 = Important.

Table 4

Employee perceptions of awareness of issues within the organization.

	Scale					<i>M</i>
	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	
How aware are you of organization issues in your unit?	8.7	17.3	9.5	35.9	28.6	3.58
How aware are you of organization issues outside your unit?	27.1	22.7	18.9	25.2	6.1	2.61
How aware do you believe your supervisor is of state-level organization issues?	8.5	13.7	12.5	30.1	35.2	3.70
How aware do you believe state-level employees are of unit issues?	29.4	26.0	13.1	21.6	9.9	2.56
Grand Mean						3.11

Note. Awareness coded as 1 = Unaware, 2 = Slightly Unaware, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Slightly Aware, and 5 = Aware. Due to rounding, totals may be slightly above or below 100%.

Table 5 shows the correlations between the perceptions of internal communications and perceptions of the organization and morale, and between perceptions of awareness of issues within the organization and perceptions of the organization and morale. There were substantial correlations between perceptions of internal communications and perceptions of the organization ($r = .55$) and between perceptions of awareness of issues within the organization and perceptions of morale ($r = .51$). There were moderate correlations between perceptions of internal communications and perceptions of morale ($r = .48$) and perceptions of awareness of issues within the organization and perceptions of the organization ($r = .48$). All of the correlations were statistically significant, therefore all null hypotheses were rejected. This

indicates there are positive relationships between perceptions of internal communications and perceptions of the organization and morale, and it indicates there are positive relationships between perceptions of awareness within the organization and perceptions of the organization and morale.

Table 5

The relationship between perceptions of internal communications and morale and overall organizational perceptions.

	Perceptions of the Organization	Perceptions of Morale
Perceptions of Internal Communications	.55*	.48*
Perceptions of Awareness of Issues	.48*	.51*

Note. Correlations are based on the grand means calculated in Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4.

* $p < .05$

Conclusions

The employees had positive perceptions of the organization, particularly for the organization being important and beneficial. Despite these positive perceptions of the organization, the participants had slightly below neutral levels of self-reported morale. Of particular interest was the difference between the employees' perceptions of their own morale and their perceptions of overall morale. The employees perceived overall morale to be lower than it actually was when looking at self-reported morale. This lack of positive morale could be hurting the organization's ability to be successful (Parker et al., 2003). In particular, the lack of positive morale could spill over into employees' interactions with members of the public, harming the organization through poor interactions (Franzen & Moriarty, 2009; Schneider & Bowen, 1985).

The employees believed internal communications were important, but they did not view the current internal communications of the organization as effective or consistent. These poor evaluations of internal communication could be detrimental to the organization because perceptions of internal communication could be more important than objective evaluations of internal communication (Taylor, 1984). Given internal communication's importance to organizational success, the lack of positive perceptions could be hurting the organization and its effectiveness (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Clifton et al., 2004; Kraut et al., 1990; Schein, 2010).

Awareness of organizational issues also led to discrepancies. While the employees believed they were aware of issues within their organizational units, they did not believe they were

aware of issues outside of their organizational unit. They also did not believe that state-level employees were aware of unit-level issues, but they did believe that their supervisors were aware of state-level issues. This lack of between-unit awareness of issues could be caused by a lack of informal communications between units. If this is the case, it could harm the organization, given the positive benefits between-unit informal communications have on mitigating problems of shared identity and context for geographically distributed organizations, as well as aiding during organizational crises (Hinds & Mortenson, 2005; Krackhardt & Stern, 1988).

The results of the study also indicated there were positive relationships between perceptions of internal communications and perceptions of the organization and morale, as well as positive relationships between perceptions of awareness of issues and perceptions of the organization and morale. These results are in line with past research linking internal communications to overall organizational climate and leadership skills (Bass, 1990; Boyle & Kochinda, 2004; Carrière & Bourque, 2009; Hinds & Mortenson, 2005; Ricketts & Rudd, 2002; Smith, 2008; Thomas et al., 2009).

There are limitations to the study. The first is the correlational nature of the study. While the correlations indicate there is a relationship between the constructs, the direction of the relationships cannot be determined in this study. The second limitation is that this study looked at employees of one state public organization. Because of this results may not be applicable to other organizations.

Recommendations

Organization leaders should promote an environment for quality internal communications. Internal communications are an important component of organizational success, and the results of this study and prior research indicate that internal communications are linked to organizational climate, which is also an important component of organizational success, and leadership skills (Boyle & Kochinda, 2004; Bolman & Deal, 2008; Clifton et al., 2004; Kraut et al., 1990; Ricketts & Rudd, 2002; Schein, 2010; Smith, 2008).

As for specific actions organization leaders can take, Wood's (1999) recommendations would be a good starting point: ensuring two-way communication, use face-to-face communications when feasible, address clarity of communications, "understand how your employees listen" (p. 148), and create a climate of trust so information can be shared freely. More broadly, organization leaders should assess the organizational structure, organizational climate, and informal communications in the organization. On a broader level, the example set by Boyle and Kochinda (2004) of utilizing an intervention to improve the leadership skills of organizational leaders could be advantageous for organizations to implement.

Organizational structure affects internal communications by impacting how employees interact with each other, and organizational structure can have lasting effects due to the ability of current communication means to be stored (McPhee, 1985). In particular, organizational

structure has the possibility to explicitly or implicitly limit the ability of employees to share critical information with organizational leaders (McPhee, 1985; Tourish & Robson, 2006). For public organizations, it is important to remember the results of Garnett et al. (2008) that showed increasing internal communications could be positive or detrimental depending on whether or not the organization focused on achievement or maintaining structure. Though internal communications were considered important, they were not positively evaluated by employees in the current study. Increasing internal communications may be a solution, but it might not be if the organization is more focused on maintaining structure than it is on achievement. Considering the importance of open communications for organizational success (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Schein, 2010), organization leaders should promote a structure that fosters task-relevant communications.

This study specifically addressed morale, but morale is a component of organizational climate (Churchill et al., 1976). Organization leaders should be aware of organizational climate's effects on organizational success (Hinds & Mortenson, 2005; Parker et al., 2003). Organization leaders should also be aware of the effects organizational climate and internal communications have on each other (Carrière & Bourque, 2009; Gould-Williams, 2007; Hinds & Mortenson, 2005; Smith, 2008; Thomas et al., 2009). More specifically, organizational leaders should be mindful that there could be a reciprocal relationship between internal communications and organizational climate. While positive internal communications could aid organizational climate (Gould-Williams, 2007; Thomas et al., 2009), a poor organizational climate can limit open internal communications (Smith, 2008). For organizations that have employees who interact directly with the public, organizational climate becomes especially important. If the employees are not satisfied, employees' dissatisfaction could spill over to interactions with the public, adversely affecting the organization (Franzen & Moriarty, 2009; Schneider, 1985).

Informal communications is another area leaders should consider to aid organizations. For the current organization, it is geographically distributed, which can hurt in developing shared identity and context for employees (Hinds & Mortenson, 2005). Increasing informal communications could mitigate the detrimental effects of being a geographically distributed organization (Hinds & Mortenson, 2005). An issue indicated by this study was a lack of awareness of issues between organizational units. If the success of the organization is dependent on between-unit cooperation, organization leaders promoting the increase of informal communications between units could be advantageous (Krackhardt & Stern, 1988).

For researchers, the links between internal communications and organizational climate should continue to be studied. While it is clear that internal communications and organizational climate are related, that relationship is complex (Carrière & Borque, 2009; Gould-Williams, 2007; Hinds & Mortenson, 2005; Smith, 2008; Thomas et al., 2009). It is also clear that both constructs are related to organizational success (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Clifton et al., 2004; Kraut et al., 1990; Parker et al., 2003; Schein, 2010). Given the complexity of the relationship between the two constructs and the importance of the constructs to organizational success, research should continue to be conducted to unravel how the constructs can be improved within organizations. With the ability of leaders to affect organizations through internal

communications, research should address how organizational leaders can foster both positive internal communications and organizational climate (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Moore, 1995; Schein, 2010).

A specific line of research that should be pursued relates to the positive outcomes in the Boyle and Kochinda (2004) study. Research should be conducted in other leadership contexts to better understand and improve internal communications of intact groups and organizations considering the implications an intervention could have on organizational success and the improvement of leaders' skills.

Research should also continue in this area to address implications for leaders of public organizations, given that public organizations can be considered more complex than private organizations (Hoggett, 2006; Moore, 1995; Wæraas, 2008). The complication from the multiplicity of roles could be hurting the ability of leaders of public organizations' to foster shared identities among employees (de Chernatony, 2001; Hinds & Mortenson, 2005; Schein, 2010). Another added complexity is that public organizations are often geographically distributed, which can lead to more conflicts than organizations with members in the same location (Hinds & Mortenson, 2005). It needs to be understood how these complexities affect the ability of leaders of public organizations' to foster positive internal communications and organizational climates.

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Leadership in the Twitterverse

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Introduction

Speaking your mind in 140 characters or less is a talent that not everyone has. However, more than 100 million people do it every day on Twitter (Twitter, 2011). People tweet via their smart phones, their laptops and their desktops. With so many options, people have the chance to update their Twitter status at any time of the day or night.

The Twitter revolution has allowed for people all around the world to be instantly connected with others. This instant connection speeds up the dissemination process of any information. It gives businesses the opportunity to interact with consumers on a more personal level and gives consumers a chance to voice their opinion with big businesses. Young adults are most likely to use Twitter, with “one-third (33%) of internet users under the age of thirty [posting] or [reading] status updates online” (Lenhart et. al, 2010, p. 21). However, many adults, professionals and business leaders also use Twitter to get their messages out to their target audiences.

In a world so closely intertwined, leaders will emerge. A definition of leadership in general is hard to come by. According to Northouse (2009), leadership has been defined as a trait, ability, skill, behavior and relationship, but no one definition has been decided upon. However, leadership in the world of social media is a bit different. Leadership in social media deals with all of the ideas Northouse (2009) stated, but is more focused on the connection or relationship the leaders have with their followers. The opportunity leaders have to be open and connect with their publics in a quick way is very important to many people. According to Li (2010) a new generation of people “is coming of age that believes ‘sharingness’ is next to – or more important than – godliness” (p. 23). Even from a business point of view, people from both inside and outside companies are starting to demand more clarity from the companies they support (Li, 2010). Leaders are starting to be held just as accountable for their actions.

So the question becomes, what’s going on with leadership in social media? What are society’s leaders posting about on Twitter? Is it strictly business or more personal information? Because social media reaches millions of people every day, analyzing tweets of leaders in the era of instant connection, we will be able to see how they are influencing people and what influences them.

Literature Review

Technology has greater influence on people today then it has in the past. Prensky (2004) says that technology has become “an entire strategy for how to live, survive and thrive in the 21st Century” (p. 2). Today’s technology has greatly influenced the way people approach life, especially when compared to previous generations (Wisniewski, 2010). For example, during the 2012 Super Bowl, there were more than “10,000 tweets per second” (Lehner, 2012, pp. 1). Businesses that advertised

during the Super Bowl kept information very basic, with one commercial including only a hashtag at the end in order to start a conversation via Twitter about the product. This access to information and instantaneous connection is given to anyone on Twitter, all over the world.

Social media via the use of social networking sites has especially played an integral part of leadership in the 21st Century (Prensky, 2004). Social media is usually defined as “media based on user participation and user-generated content” (Pikalek, 2010, p. 151). Social media can take many forms such as blogs, picture-sharing, and podcasts and uses a variety of social networking sites. According to Boyd and Ellison (2007), social networking sites are defined as:

“web-based services that allow individuals to (1) construct a public or semi-public profile within a bounded system, (2) articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection, and (3) view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within the system” (p. 211).

The newest and most used sites today are Facebook with more than 800 million users (Facebook, 2011) and Twitter with more than 100 million users (Twitter, 2011). Twitter and Facebook are social networking sites used for “microblogging.” Microblogging refers to when people inform other people they are connected to via a specific social networking site about daily life activity utilizing brief text updates (Zhao & Rosson, n.d.; Kwak et. al, 2010). Users on Twitter “follow” other users or are followed by others, allowing people to be connected and receive updates, or “tweets.” The tweets can be read by any of a user’s followers and followers are able to respond or “retweet” the original message to their followers (Kwak et. al, 2010; Java et. al, n.d.).

Because Twitter allows people to instantly update their followers about their thoughts or actions throughout the day, information is quickly diffused. According to Kwak et. al (2010) a “retweeted tweet is to reach an average of 1,000 users no matter what the number of followers is of the original tweet” (p. 591). Because of the high dissemination rate, Twitter has been thought of by many as electronic word of mouth (Jansen et. al, 2009). Since word of mouth is a powerful influencer tool (Rogers, 2003), Twitter is therefore seen as a powerful electronic influencer tool.

Twitter has created a new connection between people in both the personal and work sectors. According to Zhao & Rosson (n.d.), microblogging is extremely beneficial in the fact that it “may offer ways to reduce users’ cost of sharing, and thus make it easier for other employees to [obtain] useful and trustworthy information” (p. 250). More and more businesses are using Twitter as a way to disseminate information. According to Dutta (2010) in order to stay competitive, the “best businesses are creating comprehensive strategies in [social media] to support their goals” (p. 2). With so many people on Twitter, users have the opportunity to inform the public about their personal lives as well as business.

Social media should also be considered when it comes to teaching. Using social media as an outlet for leadership education is something that should not go unnoticed. According to McLeod, Bathon & Richardson (2011) “conversations, concepts, and learning opportunities that may never have happened under traditional delivery formats are possible using new technologies” (p. 289). Students,

especially, are utilizing “all forms of technology at an increasing rate” (Guthrie, 2009, p. 130). Because of this, more people should look at combining technology and leadership.

According to Ohlott (2004), behavioral changes are reinforced with real-world leadership development opportunities. That is why, many colleges and universities today are focusing on immersive learning (Backus, et. al, 2010). One growing concept of experiential learning is gaining insight into leadership through the social media universe. Backus et. al (2010) claims that “incorporating social media tools...into leadership development initiatives may be one means of accelerating the learning process and facilitating the development of emerging leaders” (p. 146). Since students are so diverse, having diverse options of social media sites available to them allows for connection with relevant information and numerous opportunities for leadership to emerge (Wandel, 2009). Giving students the opportunity to see what they are being taught in leadership education classes materialize through leaders in various social mediums will further their learning and make deeper connections of content material.

Dutta (2010) states that leaders take part in social media because it allows them to “engage with an array of contacts – both internal and external – in order to strengthen and leverage relationships; show commitment to a cause...and demonstrate a capacity for reflection instead of action” (p. 3). Because leaders have this ability to instantaneously give information to various members of the public, the need to understand what they are posting is great since this will allow researchers to understand how people are being influenced by what these business leaders are tweeting. This will also lead to a deeper understanding of leadership in the social media world which is important because of the numerous amounts of people influenced by social media today.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to discover what business leaders are tweeting about. In order to accomplish this purpose, the researchers used a content analysis to develop an understanding of the content of the tweets from the top four business leaders on Twitter.

Methods

The researchers desired to explore and understand the information being provided by business leaders on Twitter in order to learn about leadership education and one face of its relationship with social media. In order to develop this understanding, a qualitative study was undertaken.

Population

The population of this study is based on an MSNBC article. MSNBC did a study on the top five CEOs to follow on Twitter. Those individuals became the foundation for this study. According to Chung, Kim, & Kim (2010), information from a site like MSNBC can be deemed credible by analyzing three major factors: message, source and media credibility. Metzger et al. (2003) adds on by stating the credibility of online newspapers should include trustworthiness, ability to be unbiased, relevant information and completeness of the website. After reviewing the three areas of information

on the Global Post article described by Chung, Kim & Kim (2010), the researchers found that the message was relevant, the source was reliable and the credibility of the medium was prevalent. According to the article, “for those in the business field, there is an increasing number of high-powered and highly-skilled CEOs...that are using Twitter to share insight, advice and links to things they find important” (Deane, 2011, pp. 1). The five CEOs are Jack Welch (CEO of GE), Richard Branson (CEO of Virgin Group), Bill Gates (former CEO of Microsoft), Eric Schmidt (CEO of Google), and Pete Cashmore (CEO of Mashable). These five CEOs have a “combined following of over six million people” (Deane, 2011, pp. 2).

Data Collection

Once the CEOs were identified, the researcher followed each of them on Twitter. By following them, the researcher was able to download up to 3,200 tweets that the CEOs had tweeted. For the purpose of accuracy, CEO of Mashable, Pete Cashmore, was subtracted from the equation. Cashmore’s tweets are automated to coincide with stories that are published on mashable.com and therefore would not be of use when analyzing “personal” tweets discussed above.

Data Analysis

In order to understand just what these CEOs are Tweeting a content analysis was performed. Content analysis is “a method of gathering, analyzing, and categorizing the content associated with psychological constructs without preconceptions” (Yu, Jannasch-Pennell & DiGangi, 2011, p. 733). According to McMillian (2000), analyzing “Web-based content could add value to our understanding of this evolving communication environment” (p. 81), the exact purpose of this research undertaking.

The researcher used a constant comparative method of data analysis in order to categorize the data. Creswell (1998) describes the process of content analysis as a three-step process. First, the researcher performs an open coding of the content. Open coding is when the researcher forms “initial categories of information about the phenomenon being studied by segmenting information” (Creswell, 1998, p. 57). This deductive process takes a look at the larger content and breaks it down into smaller categories. During this stage, the researchers looked at all of the tweets from that had been collected from the business leaders and started to breakdown each tweet.

Following the open coding, the researcher moves to step two, axial coding. According to Creswell (1998) axial coding is when “the researcher assembles the data in new ways after open coding” (p. 57). This means that the categories formed in the first analysis are combined, changed and rearranged into broader categories. While doing the initial axial coding, the researchers found 40 different themes, concepts or ideas throughout the analysis. Examples of this type of coding include tweets about philanthropy, computer technology, activities that the CEOs participated in, leadership statements, talks of government and communication to other people on Twitter.

Finally, selective coding occurs after all categories are finalized. Selective coding is when researchers find a “story line” in their analysis of the content and “write a story that integrates the

categories in the axial coding model” (Creswell, 1998, p. 57). For selective coding, the researchers took the themes that had emerged during axial coding and combined them down into overarching themes. For example, during axial coding, the researchers found tweets about computer technology, phone technology, television technology, and technology references. In selective coding, these categories were combined under the roof of “technology” while the researchers reanalyzed the tweets. The researchers compacted 40 different themes into seven overarching themes by the end. After all of the themes were established and reported, the researchers compared all four accounts in order to look for similarities, differences and other information.

Trustworthiness

Since the main research instrument used in this qualitative study was human, establishing credibility was deemed important. The researchers used peer debriefing in order to maintain credibility in this study. The peer debriefing occurred three times throughout the data collection process and analysis. A leadership professional played a key role in the peer debriefing process. The leadership professional guided the researchers along the process by reviewing themes and suggesting revisions to the researchers. In order to establish dependability and confirmability, the researchers used journaling and an audit trail. Merriam (2009) reminds us that transferability can be established through a purposive sample, which is what the researchers did.

Findings

The objective of this research was to build an understanding of the content of the tweets being disseminated around the world by top CEOs and business leaders for purposes of gaining a baseline understanding of content and tone. Findings will be presented, where applicable, using the direct words of the CEO’s tweets. Since twitter is within the public domain, the codes used by the researchers to identify from whom remarks came, are not intended to protect identity, and are purely for organizational stability.

Throughout this content analysis, overarching themes in seven different areas appeared. These areas included tweets related to:

- Personal Matters
- Philanthropy
- Technology/Science
- Leadership/Business
- Public Commentary
- Public Persona
- #Hashtags

Personal Tweets

Personal tweets consisted of anything specifically related to the CEO doing the tweeting. Many of the tweets included information about friends, family or holidays. This category also included any retweets to another follower or specific tweets designed for a follower. Some of the CEOs also found

it necessary to prove that they were the ones doing the tweeting. Other personal tweets included information about favorite sports teams or upcoming events they were excited about.

“Can’t wait to watch the Superbowl tomorrow. Be sure to watch the ads in the 3rd quarter (someone said ‘Hell has indeed frozen over’)” (ES, p3, t31).

“@haydenascott Yes I do my tweets personally. Don’t see much point otherwise” (RB, p10, t113).

“Happy Birthday to my dad! 86 & going full bore, you are an invaluable partner in our work at the @gatesfoundation. Thanks Dad for everything” (BG, p1, t5).

“Conflicted today...Patriots my team but I love #Tebow story and @Suzywelch is hooked on him” (JW, p3, t30).

“@howardalford happy new year to you” (JW, p1, t7).

It was also found that when large events took place in the world, some of the CEOs would have similar tweets. For example, when Apple’s CEO Steve Jobs passed away, both Bill Gates and Jack Welch tweeted about it:

“Melinda and I extend our sincere condolences to Steve Jobs’ family & friends. The world rarely sees someone who made such a profound impact” (BG, p3, t32).

“Look forward to reading Steve Jobs book this week. It will be HUGE” (JW, p11, t116).

Philanthropy

Three of the four CEOs tweeted about philanthropy at some point. These tweets included updates on philanthropic events they were attending, foundations they had started and charities they support.

“Today is world Malaria day, some thoughts on what you can do: <http://bit.ly/hFiUG8>. Back from great trip to Brazil, writing more soon...” (BG, p6, t66).

“Great momentum building for #morethanagoal – thank you #fcbarcelona for your help in stamping out #polio” (BG, p5, t46).

“I support the Let Us In Campaign’s work fighting cancer & commemorating Linda McCartney’s legacy <http://t.co/fJ1aqpcQ>” (RB, p10, t106).

“Send doctors out into the world – not bombs. <http://t.co/r5ZdDqhs>” (RB, p1, t10).

“@michaelmyatmi sorry mike. I have my Salem charities. Good luck” (JW, p8, t80).

Technology/Science

All of the CEOs discussed some aspect of technology or science. This theme encompassed concepts like upcoming technology, breakthroughs in science and the utilization of technology for business.

“Egypt: people plus technology--what an amazing force for good.” (ES, p1, t5).

“About to do live video chat my ‘Becoming A Leaders’ students. Love how technology’s changing biz education. <http://t.co/KNnpZxN>” (JW, p14, t144).

“All the batteries on Earth store just 10 mins of world electricity needs. This new battery may be key. #RenewableEnergy <http://t.co/q8Dqpkmg>” (BG, p1, t8).

“A short post on some very interesting work utilizing cell phones to improve health care where resources are limited – <http://bit.ly/cgV3he>” (BG, p10, t111).

“Digital rights and digital wrongs <http://t.co/5dBvfW0K> @theelders @itspetergabriel” (RB, p14, t153).

Leadership/Business

Tweets in this category included updating followers about business events, new ideas and work partnerships.

“Thanks Beijing for a great visit. Lots of exciting opportunities for partnership w/ China’s scientific experts on development & #globalhealth” (BG, p1, t3).

“Back from great Australia vacation. Working on my annual letter and looking forward to the new year filled with opportunity” (BG, p1, t2).

“I predict big things happening today at Google. We’re already fast... fast is about to get faster” (ES, p2, t15).

“Launching @cwarroom low-carbon jet fuels initiative. Airline industry can go from polluting industry to 1 of cleanest <http://t.co/79UAVt0h>” (RB, p7, t81).

“Why BA bmi deal is bad for business, consumers & Britain <http://t.co/tPzCeDGf> cc: @virginatlantic” (RB, p3, t27).

Public Commentary

Public commentary is important from any person that the public perceives is a leaders. In this case, public commentary includes opinions of these CEOs on government doings, economic situations and other world issues.

“Republican candidates must avoid Trump moderated debate or be relegated to ‘reality show’ status.” (JW, p6, t58).

“Why we are so bad at managing risk; the gulf disaster and how to design complex, risky systems <http://bit.ly/b9pFiK>” (ES, p2, t20).

“Jared and my article in Foreign Affairs; think coalitions of the connected and what govts will have to/want to do <http://goo.gl/6ByW>” (ES, p1, t12).

“Should we create a ‘Lemon’ award next year for the country that does the least towards tackling #climatechange? <http://t.co/cPwcDw4B>” (RB, p 4, t44).

“How can economic leaders help the world’s poorest people? These 5 books helped me develop my point of view. <http://t.co/U8TXFOP1>” (BG, p1, t10).

Public Persona

The public persona of a person is how others view him/her. In this study, the public persona of a person on Twitter includes when he/she discusses events they attend, activities they participate in or discussion of places they’ve been.

“Preparing to appear on BBC One with Melinda to discuss the effectiveness of foreign aid...” (BG, p11, t119).

“I’ll be interviewing Tina Fey from @google HQ on Wednesday. Submit your questions now at www.youtube.com/atgoogletalks - thank you!!” (ES, p1, t2).

“Call me on @NPR and tell me how you Screw Business as Usual. #sbau” (RB, p9, t94).

“Spoke at World Business Forum today..the audience is smart..questions thoughtful..the best forum of the year..every year!” (JW, p12, t125).

“On Meet the Press. Mark Halperin head and shoulders above rest of panelists..real insights” (JW, p1, t9).

#Hashtags

A “hashtag” is a form of Twitter etiquette. Hashtags, words that have the number sign placed directly in front of them, are trends that can be seen on Twitter. Usually, they are “topical in nature and serve to collocate tweets related to a particular subject” (Efron, 2011, p. 998). For example, whenever Richard Branson was discussing his campaign “Screw Business as Usual,” he would hashtag #sbau.

In one tweet, Branson says “Please RT Screw Business as Usual! Go to dowhatverittakes.org and help us end youth homelessness. #sbau” (RB, p9, 96). His use of the hashtag #sbau gives followers the chance to see who else has the idea to “screw business as usual” by clicking on Branson’s tag.

Other leaders utilize hashtags as well. Some hashtags reflect business related events, such as the #sbau hashtag used by Branson. Others reflect personal feelings or general information, once again, leading to a quick connection with other people on Twitter.

“Innovation is one of the most powerful forces in the world. It can make the impossible possible. #endmalaria <http://t.co/Th4adyY7>” (BG, p3, t29).

“”If #Tebow does it this4Q.....?” (JW, p3, t29).

“#subsaturday to these @youtube channels: <http://bit.ly/jimmybuffetchannel> <http://bit.ly/pulitzercenter> <http://bit.ly/xprizechannel>” (ES, p3, t32).

Richard Branson and Bill Gates were the two biggest users of hashtags. Because of their use of hashtags, Branson and Gates both had the opportunity to discover what conversations on Twitter were taking place with the information they were giving out. For example, if searched, the hashtag “#renewableenergy” would provide thousands of tweets regarding the topic of renewable energy, including Bill Gate’s tweets about the subject. This conversation-like format can be used to get information disseminated quickly and provide fast feedback. Hashtags can therefore be used as a point of reference for those looking to discuss a certain topic.

Hashtags can also be used to create hype before an event, to update about happenings at an event and/or to inform others about the event when it is over. Although not all hashtags are used this way, many of these CEOs used them for these reasons. An example of this would be when Richard Branson discusses his excitement for Rock the Kasbah. He creates hype before the event with his tweet: “@maryjblige @ofarevolution @pussycatdolls excited to see you rock in person & livestream Wed 10pmET <http://t.co/XYFRE1tG> #rockthekasbah” (RB, p13, t139). While at the event, Branson continues to tweet and update his followers: “Speaking with @iamwill about his incredible work with young people in the US. Appreciate his passion for science+education. #rockthekasbah” (RB, p12, t128). After the event, he does a follow up tweet: “Just back from LA. Thanks to everyone who made #rockthekasba possible. @Virgin Rocks – literally! <http://t.co/JU0X4BKp> @virginunite” (RB, p11, t122).

Jack Welch also used hashtags for similar reasons. He created hype when his wife, Suzy Welch, had a discussion about leadership during a Twitter session: “Excited to hear @suzywelch talk about leadership on Twitter today. Live interview from 12-1 pm. Search #cfaleader starting at noon.” (JW, p10, t104). By searching the hashtag #cfaleader, Twitter users would be able to join the conversation and interact with Suzy Welch instantly.

Bill Gates also had a similar example when he discussed a trip to a university in California to discuss how to change the world. In order to create excitement about the event, he tweeted “Here at UCB – <http://twitpic.com/1guuk6> - #bgct” (BG, p16, t198). He then tweets “We are live RT @aplusk: RT @TechCrunch Bill Gates Talks About How to Change The World <http://tcrn.ch/aXhQtZ> #BGCT” (BG, p16, t197). He follows up the event with: “Just met some amazing teachers & students at Foothill College using technology for math. Looking forward to talking with students in Chicago next. #bgct” (BG, p16, t195).

Conclusions

Much knowledge can be gained by analyzing how leaders are using social media to interact with their publics. The fact that four of the top business CEOs named by MSNBC are so accessible to their constituencies certainly gives insight as to who they are as people, more specifically as leaders. Leadership in the world of social media relies heavily on what is being said and how. By taking a look at the tweets posted by four high ranking business CEOs, researchers are given insight into social media leadership, although a clear definition has yet to be determined. We hope that positive leaders lead to positive social networking interactions. These interactions then, hopefully, turn into positive actions by followers, which is a very powerful concept.

All of the themes found throughout these business CEOs tweets conclude that they are posting more than just business related news on their Twitter accounts. Moreover, the fact that these leaders are not posting just about leadership shows that they are offering a deeper connection with their audience. They allow the audience to take a closer look at their private lives and give them a chance to understand more about who they are as people. These leaders are doing more than just talking about leadership; they are leading by example and reflecting their actions in their Tweets. Some tweets are very specific such as when Richard Branson reminds followers the importance of raising HIV awareness: “Each minute a baby is born with HIV. Rally for an HIV free generation @UNAIDS and #BeAnActivist at <http://t.co/u99vUThn>” (RB, p9, t93). Other tweets reflect leadership through tweeting about events such as when Jack Welsh tweets about his experience in Hong Kong: “Went to beautiful mem serv for 9/11 victims today in Hong Kong at St John’s Cathedral...Global sympathetic outpouring impressive” (JW, p13, t137).

The fact that these leaders take time to Tweet about things like polio eradication (BG), ending youth homeless (RB), and the World War II Foundation (JW) show how these CEOs are using their leadership positions to make the world a better place. This closely relates to a challenge of leadership Posner (2002) discusses. According to Posner (2002), one way to become a better leader is to challenge yourself to “model the way” (p. 41). By modeling the way, a person leads by action. They decide on their moral values and their actions reflect those values. When others see what the leader is doing, they mimic the action, therefore causing a greater movement to be done.

It can also be concluded that since these tweets are from the actual leaders and not an automated system or some member of the business, their tweets reflect the personalities of the leaders. Since the tweets are done personally, it gives followers a closer connection and better understanding of the leader. The tweets that these leaders provide are mostly opinion. It seems that they are not tweeting

in order to gain popularity, but rather, to inform their followers of their opinions. If these leaders only wanted to increase their consumer base, they could post stuff about business and only positive news, but the fact that these business CEOs are posting thoughts about philanthropy, science, government and much more shows that they, hopefully, want to be open and honest with their constituents.

Because of the opinions given, these business leaders have not only the opportunity to become better industry leaders, but to also become stronger opinion leaders in the world. According to Roch (2005) opinion leaders play a key role in the flow of information because of existing social capital...they have relationships that allow them to form bridges between groups that would otherwise have no contact” (p. 113). Twitter is one of the newest forms of technology that is allowing these leaders to “bridge the gaps” between groups. One does not have to be affluent in order to follow these successful business leaders, thereby giving information to all classes of people.

Recommendations and Implications

It is recommended that further studies of leaders’ Twitters be analyzed in order to learn what other leaders are tweeting about. Further research might include analyzing when and where tweets took place for these business leaders. Were most tweets done via their mobile phone or home computer? This could be interesting to research in order to see if leaders are active in their tweets or tweet only when time allows. Taking the social media research a bit further, a study of other kinds of positional leaders, such as government officials, could lead to greater understanding of what they are tweeting, why leaders Tweet, and if that influences their connection to followers.

It is also recommended that student leaders utilize the power of Twitter and other social mediums to increase their information dissemination. Leadership educators could also utilize Twitter to increase interaction and understanding between students. Twitter can also be used to promote the growth of leadership through updates on things such as philanthropy, public commentary or public persona.

A final recommendation of this study is that educators utilize social media to reach students. With students starting to use social media almost constantly in their lives, it is important to capitalize on the use of social media in the leadership education realm. According to Guthrie (2012), virtual learning should be used to reach students since technology plays such a vital role in their lives. Educators will be able to reach youth by “situating learning in both physical and virtual spaces where students already are spending time” (Guthrie, 2012, p. 96). By analyzing how leaders are using their Twitter accounts, students will be able to enhance their knowledge of leadership and what it means to be a leader.

One implication of this study is that, although these leaders’ posts are mostly positive, if they were to start endorsing negative acts via their Twitter account, there could be a negative affect on followers. The power of Twitter’s instant connection works for both good and bad. Leaders have the chance to improve the world by tweeting encouraging words or discussing positive activities they are taking part in, but the polar opposite could happen as well. One negative tweet from a leader could

have devastating effects on the person, organization or action they are tweeting about. Precautions must be taken when people of such power have access to so many constituents.

On the reverse side, since these business leadership CEOs are so influential and have such a high amount of followers, the chance for them to improve the world is great. By continuing to encourage actions such as helping homeless youth (RB), the message can get disseminated much quicker on Twitter than by word of mouth. These business leaders have the opportunity to create a better place to work and live if they use Twitter to their advantage; campaigns could spread across the world in an instant; donations could be processed within seconds of crises. Many positive outcomes could come from the use of Twitter and business officials.

Another factor to consider is the audience. The thing that makes these CEOs so successful as social media leaders is the amount of followers they have. If, one day, people wake up and realize that these CEOs aren't tweeting what they want to hear, the CEOs could lose all power in the social media realm. In order to keep their title as a leader on Twitter, they must consistently provide information that the public deems as appropriate. Since people decide who they follow and who they don't, every tweet that a person posts influences another person's decision to follow/unfollow that person. If a business CEO posts too many thoughts about business when their followers really want to hear about their personal lives, the followers may look elsewhere for information. If their followers look elsewhere for information, the CEOs' words become less powerful, thusly causing them to become less of a leader. Overall, they could lose their leadership (either formal or opinion-based) over their followers. According to Rogers (2003), perception influences if people accept or reject information. Because perception is what people deem to be true, it is key that these CEOs' followers perceive them as worthy leaders.

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Honor Codes: Do They Promote an Ethical Culture

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Introduction

Honor codes provide leadership instructors with a real-world artifact for teaching about ethics in the workplace. Most professions have codes of conduct and most universities have honor codes to guide their students and faculty in ethical behavior. The purpose of honor codes is to provide students and faculty with guidelines to acceptable behavior in the academic environment. But despite the efforts of academic institutions, academic dishonesty continues to be a concern in academia. Whitley (1998) conducted a meta-analysis of studies on academic dishonesty and found more than 70% of college students engage in acts of academic dishonesty. In a more recent study, Rettinger, Jordan, and Peschiera (2004) noted that 83% of the students self-reported cheating at least once while in college. While this statistic may be surprising for some, it does show the prevalence of academic dishonesty. Harding, Carpenter, Finelli and Passow (2004) found academic dishonesty in high school was a good predictor of the same behavior in college among engineering students, and the dishonesty did not stop there. Those same students were also more likely to violate workplace policies and make other unethical decisions as professionals. Because of this, it is imperative for universities to make a positive impact on academic honesty during the process of college student development.

Previous research indicates many different factors influence academic dishonesty (Turner & Beemsterboer, 2003; Yahr, Bryan, & Schimmel, 2009). Among these factors, the existence of honor codes or codes of conduct at an institution, appears to correlate with a lower incidence of student reported cheating (Arnold, Martin, Jinks, & Bigby, 2007; McCabe & Trevina, 2011). Another factor influencing academic honesty is the social norms of the classroom (Jordan, 2001; Whitley, 1998). If students feel their peers are cheating, they are more likely to engage in cheating as well. It is possible that the existence of an honor code creates a social norm and value that discourages academic dishonesty (Konheim-Kalkstein, Stellmack, & Shilkey, 2008).

Honor codes take many forms, from simple statements to extensive documents. At some institutions, students are asked to follow these statements but are not required to sign the agreement. At other institutions, students are required to sign the university code of conduct, thus establishing a contract of behavior. The impact of honor codes are influenced by how well they are communicated and integrated into the university culture, as well as the consistency with which they are enforced (McCabe & Trevina, 2011; Molnar & Kletke, 2010).

Conceptual Framework

Ethics and organizational culture are perpetually linked. Organizational culture includes “sets of structures, routines, rules, and norms that guide and constrain behavior” (Schein, 2004, p. 1). Organizational culture influences the way organizations view ethics and morality and codes of ethics influence the typology of the organization. The first step of understanding organizational culture is to discover the cultural typology, which governs these organizational nuances. When one can diagnose cultural typologies, it gives vast insight into the everyday workings of that organization. By looking at

artifacts such as honor codes and the espoused beliefs and values, leadership educators can demonstrate the connection between organizational culture and ethical behavior.

Given the variety and complexity of most university's honor codes as well as the different organizational cultures in which they reside, it is difficult to know all elements of a sound honor code. Before the recent upsurge in honor code creation, Turner and Beemsterboer (2003) outlined nine elements of an effective and constitutionally valid honor code. Turner and Beemsterboer were highlighted in the Chronicle of Higher Education as pioneers in honor code assessment. Their elements include:

1. a statement of values endorsed and upheld by the code,
2. a list of enumerated violations,
3. a list of sanctions for violation of a code premise,
4. a description of the governing judiciary group responsible for upholding the code,
5. a description of the process to be followed should a violation be reported,
6. a statement of confidentiality of the process and outcomes,
7. a provision for recording proceedings,
8. a provision for a written decision within a specific time period,
9. a provision for appeal if the outcome is adverse to the accused (p. 1125)

These nine elements for an effective honor code will be the deductive lens for which the researchers will analyze honor codes for the 1862 land-grant universities.

Purpose of the Study

While general studies of academic dishonesty have been conducted, no research has compared 1862 Land-Grant Universities with elements of accepted best practices in honor code development. This study seeks to fill that void. The first step of understanding the impact of honor codes on creating and maintaining an ethical organizational climate is to examine the artifacts of the culture (Schein, 2004). For a university, there is no better ethical artifact than the honor code. The purpose of this study is to compare and contrast honor codes or codes of conduct among all 1862 land-grant institutions in the United States and to assess their effectiveness within the parameters given by Turner and Beemsterboer (2003).

Methodology

For this qualitative exploratory study, the central research methodology was narrative document analysis. By using public webpages dedicated to the university's honor code as the primary source of information, the researchers were able to access the honor artifact as the student or any consumer of public records would. Thus, adding a layer of organizational authenticity.

Merriam (2009) notes document collection via the internet has improved qualitative studies. By gaining access to information otherwise hard to obtain by traditional methods of data collection, studies have become deeper and richer. This study is no exception. With the increase of public information acts, institutes of higher education have been forced to become more transparent with student codes.

1862 land-grant institutions were chosen as the population given their similar tripartite missions. Institutions with similar missions are more likely to have similar organizational cultures (Schein, 2004). A list of 1862 land-grant universities was downloaded from the Association of Public and Land-Grant Universities' website (APLU, 2011). Due to the organizational structure of non-continental United States

universities, they were excluded from the data collection. The university web-sites for the remaining 50 institutions were searched for honor codes or honor statements via the internal web-site browser. Of the 50 universities, 45 yielded public data, which contained honor codes. Five of the universities' honor codes and systems were available only to students via password-protected sites.

The information from each university was downloaded and printed. Open coding was first utilized to take the hundreds of pages found to a workable amount. Using the framework of Turner and Beemsterboer (2003), the researchers unitized data from each university based on the nine identified elements. Content analysis produced unitized chunks, which were then deductively coded into their corresponding thematic categories. The multi-step procedure of thematic coding, as developed by Strauss (1987) was conducted. Convergent as well as divergent patterns emerged from the data. To ensure credibility of results, an expert audit review produced a positive conformability judgment (Patton, 2002).

Findings and Conclusions

Holistically, the United States' land-grant institutions have not provided the necessary inclusions, outlined by Turner and Beemsterboer (2003), which would denote an honor code as being effective and constitutionally valid. And if they have, the data would be uncovered only if one was willing to follow a winding path to uncover all of the intricacies. Though, as in most situations of broad comparison, a small portion of the sample has exceeded the norms of the majority. All nine of the elements produced interesting results, most of which followed no sort of pattern. While some of Turner and Beemsterboer's components were found in nearly all of the honor codes, others remained a rarity.

Statement of Values

Nearly 90% of the honor codes evaluated in the research contained a specific statement of the values that they upheld and endorsed. These ideals were meant to reflect the school's mission and vision. They ought to encompass an attitude towards morals, ethics, and the importance of character. They should also mention a dedication to, not only teaching, but also research and extension. It is easy to understand why this was such a popular feature. It is the simplest to write and least legalistic in its nature. Even more interesting was the fact that there was not much variation among these statements. Most were summarized in one sentence and nearly all included words such as "integrity," "honesty," and "ethical." The University of Arkansas eloquently articulated these values in the preamble of their Academic Integrity Statement:

As a community of scholars, we uphold academic integrity and our Honor Statement as foundational to appropriate conduct within the university setting. The fundamental trust that work presented as one's own truly represents one's own intellect and effort underlies our mission as an educational, research and service institution; moreover, this trust is central to our peers' recognition of the value of a University of Arkansas degree. Thus, this document represents a deeply- and commonly-held set of values. (University of Arkansas, 2011, para. 1)

It can be concluded that 1862 land-grant universities do a good job of not only identifying values, but also communicating their values. Because of the tripartite mission, land-grants often have to discuss their mission with constituents (Herren & Edwards, 2002). It is also worth noting several universities intertwined the meanings of ethics and morals. These two words, while similar, have very different meanings (Pojman & Fiser, 2009). According to Merriam Webster, "ethics" should be considered "a guiding philosophy" ("Ethics," Merriam-Webster Dictionary) and "morals" are the practices that

accompany the philosophy (“Morals,” Merriam-Webster Dictionary). It would add clarification to honors codes to not only delineate these, but describe violations and sanctions in accordance.

Enumerated Violations

Enumerated violations encompass those behaviors and actions that are prohibited. Turner and Beemsterboer (2003) noted a disclaimer should be included in this section. The provision should point out that the behaviors chronicled in this section will fall under a broad classification, and the enumerated list might not be extensive enough to afford every possible infringement. This was another component that was covered in majority of the honor codes. Just over 80% of the institutions provided a list of unacceptable conduct. As a general rule, the schools that included this element listed behaviors that could be considered consistent with common views of violations. Cheating, plagiarism, and falsification were terms collectively found within the sample. Some even went so far as to provide a detailed definition of what actions would qualify a behavior as a violation. This was a noteworthy finding, because most would assume that the definitions would be nearly identical across the board. But, there was actually a significant amount of discrepancy from one document to the next. For example, Purdue offers a harsh definition of plagiarism by calling it, “a special kind of academic dishonesty in which one person steals another person’s ideas or words...” (Purdue, 2009, para. 4). On the other hand, Iowa State University provides a much milder explanation by categorizing plagiarism as “misrepresentation of another’s work as one’s own” (Iowa State, 2011, para. 4). There is a sizable amount of room left open for interpretation between the ideas of stealing something versus merely misrepresenting it. Instances also existed where one institution would provide a violation that others had overlooked. Texas A&M University sets this precedent (Texas A&M University, 2011) by its consideration of complicity as a punishable behavior. An individual can be found guilty of academic dishonesty just by making it possible for another to commit misconduct. Complicity differs from most of the other acts in that it is a third party violation.

The variation of language between and among universities led the researchers to question the meanings of each violation. While some universities were clear on the meanings and variations of a violation, others left a lot to speculation. It can be concluded, for students to construct a deeper understanding of violations, less ambiguity in violation statements is necessary and will lead to a stronger ethical climate.

Sanctions for Violations

In most cases, when an honor code provided a list of enumerated violations, it was followed at some point by the sanctions that could possibly be administered if a student or faculty member was found guilty of the charges. Nearly 70% of the sample provided a description or listing of possible sanctions. Just under half of that group included this element immediately following their listing of violations. The other, roughly 40%, incorporated sanctions into other sections of their honor code. Often times, it was found in the portion of the code detailing the procedures that would be followed if a violation were to occur. Popular forms of punishment included a failing assignment or course grade, required public service, or expulsion from the university. Many of the institutions used in the research also gave themselves the option of offering an XF sanction. Mississippi State University is one these schools. Its honor code states that this particular penalty is “intended to identify a student that has failed to uphold the values of academic integrity” (Mississippi State University, 2011, para. 15). A guilty student will carry the XF indication on their transcript as a sign that their failure in a particular course was due to academic dishonesty.

While sanctions were found in almost all codes, they were often in anomalous places. Students and faculty members might have difficulty finding the sanctions. This could be an issue not only for students, but also professors who are in the process of either assigning sanctions or going through the judiciary process.

Governing Judiciary Group

When accusations as serious as academic dishonesty are being made, it is imperative for a university to have a group of individuals charged with managing the proceedings. Turner and Beemsterboer (2003) articulated the necessity for including, not only a detailed description of this governing judiciary body, but also information pertaining to membership qualifications and the process involved with committee selection. One-half of the honor codes that were examined included a segment dedicated to referencing or detailing the duties and composition of the group charged with overseeing the proceedings. For the most part, the descriptions had common threads of characteristics than ran through them. Findings showed that they were typically comprised of students, faculty, and non-faculty members. The Ohio State University boasted the largest panel with thirty-six members (Ohio State University, 2007, para. 37). A majority vote seemed to be the most common way to determine if an infraction had occurred. While there were noticeable norms, some of the universities failed to meet them. For example, the University of Delaware's Code of Conduct designates a verdict is to be decided on by the faculty member responsible for the accusation and a representative from the Office of Student Conduct (University of Delaware, 2011, para. 2). But, it fails to describe how the representative is chosen and what qualifications he/she was required to meet.

It can be concluded there is not a consistent view of judiciary groups shared by 1862 land-grant universities. The variation includes not only make-up but in group processes. While the majority were made of faculty, staff, and students, the combination and number represented varied greatly. There was also a consistent lack of transparency among the university honor codes. It was not clear how one would become part of the governing judiciary group. Qualifications needed and training required were assumed but not specified for the majority of the honor codes.

Process Description

Due to the legality that is a fundamental part of dealing with academic dishonesty, it is essential for an honor code to list the process that should be followed when a report is made. The documents should be written with the Fifth and Fourteenth Amendments to the United States Constitution in mind (Turner & Beemsterboer, 2003). The safeguards guaranteed by these amendments play a significant role in guaranteeing an individual's right to due process of the law. Some would question how the right to due process of law is applicable in a university setting. It comes from the understanding that once a student is admitted into a class, they are considered to have property interest in their education (Turner & Beemsterboer, 2003). Of the seventy percent of the schools that provided a process description, there was much variation. While some dedicated several pages to intricately detailing every aspect of the procedure, others would reference the judiciary process described in the general Code of Conduct. Still others, such as the University of California, Berkeley, provided a flowchart as a visual representation of the steps to be followed (University of California, 2004).

Making the process as simple as possible while maintaining the integrity of the system is important to the honor code system. It can be concluded the variation has more to do with the organizational composition of the honor code office (if there is one) than the values associated with the university.

Confidentiality

Even if an individual's actions are not considered respectable or ethical, they still possess a right to privacy. An effective honor code should include a provision stating details on the confidentiality of the entire process and resulting outcomes. Of all the elements researched, this was the rarest. Findings showed a mere 18% of the sample even mentioned the accused individual's right to privacy. This means over 80% of these land grant institutions are in direct violation with the terms established by the Federal Family Education Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) of 1974. FERPA dictates that situations of this manner should be kept strictly confidential.

While FERPA is a concern all universities must address, the right of fair proceedings is sometimes sacrificed. All 1862 Universities should review this section of their honor codes to include privacy and confidentiality issues.

Recording of Proceedings

The consequences that might possibly result from a guilty verdict on a charge of academic misconduct could dramatically alter an individual's life. Because of this, it is particularly important that there be no mistakes made or inconsistencies discovered in the records kept throughout the process. Over 60% of the schools sampled made note of some type of documentation to be kept. A few even went so far as to include provisions for audio and video recordings of the hearings. Research showed that this particular element, while seemingly simple, could actually be a complex and in-depth process. An institution must establish rules determining the length of time to save the documents and the availability of the records to the accused person and university officials. An individual should also be named to be responsible for the safekeeping of the records. The University of Vermont's Code of Academic Integrity exemplified these qualifications by adequately addressing each topic (University of Vermont, 2011).

It can be concluded recording judicial processes is imperative in the transparency and fairness need to protect both the accuser and the accused. Audio as well as video recordings are now easier to conduct and save.

Time Period for Written Decision

Turner and Beemsterboer (2003) expressed the responsibility of university officials to provide notification to the accused individual within a certain time period. This is necessary in order to prevent delays caused by a slow litigation process or bureaucratic holdups. Only 30% of the land-grant institutions included in the research acknowledged this element. A significant amount of variation existed between the given time periods. There was not a recognizable pattern in regards to their length, or what decision is being provided. Some included a provision for notifying the accused individual of whether or not a hearing would be necessary, while some gave notice of a verdict. Still, others wrote this section pertaining to notice of what sanction had been chosen. Although it was a given characteristic this notification was to be delivered in writing, some honor codes went so far as to say it must be sent through certified mail with verification of receipt. The University of Georgia's Academic Honesty Policy was an example of this. It reads, "The decision of the Academic Honesty panel shall be mailed by the Office of the Vice President for Instruction to the student by certified U.S. mail and to the instructor(s)..." (University of Georgia, 2007, para. 69).

There is no pattern in the notification processes between 1862 land-grant universities. In one instance, it could take up to 120 calendar days before a student was notified of the judiciary decision. The ramifications for not having a publicized procedure outweigh the benefits. All universities should not only include the notification timeline in their honor policy, but also make it as prompt as possible.

Appeals

One can easily expect an accused individual to disagree with a decision when the judiciary body does not rule in their favor. So, it is necessary to include a provision that states the procedure to be followed in case an appeal is filed. Just over half of the sample provided this. In most cases, this element remained fairly consistent from one university to the next. On the other hand, the University of Massachusetts, Amherst was very specific about circumstances that must exist in order for an individual to file an appeal. It requires a discovery of a rule violation during the hearing or submission of new evidence before one is allowed another hearing (University of Massachusetts, Amherst, 2011, para. 21).

Those universities which provided an appeals process were specific and detailed. Those universities, which do not discuss the appeal process, open themselves up for possible litigation.

Recommendations

Social learning theory states people learn by observing and then emulating the values, attitudes, and behaviors of people they find legitimate, attractive, and credible (Pojman, & Fiester, 2009). The validity of this statement has a direct impact on codes of ethics and student behaviors in institutions of higher education. While the vast majority of 1862 land-grant universities articulated their values, few delineated between university mission values and honor code values. By not only expanding their definitions of ethics versus morals but linking values in the honors code with university mission values, land-grants could strengthen their honor codes and begin to perpetuate an ethical organizational climate.

It is also recommended that universities look at their enumerated violations portion of honor codes and add detail. The more details, the more students can understand. Universities must also create fluid honor codes, which can be modified. Technological change has added more opportunities for unethical behavior as well as more opportunities to catch the violations. Honor codes which can not only be updated but effectively communicated are invaluable.

Sanctions are an imperative part of an effective honor code. Daft (2002) states human development teaches us values dictate behavior and those behaviors have consequences. Holding true to this notion, honor codes should begin with values, discuss violations (behaviors) and then immediately discuss sanctions (conclusions).

Judicial board and processes also varied among the universities. It is recommended universities increase the transparency of the judiciary make-up and process. Discussing qualifications and training of the board members would aid in the clarification of the process. The description of the process should be detailed, but use as simple language as possible. Using legal language confuses constituents who may be part of the process (Carter, 2008).

Protection of the privacy of those involved in honors violations is important. Because of FERPA, some universities are shying away from recording the judicial process. This is a mistake. Confidentiality is not the same as anonymity. If universities record the process and keep them on a secured server, this will

alleviate some of the issues. Proper training for those involved in the judiciary process is also recommended to ensure confidentiality.

Increasing the information given on judiciary decisions and appeals is needed for most 1862 land-grant honor codes. Promptness of decisions will aid in the scholastic development of the student, i.e. the student is less likely to commit the same infraction. Specifics are also important in this section.

It is recommended for all 1862 land-grant universities to improve the search-ability of their honor codes or policies. Streamlining the connection between honor codes and honor policies is another recommendation. Honor codes should be separate from student codes of conduct. When grouped together, both became too verbose and hard to navigate. It also seemed those universities which combined the two had “watered down” versions of each.

Honor codes and policies should be expanded to include all university participants. While the majority focus on student violations, it is important to note faculty and staff are also found in violation of the code (Carter, 2008).

The most imperative recommendation is to increase education on honor codes and policies. Adding honor code issues to freshmen seminar courses or as part of every core-curriculum course is one way to accomplish this task. Not knowing is not an excuse. Helping students and faculty understand the code, after they have been re-formatted, will add to the integration of the code into the organization. By creating a user friendly, complete honor code, universities create an organizational artifact which will lead to a more ethical environment and leadership educators will have a viable tool for their ethical classroom.

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Ethics and Morals in Leadership, A Review of the Literature

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Introduction

Following recent ethical scandals in corporate, business, educational, and religious settings, people have questioned the ethics and morals behind society's leaders and "the role of leadership in shaping ethical conduct" (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005, p. 117). Society as a whole has grown increasingly uncomfortable and less confident with leaders. As a result, citizens have looked to educational institutions to resolve the ethical and moral gap that has seemingly become like a great chasm in today's leaders' makeup. As suggested by Ciulla (1995), society is looking for that chasm to be filled. "The more defective our leaders are, the greater our longing to have highly ethical leaders" (Ciulla, 1995, p. 5). American citizens have traditionally looked to educational institutions for the creation of social values (Sloan, 1980, in Sims & Sims, 1991, p. 214). Sims and Sims (1991) argued "the college was considered to have a special and leading role to perform in the shaping of societal ethics, national goals and values, and therefore, it should be the logical location for ethics and value teaching" (p. 214).

Since then, many institutions have incorporated components of ethics and morals in their teaching curriculum (Begley & Stefkovich, 2007; Carlson & Burke, 1998; Dean & Beggs, 2006; Gandz & Hayes, 1988; Oddo, 1997; Plinio, 2009; Ryan & Bisson, 2011; Schoenfeldt, McDonald & Youngblood, 1991). Though many of these incorporations have been integrated into business schools' leadership curriculum (Dean & Beggs, 2006), Sims and Sims (1991) argued that integration should be university wide. "In recent years, however, many advocates of ethics teaching have suggested that ethics courses should not only be included in business curricula but also in other undergraduate and professional curricula at colleges and universities" (Sims & Sims, 1991, p. 211).

Universities' teaching of ethics and morals from traditional philosophy-based and business-based concentrations to expand across departments across the university has begun to show reflection of educational institutions taking heed to scholar's and society's advice for their need of ethically and morally sound leaders. This expansion has led to teaching ethics and morals in university leadership development courses, some of which are housed within colleges of agriculture. Though this is a step in the right direction and many leadership departments have begun to accept the role and responsibility of teaching ethics and morals to their leadership students, a bigger problem that is arising is how to effectively teach ethics and morals in leadership in the classroom (Brown et al., 2005; Sims & Felton, 2005).

This paper presents a thorough review of the literature of teaching ethics and morals in leadership in the classroom, presents notable findings, and suggests recommendations and implications this may have for the leadership development area of study and its faculties. From the literature review findings, further research queries could arise, including questions such as "What are barriers that teachers face when teaching ethics and morals as they are related to leadership?" and "Should ethics and morals in leadership be taught as a standalone course, or as

an embedded course?” All of these questions are related to our original question of how to best effectively teach ethics and morals in leadership in the classroom.

Methods

Many of the articles used were found through scholarly host sites such as JSTOR, and ScienceDirect. Search terms used included: “ethics and leadership,” “teaching ethics,” “ethical leadership,” “ethics,” “morals and ethics in education,” and “ethics and morals in leadership.” It is worth noting that much variation was found in some of these key terms, such as “ethics” which has been noted by other ethics scholars (Dean & Beggs, 2006). Much of the relevant research was selected based upon the following criteria: publication date, type of research (social sciences versus hard sciences), type of publication, whether or not the publication was peer-reviewed, and length, depth, and scope of the article. Since there has not been a large amount of significant exploration and research on the topic, articles published prior to the year 2000 were selected if they provided a solid foundation related to ethics and morals in leadership.

To aid in the selection, relevancy, and applicability of articles, informal comparative coding was used. Common themes or themes pertinent to the research topic were noted and a content analysis was used to determine relevancy of multiple scholarly articles to the subject. The content analysis analyzed common themes within the selected literature and as a result, six categories were developed to better communicate the findings.

Findings

Limited Research

Research on ethics and morals as related to leadership (i.e., “ethical leadership”) is sparse and fragmented, and little research has been conducted focusing on the ethical and moral dimensions of leadership. This lack of research has been noted by several scholars (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Brown et al., 2005; Carlson & Burke, 1998; Ciulla, 1995; Oddo, 1997; Plinio, 2009). Even less research on best teaching practices of ethics and moral in leadership have been noted by Brown and Treviño (2006), Carlson and Burke (1998), and Schoenfeldt et al. (1991).

Because of the scarcity of information in regards to teaching ethics and morals in leadership, much of the literature reviewed was from a related context: business. Within this context, there was still not an abundance of articles related to the specific pedagogy of teaching ethics and morals in the classroom, much less the leadership classroom. The articles found were still considered helpful in that they gave comprehensive reviews or in-depth discussion of steps on how to best teach ethics and morals, steps that have no need to be confined to ethics and morals in business but instead can be used across disciplines to further the effective pedagogies of ethics and morals as related to leadership.

Because some of the pioneers in teaching ethics and morals have been in philosophy and business departments, leadership departments could benefit from progress made in these areas. A benefit for leadership departments has been readily seen from the findings of previous pedagogy research from different departments which have resulted in a refinement of how ethics and morals are taught in the classroom (Begley & Stefkovich, 2007; Jenkins, 2012; Oddo, 1997; Ryan & Bisson, 2011; Sims & Felton, 2005). These refinements, though not heavily researched,

could still be a contributing factor to the success of leadership departments that are new to teaching ethics and morals in leadership.

The findings will be broken into the following categories by which leadership faculty should address teaching ethics and morals in leadership: address faculty uncertainties, increase collaboration, establish the use of ethical frameworks, develop and focus on goals and objectives, incorporate a variety of instructional methods, and address the issue of how to implement ethics and morals in leadership.

Address Faculty Uncertainties

One of the possible reasons why ethics and morals are not already being heavily considered or taught within leadership departments is, simply put— teachers lack confidence in their competence of and experience with ethics and morals in general (Dean & Beggs, 2006; Gandz & Hayes, 1988; Oddo, 1997; Ryan & Bisson, 2011; Sims & Sims, 1991). Providing training and education opportunities for faculty could overcome that barrier (Gandz & Hayes, 1988; Sims & Felton, 2005). Gandz and Hayes (1988) stated that providing these training opportunities could increase teacher competency. “The key, then, is to develop an effective training program for faculty which will reduce this fear and develop their analytical abilities” (Gandz & Hayes, 1988, p. 667).

Increase Collaboration

Another way to address faculty qualms about teaching ethics and morals as related to leadership can be seeking help from others who have extensive knowledge of ethics and morals. Schoenfeldt et al. (1991) and Oddo (1997) suggested a joint effort between leadership departments and philosophy departments when considering an introduction of ethics. Additionally, Oddo (1997) suggested that guest lecturing, attendance at philosophy conferences by business faculty (or others, such as leadership faculty), and more cooperation between philosophy faculty and business faculty would improve the sharing of ideas and provide a balance between theory and application. In turn, these efforts could improve the knowledge of separate fields gained by both parties and could increase the sharing of effective teaching methods for use in leadership classrooms.

Establish the Use of Ethical Frameworks

Increasing collaboration among groups of faculty members has a direct link to the use of frameworks within ethics and morals in leadership. According to Begley and Stefkovich (2007), “Recognizing the foundational roots of a values perspective or theoretical framework is a first step to establishing a shared vocabulary that will facilitate dialogue across disciplines and establish consensus on key concepts” (p. 402). Creating a shared vocabulary and consensus on important issues and concepts could increase the consistency of teaching ethics and morals in leadership departments with those of other departments.

The use of foundational frameworks in teaching has long-benefitted students and teachers alike and has provided a way for students to conceptualize in different ways the material they are learning. Another particular pedagogy method suggested by multiple authors is to include an ethics and morals framework or construct a framework into their leadership curriculum to help

facilitate effective learning (Begley & Stefkovich, 2007; Brown & Treviño, 2006; Brown et al., 2005; Gandz & Hayes, 1988; Oddo, 1997; Ryan & Bisson, 2011; Sims & Felton, 2005). Specific theories that have been suggested in the literature include social learning theory (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Brown et al., 2005), which “provides a strong theoretical foundation for understanding ethical leadership” (Brown et al., 2005, p. 129); experiential learning theory (Sims, 2001; Sims & Felton, 2005), which “offers ethics education a framework that integrates personal experience and practical application with perceptive appreciation and understanding of concepts” (Sims & Felton, 2005, p. 42); normative ethical theories (Oddo, 1997); the Vincentian tradition (Oddo, 1997); professional codes of ethics (Oddo, 1997); corporate codes of ethics (Oddo, 1997); and personal values (Oddo, 1997). Because of the nature of leadership and its relationship with a personal values-system, the personal values framework may be widely applicable.

Though recognized as an important instructional method, Gandz and Hayes (1988), warned that over-reliance on frameworks could lead to over-theorizing. “The overall objective should not be to drill students in the utilization of specific models, but, rather, to provide a framework and environment within which ethical issues may be identified, analyzed, and resolved to the point of action” (p. 664).

Develop and Focus on Goals and Objectives

As is crucial to any effective teaching method, developing goals and objectives for teaching ethics and morals in leadership is equally important, if not more so because of the ambiguous nature that specific ethical and moral theories can portray. Ryan and Bisson (2011) emphasized the importance of goals and objectives, “Regardless of the method of instruction utilized to deliver business ethics; strategic goals and objectives must be first identified within the curricula” (p. 46). Focusing on goals and objectives has also been consistent in other literature (Begley & Stefkovich, 2007; Burke & Carlson, 1998).

Specific operational objectives, such as the ones listed below (Sims & Felton, 2005, p. 35), could help provide students with a basis for reasoning and applying concepts to leadership:

- Create and foster awareness of the ethical components of organizations/business;
- Legitimize the consideration of ethical components as an integral part of decision-making;
- Provide a conceptual framework for analyzing the ethical components of decision-making and making choices; and
- Help students apply ethical analysis to the very real and practical day-to-day activities.

Note that the listed objectives are just a starting point for teaching ethics and morals in leadership, and faculty should carefully consider creating their own objectives or redefining the ones listed above to relate to leadership. The use of goals and objectives should help provide a foundation for discussion and learning and perhaps offer measureable class learning outcomes. The teacher should also give much thought to making the objectives reflect students’ personal values and issues that are important and relevant to them (Sims & Felton, 2005).

Incorporate a Variety of Instructional Methods

Objectives and goals are key components of any course, but using a variety of teaching methods to help convey and reach those objectives and goals are more likely to make a greater learning impact than if those objectives and goals are just listed on a syllabus. Incorporating objectives and goals through class discussion, role-playing (Sims 2001), role-modeling (Brown & Trevino, 2006), case studies, videos, lectures, and so forth, will help to ensure that critical course concepts are met, understood, and can be applied to real-world situations. “Real-life situations reflect the type[s] of challenges students are likely to face and help them bridge the gap between theory and application” (Sims & Felton, 2005, p. 35).

Sims and Felton (2005) listed several specific instructional methods they analyzed in their study and found to each be an effective teaching method, including storytelling, gaining personal insight, broadly defining ethics, dialogue, ethics education efforts lasting more than one day, and providing clear expectations and goals. Among keeping journals, penning personal and professional codes of ethics, discussing ethical dilemmas, and providing peer critiques of others’ analysis of codes of ethics, Begley and Stefkovich (2007) highlight the use of case studies and self-reflection to effectively teach ethics. “As mentioned previously, case study approaches, if used properly, can provide an important strategy for analyzing ethical issues and identifying ethical (and unethical) behavior” (Begley & Stefkovich, 2007, p. 408).

Many nontraditional teaching methods have also appeared in the classroom to promote learning and material applicability. Sims (2001) agreed that some forms of untraditional teaching, like community service projects, may foster learning. “Requiring students to participate in some form of community service also offers the potential for personal and emotional impact that may be difficult to capture through traditional classroom learning” (Sims, 2001, p. 400). Sims also suggested that students examine their college’s code of conduct, focus on current events in the news, and examine business codes of current or former employers to help contextualize and promote active learning. “The pedagogical approaches presented above all emphasize high participation and active rather than passive learning” (Sims, 2001, p. 400). Similar to Sims’ suggestion, Conroy and Emerson (as cited by Dean and Beggs, 2006), suggested that using codes of conduct, rather than taking a generalized approach may have a better effect on positively changing student behavior. Dean and Beggs (2006) stated that “[Conroy and Emerson] assert that the latter [discipline-specific codes of conduct embedded in instruction] ‘may well be effective in changing perceptions and behavior’ (p. 391) but, that generalized approaches to ethics education have not been shown to effect similar changes” (p. 23).

In addition to discipline-specific codes of conduct approaches, Keller (2007), found that instructional style makes a significant difference. Keller’s study looked at two instructional methodologies: transactional, which is centered on traditional methods “...to include direct presentation of class concepts and information” (p. 10), and transformational, which seeks to engage students by using techniques such as reflection, and encourages sharing and questioning of personal beliefs and values (Keller, 2007, p. 10). Keller (2007) found that transformational instruction methodologies were more effective in raising students’ moral judgment than were transactional methodologies. “...transformational instructional methodology is a significant determinant regarding increases in student moral judgment. In contrast, changes in moral judgment for students exposed to transactional instructional methods were not significant, and may be less common or more subtle in nature” (p. 162).

A key thing to remember is to effectively implement the teaching methods described above in a realistic manner (Begley & Stefkovich, 2007).

Standalone or Embedded?

When implementing different instructional methods to teach ethics and morals in leadership, an important decision to consider is whether to teach the concepts in a standalone course or to teach the concepts embedded throughout multiple curricula. Much of the existing literature (Begley & Stefkovich, 2007; Gandz & Hayes, 1988; Sims, 2001; Sims & Felton, 2005) suggested that teaching ethics as a standalone course is not the most effective way to teach ethics or for students to learn and apply ethical concepts. Gandz and Hayes concluded that, “Business Ethics should be integrated into all the business discipline areas, not segregated into specialized or mandatory courses” (p. 668).

One of the key questions that Ryan and Bisson (2011) sought to address paper was the question of whether ethics should be taught via standalone modules or integrated into other curricula. “Offering business ethics as a stand-alone course or integrating it across the curriculum has sparked much debate” (p. 46). They presented findings from other research which suggested that stand-alone courses are “disconnected from real-world application and that ethics must be integrated throughout the curriculum” (Ryan & Bisson, 2011, p. 47). Oddo (1997) also concluded that ethics should not be taught as a stand-alone course. “When ethics is taught as a separate course, students often do not incorporate what they learn in the ethics course into other business courses” (p. 293).

Notably, the favorable stance on integration seems to have changed since prior research on the topic was conducted. Schoenfeldt et al. (1991) noted that of schools considering adding an ethics course, “The choice is a separate course appears to have three times the endorsement for expansion of coverage that course integration has” (p. 240).

This is an important distinction to note because research on this topic is relatively new but has made significant changes, at least in this regard. The change in attitude, leaning more towards an embedded or integrated approach, may be a result of the multiple ethical scandals our society endured at the turn of the century. This could have impacted the way educational institutions and leadership faculty viewed teaching ethics and morals as related to leadership. Does teaching ethics and morals in leadership as a standalone or embedded course really matter? Peppas and Diskin (2001) suggested that the integration of ethics in other courses result in a much higher dependency on ethical standards.

This poses an important problem for leadership faculty. Effectively meshing ethics and morals throughout leadership curricula, instead of just providing a singular course or module on it, may have negative effects on students’ learning, retention, and application of ethical constructs to the leadership situations they are sure to be faced with in the real world. Faculty should carefully consider this issue when teaching ethics and morals in leadership.

Recommendations and Implications

Though the research provided may be heavily influenced by ethics programs within business schools or settings, there are still several implications for teaching ethics and morals in

leadership. Leadership faculty could learn much from the existing research on teaching ethics and morals in the classroom. The instructional methods provided and suggested within the body of research are not restricted to just one area or context of teaching; they could be applied across multiple fields and disciplines.

Much of the research thus far has focused on the importance of ensuring that the sometimes abstract philosophical background of ethical and moral theories can be applied to appropriate contexts (Begley & Stefkovich, 2007; Gandz & Hayes, 1988; Oddo, 1997; Peppas & Diskin, 2001; Plinio, 2009; Ryan & Bisson, 2011; Sims, 2001; Sims & Felton, 2005). This is an important point for leadership faculty to remember when teaching ethics and morals within leadership. Much of the leadership material taught in the classroom is theoretically based but is further discussed and presented in ways that students can apply to real-world or personally relevant contexts; it seems natural that teaching ethics and morals in the classroom should be quite similar in approach. Leadership faculty should be aware of the relevancy of each ethical and moral theory they cover and should apply those to leadership or other contextual examples. “The implication for teaching ethics at the college and university level is that instructors need to understand the ways in which values and ethical frameworks are relevant to their course content” (Begley & Stefkovich, 2007, p. 402).

After reviewing and analyzing the literature, it is recommended that an ethics and morals in leadership course *or* embedded modules include the following core components: specific goals and objectives as related to ethics and morals in leadership; critical theory definition; broad, contextual application of theories; case study analyses; and group activities including discussion, analysis of organizational ethical/moral frameworks, development of personal ethical and moral statements, and peer review of personal statements.

Case study analyses could allow students to analyze a real -world ethical or moral dilemma in a leadership context (Begley & Stefkovich, 2007). Analyzing and discussing case studies could help students learn to bridge the gap between theory and application, a problem mentioned at the beginning of this review (Brown et al., 2005; Ciulla, 1995; Sims & Felton, 2005; Sims & Sims, 1991). Leadership educators may also want to consider requiring students to create their own case studies to gauge a deeper understanding of theory application and relevancy to the students.

Through group discussion, it is more likely students would be able to learn the material and to discuss why ethics and morals in leadership are important (Ryan & Bisson, 2011; Sims 2001). Group discussion would also allow for a variety of inputs and opinions from all students, allowing students to keep an open mind and consider ethical and moral dilemmas and solutions they otherwise might not have (Sims & Felton, 2005). Supervised group discussion would allow for deeper analysis of ethical and moral theories, their relationship to leadership, and it would help prevent groupthink.

Analyses of real-world organizations or companies’ ethical or moral codes of conducts, guidelines, or policies would better enable students to see what role ethics and morals in leadership plays in the work environment. Breaking down codes of conduct, and so forth, would allow students to identify specific ethical and moral theories *and* leadership theories that make up those codes of conduct, and so forth. Students could use the knowledge they gain from these activities to become better aware of organization’s ethical and moral foundations, and students

could learn to strategically write their own ethical and moral policies, and so forth, as some students may end up leading organizations in the future.

Lastly, it is critical for students to do some kind of personal statement in regard to how they would choose to be ethical and moral leaders for society (Oddo, 1997). This could allow students the opportunity to refine their thinking about ethics and morals in leadership and explain their attitudes and opinions towards ethics and morals in leadership. As a personal reflection activity, this would allow students to turn their tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge, which would improve their understanding of ethics and morals in leadership. Leadership educators might want to consider doing this activity at the beginning of a semester and again at the end of the semester, as well as discuss changes in personal statements as a result of knowledge and awareness of ethics and morals in leadership.

The aforementioned course or module components are all suggestions that could help address the gap between ethical and moral theory and application in a leadership context. Leadership educators should incorporate their own successful teaching pedagogies to help them address the gap. Bridging this gap between pure theory and contextual application should be a critical focus for all leadership educators to keep in the forefront of their minds. By doing so and conducting more research on the relationship between ethics and morals in leadership and the effects of teaching it in the classroom, leadership educators could help address the societal concern for more ethically and morally sound leaders. As a result, contributions would be made to the body of knowledge on the subject, helping educators, students, peers, and practitioners alike. “The work of ethical leadership has enormous potential to bridge the gap between the rigors of research and academia and the relevance of connecting to the practitioners” (Plinio, 2009, p. 279).

In addition to addressing ethics and morals in leadership concepts in leadership courses, leadership educators should also consider collaborating with different fields, and attend conferences or trainings related to ethics and morals to increase their competence of ethical and moral theory, and by doing so, any uncertainties they may have could be addressed (Gandz & Hayes, 1988).

Conclusion

Just as recent ethical societal scandals have spawned concerns of how leadership plays a role in the ethical and moral makeup of our leaders, so it has spawned a new body of research on ethics and morals in leadership education. This body of research, though limited, shows promise of addressing the gap between ethical and moral theory and application. Though much of this literature review was based off of business-related articles, collaboration between different fields and educational departments should serve to strengthen our foundation and knowledge of ethics and morals in leadership. “We must begin to look at our academic disciplines and ethics in fresh ways. How do our different fields look at ethics?” (Sims & Felton, 2005, p. 46). Using resources and seeking help from others could drastically impact the way educators perceive and teach ethics and morals in leadership.

From the literature review findings, representative categories were created to help leadership educators better understand the current literature on the topic, and to create a starting point and foundation for leadership educators to address teaching ethics and morals in leadership. The

categories presented were: address faculty uncertainties, increase collaboration, establish the use of ethical frameworks, develop and focus on goals and objectives, incorporate a variety of instructional methods, and standalone or embedded.

Jenkins (2012) concluded that by focusing on incorporating a variety of instructional methods, leadership faculty will be able to provide a more holistic approach to leadership. By considering the categories presented in the review and addressing specific concerns related to their academic departments, faculty may begin to create a solid foundation for teaching ethics and morals in leadership. Though effectively teaching the difference between ethics and morals and how to apply it in real-world situations may seem daunting, it seems to have been deemed a necessary task by society. Dean and Beggs (2006) would also conclude that there may be hope yet.

“Advocates of ethics education are optimistic about the positive impact of ethics education and adamant about the necessity of ethics education in the college setting” (p. 23).

Further research is needed in this area to ascertain effective teaching methods for leadership faculty and to address further issues such as transferability and impact on student behavior. Dean and Beggs (2006) concluded from their study that “evidence of ethics education and its impact on behaviors is mixed...” (p. 24). This alludes to a gap that exists between the expectations of educational institutions to positively impact students’ behaviors and to the harsh reality of continuing immoral and unethical behavior in corporate America and beyond. More research in this area can help close that gap. “The lack of evidence, however, seems not to stop calls for more and more effective ethics education at the postsecondary level as solutions to corporate ethics breaches continue to be sought” (Dean & Beggs, 2006, p. 24). By taking into account the recommendations, leadership educators could answer to the call of “more effective ethics education” and in doing so, help to address the ethical and moral concerns of society and bridge the ethical gap in leaders’ makeup.

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Learning Vicariously: Students' Reflections of the Leadership Lessons Portrayed in *The Office*

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Introduction

Teaching leadership theories and concepts is challenging in a traditional classroom (Halpern, 2000). Leadership educators have the difficult job of “explaining abstract concepts and ideas to students” (Williams & McClure, 2010, p. 86). Williams (2006) said leadership educators want to find and utilize new and creative ways to teach leadership theory.

One teaching technique used to illustrate leadership concepts is the use of popular culture items, such as television shows and movies. The use of popular culture items in the classroom is an accepted pedagogical tool for leadership educators. Utilizing such teaching resources has been done in “an effort to assist students in learning complex concepts such as leadership theory” (Williams & McClure, 2010, p. 86).

Integrating technology such as videos in the classroom can “enrich and enhance teaching and learning activities” (Duhaney, 2000, p.69). Incorporating popular culture items in the classroom has been recognized as a valid teaching strategy because the popular culture provides settings in which to learn (Callahan, Whitener, & Sandlin, 2007). “Whether we like it or not, cinema assumes a pedagogical role in the lives of many people. It may not be the intent of the filmmaker to teach audiences anything, but that does not mean that lessons are not learned” (Hooks, 1996, p. 2).

Because movies and television shows are being used in the classroom, it is important leadership educators better understand what students are actually learning from watching popular culture items. Brungardt and Crawford (1996) advocated additional efforts should be made to assess and evaluate leadership curriculum to further the discipline. This research paper provides the qualitative results of students’ reflections learning of leadership concepts after watching several episodes of the television show, *The Office*.

Literature Review

Today’s students are different from previous generations of students such as Baby Boomers or Generation-X because Millennials have grown up with media and technology (Kaiser Family Foundation, 2005) and are naturally technology savvy. In a learning environment, members of this generation appreciate teamwork, experiential activities, structure, entertainment, and technology (Raines, 2002). They believe that “education is supposed to be entertaining, easy, and fun” (Taylor, 2006, p. 50).

When educating the Millennial Generation, McGlynn (2005) said more research is necessary to develop new teaching strategies, to adjust current practices, and to investigate how to effectively use technology to improve learning. Educators must find ways to teach their students while also

keeping them engaged in the curriculum (Graham, Ackermann, & Maxwell, 2004). “Educators must take responsibility for facilitating the learning process to critically engage the work as it relates to leadership” (Callahan & Rosser, 2007, p. 276).

Leadership can be taught (Bennis, 1994), but educators must integrate innovative teaching methods that allow for experiential learning (Brunk, 1997). One method that has become very popular is the use of popular culture artifacts such as television and movies (Callahan & Rosser, 2007). These tools can serve as mock scenarios in which the students can learn leadership skills (Williams, Townsend, & Linder, 2005).

Movies have been used as an educational tool to help people learn how to lead (Graham, Sincoff, Baker, & Ackermann, 2003). Leadership researchers have wrote about the use of movies to teach a multitude of leadership concepts (Callahan & Rosser, 2007; Graham, Ackermann, & Maxwell, 2004; Graham et al., 2003; Williams, 2006; Williams & McClure, 2010). Utilizing movies and television in the leadership classroom allows “students to witness and discuss leadership theory [which] aids in the students’ ability to build the mental synapses that lead to deeper learning” (Williams, 2006, p. 61). Graham et al. (2003) used movie clips to illustrate the five practices essential for effective leadership outlined in Kouzes and Posner’s (2002) book, *The Leadership Challenge*. Although they did not report how students benefited from viewing the clips, they did offer suggestions for leadership educators to follow when using movies and movie clips to teach leadership concepts. Williams (2006) wrote how a specific movie (*Pirates of the Caribbean*) can be used to illustrate power bases, but she did not provide how the practice affected student learning.

While showing movies can be effective for learning leadership concepts, it does take up a great deal of time and may not be realistic to meet course learning objectives. Roskos-Ewoldsen and Roskos-Ewoldsen (2001) found that using shorter video clips in an undergraduate psychology class helped students understand the concepts, made the concepts covered more realistic, and overall, made the course more enjoyable.

Williams and McClure (2010) compared the knowledge retention rate of students who were taught a leadership concept using one of three different pedagogical methods: lecture, experiential learning, or public pedagogy. Public pedagogy relies on popular culture to serve as the educational tool (Giroux, 2000). The leadership concept of interest was Kouzes and Posner’s (2007) “Challenge the Process.” Students who were taught with public pedagogy watched media clips and commercials. The other two groups of students were taught in the traditional lecture format or with experiential learning activities. Williams and McClure (2010) developed an instrument to measure students’ knowledge of “Challenge the Process.” The instrument was administered to each group a total of three times (immediately after instruction, two weeks after, and four weeks after). Williams and McClure (2010) found the students who were taught using public pedagogy had the highest knowledge retention rate of all the groups. Those students who were taught with only lecture had the lowest knowledge gain and retention rate for the leadership concept of interest.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was Bandura’s (1977) social cognitive theory, which states learning can occur enactively or vicariously. Enactive learning relates to learning by doing

and learning from prior experiences. Vicarious learning is different in that the learner does not actually perform the behavior, but watches others perform the behavior through a variety of sources. These sources for vicarious learning include: observing or listening to individuals, printed materials (e.g. books), symbolic representations (e.g. cartoons), and electronic sources (e.g. television, videotape, media clips). Schunk (2004) advocated the use of vicarious sources of information as a technique to make learning more possible than if someone had to actually perform all the behaviors individually. Using this recommendation, the integration of television episodes into leadership curriculum provides a source for vicarious learning.

Purpose/Research Objectives

The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore students' ability to identify and evaluate leadership concepts after viewing television episodes of *The Office* (Silverman, Daniels, Gervais, & Merchant, 2005-2009). The following research question was used to guide the research: What were students' evaluations of the leadership concepts portrayed in *The Office* episodes?

Methods

The population for this study included 39 students (all over 18 years old) enrolled in two courses at a southwestern university. One course (AGSC 3301 Agricultural Leadership Principles) had 32 students enrolled while the other course (AGED 3315 Personal Leadership Development in Agriculture and Natural Resources) had 17 students enrolled. Ten students were in both classes. Students were offered 10 points extra credit to complete the demographics portion of this study in an effort to increase participation. The journaling portion was required for the class; however, two students elected not to have their journals used in later data analysis, which resulted in a total of 37 journals available for this study.

Students watched episodes of the television program *The Office* while they were in their respective class. *The Office* is a television program that has been on NBC since 2005. It is a documentary-style half-hour comedy series set in a Scranton, Pennsylvania, paper supply company called Dunder Mifflin. It revolves around the workers who spend their day in "the office" ("About The Office," n.d.).

The Office episodes selected for use in the classes were chosen based on the concepts that are taught in the two courses. Students in AGSC 3301 watched five *The Office* episodes, which lasted on average 23 minutes each, during five separate class periods. The five episodes shown in AGSC 3301 were: Office Olympics, Halloween, Sabre, Conflict Resolution, and Business Ethics. Students in AGED 3315 watched six episodes of *The Office*, which lasted on average 23 minutes each, during six separate class periods. The six episodes were: Health Care, New Boss, Dundies, The Negotiation, The Promotion, and Diversity Day.

The researchers obtained the university's Institutional Review Board approval before collecting data for the study. All research occurred within the normal class time and did not require any additional time outside of the class period. First, students completed a survey instrument to collect demographic data and to give permission to participate in the study. Second, students completed a reflective journaling exercise before, during, and after each of the episodes. The reflective journal was passed out at the beginning of each class period an episode was shown and collected at the end.

To answer the stated research question, qualitative methodology was used through the analysis of the reflective journals. The journals allowed students to think about and respond to the episode in a “non-intimidating environment” (Meyers, Irlbeck, & Fletcher, 2011, p. 9). Reflective journaling may also encourage students to think more deeply about an issue after the class period ends (Beall, 1998; Boden, Cook, Lasker-Scott, Moore, & Shelton, 2007). The use of reflective journaling in the classroom can be a valuable educational tool, but teachers must do an effective job of giving directions for its use (Meyers et al., 2011). Students must see the value in the activity and its application to their “personal growth and professional development” (Meyers et al., p. 9).

When using reflective journaling, Hubbs and Brand (2010) advised the instructor provide students with expectations as to journal length, how the content could relate to personal experiences, and a short introduction to the topic being illustrated. In this study, students were asked to consider questions before, during, and after each episode was shown to promote further reflection. The same question was asked before viewing every episode, “What are possible themes that may emerge from this episode related to leadership?” Students were allowed time to write their response to this question and to start thinking how the title of the episode and the leadership concept being discussed that class period may be connected. Students were then asked a specific question to guide their viewing of the episode. They were asked to record their responses to the question in their journal as they watched the episode. Questions asked for each episode are listed in Table 1.

Table 1

Reflection Questions Asked to Students During Each Episode of The Office

Episode Title	Questions Asked
Business Ethics	What was the ethical issue? Which principles of ethical leadership were illustrated or broken?
Conflict Resolution	Write down examples of conflict and conflict management. How does the leader handle the conflict (methods, directions, etc)?
Diversity Day	How does the leader encourage diversity? What concepts related to diversity were exhibited? (prejudice, stereotypes, ethnocentrism, etc)
Dundies	What are the reward and/or punishment behaviors being illustrated? What is the reaction of the followers?
Halloween	Write down the bases of power that leaders exhibit. What influence tactics were illustrated in the episode? (Include who was involved in the influence process.)

Health Care	Write down who is exhibiting leadership behaviors and which behavior it is.
New Boss	Write down the types of directive leadership behaviors, skills, and traits that are exhibited. Also, write down supportive behaviors.
Office Olympics	Write down the leaders in the episode. What leadership traits do they possess/exhibit? Who exhibits ineffective leadership traits? What are they?
Sabre	What is the change and how is it implemented? How are the characters responding to the change?
The Negotiation	What negotiation skills/techniques are used in the episode? Are they effective? (Write down positive and negative examples)
The Promotion	What are examples of fairness/unfairness? How does the leader(s) exhibit fair and ethical behavior? What are examples of social exchange behaviors?

After viewing each episode, students were allowed another five minutes to reflect on the episode and how it illustrated specific leadership concepts. Students were asked to write in their journals in order to evaluate the effectiveness, or ineffectiveness, of the leader(s) in the episode. The following questions were asked after each episode:

- Have you seen this episode before?
- What is your reaction to the episode?
- How did the characters illustrate the leadership concept?
- How did the episode help you better understand the leadership concept?
- What would you have done differently if you were the leader in the situation?

Two graduate assistants transcribed the students' reflective journals in their entirety and saved each in a separate Word document. Students were assigned unique pseudonyms to protect their identities when analyzing and reporting the results. The instructor was not aware of which students agreed to allow their journals for analysis and which did not. The Word documents were then imported into NVivo 8.0, a qualitative data analysis software that assists with data coding and organization. Data were analyzed using open and axial coding in Nvivo. Nvivo was used as an aid, but "the researcher remains the decision maker and interpreter" (Glesne, 2010, p. 205). Through this process, the data were coded and themes were developed.

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), there are four components to establishing trustworthiness in a qualitative study: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Triangulation of the data established credibility and confirmability. Transferability was accomplished through the use of thick descriptions and purposive sampling. An audit trail was also used to assure dependability of the study.

Findings

All 39 students completed the demographics section for the study. Two students opted out of having their journals used in the qualitative portion. Respondents were almost even in gender with 20 females and 19 males. Most students were seniors ($n = 17$), followed by juniors ($n = 11$), sophomores ($n = 10$), and one freshman. Most students were agricultural leadership majors ($n = 13$), followed by agricultural economics/business ($n = 10$), then agricultural communications ($n = 9$), and all other majors ($n = 7$).

The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore students' ability to identify and evaluate leadership concepts after viewing television episodes of *The Office*. The research question of interest was: What were students' evaluations of the leadership concepts portrayed in *The Office* episodes?

Overall, many students were able to connect the leadership scenarios shown in the episodes to those they may experience in their real life. Abigail wrote, "It helped me to better understand leadership concepts because I got to connect them to real life situations." Joseph reflected, "This episode helped me understand the leadership concept better by showing me that leadership can take place anywhere and anytime." Chloe remarked, "The episode helped me by showing real examples in action." Evelyn commented, "It put it in a real life perspective." Sophia wrote, "It showed how people would use these tactics in day-to-day life."

Students were able to recognize several leadership lessons from the viewing of the episodes. From the evaluation of their reflective journals, four themes were identified as leadership lessons: leaders should be professional, leadership effectiveness can vary, decision making is crucial, and leadership is contradictory.

Theme: Leaders Should Be Professional

Students recognized the need to act more professional when involved in a leadership situation. Many students identified the need for Michael Scott to behave in a more professional manner because he is the manager of the office. Chloe wrote, "I would have taken a better approach as the leader and acted like I had more control and would have been more professional." Emma noted, "[if] I was Michael I would have put more focus into work and acted more professionally." Ryder commented, "I would have handled the issue in a more appropriate manner and a more business leadership way rather than a personal way."

One episode revolved around the need for Michael to fire an employee. Many students remarked how unprofessionally the situation was handled. Piper wrote, "I would never tell the employees that they were going to possibly be fired or ask their help in picking who to fire." Joseph offered the following:

If I would've been in Michael's shoes I first wouldn't have waited so long, second would have not asked other employees who they thought should be fired, and thirdly would have tried to handle it in a more professional way.

Students identified the need for Michael to allow other employees to do their jobs and not try to do them for them. Josiah wrote, "Keep Toby doing what he was doing. It's worked so far...and he is trained." Jackson noted, "I would've allowed Mr. Brown to do his presentation and refrained from making inappropriate Chris Rock comments."

Students also acknowledged the need for leaders to communicate in a more professional manner. Kylie wrote: “I wouldn’t be offensive and rude. I would have left it to the professional.” Miles wrote, “I would have been more discrete when complaining about the new changes.” Summer reflected, “Had I been in the situation, I would have tried to put up with the changes to see how it would work out before contesting them.”

Students recognized the need for a leader to handle sensitive subjects privately. Several episodes had scenes in which an issue was discussed out in the open and made a public issue. Isaac wrote:

In that situation, those things that people file are personal and private material. It is not allowed nor is it ever a good idea to openly put everyone’s personal opinions out there. Some things people say about others may be in private and may be something they are just venting on.

Several students added to their initial comments by describing what they would have done differently if they were the leader in the situation. Harper wrote, “I would have never discussed private complaints publicly. I would also encourage the individuals to resolve these conflicts without my input.” Joseph reflected, “If it were me, I’d probably not make it some public when trying to resolve complaints that coworkers had with each other.” Abigail wrote, “I would have done everything in private and not told everyone who was/wasn’t getting raises because that is my business not everyone’s.” Kaylee commented, “I would have privately [gone] to each person who had a complaint and come up with a better way to solve the issues.” Mia wrote, “Not openly discuss issues; pull each person aside to hear their stories.”

Theme: Leadership Effectiveness Can Vary

Students were able to recognize the differences between effective and ineffective leaders. Abigail wrote, “It helped me to realize what is effective as a leader and what is not.” Anthony reflected, “Just because someone is in a leadership position, does not mean they are fit for the role.” Jasmine wrote, “The episode helped me better understand leadership by showing how leaders can have good traits even though they aren’t the boss.” Summer commented: “The characters possessed different leadership traits, some effective and others ineffective. It shows that everyone handles a situation differently and some leaders’ natural traits will come out.”

Several students identified Jim as the effective leader in *The Office*. Brayden wrote, “The episode showed how a charismatic leader, Jim, presents the office with a fun day to boost morale.” Chloe wrote, “Jim motivated the other employees and even the boss.”

Students also commented that the leader in *The Office*, manager Michael Scott, is more an example of an ineffective leader. Josiah commented, “It showed that in the traditional management setup, those at the top aren’t always effective leaders.” Anthony wrote, “Michael did not use good leadership skills when trying to fix the problems.” Josiah expressed the following: “Michael is a bad manager. He’s an even worse leader. He can’t ever back up what he says or stand up for himself. His only saving grace is that he cares for his employees.”

Many students recognized that they would not have done what Michael did in the leadership scenarios. In an episode in which another trainer was brought in, Conner reflected, “I would’ve left the training up to Mr. Brown and not done what Michael did.” Another episode involved a sensitive issue and Mia wrote, “Kind of bad for Michael to openly discuss everyone’s issues with

everyone.” In an episode in which Michael was asked to fire someone, Brayden wrote, “I would have approached the firing process in a more formal way, instead of asking Dwight to help decide and especially not have him try to fire Stanley.”

Theme: Decision Making is Crucial

Students recognized that, as leaders, they will be required to make difficult decisions. They acknowledged it is necessary for the leaders to make the decision so the rest of the group/team can spend their time working on their own responsibilities. When reflecting on an episode in which the boss was asked to select a new health care plan for his employees, Cooper wrote, “If I was the leader in this situations I would [have] made the decision by myself and stuck to my decision.” Evelyn wrote, “I would not have gone to all of the others for opinions. I would have made my decision and stuck with it.” Conner said “I would have picked the plan myself while asking for input from my employees/followers.”

The students commented on the need for the manager, Michael, to gather more information to make informed decisions. The method he used was not the method most students thought was appropriate. Several commented what they would have done differently. Mia wrote, “Ask employees what they would like to see in healthcare plan and try my best to give them what they want. Man up to being a manager.” Emma reflected, “I would have actually read the different plans and picked the best suited one for my office. Leadership also requires the ability to make decisions.” Elijah commented:

I myself would have looked over the health care plans and choose the best one for the company and my workers. The workers would have listened more to the boss than one of their very own peers. Dwight had a good approach but the workers would have been more honest with Michael being the boss than any peer.

After viewing an episode dealing with change, students remarked about the need to seek out more information in order to make a more informed decision. Chloe remarked, “I would have tried to have been more open and given the changes a chance before I complained.” Elijah wrote: “I would have seen what was working in the branch and change what was not, because he came into a new place without any background information. Figured out what they wanted as a branch.” Kylie commented, “I would have tried hard to understand why these changes were being put into place.”

Another episode focused on the firing of an employee. Students agreed that Michael Scott did not handle the situation well. Jackson wrote: “Discharge of an employee is not something to be taken lightly. Rather than consulting with each individual employee, I would have analyzed the situation and made the call authoritatively.” Summer commented, “If I had been the leader in the situation, I would have done some things the same way, but I think that I would have done more to choose the right person to fire based on employee performance, etc., as well as making my decision before the deadline.”

Another episode featured an employee asking for a raise. The students said the way it was handled was not the most appropriate way and offered their own suggestions. Elijah wrote, “I would have took more time before making a decision and letting them know what it would have been, and given everyone a raise.”

Many students recognized that it is not appropriate to wait until the last minute to make an important decision. Noah wrote, “I would not have made it a last minute decision and I would not have let my first pick to tell me no I would have stuck with my decision.” Conner wrote, “Showed that it is better to know what you are doing than to quickly prepare.”

Students commented that they would have done things differently if they were in similar situations. Brayden wrote, “This episode showed how you can over micromanage and that you shouldn’t run from a decision based on the idea of not wanting to upset people.” Elijah commented, “It helped me understand that it is difficult making tough decisions based on how it can affect others who are your friends.”

Theme: Leadership is Contradictory

Students recognized that while anyone can lead, it is hard to be the leader. Evelyn commented, “It showed that anyone can rise as a leader and because everyone has different traits, anyone can be a leader.” Cooper wrote, “It helped me understand that it doesn’t have to be something major to be a leader, it takes [a leader] in anything you do.” Evelyn remarked, “This episode helps illustrate that anyone can be a leader.” Isaac wrote: “It shows that there is not just one set way to lead. It also shows that people in any ranking position can lead in some way or another.” Joseph commented, “It helped me understand the leadership concept better because it showed me that in any situation, you can be a leader.”

Students recognized that it is difficult to be the leader and it requires a high level of maturity. Anthony wrote, “[The episode] helped me understand that just because someone is in a leadership position does not mean that they are always prepared to lead and make important decisions.” Noah reflected, “If you are the person in charge, you can’t please every person 100% of the time.” Sebastian wrote, “This episode sealed the fact for me that if you want to lead you must be able to stand your ground.” Isaac commented, “I thought it was a good way of showing how it is not easy to let someone go in an office setting where everyone knows everyone and that it is a struggle to not be swayed by outside influences.” Elijah remarked, “It helped me understand that it is always hard to separate when to be a boss and a friend. I understood that also being the boss is a challenge.” Conner reflected that an episode, “helped me to know that if you don’t show support, charisma, or participate in a big decision/change your followers may not be happy with the outcome.”

Although leadership can be difficult, the students recognized the need to have fun while in leadership positions. Many students wrote about the working environment of the office and how it is okay to have fun every once in a while. Mia wrote, “That leadership does not always have to be geared to a goal; it can be for fun.” Noah wrote, “If the leader is not happy, chances are the followers will not feel happy with their situations either.” Miles stated, “Leadership isn’t just about telling people what to do but also getting to know them.” Lillian commented, “It showed me that being a leader can have its fun sides. Being a leader is about motivating people, and Jim did.”

Conclusions

Prior research has found that using popular culture in the classroom is an effective way to teach a variety of subjects (Callahan & Rosser, 2007; Meyers et al., 2011). Within leadership education,

Williams and McClure (2010) said viewing movies or television shows helps demonstrate abstract leadership concepts. The results of this study support that students do learn from watching television episodes of *The Office*. Some lessons were examples of what not to do, but others were valuable examples of leadership in a work environment. Students were able to critically evaluate the leaders portrayed in *The Office* and wrote comments about leadership styles, conflict resolution techniques, and leader effectiveness.

The use of *The Office* episodes also helped students understand concepts taught in the courses by applying what was being taught in the classroom to the real-life scenarios (enhanced for comedic effect) portrayed in the episodes. Utilizing the episodes in these leadership education courses allowed students to learn from the characters involved in the leadership scenarios instead of being asked to perform those tasks themselves (Brunk, 1997; Williams et al., 2005). The students' ability to reflect on what they would do in these situations demonstrated vicarious learning (Bandura, 1977). Although students have not yet had the opportunity to be the leader who must fire someone, share bad news, make difficult decisions, resolve conflict, viewing the episodes in the courses did allow them to think critically about how they should behave in these types of situations. In a semester long course, it is hard to replicate leadership situations, but through the use of popular culture examples, students are able to learn valuable leadership lessons.

The use of the journals allowed students to reflect on the leadership scenarios presented in the episodes. "Allowing students to witness and discuss leadership theory aids in the students' ability to build the mental synapses that lead to deeper learning" (Williams, 2006, p. 61).

In terms of the professionalism theme, students recognized that there is a need to be very professional when you are in a leadership position. They wrote how the manager in *The Office* is not the best example of a professional leader and what they would have done to be more professional.

When discussing the effectiveness theme, students recognized that there are different levels of effectiveness. Students were able to conclude that the leader in this work environment, manager Michael Scott, did not exhibit the most appropriate leadership characteristics. They also recognized that other people were effective leaders and what characteristics or behaviors made them so.

Students also acknowledged the important responsibility leaders have to make difficult decisions. The decisions illustrated in the episodes were not always handled in the correct manner, but students were able to see the challenges leaders might encounter. They also commented on how they would go about making similar decisions if they were in that position.

Students recognized that leadership is contradictory because anyone can emerge as the leader, but being the leader is a hard job. A leader requires extra effort and energy, but good leaders enjoy their responsibility and often try to make the situation enjoyable.

Recommendations/Implications

Students were able to connect leadership scenarios portrayed in the episodes to potential real-life scenarios. Instructors should work to encourage students to make these connections and evaluate how they would have handled a particular situation. Leadership educators should also make sure

to point out the positive and negative aspects of leadership portrayed in examples of popular culture.

The use of television episodes to illustrate leadership concepts should be further examined and researched. “Due to the lack of historical precedence regarding the best method for teaching leadership, further exploration of new teaching methods is required” (Williams & McClure, 2010, p. 87).

One recommendation for future research is to look at other television programs that are more serious (e.g. dramas) in their portrayal of leadership situations. Another recommendation would be to repeat the study using a control group to determine the effects of the treatment (i.e. television episodes). Students could also be assessed longitudinally similar to the data collection methods of Williams and McClure (2010).

Leadership educators should put into practice teaching methods geared to integrating video into the classroom. The use of public pedagogy (i.e. television shows) can have a positive effect on student learning.

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Athletic Coaches: Leadership Examples for the prevention of diversity issues within teams?

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We live in a diverse world. That diversity is reflected in our neighborhoods, our hometowns, our shopping malls, our politics, our national dialogue and our workplaces. Particularly, in our workplaces. A shift in population and workforce demographics in the United States has dramatically increased the diversity in the workplace (Prewitt, 2002). In fact, economists at the U.S. Department of Labor are forecasting continued shifts in workforce demographics for the period through 2050. According to Toossi (2006), the U.S. labor force is expected to become more diverse over the next decade and the higher workforce participation rates associated with race and ethnicity will continue to drive diversity throughout the workforce (Toossi, 2006). Fullerton and Toossi (as cited in Christian, Porter, & Moffitt, 2006) believed that the non-white workforce would rise over two percentage points for the period 2000 to 2010 and the percentage of minorities in the workforce would reach 25% by 2050. The Hudson Institute (1997), in their landmark study of the changing workplace, forecasted that the percentage of Whites and non-Hispanics in the workforce would drop from 76% in 1995 to 68% by 2020, with a commensurate increase in the percentage of women, Hispanic, and Asian American workers over the same time frame.

Although this diversity has enabled organizations to be more creative and innovative in their collective thought processes it has come at a price. (Strohmeier, 1999). The introduction of diversity into the workplace and the work team (self directed and otherwise) has introduced an element of strife and conflict into the working environment that human resource professionals and organizational leadership are struggling to manage and understand (Cox, 2001; Mannix & Neale, 2005). In addition, Konrad (2006) noted, "...managing workplace diversity is difficult and complex, and considerable barriers exist to the effective implementation of the business case for diversity." (p. 166). One perspective on this diversity, termed social categorization diversity, appears to be critical in understanding and managing these new developments in the workplace.

Organizational theorists would argue that companies should pursue social categorization diversity within the ranks because it is morally and socially responsible (Jayne & Dipboye, 2004; O'Leary & Weathington, 2006). However many companies have adopted a more pragmatic view of diversity. These companies argue that valuing and managing the diverse workforce are key strategies in pursuing economic success in an increasingly competitive environment (Cady & Valentine, 1999; Cseh, 2003; Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999; Horwitz, 2005). Wright, Ferris, Hiller, and Kroll (1995) noted, "If competitive advantage is based on human and organizational resources, then the increasing diversity in the work force not only requires embracing this reality but also changing organizational policies and processes to mesh with the needs of the new work force" (p. 273). However, as diversity grows within these organizations, the tools, skills and techniques used in effectively managing these assets and resources have become outdated and ineffectual (Marquis, Lim, Scott, Harrell, & Kavanaugh, 2008; Swann, Polzer, Seyle, & Ko, 2004). As noted by Marquis et al. (2008), "One of the most significant limitations of the diversity literature is its lack of practical advice and specific methods of implementation. The best practices it describes are often too abstract ... without concrete examples of how to design and implement them." (p. 19) The lack and

/or ineffectiveness of these tools, skills, and techniques are leading to organizational difficulties in trying to implement successful diversity management policies and programs (Swann et al., 2004).

Compounding this lack of practical tools, skills and educational techniques, is the more complex core humanistic problem that Allport (1990) summarized in his seminal study on prejudice, *The Nature of Prejudice*. He noted that “Man has a propensity to prejudice. This propensity lies in his normal and natural tendency to form generalizations, concepts, categories, whose content represents an oversimplification of his world experience.” (p. 27). So the issue for the human resource practitioner and for organizational leadership is how to address a problem that is both here to stay (Fink, Pastore, & Riemer, 2003) and a core instinct for the employees within their organization.

However, all is not lost. There is a model for diversity management within teams that can provide the human resource and organizational leadership with a template from which to build an effective training and management program. And that model is on display every day throughout the United States in middle schools, high schools, colleges and universities, community centers, and professional stadiums and arenas. That model takes human beings of various diversities and places them within a team environment in which the very success of the team is based, almost entirely, upon the successful integration of this diversity into a cohesive team environment. That model is the basic sports team.

Sports teams? When you consider them carefully, sports teams do resemble the typical workplace team in the average Fortune 500 environment. Like those workplace teams, the sports team consists of individuals from diverse backgrounds and diverse ethnicity uniting together to achieve a certain purpose or goal. Like workplace teams these sports teams may have a mentor (the coach) and, within the confines of the playing field or court, are largely self-directed. Yet you rarely see or even hear about social categorization diversity issues within the context of the athletic team. That is, when engaged, the sports teams tend to pursue their goals and objectives without the baggage of diversity issues that have plagued the workplace teams. Why is that and can that feeling of unity and purpose be replicated within the context of the average Fortune 500 workplace team? That research question formed the basis for a phenomenological research study that compared the dynamics of the workplace team and the athletic team. Was there an element of leadership in play that allowed athletic teams to successfully perform without issues of diversity while workplace teams struggled under the burden of diversity rhetoric? If so, could the leadership dynamic manifested within the athletic team be replicated in the Fortune 500 work place team?

Literature Review

There has been little research on the experiences and techniques of NCAA coaches in managing social categorization diversity on their respective athletic teams. Because of this paucity of research, the qualitative, phenomenological research approach provided the best tools to explore that phenomenon. However, this does not mean that past research could not help in framing a research design or using an appropriate vocabulary to discuss the results. Indeed, the juxtaposition between past research on management diversity and the NCAA coaching phenomenon was considered to be an essential part in making the results useful to leaders and managers. To that end, a literature review was conducted that addressed the research that has been done relative to social categorization diversity, diversity management, workplace teams and diversity, athletic

teams and diversity, the role of athletic coaches and coaching philosophies in shaping individual and team attitudes, and various social grouping theories as they relate to athletic teams.

Specific literature and research reviews were conducted on the subjects of: (a) diversity management on athletic teams; (b) the diversity related experiences of participants on athletic teams; (c) the role and impact of coaching and coaching techniques on team dynamics and culture; (d) social categorization diversity within the workplace setting; (e) impact of social categorization diversity on workplace teams; (f) sociological and psychological make-ups of individuals who participate on athletic teams; and, (g) social and psychological groupings theories and relationships as they relate to social categorization diversity. These subjects were explored in support of the central purpose of this research; addressing the growing phenomenon of social categorization diversity within the workplace by developing enhanced and methods and techniques to more effectively manage diversity within the workplace.

The majority of the research on managing social categorization diversity within the workplace has been conducted within the last 30 years, mirroring the demographic changes within the organization over that time frame. The research tended to focus on two aspects of diversity: managing it and quantifying its economic and cultural impact on the organization. As diversity and its attendant issues grew within the organization, researchers began searching for an understanding of the economic and cultural impact that diversity had on the organization and developing new and enhanced methods of managing this diversity.

In terms of the economic and cultural impact of social categorization diversity on the organization, the literature search demonstrated mixed results. Some research indicated positive impacts associated with a demographically mixed, richly diverse workplace while other research pointed towards a more toxic and deleterious impact from diversity. Timmerman (2000) summarized the situation, citing the work of Pelled, Eisenhardt and Xin and Williams and O'Reilly to conclude that research results looking at the benefits of diversity on workplace teams' conflict: "With respect to racial diversity, Pelled et al. found that diversity was associated with greater emotional conflict. As reviewed by Williams and O'Reilly (1998), however, other studies have found positive effects or no relationship between racial heterogeneity and team outcomes" (p. 594).

With regard to athletic teams, NCAA affiliated or otherwise, there had been little if any research conducted on managing social categorization diversity within the context of the team. Cook (2005) built a case for the effect that social psychological grouping theories have on the interracial interactions on collegiate athletic teams, confirming the prior research associated with realistic conflict theory, intergroup contact theory, and the common group identity model. Anderson (2002) looked at the historical and current methods employed in managing openly gay athletes on athletic teams. Brown, Jackson, Brown, Sellers, Keiper, and Manual (2003) examined perceptions of discrimination by white and black athletes but did not fully explore the dyad of the relationships between each other on the team. However, neither these researchers nor others in the field developed any research discussing the management of diversity on athletic teams.

There had been a number of studies and research conducted on the impact that coaches have on the culture and attitudes of the teams in which they coach (Cushion & Jones, 2001; Lapchick, 1996; Smith & Smoll, 1996). These studies tended to support the notion that coaches have a profound impact on the attitudes of their teams and can also set the tone for how issues, including those

centered around diversity, are to be managed and resolved. However, none of these studies focused exclusively on the methods in which these coaches managed social categorization diversity issues on their teams.

However, the lack of diversity management research within athletic teams was more than offset by the volume of research conducted on the leadership aspects of athletic teams. Because of their inherently closed social nature, athletic teams have provided sociological and psychological researchers with a rich environment for research over the last 50 years. This research tended to focus on aspects of leadership and team cohesion and, as noted by Sullivan and Gee (2007), has been “fully conceptualized and widely researched” (p. 109) with regard to those specific subjects. However, there has been little research conducted on the management of diversity, in any form, as it pertains to these athletic teams.

In addition to leadership, recent research within the athletic team environment focused on other aspects of the athletic team including collective efficacy (defined as shared beliefs among individuals groups as it relates to a certain task or project) (Fontayne, Heuze, & Raimbault, 2006; Kozub & McDonnell, 2000; MacLean & Sullivan, 2003) and intrateam communication (defined as the communication methods that occur between teammates on a team.) (Sullivan & Gee, 2007). But, again, very little research examined the management of social categorization diversity within athletic teams, despite their apparent diversity (Cook, 2005). This lack of research might have been associated with a perception among researchers that social categorization diversity issues were simply not present within athletic teams.

Of the minimal amount of research conducted on diversity management within athletic teams, two studies stood out. Brown et al. (2003) focused their research on the perceptions of racial discrimination by both Black and White athletes. Their research concluded that team sporting activities created “an atmosphere in which the political and ideological constraints of race are subjectively loosened for a select group of athletes” (p. 177) and that organized sports could provide a model that allowed team participants to shift the focus away from a racial identity and toward an identity of simply being a teammate. Brown et al. (2003) further noted that athletes can be “‘color blinded’ by participation in sports because they are socialized to competition-related norms” (p. 166). This research supports the assumption of this research that NCAA teams might manage their diversity issues differently and more effectively than seen within industry.

The second study was conducted by Cook (2005). Cook (2005) examined the subject of diversity from the perspective of the athletic team as a model for positive diversity training. Cook believed that institutions of higher learning have a responsibility to train their students on how to successfully function within an increasingly pluralistic, multicultural society and that athletic teams could provide these institutions with a realistic model of diversity management. Using the concepts of realistic conflict theory, contact theory, and the common group identity model, Cook looked at the diversity attitudes of participants on athletic teams and found that “athletes [were] more likely to be prepared for a diverse society than non-athletes” (p. 95). Cook further noted that no additional research had been conducted to measure the conditions surrounding the team, including the coaching and coaching attitudes, and how those conditions affected the athlete’s ability to interact in a diverse culture like the team. Put more simply, Cook noted that additional research had not been performed to answer the question of whether a culturalized purpose or condition within

the athletic team, like, for instance, the common goal to win, overrode issues of social categorization diversity that might have been present on the team.

Methods

The research design involved administering an online survey that combined demographic questions with open-ended questions to a population of 75 coaches and assistant coaches for a select group of NCAA Division I, II and III college and university athletic teams. The survey was followed by observations of team practices and games for a select group of athletic teams followed by interviews with coaches of those observed teams.

Findings

With regard to the presence and management of diversity within the construct of the athletic team, the general research associated with this study noted the following findings:

- Based on the research, social categorization diversity issues on NCAA athletic teams are either non-existent or exist at a level so deep within the team collective as to be undetectable. This limited finding was supported through the literature search, questionnaire results and interview findings and research. However, this conclusion cannot be generalized to the entire population of NCAA athletic teams because of the small sample size used in this research. In order to generalize this conclusion, additional research using a larger sample size across a broader variety of teams would be necessary.
- The character of the individual on the team and the methods in which an athlete's character is identified play a role in preventing and managing diversity issues within the athletic team environment. This finding was supported from the literature search, questionnaire results, observations, and interview results.

The interview participants (coaches and assistant coaches) indicated during their interviews that the lack of social categorization diversity issues within their team collective was primarily attributable to: (a) enhanced enlightenment and strengthened character with today's college athlete, and, (b) a strategy of selective recruiting by the coaches to populate their team(s) with individuals who had "strong character" and were "team oriented".

- Individuals in the team collective tended to associate with others of their own race or ethnicity during their individual time but when engaged within a team environment those associations tend to weaken or disappear. This finding, first noted during the observation phase of this research, was supported in the literature research through the application of Allport's (1990) work, the various psychological and sociological studies on groupings by Tajfel, Hogg, Turner and others and the work of Anshel and Sables (1990), Brown et al. (2003), Turman (2003) and Zaccaro et al. (1995). In addition, this finding was supported by the coaches' comments during the interviews despite a relatively low axial coding response rate of 8.62%.
- Mission statements are effective in preventing and managing diversity issues. This perception by the coaches was borne out in their responses to the research questionnaire, the axial coding of their interview responses and in the words they used during their interviews.

The mission statement has been fully conceptualized and researched within the business literature as being a key component of an effective management strategy for typical business environment (Cochran, David, & Gibson, 2008; Drucker, 1974). The mission statement allows the organization to define itself and is a "... declaration of an organization's reason for being" (Cochran et al., 2008, p. 27). It follows that within the context of an athletic "organization", a mission statement would also be a key component of the team's strategy, as identified by the interview participant's.

- A written, formal diversity policy is, like many human resource related policies and procedures, important from a regulatory and compliance perspective (Sarvadi, 2009) but may not be effective in managing day to day issues. This research finding was based on the interview comments as well as the questionnaire results. A formal policy on diversity was not viewed by the coaching community as an effective tool in the prevention or management of diversity issues within the context of their athletic teams.

The interview participants and those queried via the on-line questionnaire are charged with the responsibility for executing the athletic department's policy and procedures.

However, it became evident, particularly in the interviews, that general policy statements like that associated with diversity are not perceived to be useful tools in assisting the coaches in executing effective day-to-day management strategies that are supportive of the athletic department's policies.

- Managing diversity issues is best done through a privacy based intervention strategy. This research conclusion was strongly supported by the on-line questionnaire, the comments made by the interview participants and the axial coding results. In both the questionnaires and interviews the coaches and assistant coaches cited prior examples of effective issue resolution (diversity related and otherwise) and strategies that were based on allowing them to address the issues through one-on-one interventions between them and the affected parties. Only rarely and dependent on the situation in which the issue occurred were the interview participants advocates of any other resolution method other than the private, one-on-one method.
- The ability to communicate in a direct, honest method is the key towards preventing and managing diversity related issues. As with the finding on the method of managing diversity issues, this finding was based on the literature review and the strong interview comments and axial coding results from those interviews with the coaches. From the standpoint of the literature, the research work of Cushion and Jones (2001), Smith and Smoll (1996), and Rudd and Mondello (2006), among others, supported the conclusion that communications between the coaches and the athletes were key elements of a functioning, successful team. In addition, Zakrajsek, Abildso, Hurst, and Watson (2007) noted prior research that concluded that coaches that adopted democratic, supportive communication styles were more likely to have successful, well-functioning athletic teams.

In addition to the literature, the interview participants, to a person, believed strongly that their status as an authoritarian figure on the team and the ability and latitude to communicate in a straight forward manner to their athletes was instrumental in preventing and managing team issues, diversity and otherwise.

Recommendations/Implications

A goal of this research was to examine a successful diversity management schema within a team environment, determine within that schema whether diversity issues existed and, if they existed, determine how those diversity issues were managed. Once the findings from that research were determined the next phase of the research was to determine if the skills, techniques and practices from that diversity management environment could be successfully adapted and adopted into the average Fortune 500 workplace team environment. The research concluded that, conceptually, those skills, techniques and practices could in fact be translated into the average Fortune 500 workplace team environment. To that end, a matrix was developed that mapped the research findings to a series of recommendations for implementation within the Fortune 500 workplace team environment. That mapping is shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Mapping Research Findings to Fortune 500 Workplace Team Applications.

	<i>Research findings</i>	<i>Fortune 500 workplace team application recommendation</i>
1.	Social categorization diversity issues are not prevalent on NCAA athletic teams.	No applicability to Fortune 500 workplace teams.
2.	The character of the athlete was important in terms of preventing and managing diversity issues on athletic teams.	When establishing the workplace teams take care to ensure that each member of the team has the proper focus and attitude to accomplish the workplace team task.
3.	Athletes may exhibit a tendency to sacrifice their own individual values and behaviors in favor of the teams. This could be due to peer pressure, inculcation as a result of being exposed to teams for a number of years, or use of a team objective or mission statement.	No applicability to Fortune 500 workplace teams. Define team objectives prior to the start of the team process.
4.	Having a team objective or mission statement was valuable in terms of providing a team oriented focus and establishing what behaviors were acceptable and what behaviors were unacceptable.	Ensure that the workplace team has a specific focus and mission statement that each of the individuals understand and acknowledge.
5.	Having a written policy on diversity was not seen as providing any particular value towards the ability to manage diversity within a team	Recognize that upper level human resource policies may not be enough to discourage diversity issues at the working level.

	environment.	Therefore, do not rely upon those policies to help in preventing and managing diversity issues that may occur.
6.	Social categorization diversity issues are best addressed through a privacy based resolution methodology.	Establish a team mandate that encourages members of the workplace team to discuss any issues that may occur on the team in a private setting.
7.	The most important skill that a coach can bring towards the management of social categorization diversity is the ability to communicate directly and honestly with their players.	Despite recent moves towards democratization of workplace teams, establish a team leader with authority for managing the team , encouraging establishment of team mission statements, resolving team issues and achieving the team's objectives.

Conclusions

This qualitative, phenomenological research study was successful in that it identified that social categorization diversity issues tended to be either non-existent within the framework of the NCAA athletic team environment or buried at a level so deep as to appear to be non-existent. Further, the research findings noted that athletic coaches and assistant coaches were responsible, at some level, for either the prevention of social diversity issues on their teams or the successful management of these issues. The skills, tools and practices that these coaches and assistant coaches used to manage and at times intervene into social categorization diversity issues were outlined and adapted to the Fortune 500 workplace team environment. This outlining and adaptation was done at a level that would provide human resource practitioners and management teams within the Fortune 500 organization with specific skills, tools and practices that could be used in the prevention of social categorization diversity issues within their unique teaming environments.

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How Important is it Really? Defining a Skill Set for Leaders of Agriculture

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Introduction

Directors, Commissioners, and Secretaries of Agriculture (Commissioners) are elected or appointed officials who are the leaders of agriculture for their state. They promote the agricultural industry and ultimately determine its future, while protecting consumers and the environment (National Association of State Departments of Agriculture, 2011). Their leadership is needed because Departments of Agriculture (Departments) in the U.S. are going through a period of great change due to environmental controversies, advances in technology and budget deficits (Adrian, Shannon, Noorwood & Mask, 2004; Carlson, 2010; Reganold et al., 2011).

This study utilized a mixed methods approach to identify and define the leadership skills of Commissioners (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996). Quantitative research methods were used to describe Commissioner's perception of importance in six leadership skill areas. Qualitative research methods were used to make meaning of the quantitative results (Jick, 1979).

Theoretical Framework

Numerous studies have been conducted about leadership skills and competencies needed by leaders in the business and agriculture fields. Commissioners are involved in each of these fields because they oversee the Department and agricultural productivity in their state.

The theoretical framework (see Figure 1) for this study is based on Moore and Rudd's (2004) study of the leadership skills and competencies of Extension directors and administrators, and Jones' (2006) study of the leadership skills of academic program leaders in colleges of agricultural and life sciences.

In Moore and Rudd's study (2004) a purposive sample of administrators responsible for hiring Extension leaders in state director/administrator positions from land-grant institutions participated in qualitative interviews. The interviews were conducted to identify skills necessary to be a leader within the Cooperative State Research, Education, and Extension Service. Six major leadership skill areas were identified. Forty-five leadership skills were clustered into one of the six skill areas, and a total of 80 leadership competencies were developed. Interrelationships existed between the leadership skills within and between skill areas, supporting the notion that "leadership cannot exist in a vacuum" (Moore & Rudd, 2004, p. 32).

Jones' (2006) study of academic program leaders in colleges of agricultural and life sciences further exemplified the leadership skills needed by leaders in the agriculture field as noted in Moore and Rudd's study (2004). Academic program leaders determined the importance of the six leadership skills using a leadership skills questionnaire (Jones, 2006). Data was gathered from 56 academic program leaders to determine the academic program leaders' perceived leadership skill importance. Thus, the major leadership skill areas that served as the basis for this study were: human, conceptual, technical, communication, emotional intelligence, and industry

knowledge skills (Moore & Rudd, 2004; Jones, 2006).

Figure 1

Theoretical Framework



Although the skills of leaders from a variety of settings have been researched, an assessment of leadership competencies of Commissioners has not been conducted. By studying their leadership skills, it will draw a clearer picture as to what Commissioners need in order to lead their state Department of Agriculture effectively through a changing agricultural era. This study will contribute to the general body of knowledge related to leaders and leadership. In practice, the results of this study could lead to a better understanding about the skills needed by leaders in the field of agriculture. Youth organizations and leadership educators could also develop and make changes to leadership programs to prepare students to become future agriculture leaders.

Commissioners have been designated as the individuals responsible for leading their state's Department through a controversial and changing agricultural climate. With this significant responsibility in mind, the purpose of this study was to identify and define the leadership skills needed by Commissioners overseeing their state Department. The level of importance of current Commissioners was assessed in each of the six leadership skill areas defined by Moore and Rudd (2004). This research addressed the following objective: Assess level of perceived importance of leadership skills, as determined by Commissioners.

Methods

This study utilized a mixed methods approach to identify and define the leadership skills of Commissioners of Agriculture at the state level (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996). The population for this study included Commissioners denoted in the directory of the National Association of State Departments of Agriculture, with a total of 50 for the population.

Quantitative research methods were used by employing an electronic survey instrument to describe Commissioners perceived proficiency in the six leadership skill areas. These categories were developed after reviewing the relevant literature on leadership skills and competencies. Researchers utilized the Jones (2006) instrument; each leadership skill area had seven questions with the exception of the emotional intelligence area, which had nine questions, and the instrument contained seven demographic questions. The researchers followed Dillman's (2000) Internet and Interactive Voice Response Surveys Design Methodology to enhance participants' response rate. The first step was to send a brief e-mail of introduction to Commissioners notifying them of the electronic questionnaire and encouraging their participation in the study. The researchers included a link to the questionnaire containing directions for completing the study, the informed consent notice and the leadership skills questionnaire. The leadership skills questionnaire was open for a 6-week period. One week after the initial e-mailing, a reminder e-mail was sent from the Commissioner of Agriculture in North Carolina to all participants of the study. After week one, reminder e-mails were then sent from the researcher each week until six weeks after the initial e-mail was sent requesting their participation in the study. Thirty-five responded to the research for a response rate of 70%; t-tests examined differences between early and late respondents, and there were no differences in the mean scores for the two groups (Miller & Smith, 1983). Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data collected by the instrument.

Qualitative research methods were used to enhance the quantitative results (Jick, 1979). After administering the instrument, semi-structured phone interviews were conducted with 15 participants over a three-month period during the fall of 2011 to further explore the six leadership skill areas, while continuing the search for meaning. The researchers used an interview protocol, which was not shared with the participants prior to the interview. Interviews lasted between one-half and one hour. Each interview was tape-recorded and transcribed in its entirety following the interview. The traditional method of constant comparative analysis was used for the qualitative portion of the study (Merriam, 2009). Each phone interview was coded to retain confidentiality. The codes are included in parentheses in the findings section after a quotation is given by an interviewee. The codes are part of the audit trail and provide trustworthiness confirmability (Merriam, 2009).

Findings

Results are presented by leadership skill area. The scale used was: Not Important (1), Little Importance (2), Somewhat Important (3), Important (4), and Very Important (5). In order to make meaning of this quantitative data, triangulation was used by the researchers. The quantitative data is presented first followed by appropriate triangulation and corroborating qualitative data. The codes from the audit trail correspond to the interviewee who made the statement, and the corresponding page number of the transcription.

Human Skills

Table 1 lists the response mean score and the standard deviation for each of the seven questions in the human skills area. The participant's responses indicate they believe human leadership skills to be in the *Important to Very Important* category of leadership skills. The majority of participants rated respecting others as the most important of the human skills. It is interesting to note that throughout the entire instrument, Commissioners rated respecting others as the most important skill in all of the leadership skill areas.

Table 1

Human Skill Importance Item Response Scores

	μ	σ
Identify personal strengths and weaknesses	4.36	0.59
Evaluate the impact of personnel	4.47	0.56
Respect others	4.72	0.51
Create an environment in which you, as the leader are approachable and open to new ideas	4.69	0.47
Be an effective team member	4.53	0.61
Environment that values the diversity of others	4.22	0.93
Create an environment in which team members are willing to share ideas	4.58	0.50

Note: Scores measured using Likert scale; 1 (Not Important) to 5 Very Important)

Diversity

Commissioners recognize that being accepting of diversity is important both in and out of the Department. Commissioners interact with various people and organizations daily, and feel it is important to be able to accept this great diversity. Dealing with diversity is part of their job.

Diversity is good; we need to promote discussion and that diversity (I2.M.6).

The challenging side of a job is dealing with diversity... Sometimes some very difficult people come up to visit you... If you listen to these people and return their calls, that goes a long way and allows them to appreciate the fact that they had your ear (I11.M.3).

Open and Approachable Atmosphere

Commissioners understand that cultivating an open environment is important both in and out of the Department. Commissioners believe in having an open-door policy with their employees. They also believe in being accessible to people and organizations outside of the Department.

I feel it is important to be accessible (I11.M.4).

Trying to go out to our different divisions to say hello to people and to learn about what they are doing as often as I can is important (I12.F.2).

Impact of Personnel

Commissioners recognize the importance and value of their personnel; they provide expertise in many agriculture fields and aid the Commissioner in the daily operations of the Department. Without the personnel, the Commissioners believe they would not be as successful.

The work of state employees is a noble profession because you are actually being a public servant, serving the interest of the public (I5.M.2).

When you have great people to work with it's much easier to work on each other's strengths and be an effective team to impact agriculture (I6.M.1).

Conceptual Skills

Table 2 lists the response mean score and the standard deviation for each of the seven questions in the conceptual skills area. The responses indicate Commissioners believe conceptual leadership skills to be in the *Important* to *Very Important* category. Responses in the conceptual skill area were higher compared to all of the other areas. Of the conceptual skills, Commissioners believe thinking strategically is the most important, while an attitude that supports and welcomes organizational change and helping others support organizational change are the least important.

Table 2

Conceptual Skills (Importance)

	μ	σ
Create a long term vision for the organization	4.62	0.55
Think strategically	4.68	0.53
Set goals	4.56	0.56
Help others support organizational change	4.27	0.61
Be decisive	4.62	0.49
Attitude that supports and that welcomes organizational change	4.27	0.69
Achieve goals	4.54	0.56

Note: Scores measured using Likert scale; 1 (Not Important) to 5 (Very Important)

Vision

Commissioners believe in the importance of sharing a vision for the Department and the agriculture industry with their personnel, which allows each employee to understand their role in the Department. Commissioners believe it is important to be the person who provides that vision.

I think it's important to inspire people with a shared vision, one that they can be excited about and they understand what their role is in that vision (I12.F.4).

Leadership is about the importance of having a vision and direction (I5.M.5).

Decision Making

Commissioners identified that before making a decision it is important to understand both sides of issue and include others in the process. Understanding why you made a wrong or right decision in the past is practice for making decisions in the future.

You need to listen to both sides of the story and work through their individual issues, and then you can come to a consensus and come to some final resolution (I4.M.1).

The best practice for making decisions is making decisions...It's those tough ones that give you practice for the next tough decision (I6.M.5).

Technical Skills

Table 3 lists the response mean score and the standard deviation for each of the seven questions in the technical skills area. Scores ranged from 3.60 to 4.25; thus, this leadership skill area had the largest variance in responses amongst participants. The responses indicate participants believe technical skills to be in the *Somewhat Important* to *Important* category of leadership skills. Commissioners rated interpreting and explaining organizational budgets as the most important of the technical skills, while effectively integrating computer software programs were rated the least important. Throughout the entire instrument, Commissioners rated being effectively integrating computer software programs as the least important skill in all of the areas.

Table 3

Technical Skills (Importance)

	μ	σ
Develop budgets for all levels within the organization	4.17	0.70
Effectively use computer software for word processing	4.08	0.76
Interpret and explain organizational budgets	4.25	0.65
Effectively use and search the internet	3.95	0.78
Effectively use computer software for spreadsheets	3.84	0.90
Effectively use computer software for databases	3.78	0.92
Effectively integrate computer software programs (i.e. merge files)	3.60	0.98

Note: Scores measured using Likert scale; 1 (Not Important) to 5 (Very Important)

Budgeting

Commissioners identified that being able to interpret and explain the Department's budget is important. They emphasized that it is important to prioritize the Department's programs during budget cuts. They also believe involving others in and out of the Department for input when dealing with budget cuts is important and shows the transparency of the Department.

It is important to involve industry leaders to go through the Department's budget...and be very open to answering all of the questions that they might have (I12.F.1).

You have to set priorities first and protect those from cutbacks. Of course that means you have got to cut more in other places; you have to prioritize the things that are less important, but generally, at the same time see what the dollar impact is (I9.M.4).

Policies in State Government

The importance of understanding and dealing with the changing policies in state government emerged as a new finding in the technical skill area. Commissioners recognize that creating and changing policies in state government is a major challenge. Often they do not have a direct say in

these policies due to state government practices, which can be frustrating. They also believe it is important to help their constituent base understand the new or changing policies.

We have so many things that are not in our statutory authority and the things that impact farmers the most now days are not here. It would be ideal and important to have a more direct say in those issues that impact the farmer's ability to farm in [state] (I12.F.4).

Change is tough in government but important (I3.M.6).

Communication Skills

Table 4 lists the response mean score and the standard deviation for each of the seven questions in the communication skills area. The Commissioners in this study showed variance in their answers, with responses ranging from 3.86 to 4.54. The responses indicate they believe communication skills to be in the *Somewhat Important* to *Important* category. Commissioners rated interacting and communicating with people who have divergent points of view is the most important of the communication skills, while writing for various audiences is the least important.

Table 4

Communication Skills (Importance)

	μ	σ
Interact and communicate with people who have divergent points of view	4.54	0.51
Identify barriers to listening	4.19	0.57
Write for various organizational purposes (i.e. technical writing, professional publications, etc.)	3.92	0.65
Read and comprehend a wide range of publications	4.32	0.58
Reduce barriers to listening	4.16	0.60
Recognize and effectively use nonverbal cues or behaviors	4.16	0.60
Write for various audiences	3.86	0.75

Note: Scores measured using Likert scale; 1 (Not Important) to 5 (Very Important)

Collaborating with People who have Different Views

Commissioners recognize the importance of communicating and working with people who have different viewpoints. Commissioners believe it is important to understand both sides of a situation. Avoiding conflict between different groups is essential when analyzing problems.

That's the biggest part of the Secretary's job, dealing with people...you meet all different types...it's important that (you) develop relationships and work together (I4.M.2).

It's all about people and understanding how to communicate ideas and directions. Communication is a two-way street and you have to be on both sides (16.M.4).

Recognizing the Types of Communication to use in a Particular Setting

Commissioners recognize that they might think a certain method of communication is most effective; however, communication methods should be altered depending on the situation. Commissioners utilize a particular communication method based upon their audience.

My communication skills have changed, and they change from situation to situation. If you see you aren't succeeding in one direction you go in a different one (I1.M.4).

The most effective way to communicate will depend on the audience. Everybody turns to different channels of communication for different things (I6.M.4).

Electronic Communication

Commissioners recognize the need to communicate using electronics and the importance of staying current with electronic communication. By understanding these new methods, Commissioners and the Department are able to reach and engage people. The majority of Commissioners emphasized the importance of their Departments utilizing social media.

It is important to stay current with the technology that has been changing our communication so rapidly (I1.M.1).

My ideal Department of Agriculture would help empower people to be their best and we would do that with electronics...like Skype, email, text...Facebook and Twitter (I6.M.6).

Emotional Intelligence Skills

Table 5 lists the response mean score and the standard deviation for each of the eight questions in the emotional intelligence skills area. The emotional intelligence skills area was rated *Important to Very Important* by the Commissioners. They rated having a high level of motivation as the most important emotional intelligence skill, while separating personalities from behaviors was least important.

Table 5

Emotional Intelligence Skills (Importance)

	μ	σ
Set priorities to effectively manage personal time	4.37	0.55
Resolve conflict	4.43	0.56
Make use of constructive criticism without becoming critical and angry	4.40	0.50
Separate personalities from behaviors	4.09	0.74
Negotiate agreement	4.23	0.69
High level of motivation	4.54	0.51
Control emotions in emotional situations	4.49	0.56
Set priorities to effectively manage organizational time	4.37	0.49
Respect for the time commitments of others	4.38	0.55

Note: Scores measured using Likert scale; 1 (Not Important) to 5 (Very Important)

Respect for Time Commitments of Others

Commissioners noted the importance of respecting the time commitments of others; people have other obligations in their personal and professional lives. By respecting these time commitments, Commissioners create an understanding environment for people in and out of the Department.

You have to understand people have families; they have other interests (I3.M.1).

Do not just tell me the same thing three times in different ways; it is not a productive use of my staff's time or my time (I10.M.2).

Industry Knowledge Skills

Table 6 lists the response mean score and the standard deviation for each of the seven questions in the industry knowledge area. The participant's responses indicate that industry knowledge skills are in the *Important* category of leadership skills. Scores in the industry knowledge skills area were not as high compared to other areas, but Commissioners still believe in their importance. It is important to note the Commissioners ranked explaining the political environment of the state and the implications for the Department as the most important of the industry knowledge skills, while evaluating the impact of programs for each client group and being able to explain the founding principles of the Departments were the least important.

Table 6

Industry Knowledge Skills (Importance)

	μ	σ
Create linkages within both traditional and non-traditional audiences	4.26	0.56
Depth of knowledge in a content area	4.20	0.63
Identify the needs of various client groups within the state	4.43	0.61
Explain the political environment of the state and the implications for the Department	4.54	0.61
Relationship between statewide programs	4.29	0.62
Evaluate the impact of programs for each client group	4.14	0.65
Being able to explain the founding principles of the Department of Agriculture with constituents	4.14	0.85

Note: Scores measured using Likert scale; 1 (Not Important) to 5 (Very Important)

Understanding the Role of the Department

Commissioners elaborated on the importance of Department understanding their role, which is to help and protect others involved in agriculture and consumer services. Commissioners believe the Department should reach out to their constituent base to make them aware of the programs and opportunities available to them through the Department.

The Department must look for ways to incubate opportunities for farmers so consumers can take advantage of the abundance of agriculture (I10.M.1).

When farmers think of agriculture I want them to think of two things, our Department and Extension. Bottom line, we need to be serving the farmer (I11.M.6).

Understanding the Constituent Base

Commissioners recognize the importance of focusing on their constituents in order to determine their issue and figure out ways to better serve them. Most of the Commissioners come from a farming background, which they believe helps them to better understand their constituents involved in the agriculture industry.

It is important focus externally to the citizens and the farmers in particular, and to position the Department to be as helpful and creative as possible (I10.M.1).

It's important to have some background and experience, as well as knowledge about how the agriculture industry works...and how important it is for our stakeholders (I14.M.2).

Understanding the Importance of the Department at a National and International Level

Commissioners identify that their Department does not only serve their respective state. The Department should be important at the national and international level in the agriculture industry and in consumer protection. Commissioners were able to identify that working with commodity groups is an excellent way to promote trade internationally.

It's important to position your state's agriculture industry as a credible source of safe and nutritious food products, both in and out of the state as well as internationally (I7.M.6).

Departments should have international trade consultants...(to) identify what each region really wants, and then link them to the Department (I15.M.6).

Scores for each leadership skill area are presented in Table 7. Each construct was converted to a 100-point scale by dividing the sum of the responses by the total possible response score for each skill area. As shown in Table 7, the overall mean for the perceived importance of leadership skills was an 85.96, with a standard deviation of 4.95. In all areas of perceived importance of leadership skills Commissioners indicate that they hold these skills as important. Commissioners believe that technical skills are the least important ($\mu=79.06$, $\sigma=5.69$), while human skills ($\mu=90.20$, $\sigma=4.17$) are the most important of the six areas.

Table 7

Perceived Leadership Skill Importance

	μ	σ
Human Skills	90.20	4.17
Conceptual Skills	90.17	3.99
Technical Skills	79.06	5.69
Communication Skills	83.28	4.26
Emotional Intelligence Skills	87.33	5.15
Industry Knowledge Skills	85.71	6.47
Total Importance Scale	85.96	4.95

Note: The possible scores for perceived importance range from 20 to 100. Scores falling between 80 and 100 are *Important* and *Very Important*. Scores falling between 60 and 80 are

Conclusions

This study sought to assess the level of perceived importance of leadership skills, as determined by Commissioners of Agriculture. Commissioners were asked to assess the level of importance of specific leadership skills from *Not Important* to *Very Important*. Commissioners rated human skills as the most important leadership skills ($\mu=90.20$) followed by conceptual skills ($\mu=90.17$), emotional intelligence skills ($\mu=87.33$), industry knowledge skills ($\mu=85.71$), and communication skills ($\mu=83.28$); technical skills was rated as the least important ($\mu=79.06$). These findings were similar to Jones' (2006) and Moore and Rudd's (2004) studies of extension and academic program leaders; five of the six leadership skill areas are *Important* or *Very Important*, while only one of the five skill areas was rated *Somewhat Important* for Commissioners.

Through the interviews, the researchers found that Commissioners believe it is important understand the role of the Department at a national and international level. Commissioners need to have industry knowledge skills about agriculture, but they should also be well-versed in national and international issues impacting their state's agriculture industry and Department.

The researchers also found that Commissioners believe electronic communication is an important skill. Leaders in the agriculture industry should have a working knowledge of electronic communication. Departments will fall behind in the industry if they are not utilizing social media and other forms of technology to communicate with their constituents.

Though technical skills were ranked lowest, Commissioners still discussed at length a working knowledge of budgeting. Commissioners identified the most challenging part of their job is dealing with cuts in the Department's budget. Another challenging part of their job includes government policies, which is another technical skill that emerged. Commissioners must have a working knowledge of government policies that their Department is required to enforce. Thus, they have personnel put in place at the Department to handle the majority of the technical skills; however, they must be proficient in technical skills that involve policies and budgets.

Implications and Recommendations

This data highlights what leadership skills Commissioner's believe are important. Future leaders in the field of agriculture may be involved with youth organizations like 4-H and FFA and majoring in a field within a College of agriculture. In order to enhance their programs and provide leadership experiences for youth, 4-H and FFA should continually conduct an in-depth analysis of their leadership development programs. They should ensure programs are staying consistent in developing leaders for the agriculture industry. 4-H and FFA should also ensure programs are providing opportunities for youth to learn about national and international agriculture issues.

Universities should provide formal and non-formal education programs to students offering leadership development opportunities and knowledge about the current agriculture industry. Colleges of agriculture at universities should evaluate their curriculum to ensure students are given the proper education including curricula about utilizing technology for communication.

Colleges of agriculture should provide non-formal opportunities for their students like leadership programs and networking opportunities. Networking events could be offered that invite agriculture and government leaders involved with agricultural policy.

Commissioners participated in the leadership skills questionnaire and/or a phone interview during one point in time. Commissioners may perceive the importance of leadership skills differently depending on particular situations or events, for instance, events happening in the Department or in their personal life. Future research should be conducted about the environmental, personal, and situational variables that might influence their perceived importance of leadership skills, which were not reported in this study.

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The Durable Effects of Short-term Programs on Student Leadership Development

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Introduction

Even a quick glance at many universities' mission and vision statements reveals the strong focus that professional educators place on leadership education and training (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001). While the training of society's future leaders has been a long-standing responsibility of higher education (Boyer, 1987), an increased emphasis on such efforts has been emerging recently on many college campuses (Astin & Astin, 2000; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Dugan, Komives, & Segar, 2009; Lipman-Bluman, 1996). This increasing attention to developing leaders is consistent with current public concerns about leadership. For example, a recent study showed that 80% of U.S. citizens feel that our society needs more effective leadership to avoid a national decline (Rosenthal, Pittinsky, Purvin, & Montoya, 2007). There seems to be a clear need and desire to develop future leaders focused within training programs on the college campus.

However, Avolio, Walumba, and Weber (2009), reported that training leaders is complex, and often very difficult. The range and subtlety of skill required for effective leadership has risen (Astin & Astin, 2000; Eich, 2008). Leaders in contemporary society must competently collaborate with others (Allen & Cherrey, 2000; Lipman-Bluman, 1996), manage emotions (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002), create positive stress to affect lasting organizational change (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linksy, 2009), and lead with transparency (Seidman, 2007). Engendering these sophisticated skills could be challenging, as many students continue to espouse outdated beliefs about leadership (Astin & Astin, 2000). Research has shown contemporary college students frequently define leadership as engaging in command and control behaviors (Schertzer & Schuh, 2004). This mismatch between students' expectations and the demands of modern leadership means that training programs must not only support students in skill development, but help them understand the broader need for those skills. Given these needs, several educators have stated that the development of effective leadership programs is one of the most important issues facing education (Astin & Astin, 2000; Lipman-Bluman, 1996; Pearce & Conger, 2003). It is crucial to develop methods that help students to understand and acquire the skills they will need as leaders in contemporary society. Therefore, we examine the effect of a short-term leadership training program that is intended to give college students a more realistic conception of modern leadership.

The Face of Modern Leadership

Social structures and work practices have become flatter, more complex, and more relationship-oriented (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007), demanding corresponding changes in how we think about leadership (Fischer, Overland, & Adams, 2010; Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006). Consistent with this, leadership theory has shifted from the so-called 'industrial' paradigm of focus on hierarchy, control, and division of labor to a post-industrial orientation that emphasizes relationships, networks, trust, ethics, and participation (Kezar, et al., 2006; Rost, 1993). Following these theoretical movements, emerging models of leadership development now focus on leadership as a relational process, rather than on leadership as the exercise of hierarchical power. In particular, popular models have focused on the emotional competencies required for creating effective relationships (Goleman, et al.,

2002), described how leaders work with groups to create adaptive change in organizations and society (Heifetz, et al., 2009), and emphasized leader authenticity and integrity (Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

Universities' leadership development programs need to change in a similar fashion. Some efforts have been made to do so (Faris & Outcalt, 2001), but many existing models of leadership development were created within the context of work organizations, and therefore have limited applicability to students in a higher education setting because these models emphasize employee-employer relations within a corporate environment (Komives, et al., 2007; Shankman & Allen, 2008). Students require a model more appropriate to their context and priorities (Fincher & Shalka, 2009). The Social Change Model of Leadership Development (Astin, 1996), was designed for this purpose.

Social Change Model of Leadership Development

The Social Change Model (SCM) of Leadership Development was created to be a paradigm for leadership development that simultaneously met the needs of higher education and the demands of modern leadership, by emphasizing the importance of relationships, ethics, and sustainable engagement within society (Astin, 1996). The SCM is based on the belief that effective leaders possess a strong and well-developed sense of personal values that link to action, a set of interpersonal and networking skills that incorporate systems thinking and conflict management into the development of trusting teams, and a desire to engage ethically, positively, and sustainably with society (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996). Collectively, these attributes define eight competencies that form the core capacities required for effective modern leadership. These competencies are consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, citizenship, and change. These are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

The Eight Capacities Within the Social Change Model

Competency	Description
Consciousness of Self	One's awareness of the beliefs, values, attitudes, and emotions that motivate action.
Congruence	One's ability to think, feel, and behave with consistency.
Commitment	The psychic energy that motivates one to serve, even during challenging times.
Collaboration	The capacity to work with others in a group effort.
Common Purpose	The capacity to construct shared aims and values with others.
Controversy with Civility	One's ability to recognize that differences in viewpoint are inevitable, and then to navigate respectful solutions to those differences.
Citizenship	The capacity to become responsibly connected to one's community.
Change	One's capacity for positive impact on a group and the larger society.

While the SCM has been in existence in its current form and taught in co-curricular programs on college campuses since 1996, research on these programs – and co-curricular programs in general – has been scarce until recently.

Research on Student Leadership Development in Higher Education

Little empirical research had been conducted on student leadership development until a decade ago (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). Recent studies conducted on the impact of comprehensive leadership programs in college indicated moderate benefits from structured efforts at leadership skill development. For example, in a national study spanning several institutions, students who participated in specific leadership interventions, in the form of short-term trainings, workshops, or retreats, displayed higher levels of responsibility and multicultural awareness, as well as a deeper sense of both personal and societal values (Cress, et al., 2001). The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) included a series of national studies of on-campus leadership development, and highlighted the significant degree to which participation in structured leadership programs predicted better scores on leadership efficacy and practice (Dugan & Komives, 2007). Moreover, such programs predicted higher levels of skill in related areas, such as practicing community service and engaging in socio-political discussion with peers (Segar, Hershey, & Dugan, 2008).

While there has been growing evidence that structured leadership programs can benefit students' leadership ability, less is currently known about the best method for making such interventions (Posner, 2009). As Posner pointed out, "Despite the plethora of leadership programs scattered across college campuses, scant empirical investigation has been conducted into the benefits of such education efforts" (p. 551). Particularly, evidence for the benefits of short-term interventions (e.g. a retreat or day-long training) in helping students acquire necessary leadership attitudes and skills has been limited, especially when compared to long-term programs (e.g. an academic course or multi-semester certificate program). Posner and Rosenberger (1998) reported that students in leadership positions who participated in a short-term leadership training displayed behaviors comparable to those of students engaged in a semester-long program. Similarly, initial results from the first year of the MSL showed that short-term training interventions produced effects similar to longer-term interventions, which were to increase leadership abilities relative to those of students with no such intervention (Dugan & Komives, 2007). Moreover, in related findings, a multi-institutional study of students from colleges across eastern Europe found that factors such as the creation of a sense of community within a program and students' sense of belonging were more significant than the structure of the training intervention to the participants' subsequent practice of effective leadership (Humphreys, 2007). Taken together, these findings suggest that short-term training may be an effective intervention option for developing students' leadership. Nonetheless, more must be done to understand the specific effects that particular programs have on learning, particularly since most prior research has been cross-sectional, and thus not taken account of the effects of change over time.

Thus far, we have noted that there is a growing emphasis on leadership development among college students, particularly in response to the observation that the demands of modern leadership have changed. The need for intervention is increased by the observation that how naïve students think about leadership may not be appropriate for the requirements of modern leadership. Some studies have suggested that short-term leadership development programs can be effective, but these studies have relied primarily on

comparisons between groups at a single point in time, which leaves uncertainty about the long-term effectiveness of short programs. In response, this study examined the durability of effects from a short-term training intervention on students' leadership competencies by addressing the following questions:

1. Does a short-term program lead to significant differences in how participants score on the SCM assessment?
2. Do any of the observed changes last? Does the effect of a short-term program persist?

Method

Population

This study was conducted with leadership development participants at a large public university in the Midwestern United States. An office on this campus, which we will call the 'Leadership Center,' served as a campus-wide hub for leadership development programs, and espoused a philosophy of leadership consistent with that in the SCM. The Leadership Center's primary objective was to teach students a comprehensive set of skills necessary for competence within the SCM, and the principal means of delivering this education was to offer short-term programs that were open to all students regardless of prior training, academic major, or involvement level on campus.

Participants in this study were drawn from the population of students who registered for one of five short-term leadership programs at the Leadership Center. Each program lasted for an average of eight hours, and each program was open to any interested student. While each one of the five programs was offered at multiple times during the year, students could participate in any particular program only once. The five programs each focused on a different aspect of leadership skills: self-awareness, interpersonal skills, ethics and integrity, organizational effectiveness, and transitional leadership skills. In each program, students had the opportunity to learn theory relevant to the skill set being taught, practice the requisite skills, and reflect upon their learning through individual journaling and small-group discussion. These programs were free, and students received no academic credit for participating.

Sample

The sample for this study consisted of 612 students drawn from participants in the Leadership Center's programs from 2007-2010. Of these, 95% ($n=583$) participated in only one program, while the remainder ($n=29$) participated in two. Overall, 65% of the sample was female. Caucasian students represented 57% of the sample, while African-American (8%), Latino (6%), Asian-American (13%) and international students (15%) comprised the remainder. Participants were spread across all class years. The largest proportion was comprised of freshman (32%), while sophomores (21%), juniors (24%), seniors (16%) and graduate students (8%) were also represented. Students from each of the major colleges within the university participated. Within this sample, women and freshman were overrepresented compared to overall university student demographics, while men and seniors were underrepresented.

Data Collection

Data were collected from three different groups of program participants. Group I data were collected before participation in the leadership program. Students who were assigned to Group I after registering to attend a Leadership Center program were invited to complete an online survey prior to the program. A total of 194 surveys were completed, corresponding to a response rate of 51%. Students assigned to

Group II were invited to complete the survey immediately after their participation in one of the leadership programs. Among these students, a total of 219 surveys were completed (response rate 31%). Students assigned to Group III were invited to complete the survey three months after completing the leadership program. We received 199 surveys from this group (response rate 28%). The overall response rate was 34% across all groups, which is consistent with response rates seen in online survey research (Couper, 2000). As well, the demographic characteristics of those who completed surveys were not significantly different than those of Leadership Center participants who did not.

We collected data for each group at multiple times during the three years of this study, to be sure that all five Leadership Center programs were equally represented in the three groups. Data collection periods are summarized in Table 2. This rotating data collection process resulted in a series of “snapshots” of students’ self-reported competencies at different periods of participation in a system of short-term leadership development programs. Therefore, the structure of the data allow for between-person comparisons, rather than within-person or test-retest analysis. Nonetheless, because participants were randomly assigned to groups, there is no *a priori* reason to believe there are significant differences between respondents in each group. Therefore, the responses in each group should be representative of all individuals at that phase of leadership training, which allows for comparison across the time-lagged cross-sectional snapshots.

Table 2

Data collection periods 2007-2010

	2007-2008			2008-2009			2009-2010		
	Fall	Winter	Spring	Fall	Winter	Spring	Fall	Winter	Spring
Group I – Pre-test	X				X				X
Group II – Post-test		X				X	X		
Group III – Lagged post			X	X				X	

Instrumentation

Participants completed an online survey asking a variety of demographic questions (race, gender, class year, academic college), and including the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS), a 68-item instrument designed to measure the self-reported SCM leadership capacities of participants (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996; Slack, 2006). Items on the SRLS used a five-point Likert-scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” through “Neutral” to “Strongly Agree” and referred to participants’ attitudes or abilities with regard to one of the eight competencies of the SCM (e.g., agreement with the statement that “creativity can come from conflict” measured the ‘controversy with civility’ capacity). Previous work has shown that reliability scores for the SRLS ranges from .75 on the “controversy with civility” scale to .82 on “commitment” (Dugan & Komives, 2010). The SRLS has been used as the leadership effectiveness instrument of choice in an emerging national study of the effects of college involvement on student leadership development that annually includes over 100 colleges and universities and 50,000 student participants – the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (Dugan & Komives, 2007). It has been used to examine differences in leadership practices across gender, race, and sexual orientation (Dugan, Komives, & Segar, 2008), the effects of college involvement on leadership success (Dugan,

2006), and the effects of mentoring on effective leadership practices (Jabaji, Slife, Dugan, & Komives, 2008), as well as with students outside the United States (Humphreys, 2007).

Data Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using maximum likelihood estimation structural equation models. CFA was used to test the convergent and discriminant validity of the SRLS competencies, as well to compare the factor structure among sample groups (i.e., Groups I, II and III). The length of the full SRLS instrument (68 items) implied a large number of parameter estimates in an unconstrained model, more than was appropriate for estimation given the available sample size (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). To address this problem, we opted against item parceling, so as to maximize the rigor of the scale analysis (Bagozzi & Heatherton, 1994). Instead, we used an iterative split-sample modeling approach (Kline, 1998), which involved using half of the participant responses to identify the subset of items for each competency that best fit the data. We limited the CFA to these items and the resulting model was then tested for appropriate fit in the remainder of the participant sample, in order to reduce the risk of capitalizing on chance (McDonald & Marsh, 1990). The final CFA model was subsequently used in a group-based comparison across the three phases to test for similarities and differences in the pattern of responses. All fit decisions were based on the criteria suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999).

Results

Basic descriptive statistics for the survey responses are provided in Table 3. The values in Table 3 were calculated using the entire 68-item scale for comparability with previous studies, and the values are consistent with those reported by others (Dugan, 2006; Dugan & Komives, 2007). For parsimony, all further results reported are from the final CFA model that was adopted.

Table 3

Descriptive statistics

		Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Change	3.86	0.43	(.76)							
2	Citizenship	4.15	0.46	.54	(.85)						
3	Collaboration	4.19	0.41	.57	.59	(.78)					
4	Commitment	4.46	0.42	.38	.47	.57	(.77)				
5	Common purpose	4.21	0.39	.50	.63	.71	.56	(.81)			
6	Congruence	4.23	0.43	.38	.51	.53	.60	.58	(.79)		
7	Consciousness	3.97	0.48	.48	.43	.53	.49	.50	.57	(.76)	
8	Controversy	3.98	0.37	.65	.48	.60	.49	.46	.37	.44	(.70)

	with civility										
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Cronbach's alpha in diagonal.

All correlations significant ($p < .05$)

N = 612

As explained in the description of the analysis, all 68 items of the SRLS were not used in the final model. Moreover, the proposed eight-factor structure of the SCM was not observed in the data; several of the competencies had correlations too high to support their discriminant validity as independent factors (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998). Rather, a six-factor structure was found to be more appropriate, consisting of items associated with the competencies of congruence, commitment, common purpose, controversy with civility, citizenship, and change (see Table 4). The data did not support the discriminant validity of the consciousness of self and collaboration competencies.

Table 4

Final six-competency factor structure and items

Competency	Retained SRLS items	α
Citizenship	I believe I have responsibilities to my community I believe I have a civic responsibility to the greater public I value opportunities that allow me to contribute to my community	.79
Commitment	I hold myself accountable for responsibilities I agree to I can be counted on to do my part I follow through on my promises	.78
Congruence	My actions are consistent with my values My behaviors are congruent with my beliefs My behaviors reflect my beliefs	.82
Controversy with Civility	I am open to others' ideas I value differences in others I respect opinions other than my own	.73
Common Purpose	It is important to develop a common direction in a group in order to get anything done Common values drive an organization I work well when I know the collective values of a group	.71

Change	Change makes me uncomfortable (reverse coded) I work well in changing environments New ways of doing things frustrate me (reverse coded)	.72
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Our final result was a model comprised of the six competencies in Table 4. This model was a statistically appropriate representation of the data ($X^2_{120}=255.70$, CFI=0.96, RMSEA=0.04, SRMR=0.04). All items in the table displayed good measurement properties. In terms of convergent validity – the extent to which the competencies could be recognized in the data – the model performed well (all factor loadings in excess of the recommended minimum of 0.5; Chin, 1998). The model also performed well in terms of discriminant validity, which is the extent to which competencies could be distinguished from each other (the largest correlation among factors was 0.52; Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998). The final model had equally good measurement properties within each training group: Group I, before training ($X^2_{120}=205.03$, CFI=0.91, RMSEA=0.06, SRMR=0.06); Group II, immediately after training ($X^2_{120}=174.28$, CFI=0.95, RMSEA=.005, SRMR=0.05); and Group III, three months after training ($X^2_{120}=211.78$, CFI=0.92, RMSEA=.006, SRMR=0.06). In all cases, the results met the criteria for good fit, indicating that the final model is an appropriate interpretation of the data (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The next step of the analysis was a group-based comparison to test for differences in their responses. The first comparison was between Groups I and II, which assessed possible differences in the respondents' leadership model and self-reported competencies before and after training. The first model we tested constrained both groups to have identical measurement models (i.e., same factor structure, same factor loadings, same measurement intercepts). As shown in Table 5 (see Model 1), this model had an acceptable fit with the data, suggesting that respondents' mental models of leadership before and after training had the same six-competency factor structure, meaning that students grouped their response patterns similarly both before and after attending the training sessions. Models 2 and 3 then required further equivalence between the two groups' responses; specifically that the two groups have the same mean levels in the competencies (Model 2) and the same correlations among the competencies (Model 3). Both of these models had significantly worse fits with the data, as indicated by the significant increase in their X^2 score, relative to Model 1.

Table 5

Alternative models in group comparison

Model	Samples	Equivalence comparison	$X^2(df)$	$\Delta X^2(df)$	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
1	Groups I & II	Factor structure	398.96 (264)	--	.94	.03	.06
2		Factor means	412.99 (270)	14.03 (6)*	.93	.04	.06
3		Factor	448.47	35.48	.92	.04	.08

		correlations	(291)	(21)*			
4	Groups II & III	Factor structure	412.90 (264)	--	.93	.04	.05
5		Factor means	419.02 (270)	6.12 (6)	.93	.04	.05
6		Factor correlations	437.05 (291)	18.03 (21)	.94	.03	.06

* $p < .05$

The worse fit of Model 2 indicates that there were significant differences in the mean levels of some competencies among respondents in the two groups. Specifically, respondents reported significantly higher competency in commitment (Cohen's $d = .40$), common purpose ($d = .20$), controversy with civility ($d = .22$), and citizenship ($d = .17$) after training ($p < .05$). These are small to moderate effects that suggest that immediately after training participants felt more competent in these areas than they did before training. There was no difference between Groups I and II in their reported competency with congruence or change. Further, the worse fit of Model 3 indicates that there were significant differences in the correlation structures between groups, implying that the respondents perceived different relationships among the competencies before and after training. As shown in Table 6, most Pearson's r correlations were higher after training (i.e., in Group II), which suggests that the participants considered the competencies to be more interrelated and closely linked after training.

Table 6

Correlations among competencies before and after training (Phase I score/Phase II score)

		1	2	3	4	5
1	Change					
2	Citizenship	.29/.52				
3	Commitment	.32/.41	.12/.46			
4	Common purpose	.20/.25	.41/.44	.18/.57		
5	Congruence	.08/.39	.23/.49	.49/.53	.39/.40	
6	Controversy with civility	.40/.54	.33/.41	.36/.36	.36/.20	.15/.16

Note: All correlations ≥ 0.21 are significant ($p < .05$)

The final step in the analysis was to compare the responses of Groups II and III. As shown in Model 4 of Table 5, constraining these two groups to have identical measurement models yielded a good fit with the data. Moreover, the results of Models 5 and 6 indicate that the two groups had similar means and

correlations among the competencies; there were no significant differences. These results suggest that participants reported similar levels of competency and similar mental models of leadership immediately after training and three months later. Combined with the previous results, this shows that the short-term training had a lasting effect on the participants: immediately after training, participants reported higher levels of competency and perceived stronger links among the competencies, and these increases persisted for at least three months.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of short-term leadership programs on students' self-reported scores on an assessment of SCM competencies. The results indicate that there may be many areas of leadership development that can be addressed through participation in short-term training programs. Moreover, the results suggest that the increased scores persist over time. Three months after training, participants still retained the effects they showed immediately after training. An additional interesting finding was that the correlations among SCM competencies generally increased after participation, pointing to the possibility of a more integrated understanding of the skills required for effective post-industrial leadership. However, all of these findings should be interpreted with the caveat that there may be issues to be resolved concerning the psychometric properties of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS), since the predicted eight-factor structure could not be extracted from the data. Nonetheless, these results provide empirical evidence that students can derive lasting benefits from participating in short-term leadership training, and indicate important directions for future research and the potential structure of leadership programs.

Previous studies (Healy, 2000; Rosch & Schwartz, 2009; Schuh & Upcraft, 1998) have shown the existence of a "honeymoon effect" in self-reported assessment of skill immediately after an educational experience, such that students overestimate the impact of their learning compared to a measurement taken months later. In this study, student scores remained elevated relative to pre-program results three months after training, and were equal to the gains seen immediately after the program. This persistence corroborates past research (Dugan & Komives, 2007), indicating the durable benefit of students attending short-term leadership interventions. The results seem to show that well-structured short-term programs can impact student leadership practices long after attendance.

At the same time, the results also signify that not all areas of leadership competency are similarly affected by such programs. Specifically, while students reported greater competency on measures of capacity for commitment, common purpose, controversy with civility, and citizenship, there was no apparent effect from training on their capacity for congruence or change. This difference may indicate that some skills required for socially responsible leadership are more amenable to training within a single, short program (e.g., team development, values prioritization, discussion facilitation, and conflict management skills). In contrast, mastering more complex skills such as moral reasoning and systems thinking (i.e. skills required for the effective practice of congruence and change), may be better accomplished in a long-term educational structure, such as an academic course or multi-semester leadership certificate program. The fact that perceived acquisition of some SCM competencies appears to occur from participation in short-term programs while others do not may have important implications for the curriculum included in co-curricular educational programs, which are often based on short-term interventions such as evening workshops or weekend retreats.

The other interesting pattern in the findings was that most of the correlations among the SCM competencies increased and remained elevated after leadership training. This may indicate that, in addition to any changes in individuals' particular competencies, leadership training programs may promote more integrated thinking about all of the skills required to lead in complex, modern contexts. For example, as students become more proficient at the practice of gaining consensus for group action (i.e., common purpose), they may also gain a better sense of the comprehensive knowledge, skills, and attitudes required to stay committed to personal goals in the face of opposition, manage interpersonal conflict, and embrace diversity in groups.

Even though the training did not appear to contribute to increased scores in the competencies of congruence and change, post-training participants generally reported higher correlations among these and other competencies. These higher correlations may indicate that even though their reported skill does not increase, students may leave a well-designed short-term leadership program with a more integrated understanding of what is required to exercise congruence or manage a complex change process. While students may not be able to master these more complex skills within a short-term program, they may still receive meaningful gains in knowledge about these competencies.

Finally, the results also have potential implications for the use of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) as an assessment tool in leadership programs. Despite its increasing popularity in assessing student leadership development, little psychometric research has been published on the SRLS beyond exploratory factor analysis. While the Cronbach's alpha score for each competency was similar to that found in past research (Dugan, 2006; Dugan & Komives, 2007), further analysis indicated a lack of convergent and discriminant validity among the competencies, requiring post-hoc deletion of scale items and competencies. While we were able to develop a valid model that was consistent with six of the SCM competencies, additional research might examine the psychometric properties of the SRLS in detail and in diverse samples of students.

Implications for Policy and Practice

These results show evidence that "one-shot" programs can serve as effective tools for lasting leadership development, but that not all leadership skills are acquired at the same speed or in the context of such programs. The addition of academic courses or long-term certificate programs in leadership development is human resource-heavy and time intensive; using short-term programs that can effectively educate students may be more fiscally efficient and can provide a means to scale up new initiatives in a potentially more cost-effective and quicker fashion – and our results reveal the efficacy of such programs for some competencies. Still, leadership educators in student affairs should be intentional with the design of their overall suite of programs, ensuring that the complexity that accompanies several contemporary leadership skills is adequately addressed through longer-term programs and initiatives. The SCM capacity of "change," for example, may require mastery of the concept of effective systems-thinking. Such mastery requires the successful identification of stakeholders, building relationships with diverse others, testing one's assumptions, and creating effective feedback loops (Conger & Benjamin, 1999). Acquiring the skills to successfully create systemic change in contemporary systems may not be realistic in the scope of a one-day program.

These results also suggest that even if students do not leave short-term programs perceiving that they possess the skills necessary to practice complex leadership actions, they may acquire a more integrated sense of thinking about leadership. For example, while some students may not leave a program more

competent in matching their words and actions (i.e., the SCM capacity of congruence), they may recognize the important role that their personal values (i.e., the SCM capacity of consciousness of self) play in such behavior. This may have important implications for student affairs leadership educators and how they structure the programs they offer. Many leadership programs are marketed as discrete skill-building opportunities rather than as parts of a complex whole of leadership capacity-building. The educational impact of these programs may be increased by explicitly providing students with a more holistic picture of how the skills they are learning are connected to related skills for leading others. Moreover, the creation of a linked set of short-term programs, where students build skill in one area first before advancing to master a more complex skill, may aid administrators in effectively creating a comprehensive leadership development initiative.

Limitations and Future Research

This study had several important limitations. Significantly, these results are based on students at a single four-year research-extensive public university in the Midwest, all of whom volunteered to participate in relatively short training programs that took place on the weekends or over summer and winter breaks. While this sample of students was demographically representative of the general student body at that particular campus, the ability to generalize results to a more national or global population of students may be limited by the single-institution population, the fact that all participants were self-selected volunteers, and the nature of the programs in question. Consequently, more research involving multi-campus student populations and programs of varying lengths should be conducted to better understand the impact of short-term training on student leadership development.

Additionally, the post-participation element of the study design was limited to three months, thus constraining the degree to which conclusions about long-term effects can be drawn. The field of leadership development in higher education suffers from a paucity of research that examines true longitudinal change in student abilities (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005; Posner, 2009). While this research began to address this problem, more efforts must be made in assessing the leadership gains of students over time. A specific direction that should be addressed in future research is the difference between knowledge, skills, and attitudes in post-industrial leadership development. While the SRLS is an assessment of self-reported *skills*, future research could examine how students develop and grow in each of these three areas, and the relationships among them.

In conclusion, our results show that while short-term training is a viable option for student affairs educators in helping students develop leadership skills, not all relevant skills may be appropriately addressed and mastered in a short-term program. More research must be conducted to understand which types of leadership skills can best be fostered in students through short programs, and which skills may be better left to long-term programming initiatives. As campuses are increasingly pressed to become more efficient and better stewards of existing financial and human resources, such knowledge would aid leadership educators in creating the most benefit from their efforts.

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Socially Responsible, or just plain Social

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Introduction

Leadership is a tenant of Greek Letter Organizations, whether expressly stated in mission and vision statements or implicitly directed via New Member Programs. Students in Greek Life are directed to demonstrate their leadership abilities, whether it is with their philanthropy of choice, within their chapter, or within the larger university setting. Little is known, however, about the leadership competencies of students who choose to become involved in Greek Life. Their leadership potential is the future of their Greek Letter organizations and the Greek Life system on any particular campus.

Although technically easily defined, leadership is not always well understood. New students to the college or university setting have their own ideas about leadership that may play a significant role in their perceptions of themselves as leaders (Shertzer and Schuh, 2004). It may be assumed that these students have demonstrated significant leadership in the past as proven by their acceptance to today's competitive universities. Most higher learning institutions tout their leadership opportunities within the university. However, these institutions rarely attend to the development of their students as leaders in terms of offering set criteria or curricula for leadership development (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, Burkhardt, 2001).

Because leadership is exhibited in many ways, and can be viewed and valued differently by differing cultures and disciplines, it can be described as a paradigm. Paradigms are patterns and ways of looking at things in order to make sense of them (Komives, Lucas, McMahon, 1998). Some interpret good leaders as being verbal, self confident, clearly in charge, and also as those who direct followers. Some see a leader as one who delegates and is involved with group discussion. Some see leadership within a group, and not defined as an individual. Regardless of how it is interpreted, over eleven thousand books and articles have been written about leadership (Bass, 1990). Komives et al. (1998) describes leadership as best defined by using a personal philosophy of leadership and how to work effectively with others toward meaningful change.

Fraternities and sororities are under the National Interfraternity Conference (NIC) or the National Panhellenic Conference (NPC). Nationally, around 10% of college students are affiliated with a Greek Letter Organization, as are more than 10 million alumni. Greek Letter Organizations (GLOs) pride themselves on "rich out-of-class learning and personal development opportunities" for their members. As leadership development is a needed skill and disposition for success in today's society it is a goal for most fraternal organizations.

Conceptual & Theoretical Frameworks

According to Astin (1993) the single most powerful source of influence on the undergraduate student's academic and personal development is in the peer group. This interaction has the strongest positive effect on leadership development, overall academic development, and problem-solving skills. Participation in a fraternity or sorority enhances necessary competencies; "affiliating with a fraternity or sorority enhances the development of mature interpersonal relationships, facilitates the development of leadership skills, teaches teamwork, fosters interchange of ideas, promotes values clarification, and can facilitate the development of sense of autonomy and personal identity" ("Social Fraternities and Sororities," n.d.).

Created specifically for College Students, the Social Change Model (SCM) of Leadership Development provides the theoretical framework for this study. It is consistent with the emerging leadership paradigm

and the post-industrial paradigm. With this model, change for the common good was achieved with the establishment of eight core values that enhance student's levels of self-awareness and ability to work with others (Dugan and Komives, 2007). These values include: Consciousness of Self; Congruence; Commitment; Common Purpose; Collaboration; Controversy with Civility; Citizenship; and Change. This particular model has more emphasis on Change. It is a measurement of comfort with change, not actual social change. The use of all of these values in one instrument is the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS). The use of the SRLS throughout national studies of leadership in college students suggests the validity of its continued use for that purpose (Rosch and Kusel, 2011).

The Social Change Model (SCM) of leadership is the framework of this study. It was chosen because it is the most frequently used model for exploring college leadership (HERI, 1996). The eight values of the SCM are broken into three groups to describe leadership as individual, group, or community values. The Socially Responsible Leadership Survey (SRLS) is a combination of all seven of the Social Change Model's theories, in addition to the eighth, Change. The SRLS has been used in several collegiate studies to evaluate leadership.

Based on several studies using the SRLS, students tend to score highest in the Commitment construct (Dugan, 2006a; 2006b; Dugan, Komives, Segar, 2008; Dugan, Komives, 2010; Dugan 2008). Students tend to score lower in the constructs of Controversy with Civility and Citizenship (Dugan, 2006a; 2006b; Dugan, Komives, Segar, 2008; Dugan, Komives, 2010; Dugan, 2008).

Nature of the Problem

[University's] Greek Life system prides itself with having several standards that reflect the work of each organization. One standard is Leadership Training, the Office of Greek Life offers "chapters prepare goals each year, attend training offered by the Department of Greek Life and their respective Inter/National Fraternity or Sorority" under this particular standard. The Office of Greek Life affirms that many members are in leadership positions within the chapter, including executive positions and officers, and 72% of members are in leadership positions in other organizations on campus ("GreekLife," n.d. para. 6).

Roughly 2,400 students (11%) are involved in one of 53 GLOs on [University's] campus (personal communication, 2011). Previous research has shown that membership in fraternal organizations has some impact on the leadership development of members. To provide a more focused view of development, one must start at the beginning of college student development, and so a leadership assessment of the New Member Classes of [University] GLOs would help inform research and practice in this area. Results from this study could provide future direction for the leadership offered by chapters and [University] Greek Life.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine and interpret the self-perceived leadership values of New Members of GLOs at [University]. By profiling students who are New Members, a description of students' leadership values can be determined based upon the results. The objective of the study was defined as: describing the perceived leadership values of New Members of GLOs at [University] via the eight values of the Social Change Model.

Methods

This study used descriptive survey research. Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) stated the "purpose of surveys is to describe certain characteristics of a population" (p. G-3). A cross-sectional survey was used to describe perceived leadership competencies of New Members in Greek Life Organizations at [University].

The population for this study consisted of all New Members of Greek Life at [University] during Fall 2011. The population frame was a listing of all 629 Greek Life New Members of one of 53 organizations. A census sample of all 629 students was used in this study. Since the entire population was used, selection was not considered to be a threat to the validity of the study.

The design of the instrument was created by Dr. Tracy Tyree as a set of valid and statistically reliable scales that evaluate the eight values of the Social Change Model of Leadership (SCM) (SRLS Guidebook, 2005). The validity of the instrument was determined at the time of instrument development by Tyree (1998). The instrument was deemed valid by a group of students and leadership experts. One question was inadvertently omitted upon delivery of the survey. A post-hoc reliability analysis was then conducted to estimate the reliability of the instrument. Cronbach's alpha for all sections were found to be still within the acceptable range. These results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Chronbach's Alpha Tests for Reliability of the SRLS-R2

Construct	Post-Hoc Chronbach's Alpha
Consciousness of Self	.71
Congruence	.81
Commitment	.80
Collaboration	.74
Common Purpose	.69
Controversy with Civility	.64
Citizenship	.87
Change	.76

Data was collected using Qualtrics.com, an online survey research site. Data collection followed Dillman's (2000) Tailored Design Method. A message with the informed consent document, as well as the link for the study was sent to all 629 students. That same day the researcher emailed all Greek Life chapter presidents to request that they encourage all New Members to respond to the survey. One week later, a thank-you message was sent to those who had completed the questionnaire, and requesting responses again for those who had not. For four consecutive weeks after the informed consent letter was sent, a thank you note and link was sent as a reminder asking them to participate in the study.

Of the 629 New Members in Greek Life at [University], a response rate of 43.8% was obtained. This is higher than the typical 27% response rate achieved with an e-mail survey (Frazee, Hardin, Brashears, Smith and Lockaby, 2002). Because the response rate was less than the 85% suggested by Lindner, Murphy, and Briers (2001) procedures for handling non-responders (Armstrong & Overton, 1977) were followed. Early responses were defined as surveys returned within the first three weeks of the study, and late responses as from the last three weeks of the study. In comparing early to late respondents to control for a non-response error, there were no differences between the responses of the two groups. The results are generalizable because the late responses are assumed to be similar to non-responses (Lindner and Wingenbach, 2002).

Data were exported from Qualtrics.com into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 20.0 Program for Windows. Ordinal data were collected, with a rating system ranging from 1-5. Data were summarized in each construct using means and standard deviations. Negatively worded items were reverse coded where appropriate

Results

The construct *Change* is part of the grouping for community values, and illustrates what an individual develops and demonstrates at a group level (Astin, 1996). *Change* is “making a better world and a better society for oneself and others” (SRLS Guidebook, 2005, p. 4). The range for this construct was 2.52-4.14. Students ranked “I am open to new ideas” as the highest within the construct. This item had a mean score of 4.14, indicating an *agree* rating on the scale. Item “Transition makes me uncomfortable” rated lowest (m=2.52), however as this is a negatively worded question it demonstrates students indicate disagreement that they were made uncomfortable by transition. The results are represented in Table 2.

Table 2

Student’s Perceptions of Overall Leadership Skills - Change (n=276)

Q#	Item	M	SD
44.	I am open to new ideas.	4.14	0.60
51.	I can identify the difference between positive and negative change.	4.11	0.52
22.	There is energy in doing something a new way.	3.98	0.67
13.	I am comfortable initiating new ways of looking at things	3.96	0.67
19.	Change brings new life to an organization.	3.95	0.73
46.	I look for new ways to do something.	3.70	0.86
28.	Change makes me uncomfortable.	2.60	0.96
38.	New ways of doing things frustrate me.	2.57	0.85
10.	Transition makes me uncomfortable.	2.52	0.97

Note: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

The construct of *Citizenship* is the ability to render leadership in a community setting; describing how an individual becomes connected to the community with some activity (SRLS Guidebook, 2005). Students, aware of their power to make a difference in their community, participated in activities contributing to the common good. The range of the mean scores, 4.05-4.23, was small. Students ranked “I participate in activities that contribute to the common good” as the highest item in the construct, with a mean score of 4.23. The lowest ranked was “I believe I have a civic responsibility to the greater public” with a score of 4.05. These results are reported in Table 3.

Table 3

Students’ Perceptions of Overall Leadership Skills - Citizenship (n=276)

Q#	Item	M	SD
48.	I participate in activities that contribute to the common good.	4.23	0.53
45.	I have the power to make a difference in my community.	4.21	0.68
40.	I give time to making a difference for someone else.	4.14	0.65
67.	I value opportunities that allow me to contribute to my community.	4.13	0.64
41.	I work with others to make my communities better places	4.13	0.70
35.	I believe I have responsibilities to my community.	4.09	0.73
47.	I am willing to act for the rights of others.	4.06	0.68
56.	I believe I have a civic responsibility to the greater public.	4.05	0.70

Note: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

The *Collaboration* construct is defined as working with others, to multiply group effectiveness, by capitalizing on the various talents and diversity of members (SRLS Guidebook, 2005). The range for this construct was 3.92- 4.24. Students ranked “I enjoy working with others toward common goals” the

highest, with a score of 4.24. The lowest ranked item was “I am able to trust the people with whom I work,” with a score of 3.92. These results are reported in Table 4.

Table 4

Students’ Perceptions of Overall leadership Skills - Collaboration (n=276)

Q#	Item	M	SD
43.	I enjoy working with others toward common goals.	4.24	0.61
12.	I am seen as someone who works well with others.	4.21	0.58
31.	I can make a difference when I work with others on a task.	4.21	0.57
49.	Others would describe me as a cooperative group member.	4.15	0.61
32.	I actively listen to what others have to say.	4.09	0.67
58.	Collaboration produces much better results.	4.08	0.66
61.	My contributions are recognized by others in the group I belong to.	3.99	0.75
66.	I am able to trust the people with whom I work.	3.92	0.74

Note: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

The construct of *Commitment* is defined as an individual having a significant investment in an idea or person (SRLS Guidebook, 2005). The range of this construct was close, 4.20-4.55. Students ranked “I am willing to devote time and energy to things that are important to me” the highest with a mean score of 4.55. It should be noted that this is the highest ranked item overall. Students ranked the item “I am focused on my responsibilities” as the lowest with 4.20. These results are reported in Table 5.

Table 5

Students’ Perceptions of Overall Leadership Skills - Commitment (n=276)

Q#	Item	M	SD
25.	I am willing to devote time and energy to things that are important to me.	4.55	0.55
26.	I stick with others through the difficult times.	4.49	0.65
52.	I can be counted on to do my part.	4.47	0.61
54.	I follow through on my promises.	4.44	0.57
55.	I hold myself accountable for responsibilities I agree to.	4.40	0.54
30.	I am focused on my responsibilities.	4.20	0.61

Note: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

The construct of *Common Purpose* is described as an individual’s ability to work in a group with shared aims and values to envision the groups’ purpose (SRLS Guidebook, 2005). The range for this construct was 3.93-4.33. Students ranked the item “I support what the group is trying to accomplish” as the highest, with a score of 4.33. Students ranked “I think it is important to know other people’s priorities” as the lowest, with a score of 3.93. These are reported in Table 6.

Table 6

Students Perceptions of Overall Leadership Skills - Common Purpose (n=276)

Q#	Item	M	SD
68.	I support what the group is trying to accomplish.	4.33	0.53
59.	I know the purpose of the groups to which I belong.	4.29	0.55
17.	It is important to develop a common direction in a group in order to get anything done.	4.27	0.59
21.	I contribute to the goals of the program.	4.21	0.48

16.	I am committed to a collective purpose in those groups to which I belong.	4.21	0.57
39.	Common values drive an organization.	4.20	0.59
62.	I work well when I know the collective values of a group.	4.10	0.63
37.	I have helped to shape the mission of the group.	4.04	0.59
33.	I think it is important to know other people's priorities.	3.93	0.72

Note: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

The construct of *Congruence* illustrates ability to act in ways consistent with values and beliefs. This includes acting, thinking, and behaving with consistency, authenticity, and honesty to others (SRLS Guidebook, 2005). The range for this construct was 4.01-4.00. Students ranked "Being seen as a person of integrity is important to me" highest ($m = 4.44$). The lowest item, with a score of 4.01, was "My behaviors are congruent with my beliefs." These are reported in Table 7.

Table 7

Students' Perceptions of Overall Leadership Skills - Congruence ($n=276$)

Q#	Item	M	SD
53.	Being seen as a person of integrity is important to me.	4.44	0.58
65.	I am genuine.	4.40	0.57
69.	It is easy for me to be truthful.	4.34	0.66
64.	My behaviors reflect my beliefs.	4.15	0.64
29.	It is important to me to act on my beliefs.	4.14	0.59
34.	My actions are consistent with my values.	4.07	0.64
15.	My behaviors are congruent with my beliefs.	4.01	0.65

Note: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

The construct of *Consciousness of Self* is awareness of personal beliefs, values, attitudes, and emotions that motivate an individual to react (SRLS Guidebook, 2005). The construct range was 1.90-4.36. Students ranked the item "The things about which I feel passionate have a priority in my life" as the highest in the construct ($m=4.36$). The lowest score ($m = 1.90$) was for "I have low self esteem." This is a negatively worded question, and indicates a rating demonstrating disagreement with students having low self esteem. These are reported in Table 8.

Table 8

Students' Perceptions of Overall Leadership Skills - Consciousness of Self ($n=276$)

Q#	Item	M	SD
20.	The things about which I feel passionate have priority in my life.	4.36	0.61
24.	I know myself pretty well.	4.33	0.66
6.	I am able to articulate my priorities.	4.25	0.67
36.	I could describe my personality.	4.15	0.73
60.	I am comfortable expressing myself.	4.09	0.70
11.	I am usually self confident.	4.04	0.74
42.	I can describe how I am similar to other people.	4.01	0.62
57.	Self-reflection is difficult for me.	2.59	0.90
8.	I have low self esteem.	1.90	0.80

Note: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

The construct of *Controversy with Civility* describes recognizing that differences in viewpoints are inevitable, and that these differences must be acknowledged civilly (SRLS Guidebook, 2005). The range

of this construct was 2.29-4.34. Students ranked “I am open to others’ ideas” as the highest item in the construct, with a score of 4.34. Students ranked “I struggle when group members have ideas that are different than mine” as the lowest, with a score of 2.29. As this is a negatively worded question, this score indicates a rating demonstrating disagreement that these students struggle when group members have ideas different than theirs. These are reported in Table 9.

Table 9

Students’ Perceptions of Overall Leadership Skills - Controversy with Civility (n=276)

Q#	Item	M	SD
3.	I am open to others’ ideas.	4.34	0.67
18.	I respect opinions other than my own.	4.25	0.63
5.	I value difference in others.	4.20	0.72
63.	I share my ideas with others.	4.14	0.65
7.	Hearing differences in opinion enriches my thinking.	4.04	0.66
4.	Creativity can come from conflict.	3.73	0.74
13.	Greater harmony can come out of disagreement.	3.35	0.81
50.	I am comfortable with conflict.	3.34	1.04
23.	I am uncomfortable when someone disagrees with me.	2.65	0.83
27.	When there is a conflict ..., one will win and the other will lose.	2.61	0.92
9.	I struggle when group members have ideas that are different than mine.	2.29	0.74

Note: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

In order to facilitate comparisons to previous research and better position this research to be placed in context, mean scores were calculated for each construct. These mean scores can be found in Table 11.

Table 10

Construct Means and Standard Deviations

Construct	M	SD
Commitment	4.44	.41
Congruence	4.23	.33
Common Purpose	4.18	.35
Citizenship	4.14	.48
Collaboration	4.13	.33
Consciousness of Self (r)	4.08	.40
Controversy with Civility (r)	3.80	.37
Change (r)	3.79	.46

Note: (r) denotes constructs that were re-coded due to negatively worded questions.

Conclusions & Implications

Two items of note are needed in order to facilitate a discussion of the findings of this research. First, it is important to understand that all of the constructs in this research study were scored as highly scored by the respondents. In fact, no construct score was lower than a ranking of neutral. This finding, in and of itself, is similar to other studies (Dugan, 2006a; Dugan, 2006b; Gehrke, 2008; Dugan, Komives & Segar, 2008; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan, 2008). However, even though these scores are all high, they may not be the most desired scores in every case. Where improvement may be desired, recommendations are provided. Next, in order to maximize the researcher's ability to compare the findings of this research

to other studies, and in order to place this research in context, both the single digit mean score derived in Table 10 and the construct rankings by the participants in this study will be used for comparison and discussion purposes.

Change

The construct *Change* is an individual's comfort with change, not necessarily change itself. Change is the definitive goal of the creative process of leadership, change to make "a better world and society for self and others" (Understanding Social Change Model, n.d.). Students scored *Change* in the bottom third among the constructs. These results are consistent with several other studies where *Change* was among the lowest scoring constructs (Dugan, 2006a; Gehrke, 2008; Dugan, Komives, Segar, 2008; Dugan, 2008). It is stipulated that the mean for this construct still fell within neutral ranking (3.79) demonstrating that the population ranked themselves neither highly skilled nor deficient in this area. However, because of the lower ranking, it may be concluded, that these students may perceive that they may be less comfortable with change than other leadership constructs.

The neutral score for the *Change* construct could be influenced by the students' age and their ability to see themselves as a change agent. College is generally a time of self-exploration and a time to begin anew. Because the majority of New Members are freshmen, they are beginning a time in their lives where they have to adjust and change to a wide variety of new situations (living away from home, new friends, new classes, no more parental supervision, etc.). Because it is so new, it may be likely that with all the change occurring in their lives, they may be potentially overwhelmed and realize they don't have a high degree of comfort with change. To further embrace and become comfortable with change, students could be encouraged to join an organization that they may not normally become involved in to facilitate this change process. This could become a mandatory facet of Greek Life at [University]. Diversification of students could lead to a greater comfort with change.

Citizenship

The construct of *Citizenship* is the ability to render leadership in a community setting; it describes how an individual becomes connected to the community through an activity (SRLS Guidebook, 2009). Citizenship occurs when one becomes responsibly connected to the community. It is described as not simply membership, but active engagement in the community. The practice of good citizenship should happen at every level of the Social Change Model ("The Center for Leadership and Service," 2012). The *Citizenship* aggregate mean was in the top third of the ranked mean scores (4.14). To put this research in context with other similar studies, these results are different from other studies (Dugan, 2006a; Dugan, 2006b; Dugan, 2008) but similar to others (Wedel, Goodman, Chen & Wingenbach, n.d.; and Dugan and Komives, 2010). It could be concluded that providing leadership in a community setting and becoming connected to the community are somewhat highly perceived endeavors by this population.

The students' score in the *Citizenship* construct could be influenced by their age and lack of formal civic engagement. It allows individuals to take some personal responsibility for the direction of their communities. It is recommended that students be encouraged to become involved with advocacy groups for issues or populations about which they are passionate in order to become better acquainted with working for the rights of others. It is further recommended that service learning projects, particularly with a community focus outside of the university and Greek Life communities, can contribute to a growing sense of citizenship for students. Students can use this opportunity during a pledge retreat to grow the unity of the new member class, while also helping to grow their sense of citizenship within their communities.

Collaboration

Collaboration is a group value. The construct of *Collaboration* is defined as working with others, to multiply group effectiveness, by capitalizing on various talents and diversity of members (SRLS

Guidebook, 2009). Collaboration gives students the opportunity to look at leadership as a group process. It encourages the group to transcend individual goals, and explore differences in individual values (“The Center for Leadership and Service,” 2012). The students scored the *Collaboration* construct near the middle of the ranked mean scores; however, still perceived themselves as collaborative because of the high score. It can be concluded that students perceive themselves as collaborative. Dugan and Komives (2010) found that collaboration is influenced by membership in clubs, fraternities and sororities, and sports, so it isn’t surprising that this group scored this construct in this way.

Interestingly, students indicated a level of neutrality when asked about trusting the people with whom they work. College forces students to work with many different people for school projects, dorm room placements or other circumstances. Much like with *Change*, these students are learning to operate in an environment where a variety of ideas, opinions, and philosophies exist that are different than their own. Because of the unfamiliarity with the people with whom they interact, students may still be developing the skills needed for forming trustful relationships. Although working toward a group goal is important, it is often necessary to listen to a variety of viewpoints while navigating the college landscape. The concepts of consensus, collaboration, and compromise could be demonstrated and should be developed in the successful Greek Letter Organization. Specifically, more needs to be done to support collaboration between each class of members. It is recommended that to give these students the opportunity to utilize their collaborative skills, experienced members need to discuss with the New Members how all members can work together to improve the Greek Letter Organization, and further, members of all GLOs should collaborate to improve Greek Life.

Commitment

The construct of *Commitment* is defined as an individual having a significant investment in an idea or person (SRLS Guidebook, 2009). It implies passion, intensity, and duration directed toward group activity and required outcomes (“The Center for Leadership and Service,” 2012). The construct of *Commitment* was the highest ranked construct (4.44). This is similar to Dugan, 2006a; Dugan, 2006b; Gehrke, 2008; and Dugan 2008. It could be concluded that students perceive themselves as able to commit to organizations they value. Also of note, the highest scored item of the instrument was in this construct; students indicated a willingness to devote time and energy to things important to them (4.55).

It is not surprising that this population rated the construct of *Commitment* high; Greek Life, at its core, is a significant commitment for students. During recruitment, sororities and fraternities discuss and emphasize the many obligations of membership. New Members make a (usually informed) and conscious decision to join. A commitment to a GLO is often shared by the student’s parents, as a significant financial obligation is involved. Because of this, this population of students may be more likely to be comfortable with the idea of commitment. Since commitment is a large component of Greek Life, and the results of this study imply that this population values commitment, the recommendation would be to continue the commitment exercises and practices that have nurtured student commitment to Greek Letter Organizations.

Common Purpose

The construct of *Common Purpose* is described as an individual’s ability to work in a group with shared aims to envision the groups’ purpose (SRLS Guidebook, 2009). This enables the group to engage in collective analyses of the issues and tasks to be undertaken. It is best achieved when all members share the vision of the group (“The Center for Leadership and Service,” 2012). Students ranked this in the top third of constructs (4.18). This finding is similar only to Wedel, et al., (n.d.). From this score and ranking, it can be concluded that students perceive themselves as willing to have shared aims and values, and wanting to build a group vision.

Each fraternity and sorority has a unique mission and goals. New Members are told this early on, and are expected work alongside senior members to accomplish these goals; it is not surprising that this construct

was highly scored. Additionally, New Members have less seniority in the organization, so are more likely to follow the crowd and the leaders in the group, which may seem like working toward common purpose. To facilitate the cooperation of leadership among a variety of individuals, it is suggested that programs on cooperation and synergy be made available for all in Greek Letter Organizations. Group projects should be encouraged. For example, instead of an individualized competition during Homecoming, where a single sorority is paired with a single fraternity, larger numbers of groups could work together and contribute to a common philanthropic goal (the common good) instead of just perpetuating a spirit competition. Within each organization it is recommended that activities that require students to work toward a common purpose be promoted. For example, activities related to philanthropy, which requires all students to work toward a common goal, should happen with regularity to give students an opportunity to further hone these skills.

Congruence

The construct of *Congruence* is an individual value and illustrates one's ability to act in ways consistent with one's values and beliefs. This includes acting, thinking, and behaving with consistency, authenticity, and honesty toward others (SRLS Guidebook, 2009). Congruence was ranked the second highest leadership construct (4.23). It can be concluded that students perceive that their actions are consistent with their values.

New Members, as previously stated, tend to be freshmen in college. College tends to be a time of discovery, where students are solidifying identity, beliefs and values. In so doing, they are determining how their values are different and separate, or similar, from those of their friends and family. In short, as they affirm what their values are, that influences their ability to act on a value set. Because this group also has a set of values from their particular GLO that is consistently reinforced, this may contribute to their ability to act in conjunction with their values. Though the rating was high, college students should all be presented with opportunities to discover their own unique identities and values. It is recommended that New Members be encouraged to take advantage of campus wide programs via the Counseling Center and other outlets that help individuals discover their values, talents and persona. GLOs should be encouraged to facilitate programs that help members see how the group mission, vision, and value can be congruent with the members' personal values. In fact it could help shape or enhance those personal values and beliefs.

Consciousness of Self

The construct of *Consciousness of Self* relates to being aware of personal beliefs, values, attitudes, and emotions that motivate an individual to react (SRLS Guidebook, 2009). This construct is key to being able to develop consciousness of others ("The Center for Leadership and Service," 2012). The construct of *Consciousness of Self* was scored in the middle third of the constructs (4.08). Despite this, the score still indicates that students feel like they know themselves well and are passionate about things which have a priority in their life. The lowest scoring item on the questionnaire was in this construct, "I have low self-esteem." This is a negatively worded question, which implies they do not have low self-esteem. GLOs seem to attract a certain type of student. Confidence is highly valued. It is not surprising that these students do not have low self-esteem. Since students perceive themselves as self confident, the recommendation would be to continue current practices that encourage consciousness of self.

Controversy with Civility

Controversy with Civility is a group value and describes recognizing that differences in viewpoints are inevitable, and that these differences must be acknowledged civilly (SRLS Guidebook, 2009). It requires trust among group members ("The Center for Leadership and Service," 2012). This construct was in the middle third of the constructs (3.8). These results are consistent with Dugan, 2006a, Dugan, 2006b, and Dugan, 2008 where *Controversy with Civility* scored similarly. It can be concluded, based on the

responses, that students, while neutral with regard to conflict, perceive themselves as open to others' ideas.

Neutral scores within this construct may be attributed to the experience level of the students in this population. Students who are New Members are usually college freshmen. As individuals mature, behavioral expectations for dealing with conflict may require a higher degree of civility, with which they may be unfamiliar. Many items within this construct focus on respecting and valuing differences. Current practices appear to be relatively successful. However, if improvements were desired a two-fold recommendation is offered. First, providing programs that allow students to gain experience with appropriate confrontation skills is important. Conflict management, dealing with difficult people, negotiation skills, and listening programs could have a positive impact on the skill set of this group of students.

Other Recommendations

As indicated in each construct the recommendations for practice primarily focus on creating and providing additional leadership development opportunities for students. Recommendations for research include a longitudinal study, to observe this population over time. It is also recommended that this study to be replicated. A look into other variables including race, gender, age, major, etc. within this population may further shed light into the nuances of the newest members of GLOs which in turn leads to a greater ability to provide appropriate educational and growth opportunities. Finally, a qualitative study to describe in more depth the constructs examined in this study would be beneficial.

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Are professors being critical? Student critical thinking style and perception of professor critical thinking

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Introduction

Critical thinking has long been a crucial element in higher education curriculum. A National Institute of Education report in 1984 concluded, “A college education should enable students to adapt to a changing world and that successful adaptation requires ‘the ability to think critically, to synthesize large quantities of new information’” (as cited in McMillan, 1987, p. 3). University faculty is responsible for increasing content knowledge, in addition to a learning skill set. “It seems reasonable to suggest that critical thinking ability is one such enduring skill, that it is a central element in lifelong learning, and that it is an appropriate (if not essential) skill for colleges and universities to develop among students” (Terenzini, et. al., 1995, p. 24). Though students may not retain most of the information digested during their college careers, the critical thinking component is one that will remain for the future. For this reason alone, great emphasis is, and must be, placed upon the initiation and/or development of a student’s critical thinking style and capability.

The greatest challenge for faculty is the measurement of critical thinking improvement. “While common sense and the experiences of hundreds of college professors suggest that attending college results in improved critical thinking of students, there is little research reported here to suggest how such improvement takes place” (McMillan, 1987, p. 11). Vast research, including McMillan’s (1987) comprehensive study review, has been conducted regarding the enhancement of college student’s critical thinking abilities. One way to improve critical thinking is through classroom teaching. “It has been assumed that if teachers use appropriate instructional methods and curriculum materials, students will improve their critical thinking skills (Young, 1980) (McMillian, 1987, p. 4). Furthermore, it is concluded that smaller classes with a student-centered, discussion emphasis are most effective (McMillan, 1987, p. 4).

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine if a student’s self-perceived critical thinking style influenced his/her perception of critical thinking instruction.

The objectives of the study set forth to guide this study were as follows:

1. to determine the critical thinking style of students as identified in the UFCTI,
2. to determine students’ perceptions about course instruction as it relates to emphasizing critical thinking, and
3. to describe the relationship between student critical thinking style and perceptions of instruction.

Literature Review

Smith (1981) concluded that three specific teacher behaviors significantly improved students' critical thinking. Those behaviors are supporting the student, including student participation during class sessions, and building relationships with students in the course. "The use of active learning techniques supports higher education goals and objectives specifically through familiarizing the students with diverse ways of knowing, fostering cross-disciplinary interactions and exposure to differing viewpoints" (Machemer & Crawford, 2007).

In recent years, there has been a significant shift from teacher-centered teaching to student-centered teaching. Teacher-centered teaching refers to a lecture based approach where as student-centered teaching involves an active and/or cooperative learning process. Active learning does not disregard the lecture approach entirely, but it encourages the inclusion of individual and group application during class. Jungst et al. (2003), Johnson et al. (2000) and Millis & Cottell (1998) noted "Research has reported on the values of active learning, including the opportunities, and the challenges from a teacher and institutional perspective (as cited in Machemer & Crawford, 2007, p. 10). However, research on student perceptions of active learning opportunities and settings is limited and contradictory" (Machemer & Crawford, 2007). Machemer & Crawford (2007) researched students' value level regarding active, cooperative, and traditional teaching methods. Active teaching is student participation in class where cooperative learning is student participation with other students. High achieving students were the most reluctant concerning cooperative learning techniques because they are comfortable and successful under the teacher-centered course structure (Felder and Brent, 1996; Peterson, 2004). Machemer and Crawford (2007) found that "students enjoyed being active but they did not want to be responsible to the group for learning." These results can be accredited to several things. One, students are very accustomed to the well-established lecture style teacher. Two, students prefer their obscurity in the classroom to interactive learning.

Other factors to consider when analyzing a student's critical thinking style and abilities are, peer influence outside of the classroom, student demographics, and study habits. "Even with precollege critical thinking controlled, students' out-of class experiences contribute as much to gains in critical thinking as did students' class-related experiences" (Terenzini, et. al., 1995). Students with more competition-oriented friendships make more significant gains than those with supportive, coddling friends.

Also, the number of hours students spent studying, and the number of non-assigned books students' read during the year were all significantly and positively related to first-year gains in critical thinking" (Terenzini, et. al., 1995, p. 34). In the end, students want whatever method directly increases their chances for a higher grade. This must be taken into consideration when researching students' critical thinking styles and abilities. "Huxham (2005) noted 'student evaluations, on their own, do not provide sufficient grounds for changing teaching practice...what students want may not be what is pedagogically best'" (p. 27) (Machemer & Crawford, 2007).

If students' primary concern regarding teaching techniques is an exam grade, then university faculty and administration must determine what is most important for their curriculum and instruction methods. "Ways must be found to overcome the artificial, organizational bifurcation of our educational delivery systems. Academic and student affairs units have common goals, and the evidence of this study suggests that students are more likely to benefit educationally if these units work together, rather than separately, in pursuit of those common goals" (Terenzini, et. al., 1995).

Methods

This study was conducted as part of a course evaluation process. The survey research methodology utilized three short questionnaires to assess students' critical thinking style, evaluation of the course (critical thinking emphasized), and demographics. This was a non-experimental ex-post facto design. The course took place during the fall 2011 semester at a large land grant institution in the south. The course used in the study was a moderate sized (106 students) undergraduate class with the core objective to educate students about the breadth of leadership theory.

The population of the study was students enrolled in the course with a convenience sample of those students attending on the final day of the course ($n=89$). Students were not required to complete the assessments and all participation was voluntary. The research protocol was approved through the Institutional Review Board (2011-U-1225). The population of the course was a mix of students ranging in classification from freshmen (1) to senior (4), with 8 colleges represented and 27 different majors. In general, the course demographic aligns with the institution, with a majority of the students being Caucasian/white females.

To collect the necessary data, researchers used three existing questionnaires. To measure critical thinking style, the UFCTI (Irani & Lamm, 2011) was employed. This instrument measures students' self-perceived critical thinking style and is an adaptation extending work previously completed on critical thinking disposition (UF/EMI, Friedel et al, 2008; Lamm et al., 2011). The UFCTI focuses on an individual's range of critical thinking style anchored between Engagement style and Seeking Information style. The instrument, which is 20 items long, includes a Likert-type scale of Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5). Of the 20 questions 13 individual items measure Seeking Information and 7 measure Engagement. While there are two individual scales, scores are derived as a total score and range from 26-130. The Engagement scale is shorter in length, and because of this, scores are weighted during scoring by 1.866 (UFCTI Manual, 2011). To interpret scores, respondents with a total score 73 or above may be identified as "Seeker" and 72 or below are considered to be "Engagers" (UFCTI Manual, 2011). Established reliability for the UFCTI is as follows: Seeking Information $\alpha=.80$, Engagement $\alpha=.80$, and the total UFCTI $\alpha=.87$ (UFCTI Manual, 2011). Post-hoc analysis of reliability is provided later in the manuscript.

The CTI was administered using a post-test followed by a retrospective pre-test (post-then) design (Rockwell & Kohn, 1989). This design allows researchers to administer a pre-test following the intervention to correct for any, "limited knowledge in responding accurately to the questions being asked on the pretest" (p. 1). This "post-then-pre" design allows respondents to accurately gauge their learning by assessing post-test scores first followed by pre-test responses.

The course evaluation component was designed using the Foundation for Critical Thinking's Course Evaluation questionnaire. The intent of the evaluative form is to, "provide evidence of whether, and to what extent, students perceive faculty as fostering critical thinking instruction (course by course)" (Criticalthinking.org, 2011, ¶5, item 1). Using a Likert-type scale ranging from Low Score (1) to High Score (5) students are asked to individually score 20 questions regarding course instruction. Examples of questions include: "To what extent does your instructor teach so as to enable you to think more accurately," "To what extent does your instructor teach so as to encourage critical thinking in the learning process," and "To what extent does your instructor teach so as to help you learn how to understand the key organizing concepts in the subject?" The range of scores is 20 to 100 with a mid-range break of 60 separating low and high scores. The Foundation for Critical Thinking does not provide any established

psychometrics for this instrument. The research team evaluated the items for construct and face validity. Reliability was established post-hoc and is provided later.

To accomplish the statistical analysis for each objective, one mean scores, standard deviations and a paired sample t-test were utilized. Objective 2 was analyzed using only mean scores and standard deviations. The third objective was accomplished using a Pearson Product Moment Correlation coefficient. In order to determine strength and direction of the relationship data was determined using the following parameters: $r = 1.0$, perfect; $r = 0.99 - 0.7$, very high; $r = 0.69 - 0.50$, substantial; $r = 0.49 - 0.30$, moderate; $r = 0.29 - 0.10$, low; and $r = 0.09 - 0.01$, negligible (Miller, 1998).

Lastly, the study participants were asked to complete a short demographic instrument to elicit the following information: age, gender, race/ethnicity, major, and whether or not they had any previous experience or coursework emphasizing critical thinking.

Findings

The following findings represent data collected and analyzed with the purpose of completing each objective of the study. There were 106 individuals in the representative convenience sample on the day the questionnaires were administered. Of those, there were 89 respondents for a response rate of 84%; however, the total useable number of questionnaires completed was 77. Post hoc reliability analysis for the CTI confirmed appropriate reliability coefficients for the scales with the following results: CTI pre-test $\alpha = .90$, CTI post-test $\alpha = .90$, and the Course Evaluation $\alpha = .95$.

The demographics are provided as a framework for understanding the nature of those individuals who responded. Of the 77 useable responses received, 31% ($n = 24$) were male and 69% ($n = 53$) were female. Further, ages ranged from 18-31 with the average being 21, $SD = 1.7$. The racial/ethnic make-up of students was largely Caucasian ($n = 54$, 70%) with the next largest group being Hispanic ($n = 15$, 20%). The remainder of the student racial/ethnic background accounted for 10% ($n = 6$). There were a total of 28 different majors identified with the majority being Agricultural Education and Communication ($n = 17$, 22%) followed by Accounting ($n = 13$, 17%).

The first objective was to determine the critical thinking style of students as identified in the UFCTI. To accomplish this objective students were given a post-test of their perceived critical thinking skill followed by a retrospective pre-test (post-then). Scores for the respondents were broken down into three scores: a pre-test CTI score, a post-test CTI score, and a change in CTI scores. The total pre-test scores for respondents ranged from 41-99 points with a mean score of 78.68 and a standard deviation of 9.95 ($n = 69$). Post-test scores ranged from 40-99 points with a mean score of 82.31 and a standard deviation of 8.96. The pre-test mean scores indicate that respondents self-perceived their critical thinking skill as “seeker.” Post-test scores indicate a strengthening of the seeker skill set. The change in scores showed that on average (mean) respondents moved 3.82 points with a standard deviation of 6.60. A paired t-test resulted in a significant difference between pre and post-test scores ($t = -4.78$, $df = 67$, $p \leq .05$). Table 1 and 2 represents these figures.

Table 1. Self-Perceived Critical Thinking Skill Scores of Respondents ($n = 68$)

Testing Pair	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Std. Error Mean
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Pre-Test	78.68	9.95	1.21
Post-Test	82.31	8.96	1.10
Change in CTI	3.82	6.60	.80

Table 2. Paired t-Test of Self-Perceived Critical Thinking Skill Scores ($n=68$)

Testing Pair	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.
Pre-test/Post-test	-4.80	67	.00

The second objective was to determine students' perceptions about course instruction as it relates to emphasizing critical thinking. Findings showed a range of 38 points in relation to perceptions of critical thinking skill with a minimum of 47 and a maximum of 85. Respondents indicated a mean score of 70.88 and a standard deviation of 6.60, which shows high level perceptions of critical thinking instruction integration.

The third objective was to describe the relationship between student critical thinking style and perceptions of instruction. This was for the purpose of determining if a student's critical thinking score increased or decreased over the course of the semester what impact would that have on their perceptions of critical thinking instruction. For the purposes of this objective, a Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient was calculated using the change in self-perceived critical thinking skill scores and the course evaluation score data. The Pearson correlation coefficient for the pre-test score and course evaluation was not significant ($r=.07, p>.05$). However, the post-test data revealed a moderate positive significant correlation coefficient of $r=.24, p\leq.05$ with course instruction evaluations. Additionally, the overall change in critical thinking skill also showed a moderate positive relationship with course instruction evaluations with a correlation coefficient of $r=.25, p\leq.05$. These scores are represented in Table 3.

Table 3. Summary of Pearson Product Moment Correlations ($n=68$)

Factor	Pre-test CTI	Post-test CTI	Change in CTI	Course Evaluation
Pre-test CTI	1	.77*	-.46*	.07
<i>r</i>				
<i>p</i>		.00	.00	.57
<i>n</i>	69	68	68	67
Post-test CTI	.77*	1	.22	.24*
<i>r</i>				
<i>p</i>	.00		.07	.05
<i>n</i>	68	72	68	69
Change in CTI	-.46*	.22	1	.25*
<i>r</i>				
<i>p</i>	.00	.07		.05
<i>n</i>	68	68	68	66

Course	.07	.24*	.25*	1
Evaluation <i>r</i>				
<i>p</i>	.57	.05	.05	
<i>n</i>	67	69	66	74

*note, indicates $p \leq .05$

Recommendations/Implications

Objective 1

This objective was used to determine the critical thinking style of students as identified in the UFCTI. The pre-test portion of objective one showed the most common participant critical thinking style to be “seeker” (M=78.68). The post-test portion of objective also showed “seeker” but these scores were even more increase, for a stronger “seeker” style (M=82.31). This change between the pre and post-test scores resulted in a significant difference between the two. Researchers believe this to be encouraging in relation to student perception of instructor level of critical thinking instruction. There are many implications that go along with these results. Researchers determined from the significant difference that students with “seeker” critical thinking style will benefit from instructors who emphasize critical thinking in their classrooms. “Seekers” are different from “engagers” in that they seek to learn more instead of engaging at the level that is provided as long as it allows them to use their reasoning skills. “Seekers” can encourage instructors to increase their levels of critical thinking in their classroom instruction.

Recommendations for further research regarding this objective are to expand research related to student critical thinking style. Increase research related to student perception of critical thinking instruction based on student critical thinking style. Knowing these two components of students related to classroom instruction and critical thinking may assist teachers in increasing critical thinking ability among their students.

Objective 2

This objective was to determine students’ perceptions about course instruction as it relates to emphasizing critical thinking. In relation to course instruction, student perceptions were very high, with a mean of 70.88 out of 85 possible points. This number is very encouraging for the instruction of the course in the study. Students’ showed that they believe there is a high integration of critical thinking in the course included in the study. An implication of this result is that the instructor is high in critical thinking ability which may translate to high integration in the class. Another implication is that the “seeker” style critical thinker may extract more critical thinking implications than “engager” style critical thinkers. This may or may not be related, but it may be an implication of the results for objective two.

Recommendations for objective two revolve around increasing research across colleges and disciplines. The course for this study was a leadership theory course, this may have impacted the results in comparison to a more applied or non-theory based course. More research needs to be done across academic disciplines to determine if the type of class or even type of classroom instruction has any bearing on student perception of critical thinking integration.

Objective 3

This objective was to describe the relationship between student critical thinking style and perceptions of instruction. The overall results show no significant difference. With this being said, the post-test data

showed a moderate, positive significant correlation in relation to the course evaluation. This shows that there is a possibility that student critical thinking style is positively correlated to evaluation scores. An implication of this is that the “seeker” style critical thinker shows a moderately positive perception on the course evaluations. Other correlations shown in this objective are that the overall change in critical thinking (between pre and post data) had a moderately positive relationship to the course instruction evaluations. An implication of this finding is that the more change in critical thinking during the course has a positive impact on the course instruction evaluations.

Recommendations related to objective three are to perform more research across academic disciplines to determine if: a) there is a change in critical thinking among students and b) if that effects the course evaluations. Researching in different disciplines will allow for more generalizability of the results.

Overall recommendations of this study include more research in these areas. Including more than just one class will obviously increase generalizability of results. As this study is concerned, generalizability is unique to this population because of the convenience sample used. With this being said, the age range was large (18-31 years old) and the class rank was between freshman and fifth year college students. Seventy percent of participants were Caucasian and 69% of participants were female. These statistics make generalizability applicable to a small population. Performing research on a random sample to increase generalizability is important to determine if these results are unique or not.

Conclusions

Overall, this study showed what researchers hoped it would. Specifically, the instructor of the course used, showed high integration of critical thinking skills and this was displayed in participant pre and post-test scores. Critical thinking is an important component that many employers are searching for in their potential employees so critical thinking integration in the classroom is a great start to nurturing the critical thinking skills of students. Also, the “seeker” style critical thinker was shown to be the majority in this study, there was no significant correlation between this and critical thinking perception but that does not mean there is no correlation between the style and the level of critical thinking one can achieve. Further research needs to be done to determine if instructors should be catering to a specific style of critical thinking when teaching certain courses. Researchers strongly encourage further research to be performed to determine if other instructors show high integration of critical thinking components in their classes and to determine if a certain critical thinking style is the majority in certain college majors. The more generalized these results can become, the better. Learning what types of students there are and how they perceive critical thinking integration in the classroom will lead to more effective teaching methods. These effective teaching methods may increase the critical thinking ability of graduates, which is what employers are looking for.

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Relation of Undergraduate Leadership Educators' Perceived Learning Goals and Use of Instructional Strategies

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Introduction

While numerous studies have assessed teaching and learning in leadership education, few have addressed the instructional goals associated with teaching and learning. Fink (2003) posits that to address these goals, teachers should take a learning-centered approach to designing courses. According to Fink (2005), “the heart of this approach is to decide first what students can and should learn in relation to this subject and then figure out how such learning can be facilitated” (p. 1). While application of this approach to specific courses and disciplines such as biology (Levine, Fallahi, Nicoll-Senft, Tessier, Watson, & Wood, 2008), economics (Miners & Nantz, 2009), and philosophy (Rose & Torosyan, 2009) are present in the literature, no studies have addressed this approach in leadership studies. Additionally, a review of the literature indicates that, of these studies, only a sparse few have collected quantitative data to measure instructor utilization of significant learning. Instead, they are mostly collections of scholarly advice and implications for practice grounded in instructional experiences rather than research data. Furthermore, the relationship between instructional strategy use and the learning goals educators place the most emphasis has yet to be explored empirically.

The purpose of this study is to assess the learning goals instructors teaching undergraduate leadership studies courses establish for their students and identify potential statistically significant relationships between these learning goals and instructional strategy use. A quantitative research design will be used. Specifically, a national web-based questionnaire will be used to identify the learning goals instructors teaching these courses emphasize most and measure the frequency of use of a defined group of instructional strategies. To do so, the researcher will explore the following research questions: a) What learning goals are most important to instructors teaching undergraduate leadership studies courses? and b) What associations exist between the learning goals instructors teaching undergraduate leadership studies courses emphasize most and their frequency of instructional strategy use?

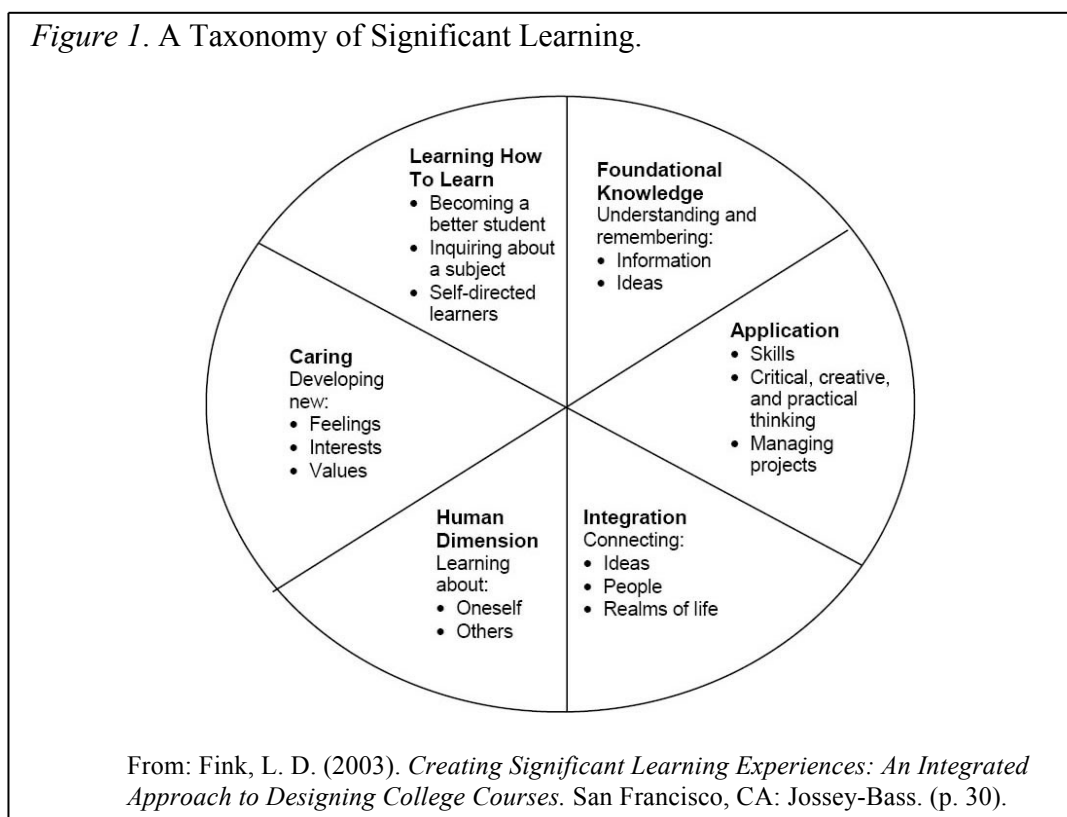
Literature Review

This research is grounded in two primary frameworks offered by Fink (2003): a) Integrative Course Design (ICD) and b) a Taxonomy of Significant Learning. ICD is an approach to curriculum design that emphasizes a “significant learning” or learning-centered approach where faculty decide first what students can and should learn in relation to the subject and then figure out how such learning can be facilitated (Fink, 2003). Only one study came close to systematically studying and “test-driving” ICD. In *Creating Significant Learning Experiences Across Disciplines* (Levine, et al., 2008), each author employed Fink’s (2003) approach to ICD. This study assessed college students’ learning in six courses from different disciplines over one semester in the following areas identified by Fink (2003) as “learning goals”: a) foundational learning, b) learning how to learn, c) application, d) integration, e) human dimension, and e) learning how to learn. Similarly, Nicoll-Senft (2009) employed a pre- and post -assessment model to gauge improvement in student learning in a single Special Education course. While significant improvement in student learning was reported in both studies, they addressed learning

goals in only six and one courses respectively. This study aims to address these gaps in the literature by collecting empirical data about the learning goals leadership educators establish for their students in many courses across the discipline through a national survey.

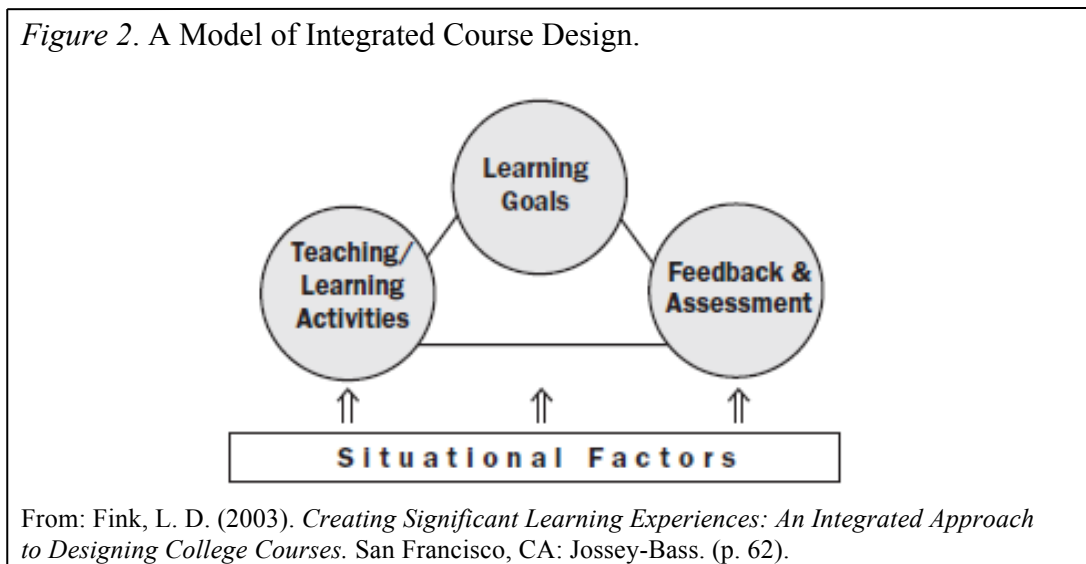
Creating Significant Learning Experiences

Significant learning experiences describe a process or taxonomy that includes students engaged in their learning in a high energy classroom. Following in the footsteps of Barr and Tagg's (1995) shift from a teaching to a learning paradigm in undergraduate education, significant learning is a learning-centered approach where faculty decides first what students can and should learn in relation to the subject and then figure out how such learning can be facilitated (Fink, 2003). This taxonomy differs from Benjamin Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy of Learning that classifies levels of intellectual behavior important in learning—*knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation*—in that it is more learner-center than teaching-centered and it is more of an interconnected cycle than a hierarchical process or pyramid. Figure 1 below illustrates Fink's taxonomy.



The results, impacts, and outcomes of significant learning experiences produce a significant and lasting change in the student where the learning that occurs has a high potential for being of value in their lives long after the course is over (even after graduation) by enhancing their individual lives, preparing them to participate in multiple communities, or preparing them for the world of work. Moreover, these courses should enhance students' individual lives, enable them to contribute to the many communities of which they are a part, and prepare them for the world of work.

Fink (2003) describes “good” courses as those that: a) challenge students to significant kinds of learning, b) use active forms of learning, c) have teachers who care—about the subject, their students, and about teaching and learning [not just research], d) have teachers who interact well with students, and e) have a good system of feedback, assessment, and grading. This list reflects that if someone’s teaching successfully meets the criteria listed above, its impact is going to be good, no matter what else is bad about it—even if a teacher is not a great lecturer or well organized. Conversely, if someone’s teaching does not meet these criteria, that teaching is poor, not matter what else is good about it (Fink, 2003). Significant learning suggests a *learning-centered approach* to designed courses where instructors decide first what student can and should learn in relation to the subject and then figure out how such learning can be facilitated (Fink, 2005). To do so, Fink (2005) suggests the following model of ICD identified in Figure 2.



Fink (2005) suggests instructors should move beyond the traditional content-centered approach that focuses on the subjects or topics students should learn and instead focus on the impact the course will have on the students long after it is over. In order to transcend the traditional (teaching-centered) approach and move toward significant learning (learning-centered) approach, Fink developed the Taxonomy of Significant Learning (Figure 1 above) to guide instructors through making decisions about learning goals. Table 1 illustrates this process in the leadership discipline by combining the model of ICD with an adapted model suggested by Northouse (2010) as part of the Instructor’s Resources in the fifth edition of the textbook *Leadership: Theory and Practice*.

Table 1.
Applying Fink's Taxonomy of Significant Learning Across Six Learning Goals

Learning Goal	Key Questions for Each Learning Goal (Fink, 2003)	Suggested Answers in the Leadership Discipline (Northouse, 2010)
Foundational Knowledge	What key information (facts, terms, formulae, concepts, principles, relationships, etc.) is/are important for students to <i>understand and remember</i> ? What key ideas or perspectives are important in this course?	Knowing the history and development of the leadership theories presented in the textbook, understanding the components of each leadership model or approach, and identifying the strengths and weaknesses of each model.
Application	What kinds of thinking (critical, creative, practical) are important for students to learn? What skills are required? Should students be expected to learn how to manage complex projects?	Critical and creative thinking about the case studies included in the textbook, identifying practical uses of leadership theory in other contexts, and recognition of one's own skills relative to the leadership approach being studied.
Integration	What connections should students recognize and make among ideas within this course? Among information, ideas, and perspectives from this course and those in other courses or areas? Between material in this course and the students' personal, social, and/or work life?	The ability to connect leadership concepts and behaviors to other ideas, people and realms of life. For example, how are leaders different from other people? In what ways, if any, are all leaders the same? How does the context of leadership (such as medicine, music or sports) affect the expectations and behaviors of leaders?
Human Dimension	What should students learn about themselves? What should they learn about understanding others and/or interacting with others?	Learning about oneself and others. How does knowing about leadership theory help one to function and relate to others more effectively? How useful are the various leadership models and approaches for developing leadership skills in others?
Caring	What changes/values should students adopt? Should interests be affected? Feelings? Commitments?	Developing new interests in leadership or caring about leadership to a greater extent than before. Students who care become engaged in leadership issues outside of the classroom and continue to develop their leadership skills.
Learning How to Learn	What should students learn about how to be good students in a course like this? How to learn about this specific subject? How to become a self-directed learner (developing a learning agenda and a plan for meeting it)?	Developing intellectual curiosity, becoming more aware of one's own learning process and why others, including leadership theorists, pursue their unique lines of inquiry. Students continue to read and think about leadership after the conclusion of the course

*Adapted from A Taxonomy of Significant Learning. From: Fink, L. D. (2003). *Creating Significant Learning Experiences: An Integrated Approach to Designing College Courses*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.; Northouse, P. G. (2010) *Leadership: Theory and practice* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Feedback and assessment. In line with the learning-centered approach emphasized in the Model of ICD, Fink (2005) suggests a set of feedback and assessment procedures collectively known as “educative assessment.” At the heart of this procedure is “Forward-Looking Assessment” which incorporates exercises, questions, and/or problems that create a real-life context for a given issue, problem, or decision. To construct this kind of question or problem,

the instructor has to “look forward,” beyond the time when the course is over, and ask: “In what kind of situation do I expect students to need, or be able to use, this knowledge?” Fink (2005) posits that, “answering this question makes it easier to create a question or problem that replicates a real-life context. The problem should be relatively open-ended, not totally pre-structured. If necessary, certain assumptions or constraints can be given.”

Teaching/Learning activities. According to Fink (2005), creating a complete set of learning activities capable of fostering significant learning requires a comprehensive view of teaching/learning activities. Fink advocates following two general principles when selecting learning activities: a) They should include information and ideas, experience, and reflective dialogue and b) They should rely on direct rather than indirect learning activities. Thinking back to the learning goals, Fink (2005) posits that learning activities should reflect the instructor’s judgment of how effectively they address these goals. According to Fink:

Those [teaching/learning activities] that promote growth on several goals are considered “rich.” In-class examples include debates, role-playing, and simulations. Out-of-class examples include service learning, situational observations, and authentic projects. Learning is enhanced and made more permanent when students reflect on the learning experience and its meaning to them. This can be done individually (journals; diaries) or with others (discussions with teacher or in small groups). When students reflect on *what* they are learning, *how* they are learning, its *value*, and *what else* they need to know, they are more inclined to both ‘own’ and appreciate their learning. (p.5)

Instructional strategy use in leadership studies. Allen and Hartman (2008a, 2009b, & 2009) created one of the first comprehensive lists of leadership development teaching methods found in the literature (see also Avolio, 1999; Day, 2000; London, 2002; Yukl, 2006). This list was embedded in the framework offered by Conger (1992) from his experiences in leadership training programs outside of academia. 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). Then, Jenkins (2012) conducted a national survey of instructional strategy use in undergraduate leadership studies that included many of the “sources of learning for leader development” offered by Allen and Hartman. Jenkins’ study suggests that class discussion—whether in the form of true class discussion or interactive lecture and discussion—is used most frequently and 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.

Comparing Learning Goals and Instructional Strategy Use

While no previous studies have explored empirically the relationship between perceived learning goals and instructional strategy use, a similar relationship has been explored in the context of students' learning goals and strategies. Karabenick and Collins-Eaglin (1997) surveyed 1,037 students in 54 college classes and collected data related to their perceived importance of mastery and performance goals, and of competitive, individualistic, and cooperative incentive structures. The findings in this study suggest that goals and incentives affect strategy use, although the relationships could have resulted from the instructors' relative emphasis on goals and incentives and their facilitation of the students' use of learning strategies. Again though, this research was limited to the context and perspective of college students versus the experiences of educators. Nonetheless, the statistical method employed in the aforementioned study was helpful in guiding the research here.

Method

The 303 participants—instructors that teach academic credit-bearing undergraduate leadership studies courses—is the largest reported study of this population in any area. The majority of participants were white (83.8%) and female (54.8%). Also, 58.4% had doctorates, 38.6% had master's degrees, and 60.2% reported having more than five years of teaching experience. 95% of participants taught at a four-year public or private university or college.

Participants self-reported having taught an in-class/face-to-face (not online) academic credit-bearing undergraduate leadership course in the United States within the previous two years (this initial question determined the eligibility of participants) and to use said course as a reference point while they completed the survey. The analyzed data was collected from a web-based questionnaire through a national study that 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 the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs (NCLP). 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.

External Validity

It is important to note the following limitations: a) some participants are not members part of the aforementioned professional organizations/associations, b) some participants' academic departments are not included in the database provided by the ILA, and c) some academic departments do not list their instructors' contact information on their website. Thus, generalization of the results to all undergraduate leadership instructors that are not part of the aforementioned organizations or whose departments are not included in the ILA database would not be appropriate, thereby limiting the study's external (population) validity. However, these data collection procedures provided the researcher with the best possible sources to generalize the population.

Non-response bias. In the present study, the researcher used a variation of univariate comparisons between respondent and non-respondents by comparing independent variables between early and late respondents (while keeping in mind the idea of wave analysis as it applies to dependent variables) (Kano, Franke, Afifi, & Bourque, 2008). Specifically, the response timeframe was grouped into three response periods: (a) 10/25/10-10/31/10 ($n = 103$), (b) 11/1/10-11/14/10 ($n = 150$), and (c) 11/15/10-12/1/11 ($n = 50$). Twenty four one-way analyses of variance for each of the 24 instructional strategies included in the survey and an additional six one-way analyses of variance for each of the six learning goals included in the survey were analyzed to assess the potential nonresponse bias in this study. Analyses of variance of the 24 instructional strategies showed that the effect of the response periods were significant for only Stories $F(2, 300) = 5.57, p = .004$; Research Projects & Presentations $F(2, 300) = 3.92, p = .021$; and Quizzes $F(2, 300) = 3.55, p = .030$. Analyses of variance of the six learning goals showed that the effect of response periods were significant for only Application, $F(2, 300) = 3.78, p = .024$. Since only three of the 24 instructional strategies and only one of the six learning goals from the study had significant mean differences and none had difference less than $p = .001$, the nonresponse in this study is likely no different than the reported findings.

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. In this study, the survey instrument was used to collect demographic information to profile the participants and assess the learning goals instructors teaching these courses emphasize most. Additional data was collected to help identify the most frequently used instructional strategies for teaching leadership courses (see Jenkins, 2012).

Data Analysis Techniques

Answering research question number one involved creating a frequency tabulation and percentage of responses for each of the learning goals listed in corresponding section of the web-based survey. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the mean of the item responses indicating the learning goals instructors teaching these courses emphasize most. Specifically, participants are asked, “When deciding what you want your students to learn in the course you identified in Question 2, how important are each of the following learning goals?” (Question 2 of the survey asked participants to identify one specific academic credit-bearing in-class/face-to-face undergraduate leadership course that they reach regularly. This question also included explicit language explaining that the participant should use this course as their reference point throughout the survey.) The six learning goals in Table 2 adapted from Fink’s (2003) Taxonomy of Significant Learning appeared in the survey. Participants reported frequency of establishing these learning goals through the following rating scale:

- 0 – Not at all important (0-25% of my course)
- 1 – Somewhat important (26-50% of my course)
- 2 – Important (51-75% of my course)
- 3 – Extremely Important (76-100% of my course)

Table 2.
Learning Goals

No.	Learning Goal	Description
1.	Foundational Knowledge	The understanding and remembering of foundational knowledge important to the course such as facts, terms, formulae, concepts, principles, relationships, etc.
2.	Application	The thinking (critical, creative, and practical) and other skills required to apply the foundational knowledge gained in the course outside of the classroom.
3.	Integration	The recognition of the connections of information, ideas, and perspective from this course and those in other courses or areas as well as the students' personal, social, and/or work life.
4.	Human Dimension	The understanding of one's self, others, and/or interacting with others.
5.	Caring	The appropriateness of decisions that affect one's caring about changes, values, interests, feelings, and commitments.
6.	Learning How to Learn	The abilities to be a good student, learn a specific subject, and become a self-directed learner.

Findings

The analysis of these data revealed that when instructors set out to decide what they want students to learn in their undergraduate leadership courses, they emphasize learning goals that stress application far more than those that stress learning how to learn. Higher scores indicated greater relative importance of specific learning goals. Participants reported emphasizing *application* ($M = 2.51$, $SD = 0.69$), *integration* ($M = 2.43$, $SD = 0.68$), and *human dimension* ($M = 2.30$, $SD = 0.80$) more frequently than the remaining learning goals, 95% CIs [2.43, 2.59], [2.35, 2.50], and [2.21, 2.39] respectively. Conversely, instructors reported emphasizing *learning how to learn* ($M = 1.73$, $SD = 0.98$), *caring* ($M = 1.83$, $SD = 1.01$), and *foundational knowledge* ($M = 2.03$, $SD = 0.90$) as being less important to them than the other learning goals, 95% CIs [1.62, 1.84], [1.72, 1.95], and [1.92, 2.13] respectively. Interestingly, 91.7% of instructors reported *application* as important or extremely important when setting learning goals for their courses while only 60.5% reported the same for *learning how to learn*. Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 3. Table 4 illustrates the breakdown of learning goals by each level of the rating scale.

Table 3.
Means with Confidence Intervals (CIs) and Standard Deviations of Learning Goals

Learning Goal	M (SD)	95% CI	
		LL	UL
Application	2.51 (0.69)	2.43	2.59
Integration	2.43 (0.68)	2.35	2.50
Human Dimension	2.30 (0.80)	2.21	2.39
Foundational Knowledge	2.03 (0.90)	1.92	2.13
Caring	1.83 (1.01)	1.72	1.95
Learning How to Learn	1.73 (0.98)	1.62	1.84

Table 4.
Percentage of Importance Participants Placed on Learning Goals

Learning Goal	Not at all important (0-25%)	Somewhat important (26-50%)	Important (51-75%)	Extremely Important (76-100%)
Application	0.7%	7.6%	30.2%	61.5%
Integration	0.3%	7.2%	39.9%	52.6%
Human Dimension	2.1%	12.4%	36.1%	49.5%
Foundational Knowledge	5.8%	21.0%	37.8%	35.4%
Caring	11.0%	24.4%	32.3%	32.3%
Learning How to Learn	11.7%	27.8%	34.4%	26.1%

Overall, instructors teaching leadership education to undergraduates emphasized learning goals that focused more on *application*, *integration*, and the *human dimension* than on *foundational knowledge*, *caring*, and *learning how to learn*. Specifically, instructors reported *application* (61.5%), *integration* (52.6%), and *human dimension* (49.5%) as extremely important (76-100% of their course) while *foundational knowledge* (35.4%), *caring* (32.3%), and *learning how to learn* (26.1%) were reported far less. Additionally, 91.7% of instructors reported *application* as important or extremely important (51-100% of their course) while only 60.5% reported the same for *learning how to learn*. In fact, only 7.5% of instructors indicated *integration*, *application* (8.3%), or *human dimension* (14.5%) as somewhat important or not important at all (0-50% of their course) versus *foundational knowledge* (26.8%), *caring* (35.4%), and *learning how to learn* (39.5%).

In order to answer research question number two, this study also collected data associated with the use of specific instructional strategies by leadership educators. The results of an exploratory factor analysis employed in that study (Jenkins, 2012) suggested seven distinct categories

(factors) of instructional strategies employed by leadership educators: a) Skill Building, b) Personal Growth, c) Conceptual Understanding & Feedback, d) Traditional Assessment, e) Research/Observation Conceptual Understanding, f) Interactive Conceptual Understanding, and f) Class Discussion. The factor loadings and mean scores for each of the instructional strategies evaluated in the study appear in Table 5. Please note that participants reported frequency of use of each strategy using the following rating scale:

- 0 - Never (0% of my class sessions)
- 1 - Rarely (Less than 10% of my class sessions)
- 2 - Occasionally (11-33% of my class sessions)
- 3 - Frequently (34-65% of my class sessions)
- 4 - Almost Always (66-90% of my class sessions)
- 5 - Always (91-100% of my class sessions)

Table 5.

Items Means and Factor Loadings for Oblique Seven-Factor Solution for the Items of the Web-Based Questionnaire of Undergraduate Leadership Educators' Instructional Strategy Use

Item	M (SD)	Factor Loading
Factor 1: Skill Building		
17. Role Play Activities.	1.71 (1.30)	.88
20. Simulation.	1.69 (1.37)	.56
4. Games.	1.96 (1.28)	.54
Factor 2: Personal Growth		
15. Reflective Journals.	2.80 (1.61)	.61
19. Service Learning.	1.91 (1.66)	.49
7. Icebreakers.	2.21 (1.46)	.41
9. Individual Leadership Development Plans.	2.32 (1.63)	.39
8. In-Class Short Writing.	1.93 (1.48)	.37
Factor 3: Conceptual Understanding & Feedback		
11. Interview of a Leader.	1.91 (1.47)	.59
12. Lecture.	2.28 (1.46)	.54
22. Story or Storytelling.	1.84 (1.51)	.47
9. Individual Leadership Development Plans.	2.32 (1.63)	.45
13. Media Clips.	2.62 (1.31)	.42
16. Research Project/Presentation.	3.00 (1.61)	.37
18. Self-Assessments & Instruments.	2.80 (1.38)	.35
Factor 4: Traditional Assessment		

Item	M (SD)	Factor Loading
3. Exams.	1.76 (1.61)	.73
14. Quizzes.	1.42 (1.44)	.72
Factor 5: Research/Observation Conceptual Understanding		
5. Group Projects/Presentations.	3.31 (1.29)	.59
16. Research Project/Presentation.	3.00 (1.61)	.51
6. Guest Speaker.	2.03 (1.26)	.44
Factor 6: Interactive Conceptual Understanding		
21. Small Group Discussions.	3.49 (1.19)	.77
23. Student Peer Teaching.	1.87 (1.52)	.42
24. Teambuilding.	2.61 (1.47)	.33
Factor 7: Class Discussion		
2. Class Discussion.	4.48 (0.79)	.70
10. Interactive Lecture/Discussion.	3.84 (1.15)	.50

Reliability and Validity

There are two contexts in which to think about validity and reliability: (1) scores from past uses of the instruments and whether the scores were valid/reliable, and (2) assessment of the validity/reliability of data collected in this study. This study will address this issue through content validity—how judges assess whether the items of questions are representative of possible items—by having the survey instrument reviewed by a panel of experts (see Jenkins, 2012). This study used Cronbach's alpha as a reliability measure. Additionally, the factor labels were generally consistent with categories offered by Allen and Hartman's (2008 and 2009) in their adaption of Conger's (1992) four approaches to sources of learning in student leadership development. Thus, the extracted factors were retained. The Skill Building (three items), Personal Growth (five items), Conceptual Understanding & Feedback (seven items), Traditional Assessment (two items), Research/Observation Conceptual Understanding (three items), Interactive Conceptual Understanding (three items), and Class Discussion (two items) subscales of the instructional strategies all had acceptable reliabilities; cumulative variance explained from the Promax factor analysis was 45.05% and all Cronbach's $\alpha > .59$, indicating acceptable levels of internal reliability. No substantial increases in alpha for any of the scales could have been achieved by eliminating additional items.

Comparing Instructional Strategies and Learning Goals

Interestingly enough, when the researcher looked for associations between the frequencies of instructional strategy use in each category and the learning goals instructors placed the greatest emphasis in their courses, some very fascinating results emerged. Table 6 illustrates the associations between the seven categories of instructional strategies and the six learning goals

suggested by Fink. Specifically, the mean scores for each of the six learning goals were correlated with the factor component scores of each instructional strategy group.

Table 6

Correlations of Measures of Six Learning Goals Instructors Emphasized Most With Measures of Frequency of Use of Seven Categories of Instructional Strategies

Learning Goal	Instructional Strategy Group						
	SB	PG	CUF	TA	ROCU	ICU	CD
Application	.249**	.196**	.266**	.137*	.225**	.280**	.317**
Integration	.153**	.221**	.243**	.089	.240**	.287**	.313**
Foundational Knowledge	.126*	.123*	.330**	.328**	.261**	.168**	.250**
Human Dimension	.144*	.274**	.205**	-.037	.140*	.202**	.268**
Caring	.217**	.286**	.240**	.053	.196**	.198**	.170**
Learning how to Learn	.190**	.222**	.222**	.137*	.191**	.253**	.132*

Note. SB = Skill Building; PG = Personal Growth; CUF = Conceptual Understanding & Feedback; TA = Traditional Assessment; ROCU = Research/Observation Conceptual Understanding; ICU = Interactive Conceptual Understanding; CD = Class Discussion.

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed). ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

A review of the data suggest moderate and significantly correlated positive relationships between the use of both Conceptual Understanding & Feedback, $r = .33$, and Traditional Assessment instructional strategies, $r = .33$, and the learning goal Foundational Knowledge, (*all ps* < .001), the use of Class Discussion instructional strategies and both Application, $r = .32$, and Integration, $r = .313$, (*all ps* < .001). Additionally, the data suggest weak but significantly correlated positive relationships between the use of Skill Building instructional strategies and the learning goal Application $r = .25$, $p < .001$, the use of Conceptual Understanding & Feedback instructional strategies and Application, $r = .27$, Integration, $r = .24$, and Caring, $r = .24$ (*all ps* < .001), the use of Personal Growth instructional strategies and Human Dimension, $r = .27$, and Caring, $r = .29$ (*all ps* < .001), the use of Research/Observation Conceptual Understanding instructional strategies and Foundational Knowledge, $r = .26$, and Integration, $r = .24$, (*all ps* < .001), and the use of Class Discussion instructional strategies and Human Dimension, $r = .27$ (*all ps* < .001). The remaining correlations suggested negligible relationships.

Discussion and Implications **Learning Goals in Undergraduate Leadership Education**

The data in the present study suggests that instructors that emphasize application based learning goals—the thinking (critical, creative, and practical) and other skills required to apply the foundational knowledge gained in the course outside of the classroom—also engaged in instructional strategies known to accentuate an inclusive atmosphere focused around discussion-based pedagogies (Cross, 2002). Further instructors that emphasize learning goals focused on integration—recognizing the connections between information, ideas, and perspective from their courses and those in other courses or areas as well as the students’ personal, social, and/or work life—also utilized discussion based instructional strategies more often than their peers. As well,

instructors that emphasized foundational knowledge—the understanding and remembering of important course-related facts, terms, formulae, concepts, principles, relationships, etc.—as a learning goal tended to use pedagogies that focused on conceptual understanding and frequently utilized exams and quizzes as assessment strategies.

Data from this study suggests that instructors that use more skill building pedagogies are more likely to focus on the application of leadership in their courses, or know how to apply leadership models to real-life situations. Northouse (2010) suggests that “...application would involve critical and creative thinking about the case studies included in the textbook, identifying practical uses of leadership theory in other contexts, and recognition of one’s own skills relative to the leadership approach being studied.” Whereas the correlational design used here precluded definitive causal interference, the data support the notion that instructors that focus their efforts on specific learning goals may also subscribe to equally specific instructional strategies. If so, then instructors are encouraged to employ some variety in their instructional strategy choices. For, if they do not, they may inadvertently exclude important levels of significant learning (Fink, 2003). Perhaps leadership educators can meet specific learning goals by employing particular types or groups of instructional strategies. For example, if students are lagging behind with foundational knowledge in their leadership theories course, instructors might employ instructional strategies in the conceptual understanding & feedback category such as lecture, showing media clips, having students complete self-assessments or assigning students to interview a leader or develop individual leadership development plans.

Data from this study also suggests that foundational knowledge might be enhanced by using traditional assessment strategies such as testing or quizzing students on course content. While the results of this study do not prove a causal relationship, the findings are promising. Further, as leadership program coordinators and leadership studies faculty members continue to seek pedagogies to align with program goals and student outcomes, data such as these may prove helpful in program design.

Conclusions

This study was undertaken with the vision that it could be pragmatically used by leadership educators and student affairs professionals. This exploratory study of 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, leadership pedagogy, and the learning goals instructors establish for their courses. These findings can provide a foundation to develop workshops for leadership educators or enhance existing ones. Findings from this study may offer a framework for leadership educators when deciding on the learning goals for their own courses.

This study was the first to explore learning goals empirically within the framework of Fink’s (2003) Taxonomy of Significant Learning and the first to do so in the leadership discipline. Fink offers several suggestions for action that can be applied to leadership education. By comparing the results of this study with Fink’s suggestions, the following implications for higher education administrators are important to address: a) Support faculty efforts to learn about new ideas on teaching and learning by making professional development an integral part of faculty work and establishing centers that can help faculty learn new ideas about teaching and learning, b) Evaluate teaching in a way that will foster a faculty perspective on teaching that is focused on

student learning and on what they need to do to further enhance the quality of their teaching, and c) Develop mechanisms for educating students about what constitutes good teaching and learning, so they can cooperate with faculty who use new ideas.

The analysis of the findings in this study indicated that instructors teaching academic credit-bearing undergraduate leadership studies courses found “Learning How to Learn” the least important learning goal. If leadership educators are not teaching students to learn how to learn, then why not? The collegiate teaching and learning literature stresses metacognition and deep levels of learning (e.g. Fink, 2003; Svinicki, 2004). Accordingly, leadership educators should incorporate activities, assignments, and projects that integrate these types of learning into their courses. Additionally, leading scholars in the discipline should look to alternative strategies for training instructors and furthering this area of inquiry. Thus, bridging deep levels of learning and meticulously selected inclusive pedagogies with increasing levels of leader development is an important implication for instructors in the discipline and an equally significant area for further inquiry.

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The Association between Students' Leadership Style and Level of Self-Directed Learning

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Introduction

The shifting demographics of today's society as well as the changing nature of problems individuals are asked to address produces a growing need for leadership (Bruce, Webster, & Sinaksy, 2006). Leadership is a versatile process that requires working with others in personal and professional relationships to accomplish a goal or to promote positive change. Leadership is what gives an organization its vision and its ability to translate that vision into reality (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Affective leadership education programs must focus on developing peoples relational skills. Educational outcomes in leadership for college graduates have the potential to positively impact this nation's organizations. Following the idea and notion leadership skills can be taught and learned in an academic environment has led to the proliferation of varied leadership education programs in this nation's colleges and universities (Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt & Arensdorf, 2006).

Northouse (2004) indicated researchers have not been able to identify one best leadership style for all contexts. There are two primary types of leadership style; task and relationship. Task oriented leadership identifies individuals geared toward goal achievement. Relationship oriented leadership identifies individuals that work to make others feel comfortable with their surroundings and the context of those surroundings. Leadership style informs practitioners of leadership education that the effect on others across both continuums of task and relationship orientations (Northouse, 2004).

Cultivating leadership skills is especially important for those students who are developing professional competencies and majoring in the field of agricultural and life sciences. Agricultural business', organizations, nonprofit groups, and governmental agencies need competent leaders who will provide direction and vision for the agricultural industry. Kelsey and Wall (2003) reported employers are seeking leaders who can direct new innovations and set goals to successfully adapt to the challenges of a global society.

The *National Research Agenda* of the American Association for Agricultural Education (Doerfert, 2011) wrote that agricultural education departments should produce "a sufficient supply of well-prepared agricultural scientists and professionals drive sustainable growth, scientific discovery, and innovation in public, private, and academic settings" (p. 18). Leadership styles and characteristics are lines of inquiry for agricultural education researchers studying factors associated with participating in leadership experiences. Boyd and Murphrey (2001) recommended examining students' leadership styles in order to discern student interest in participating in online leadership courses. Students' leadership characteristics and abilities should be evaluated to assist in learning student traits necessary to serve as peer facilitators in

agricultural leadership courses (Velez, Simonsen, Cano, & Connors, 2010). Nistler, Lamm, and Stedman (2011) studied extension professionals' engagement in leadership responsibilities.

Self-directed learning has been previously examined by agricultural education researchers. In Texas, Stafford, Boyd, and Lindner (2003) studied the self-directed learning levels of 4-H members in a service learning program. Kotrlik, Redmann, Harrison, and Handley (2000) examined the role of self-directed learning in Louisiana agriscience teachers' need for professional development on information technology. This study was conducted to investigate the association between leadership style and self-directed learning and to address recommendations from the *National Research Agenda*.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was based on using Bass' (1985) transactional leadership theory and Burns' (1978) transformational leadership theory. The study is further bounded by the additional works of Grow's (1991) self-directed learning theory, and Knowles' (1980) andragogy theory. Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961) defined leadership as the "interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation, and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals" (p. 24). Leadership has traditionally been classified into three distinct types: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire (Northouse, 2004). Traditionally leadership has been analyzed by using a transactional model. Leaders operate within the organizational culture, basing their decisions upon the value framework intrinsic to that culture (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Burns (1978) conceptualized and introduced transformational leadership, which was later refined by Bass (1985). The transformational leader is characterized by utilizing qualitative assumptions about the individual to stimulate positive growth and changes within the organization (Bass & Avolio, 1993). A paradigm of evaluation is essential for both frameworks given the dichotomous relationship between the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership (Bryant, 2003).

Transformational leadership is a process where a leader remains proactive in generating and disseminating knowledge while enhancing capacity development and raising followers' levels of personal commitment to the goals of the organization (Hay, 2006). Transformational leaders are normally characterized as: the ability to stimulate the interest and intelligence of employees, the capacity to provide vision and guidance, the ability to empathize with employees, and recognize employee individuality (Birasnav, Rangnekar, & Dalpati, 2009).

Transformational leaders are able to motivate and be motivated by their followers such that both are continually elevated to higher levels. These characteristics are often characterized by the "4-I" framework proposed by Bass (1985). Traits of the framework are classified as: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass, 1985). Idealized influence is often characterized as charisma while inspirational motivation can be equated to team building. Intellectual stimulation and individual consideration are generally equated to the positive manner in which the leader develops followers' problem solving skills and the development of employee potential respectively (Birasnav et al., 2009; Sahgal & Pathak, 2007). The transformational leader is effective at guiding followers to generate significant levels of achievement at elevated levels of moral and ethical standards needed to achieve a high of productivity in an organizational setting.

Transactional leadership uses existing cultural norms to facilitate decision making and transform the group by delegation (Yun, Cox, Sims, & Salam, 2007). The transactional leader generally exhibits three distinct characteristics: they tend to work with followers to establish a clear set of goals, develop a clear reward schematic for the achievement of goals, and are typically receptive to the immediate needs of followers as long as these needs do not interfere with the accomplishment of goals (Bryant, 2003). A transactional leader is effective when working with followers who are individually driven to succeed. As most leaders exhibit characteristics of both leadership styles (Bass, 1985), each individual's leadership style is determined based on their own personality (Bryant, 2003).

The learning process has the potential to provide insight into the type of leadership personality an individual will attain. Grow (1991) developed the Staged Self-Directed Learning (SSDL) Model and wrote that learners advance through stages of increasing self-direction. He noted that a teacher can help or hinder a student's development with respect to increased self-direction. The fundamental concept of Grow's (1991) model is centered on students varying abilities to respond to teaching that requires them to be self-directed. The SSDL outlined approaches for instructors to proactively prepare students to develop into a more self-directed learner (Grow, 1991). Instructors must fulfill many roles due to having students with variations in levels of self-direction (Grow, 1991).

SSDL uses four stages to explain a student's level of self-direction. Stage one contains the learners on low self-direction (Grow, 1991). This is where dependent learner (S1) needs an authority-figure (teacher) to give them explicit direction on what to do, how to do it, and when (Grow, 1991). Students either view teachers as experts on education or slide through their educational career in the shadows. The way to approach teaching these students is by the use of authority coaching, examples including; coaching with immediate feedback, drill, informational lecture, overcoming deficiencies and resistance (Grow, 1991). Stage two learners (S2) are interested, and respond to motivational teaching techniques like using inspiring lectures plus a guided discussion, or goal-setting and learning strategies in the classroom. Stage three students (S3) are involved, and need a facilitator type teacher (Grow, 1991). Stage four learning (S4) are self-directed, and learn best by internship, dissertation, individual work or self-directed study-group. Grow (1991) wrote that teachers can teach multiple levels in one sitting, but it is necessary to understand each level to be able to incorporate every student in the learning process of each lesson.

Various researchers have used the Staged Self-Directed Learning Model (SSDL) to assess students' level of self-directed learning. Literature indicates that adult students are always transitioning between all stages based on factors such as subject knowledge, psychological maturity, and professional ambition (Shokar, Shokar, Romero, & Bulik, 2002). Shokar et al. (2002) found statistically significant correlation that students exposed to SSDL techniques tended to take a greater degree of initiative and control of their learning curriculum in a study concerning professional medical students' readiness to apply self-directed learning techniques. Knowles (1975) noted that mature adults tend to transition between learning stages naturally as their maturity increases. Candy (1991) postulated that as students' ability to learn varies situation, educators should not assume that because the student is considered to be of one learning style in a specific situation that the same student would maintain the same style given a new problem or environment. Students evolve into higher levels of learning as their psychological maturity increases (Knowles, 1975).

Knowles (1980) suggested that andragogy defined as the art and science of helping adults learn while pedagogy was the art and science of helping children learn, thus distinguishing a fundamental difference between the philosophies. Many empirical and qualitative studies have been conducted to distinguish and evaluate the two. Merriam (2001) further developed andragogy to discern that learning is a set of methods, and descriptions that contain the knowledge base of adult learning. A firm grounding in principles from the dependent learning perspective is intuitively necessary for any student to develop the skills and motivation to move on to the latter stages in the SSDL framework. Student proficiency in the subject is also an important criterion. Critical needs exist for the instructor to be aware of the strengths and limitations of the student, the technical needs of the student, and also the development of curriculum to determine whether a pedagogical or anagogical approach is required for the student (Grow, 1991).

Knowles (1980) theory of andragogy was the other theory used to frame this study. Principles that provide a foundation for this theory include: learner's need to know, self-concept of the learner, prior experience of the learner, readiness to learn, orientation to learning, and motivation to learn. Adults' self-concept shifts from one of dependence to one of self-directedness as they mature from a youth to an adult (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2005). Self-directed learning can be defined as "individuals [taking] the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes" (Knowles, 1975, p. 12).

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to gain an understanding of factors that may influence agricultural education students' leadership styles. More specifically, the study sought to:

1. Describe students' leadership style;
2. Describe students' self-directed learning levels; and
3. Examine the relationship of students' leadership style and self-directed learning levels.

Methodology

This study used a quantitative research paradigm with survey research as the design for the study. The population ($N = 138$) consisted of undergraduate students in agricultural leadership courses from a land-grant institution located in the southern region of the United States. The study was conducted during the fall of 2011. All students were scheduled to graduate the semester the study was conducted or the following semester.

The researchers implemented methods recommended by Dillman, Smyth, and Christian's (2009) to develop the survey and to collect the data. The population for the study included ($N = 138$) students enrolled in one of three agricultural leadership courses during the fall semester of 2011; 126 students responded to the questionnaire yielding a response rate of 91.03%. Five responses were deleted due to incomplete information resulting in a sample of ($n = 121$) for this study.

According to Lindner, Murphy, and Briers (2001), controlling for nonresponse error is not necessary when an 85% response rate is achieved. The findings from this study can be generalized to the target population, students enrolled in agricultural leadership courses at Texas A&M University; a limitation of the study is that the findings, however, cannot be generalized beyond the target population.

Leadership style focuses on what leaders do versus what leaders may be. The leadership style instrument, used in this study, was composed of 20 items that assessed two orientations to leadership: task and relationship (Northouse, 2004). Anchors in the instrument were: 1 = *Never*, 2 = *Seldom*, 3 = *Occasionally*, 4 = *Often*, and 5 = *Always*. Odd numbered items in the instrument related to task oriented leadership. Even numbered items were associated with relationship oriented leadership. Odd and even numbered scores should be summed separately. The scoring interpretation for each set of scores were: 45 – 50 *Very High Range*, 40 – 44 *High Range*, 35 – 39 *Moderately High Range*, 30 – 34 *Moderately Low Range*, 25 – 29 *Low Range*, and 10 – 24 *Very Low Range*. Researchers and practitioners of agricultural leadership at Texas A&M University found the leadership style instrument to have criterion validity and content validity for the objectives in this study.

The instrument to assess students' level of self-directed learning, in this study, was developed by Richards (2005). Richards' (2005) instrument was developed to address Grow's (1991) Staged Self-Directed Learning Model to ascertain students' perceived level of self-directedness. The instrument including 24 items to assess students' level of self-directed learning and included anchors: 1 = *Strongly Disagree*, 2 = *Disagree*, 3 = *Agree*, and 4 = *Strongly Agree*. A team of adult learning researchers at Texas A&M University found Richard's (2005) instrument to have content validity suitable for this study. The instrument Richard's (2005) developed produced a reliability coefficient of $\alpha = .89$ for his study.

The internal consistency was $\alpha = .88$ for the leadership style instrument, and the internal consistency of the self-directed learning scale was $\alpha = .86$. The internal consistency for the combined instrument utilizing the leadership style questionnaire and the self-directed learning scale was $\alpha = .83$, and therefore, acceptable to administer in order to answer the research questions in this study (Cronbach, 1951).

The first and second objectives were analyzed through the implementation of descriptive statistics. Students' leadership style and self-directed learning levels were analyzed with descriptive statistics. Task oriented leadership style was measured and relationship oriented leadership style were examined separately with descriptive statistics in order to address the first objective. Agresti and Finlay (2009) reported descriptive statistics illustrate group characteristics and demonstrate differences in attitudes towards variables.

The third objective of the study sought to examine the relationship of students' leadership style and self-directed learning levels. Correlation coefficients are calculated to represent the correlation of two variables (Agresti & Finlay, 2009). Davis (1971) said correlations signify whether the association between variables is positive or negative. Pearson r is used to demonstrate the strength and direction of the association between the two variables (Agresti & Finlay, 2009).

Most of the participants were female ($n = 71$, 58.70%), white ($n = 104$, 86.0%), between 19 and 22 years old ($n = 98$, 80.99%), worked part-time ($n = 66$, 54.50%), seniors ($n = 121$, 100%), and had a grade point average between 2.50 and 3.49 ($n = 76$, 62.80%). Because the study was conducted as an examination of students' leadership style and self-directed learning levels in agricultural leadership courses within a single department at one institution, findings were limited in scope and therefore not generalizable to the broader audience of agricultural and life sciences undergraduate students nationwide. The results, however, did offer insight on students' preferred leadership style and self-directed learning levels.

Findings

The first objective of the study was to describe students' leadership style. As a part of the first objective, the researchers examined students' preference toward task behavior leadership (see Table 1). Items that earned the highest scores were "Encourages group members to do high quality work" ($M = 4.09$, $SD = .84$), "Makes your perspective clear to others" ($M = 3.92$, $SD = .79$), and "Clarifies your own role within the group" ($M = 3.87$, $SD = .78$). The item that earned the lowest score was "Defines role responsibilities for each group member" ($M = 3.31$, $SD = .85$). The overall score for students' orientation to task behavior leadership was ($M = 3.66$, $SD = .79$).

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Students' Orientation to Task Behavior Leadership

<i>Items</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Encourages group members to do high quality work	121	4.09	.84
Makes your perspective clear to others	121	3.92	.79
Clarifies your own role within the group	121	3.87	.78
Make suggestions about how to solve problems	121	3.86	.71
Develops a plan of action for the group	121	3.64	.83
Provides a plan for how the work is to be done	121	3.61	.78
Sets standards of performance for group members	121	3.57	.77
Provides criteria for what is expected of the group	121	3.36	.84
Tells group members what they are supposed to do	121	3.33	.68
Defines role responsibilities for each group member	121	3.31	.85

Scale: 1 = never, 2 = seldom, 3 = occasionally, 4 = often, 5 = always

The researchers examined students' preference toward relationship behavior leadership as part of the second phase of the first objective, to describe students' leadership style (see Table 2). Items that earned the highest scores were "Treats others fairly" ($M = 4.63$, $SD = .50$), "Acts friendly with members of the group" ($M = 4.51$, $SD = .55$), "Shows concern for the well-being for others" ($M = 4.22$, $SD = .75$), "Communicates actively with group members" ($M = 4.15$, $SD = .73$), "Helps others feel comfortable in the group" ($M = 4.12$, $SD = .75$), and "Shows flexibility in making decision" ($M = 4.09$, $SD = .62$). The item that earned the lowest score was "Discloses thoughts and feelings to group members" ($M = 3.52$, $SD = .94$). The overall score for students' orientation to relationship behavior leadership was ($M = 4.10$, $SD = .70$).

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Students' Orientation to Relationship Behavior Leadership

<i>Items</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Treats others fairly	121	4.63	.50
Acts friendly with members of the group	121	4.51	.55
Shows concern for the well-being for others	121	4.22	.75
Communicates actively with group members	121	4.15	.73
Helps others feel comfortable in the group	121	4.12	.75
Shows flexibility in making decisions	121	4.09	.62
Behaves in a predictable manner toward group members	121	3.93	.70
Helps group members get along	121	3.92	.81
Responds favorable to suggestions made by others	121	3.86	.62
Discloses thoughts and feelings to group members	121	3.52	.94

Scale: 1 = never, 2 = seldom, 3 = occasionally, 4 = often, 5 = always

The second objective of the study was to describe students' level of self-directed learning (see Table 3). The statement that earned the highest mean was "I set my own goals for learning without the help of the instructor" ($M = 2.96$, $SD = .72$). The statement that earned the lowest mean was "I have prior knowledge and skills in the subject area" ($M = 1.99$, $SD = 1.06$). The overall score for students' level of self-directed learning was ($M = 2.33$, $SD = .88$).

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Students' Level of Self-directed Learning

<i>Statements</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
I set my own goals for learning without the help of the instructor.	121	2.96	.72
I am capable of assessing the quality of assignments that I submit.	121	2.44	.89
I prefer that the instructor provide direction only when requested.	121	2.32	.86
I am willing to take responsibility for my own learning.	121	2.31	.81
I use resources outside of class to meet my goals.	121	2.24	.95
I learn best when I set my own goals.	121	2.20	.87
I prefer individual work or a self-directed study group as the teaching delivery method.	121	2.16	.87
I have prior knowledge and skills in the subject area.	121	1.99	1.06

Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly Agree

Examining the relationship of students' leadership style and level of self-directed learning was the third objective of the study. Task oriented leadership style had a significant correlation with self-directed learning but relationship oriented leadership style did not have a significant correlation with self-directed learning. The task oriented leadership style items with the highest level of correlations to self-directed learning score were "encourages group members to do high quality work" ($r = .61$), "make your perspective clear to others" ($r = .55$) and "clarifies your own role within the group" ($r = .52$). Each of the three highest correlations has a magnitude of Substantial ($.50 \geq r \geq .69$). The task oriented leadership style items with moderate correlation scores with self-directed learning score were "make suggestions about how to solve problems" ($r = .44$), "develops a plan of action for the group" ($r = .36$), and "provides a plan for how the work is to be done" ($r = .35$). Each significant correlation had a substantial to moderate relationship

(see Table 4). No significant effect was found among students' personal characteristics towards leadership style and self-directed learning levels.

Table 4

Correlations between Task Leadership Style and Level of Self-directed Learning

<i>Task Leadership Style Items</i>	<i>Self-directed Learning</i>		
	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Encourages group members to do high quality work	121	.61	.00*
Makes your perspective clear to others	121	.55	.00*
Clarifies your own role within the group	121	.52	.00*
Make suggestions about how to solve problems	121	.44	.03*
Develops a plan of action for the group	121	.36	.04*
Provides a plan for how the work is to be done	121	.35	.04*
Sets standards of performance for group members	121	.29	.23
Provides criteria for what is expected of the group	121	.12	.40
Tells group members what they are supposed to do	121	.04	.68
Defines role responsibilities for each group member	121	-.12	.74

Note. Magnitude: $.01 \geq r \geq .09$ = Negligible, $.10 \geq r \geq .29$ = Low, $.30 \geq r \geq .49$ = Moderate, $.50 \geq r \geq .69$ = Substantial, $r \geq .70$ = Very Strong (Davis, 1971).

* $p < .05$.

Conclusions

The findings offer insight on seniors', in the Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communications Texas A&M University at Texas A&M University, preferred leadership style and self-directed learning levels. The majority of students were female, white, between 19 and 22 years old, worked part-time, graduating seniors, and had a grade point average between 2.50 and 3.49. Students' leadership style and self-directed learning levels were not products of students' personal characteristics.

Students were primarily had a relationship oriented leaders. Respondents were located between the S2 and S3 domain in regards to their self-directed learning level of 2.33. Students may have been in the S2 to category due to their current academic and lifestyle responsibilities as an undergraduate senior. The task oriented relationship had substantial to low significant correlations with items within the self-directed learning construct. Relationship oriented students did not produce significant correlations with any items within the self-directed learning construct. The data suggested task oriented seniors' are more apt to be more self-directed toward their learning. Students were either in their last semester or their next to last semester of an undergraduate degree. Grade classification may have provided some variance as to the reason task oriented leaders tended to be more self-directed learners.

Implications

This study offers insight into the relationship between leadership and learning. Results from this study built upon transformational leadership and transactional leadership theories. Task oriented

leadership style students took more ownership of their learning indicating a position toward transactional leadership (Bass, 1985). Task oriented leaders are the most effective working with individuals who aspire to reach the highest levels of success (Bass, 1985). Findings from this study suggest that task oriented students would work best with students who shared parallel levels of self-directed learning. Students task oriented leadership style indicates those students are more likely to establish goals and set a plan to achieve those goals (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Findings from this study expanded the application of self-directed learning theory and andragogy for students' academic experiences in leadership courses. Task oriented leadership students were more accepting of motivational techniques towards their learning and set goals for their learning as compared to students in the lower S2 classification (Grow, 1991). As task oriented leadership style increased, students became more in the S3 classification and needed more of a facilitator as a teacher (Grow, 1991). Task oriented leadership style students may have been more self-directed in their learning due to their readiness to learn, motivation to learn, and orientation to learning (Knowles et al., 2005). Relationship oriented students may have been less self-directed in their learning due to a lack of a need to know the information, having a self-concept in relation to their learning, and shortages of personal learning experiences to draw from (Knowles et al., 2005). A correlation may have existed between self-directed learning level and task oriented leadership due to the fact that diverse variables affect self-directed learning (Grow, 1991).

Recommendations

Findings from this study provide dual angle advantages to agricultural education researchers and practitioners examining leadership and studying learning. Developing a comprehension of variables that effect leadership style, may further advance the knowledge of leadership educators and researchers by explaining the variance in respective leadership styles. Agricultural leadership researchers and practitioners should gain a better understanding of variables that may affect students' leadership styles in order to best educate students and prepare them for professional experiences (Bass, 1985). The findings from this study may assist agricultural education faculty develop students for employers seeking innovative employees who can meet global needs (Kelsey & Wall, 2003). Professional development specialists and human resources trainers should develop an understanding on the effects of employee leadership styles' impact on job performance (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Agricultural leadership researchers should continue to study variables that influence students and professionals' leadership style. A larger study of students may offer variables that help explain the variance in students' leadership style. Agricultural leadership researchers interested in this line of inquiry should examine the potential of conducting these studies across separate institutions. The findings would be more robust and provide a deeper understanding of students' leadership styles in agricultural education departments. Faculty would gain a better understanding of their students and may better understand the leadership experiences and roles the respective students are most interested. A better understanding of factors that influence students' leadership style may assist agricultural education faculty offer and recommend leadership opportunities for students (Velez et al., 2010).

Agricultural education researchers should continue to study factors that influence students' self-directed learning levels. Developing a better comprehension of factors that enhance self-directed learning, may assist agricultural education departments produce well-prepared future

practitioners and agricultural scientists (Doerfert, 2011). Agricultural education faculty could gain a better understanding of students' learning capability as students move from an undergraduate program to a graduate program or a profession (Shokar et al., 2002). The results may provide agricultural education faculty information to assist students with identifying career opportunities and in recruiting potential graduate students (Bruce et al., 2006).

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Nonprofit Organizational Leadership: A Model for Nontraditional Nonprofit and Mission-Driven Organizations

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I INTRODUCTION

The traditional US nonprofit organization (NPO) by definition is an organization legally prohibited from disbursing profits to shareholders or managers, classified as either commercial or donative.

(Weerawardena, McDonald, & Mort, 2010). NPOs hold significant societal impact through their value and education of social issues. They are essential “in the pursuit of sustainability around the world. In terms of the pursuit of local sustainability, many national and international organizations have been instrumental in serving as the catalyst and coordinator of efforts to promote sustainability and environmental protection” (Portney & Cuttler, 2010:323). Even within the local level, NPOs create community growth by strengthening our local communities (Tierney, 2006).

Many NPOs are recognizing the need for new, innovative thought and methodology in order to survive the current economic decline. Budget cuts during the 1980’s created the first serious crisis for nonprofit organizations (Besel, et al, 2004; Weerawardena, et al, 2010). NPOs must now compete beyond other non-profits, into for-profit organizations and many other government-funded services (Besel, et al, 2004). These organizations are forced to start thinking in more creative ways in order to survive. This new perception has invited innovation and radical methodology, “encouraging reflection, experimentation and vision” (Struthers, 2004, p. 246).

It has been proven that continually innovative NPOs are most sustainable (Weerawardena, et al, 2010). NPOs are shifting to more ‘nontraditional,’ radical methods. Organizations such as (PRODUCT)RED and TOM’s shoes have taken advantage of American consumerism and used it to positively impact social change. Micro-loan projects and eco-friendly consulting firms have stolen the focus of previous charities and traditional forms of social change organizations. Organizations have developed a triple-bottom line, where environmental and social sustainability go hand-in-hand with finances (Russo, 2010).

Due to this rise in innovative tactics among nonprofit organizations, the organizations addressed in this study are considered ‘nontraditional.’ The following literature will create a foundational framework to understand how nonprofit sustainability can be accomplished successfully through its leadership.

II CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Nonprofit organizations will neither be sustainable nor successful without proper leadership. The development of effective leaders provides “great benefits to every organization, often cultivates new visionary individuals and helps the organization fulfill its mission” (Price, 2005, p. 3). Positive leadership will encourage the adoption of innovative ideas, while still upholding the organization’s mission and values. According to co-founder and chairman of NPO Bridgespan Group, “the absolute most important

issue confronting the nonprofit sector today and into the near future relates to [its] leadership” (Tierney, 2006, p. 13).

Unfortunately, there is a culture of frequent turnover within nonprofit leadership. An astonishing 15-35% of nonprofit executives plan to leave their current positions within two years and 61-78% plan to leave within *five* (Tierney, 2006:14). Because of this current crisis of leadership deficiency, it is essential to recognize the challenges faced by NPO leaders. Warren Buffett suggests that nonprofit leaders are faced with the most challenging problems, since they are desperately trying to tackle social issues that have remained unsolved for years (Phipps & Burbach, 2010). The development of effective leaders may also prove to be difficult at times due to a scarcity of resources (Price, 2005). Many NPOs are too small to offer appropriate professional development for its leaders (Tierney, 2006). Both a lack of resources and professional development cause a lack in training and recruiting programs (Tierney, 2006).

Recognizing the many challenges of today’s NPO leaders, a definite need must be placed at the forefront for a development of a “pipeline” (Price, 2005, p. 1) of effective leadership. This leadership expands from the organization’s internal and external workings. Such development is an ongoing process in need of constant revision and evaluation.

Current literature outlines many qualities of an effective nonprofit leader. Young (1983) categorizes nonprofit leaders as professionals, believers, searchers and independents. Moral and ethical imagination is also an essential and defining characteristic held by nonprofit leaders (Stephenson & Tech, 2007). This moral imagination allows for an ethical and collaborative perspective. Leading by example is another key element of an effective nonprofit leader (Wallis & Dollery, 2005).

Successful nonprofit leaders must first look towards their followers. Effective leadership encourages its employees and members to be active participants in the organization, developing consensus building, providing motivation, creating meaningful relationships by emphasizing their value and impact, encouraging adaptability, and drawing others toward the organization’s vision (Rierson, 2006). Nonprofit leaders establish a foundation of trust through the building of meaningful relationships. These relationships allow leaders to hold consistent access to local, knowledgeable people, gaining invaluable perspective for their organization (Hansen, 2008). Leaders must also provide opportunities for all members to grow in their leadership skills through sources outside of the organization (Price, 2005).

The mission of the organization must also stand at the forefront. This leadership includes clearly informing and advocating the mission of the organization, the means, and the rationale (Rierson, 2006). This will bring awareness to the “*why* behind the mission, enabling them to think creatively as individuals and as members of a team about how to achieve the ultimate goal” (Rierson, 2006, p. 12). Social human values must sustain a NPO’s mission. It is these values, upheld in the mission statement, that also create the essential qualities of nonprofit leaders (Hansen, 2008).

As in most styles of leadership, there is a significant difference between nonprofit leadership and for-profit management or administration. Stid and Bradach’s (2009) research within the Bridgeport Group revealed that NPOs rely more on leadership than management skills, which may ultimately raise several

problems. After surveying over 100 NPOs, they concluded that most were under-managed, specifically among founder-led organizations. In these organizations, the leadership is based too heavily on the leader's charisma instead of effective decision-making and management skills. Staff members may be confused with roles, responsibilities, unmet budgets, etc. (Stid & Bradach, 2009). Because of this, many challenges arise that pose possible threats to an organization's sustainability.

There is a correlation between the quality of nonprofit leadership and the success of the organization (Wallis & Dollery, 2005; Phipps & Burbach, 2010). The organizational sustainability relies on the NPOs ability to conduct excellent leadership practices. According to research, without effective leadership, the innovative methods may be accepted, but will never be sustainable.

III PURPOSE

The purpose of this study is to explain how we establish effective leadership in the culture of nontraditional, innovative nonprofit organizations. This study will explore this effectiveness by comparing three nontraditional NPOs, or three 501c3 organizations with radical ideas for social change. Through a qualitative interview methodology, the sustainability and leadership strategies of each nonprofit will be assessed. This qualitative analysis will determine current leadership practices of successful nontraditional NPOs.

IV METHODS

The following three nontraditional NPOs (501c3 organizations) were analyzed in order to gain a further understanding of successful leadership practices: NPO1, a Seattle-based nonprofit organization that partners with for-profit counterparts in order to create socially-conscious coffee fundraising to support proactive educational systems in Laos; NPO2, a Portland-based nonprofit pub which financially contributes to local charities and their volunteering efforts; and NPO3, a Denver-based nonprofit focusing on community building through their donation-based, green restaurant.

The selection of NPOs was chosen through a nonrandom, purposive sampling (Neuman, 2003). The three organizations were chosen within the Pacific Northwest (United States) region in order to maintain elements of consistent culture. The NPOs were also chosen in order to study unique characteristics of "nontraditional," successful NPOs. The researchers deemed "nontraditional" as any 501c3 organization that held innovative, radical methodology (beyond the traditional charity framework) of social change. Success within each nonprofit was defined beyond sustainable (at least five years), but socially effective; this effectiveness must be voiced by its leader and community.

Qualitative research through a question-based interview was conducted with each founder of the three organizations. This individual was questioned in order to gain further understanding of nonprofit leadership in their particular role and perspective.

In order to maintain consistency and trustworthy data collection, email correspondence (including the final analysis) was sent to each organizational leader in order to view points of clarification. Prior to data

collection, a Consent Form was presented and signed, as well as respondent coding (NPO1, NPO2, NPO3) in order to create professional work, limit bias, and uphold validity and confidentiality.

All data was collected in the form of audio recording, later transcribed for preciseness and future clarification. Merging themes were confirmed through direct quotes from the qualitative interviews. Data was then analyzed through analytic comparison (Neuman, 2003), developing ideas and concepts based on the preexisting theories mentioned in the above theoretical framework.

V FINDINGS

The following findings reveal the most effective leadership strategies for successful, sustainable NPOs. The findings offer new discoveries beyond the provided theoretical framework. Researchers define two distinct leadership roles present in nontraditional NPOs: opinion leaders and board members. These leaders must understand their role within their organization in order to be successful. The findings also conclude that successful relationship building and the construction of organizational culture (both internally and externally) are two essential factors of effective, nonprofit leadership among nonprofit CEOs/Presidents and board members.

Leadership Roles: Opinion Leaders and Board Members

Opinion leaders hold a major role in the adoption of innovative ideas. After placing their product in a large fundraising event, NPO1 realized that when you have too many decision-makers, each individual has his or her own opinion about how things should be handled (i.e. how to properly fundraise). With too many decision-makers, consumers will ultimately not utilize the product or advance adoption tendencies. It is more effective to “find a more authoritative/dictator type” who can “make the decision for the team [or group]” (NPO1). Therefore, the most influential opinion leaders in NPO1 were athletic coaches, which encouraged the fundraising and sales of the product. Because the athletes had been previously taught (and some, even mentored) by these authoritative figures, they were more receptive to the message of the NPO1, ultimately engaging more proactively in the cause.

The first person NPO3 confronted with its radical idea was an authoritative, well-known fundraiser in the city of Denver: “a powerful woman who could move mountains” (NPO3). Because this opinion leader was “so excited it was a different model [of 501c3 organizations],” she took initiative in funding the project and immediately created a circle of influence others began to “gravitate towards” (NPO3). In the case of NPOs, it appears that opinion leaders are, in fact, one of the most effective ways to advocate for innovative ideas and influence others.

Connolly and York (2002) identified board development as one of four keys for nonprofit sustainability. Findings would agree that the establishment of an thoroughly educated and informed board creates long-term sustainability: “the reason why we have been so successful is that our Board has been really successful from the beginning” (NPO3). From an organizational level, board development could make or break sustainable funding tactics; “For sustainability, we and our board have placed really stable funding

tactics... a more structured system so that even if [NPO3 CEOs] weren't here, [NPO3] could function without us" (NPO3).

Key to Effective Leadership: Relationship Building

Research confirms that successful capacity building includes building relationships with the impacted community. Through its operations in Laos, NPO1 firmly believes that the involved local community is essential to the nonprofit's foundation. If the community is not involved in the process, sustainability cannot occur and even has the potential to do the opposite the mission was intending; "Every time you give, there's a responsibility that comes with it... Giving can actually harm and destroy communities by creating dependencies. It actually can take away their dignity instead of making it [the cause] their own" (NPO1). The founder of NPO2 first looked to the Portland community to assess the desires and needs of the people there, recognizing their environment as an essential piece to the development of the services of their organization (Struthers, 2004): "the idea itself really germinated from Portland itself" (NPO2). NPO3 became active in the Denver community by making connections with small farmers and buying their vegetables. NPOs should go into the local communities, assess the problem, and assist the problem depending on the community's wishes, values, culture, resources and means of solving the problem themselves. This assessment of needs can only occur through successful relationship building among leaders of the organization with their outside community.

The sustainability of an organization is also directly linked to these relationships. The sustainability of NPO3's organization was based on the relationships established between the leaders and its clientele. "The relationships I've built here, I would have *never* met them outside of here – but that's what's so inviting about this space... I'm going to know that you don't like salad dressing and ask how your sick mother is doing – there's something so valuable about that" (NPO3). A foundation of relationships allows for the acceptance of ideas and values, building trust between organizational leaders and constituents.

Internal and External Organizational Leadership: Environments of Consistency and Excitement

This study reveals a lack of literature in the necessity of an environment of consistency within the organizational structure. NPOs must create an internal organizational culture of consistency, building trust and reputation. Nontraditional NPOs need to have "a consistent base – the same thing, every day, building a reputation that people can depend on... There's a peace during the tough times if you can build the trust of your customers, that goes a long way to building that bond and getting people to invest in your idea and community" (NPO3). In an economic time of chaos and irregularity, it becomes essential to retain employees (among other stakeholders) by providing a consistent product, environment and mission.

This study also reveals the necessity of an environment of excitement among its constituents. To create a high rate of adoption, there must be a wave of excitement among consumers. To get consumers excited about an idea, it must become more than awareness of growth, but a culture of growth: "that's

what really happens – people recognize it, they *feel* it” (NPO2). This feeling is based on a level of curiosity, evoking a higher rate of adoption; “From the beginning, people were really earnest in wanting to hear more about it and wanting to see if it would actually work – there was a curiosity more than anything” (NPO3). This feeling is contagious and furthers the adoption process and circle of influence. Such a culture of excitement must stem from the organization’s leadership, branching out towards other levels of stakeholders.

VI RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Limitations

Although all insight is drawn from appropriate data collection methodology, the qualitative data obtained was gathered from the personal experiences and thought-processes of three NPO leaders. The information was first-hand driven from the founders of the organizations and therefore do not reflect the perspective of other employees or volunteers.

Due to the fact that two of the three leaders interviewed were male, gender was an additional limitation. Because mostly males were interviewed, further research within the fields of genderlectics and gender roles may provide additional insights.

As a qualitative researcher, it is also important to recognize my personal involvement in the study. Although I strived for objective research techniques, following successful quality research, it is still possible that personal bias and experiences were thrust into data.

Recommendations

Current NPOs must recognize that the building of relationships is essential to the adoption of innovative ideas. Without establishing relationships, the heightened rate of adoption cannot be met. A very significant way this can be achieved is through opinion leaders, who can direct others towards the idea. Placing effective leaders into board member positions also provide organizational direction and structure.

Leaders must look at their internal and external organizational environments. A consistent internal organizational culture upholds trust and reliability. Leaders should also focus on an excitement factor that is imbedded into the product and organizational culture, resulting in a more appealing, sustainable environment where consumers continue to return.

This study confirms that the span of nonprofit leadership literature and research is extremely insufficient. It is proven that successful nonprofit leadership should first and foremost focus on the building of relationships among various stakeholders (donors, serviced individuals, volunteers, employees, etc). To expand upon founded literature, this study exposes several of the following factors to be the leadership qualities necessary within nontraditional NPOs (*See Figure 1*). These ten qualities promote organizational growth and sustainability, as well as encourage further involvement from

potential donors and volunteers: experiential learning, moral and ethical imagination, definer of organizational culture, transparency, the final say, responsibility, self-understanding, combining passion with intellect, and commitment to the cause.

This study concludes that within these qualities, nontraditional nonprofit leaders hold the following four characteristics as essential qualities and conduct for nonprofit leaders to maintain: open communication, flexibility of roles, engagement of employees and for-profit management tactics.

1. Open communication

Ultimately an effective leader must be able to communicate his or her organization's message to every stakeholder. If the message is not communicated effectively, adoption and sustainability are at serious risk.

2. Flexibility of Roles

Effective nonprofit leaders should learn to play every role of the organization. "When you start a business, you have to play every role. You're the decision maker, the business development, the finance guy, the designer, the web development, the money raiser, the nonprofit Director. You learn every single facet of how business works" (NPO1). By knowing all elements of the organization, the leader can best assess how to manage each contributing part.

3. Engagement of Employees

This study also confirms that effective leadership engages the best quality of its employees. The development of successful employees through proper leadership roles creates organizational sustainability; "A great leader knows how to delegate what they do not do well to others that can successfully fill those holes" (NPO1). The participation of employees creates loyalty with the organization. The participation also creates a pipeline of leadership, where leadership flows from CEO to all members of the organization; "I think that kind of ownership and leadership is a trickle-down effect from the top to people that come in a couple times a year" (NPO2). By engaging employees, leaders recognize that such qualities can come from the bottom-up; "we've had great guidance from our board members, constituents and customers with phenomenal comments" (NPO3). Effective leaders of NPOs recognize and value leadership throughout the entirety of their organization.

4. For-profit Management Tactics

To combat Stid and Bradach's (2009) study on nonprofit leadership, this study suggests that for-profit management techniques could help improve nonprofit sustainability. As an international organization, NPO1 suggests that sustainability within both impacted countries is key; "If you are not running your non-profit like a for-profit business, you will always be a victim to the cycles of the economy and your donors, chasing money here and there" (NPO1). For-profit leadership tactics assist in financial sustainability: "financially, we put people on our board who were experts in running a business... even though it's not for-profit doesn't mean you can't make money, it just means that all the money goes back to feeding people" (NPO3). At times, this multifaceted, for-profit organizational strategy can actual improve nonprofit success.

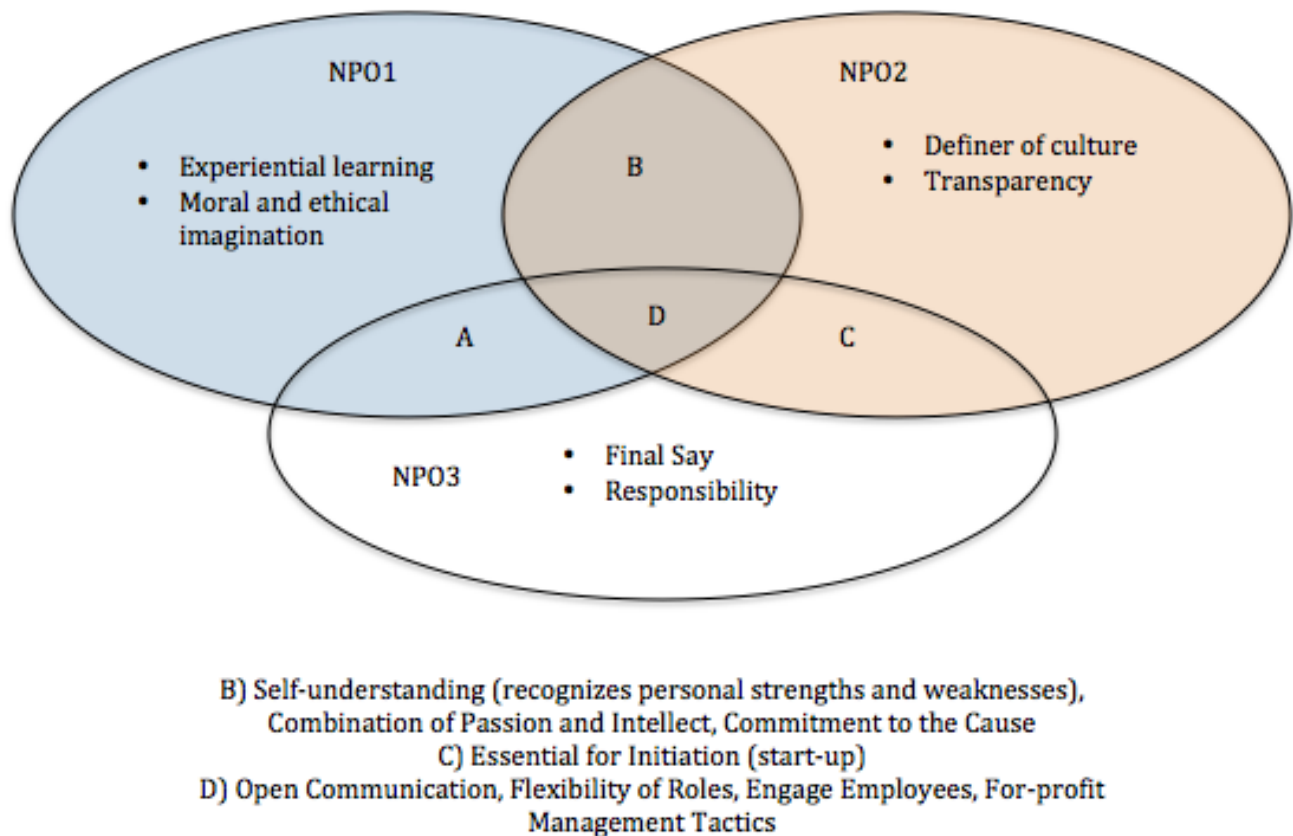


Figure 1: Nontraditional Nonprofit Leadership Qualities

Conclusion

NPOs are essential to society's wellbeing. When governmental support fails, millions of individuals daily will turn towards such organizations for physical, emotional, and psychological care. Due to the importance of nonprofit organizations within society, it becomes essential to understand how they become successful and run sustainably, given their current nontraditional mentality.

Combatting the shift of the global market, today's NPOs are moving towards "entrepreneurial models," (Spall & Zetlin, 2004, p. 283) which offer a hope for further sustainability. It therefore becomes necessary for these organizations to harness effective strategies to promote these radical, innovative ideas. NPOs must first discover how to create a successful pipeline of leadership through roles of opinion leaders and board members. By building strategic relationships and defining organizational cultures of consistency and excitement, nonprofit leaders provide their organization with the framework for success. Specific leadership characteristics of open communication, flexibility of roles, engagement of employees and for-profit management tactics become essential to the survival of these organizations. If NPOs continue their declining spiral, refusing to take a serious look at such sustainable leadership strategies, where will our communities turn?

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Identifying the relationship of precollegiate and collegiate experiences in predicting the community values component of leadership development

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Introduction

Reforms in higher education have led a greater focus on student learning outcomes, including professional skill development, and the impact of experiences outside the classroom as learning opportunities (Astin, Keup, Lindholm, 2002). Many institutions of higher education include leadership development in their mission statements (Astin & Astin, 2000; Boatman, 1999). The Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) identified leadership development as one of 16 student learning and development outcomes and suggested that leadership can be intentionally learned (CAS, 2006). “There is a growing recognition that this task [purposefully develop socially responsible leaders] is the responsibility of all members of the campus community, not just those teaching leadership courses or those working with co-curricular leadership programs” (Dugan & Komives, 2007, p. 5).

In recent years, higher education has recognized participation in extracurricular activities as a strategy to reach learning outcomes, such as leadership development, and not simply as a social activity (Birkenholz & Schumacher, 1994; Ewing, Bruce, & Ricketts, 2009; Layfield, Radhakrishna, & Andresen, 2000; Rubin, Bommer, & Baldwin, 2002). However, to facilitate learning experiences, educators need to know more about specific experiences that result in increased leadership development. “By identifying specific learning tasks and goals associated with leadership development, one can intentionally create opportunities which foster such development in college” (CAS, 2006, p. 93).

Conceptual Framework

An adaptation of Terenzini and Reason’s (2005) model explaining college students’ first-year experiences served as the framework for this study. The framework for this study had three components (Figure 1). The first two were precollegiate and college experiences, which previous literature suggested contribute to leadership development in undergraduate college students (i.e., Armino et al., 2000; Birkenholz & Schumacher, 1994; Ewing et al., 2009; Josselson, 1987; Kezar, 2002; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Kimbrough, 1998; Layfield et al., 2000; Moore, Prescott, & Gardener, 2008; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991; Phinney, 1990; Rubin, Bommer, & Baldwin, 2002). The third component, leadership development, was the outcome of the model and was conceptualized using the social change model (SCM; Higher Education Research Institute, 1996).

Precollegiate Characteristics and Experiences

The precollegiate construct of this model included socio-demographics that have been linked to leadership development, including race (Armino et al., 2000; Kimbrough, 1998; Phinney, 1990) and gender (Josselson, 1987; Kezar, 2002; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). Additional personal and social experiences related to undergraduate leadership development, such as precollegiate extracurricular

experiences (Astin, 1977; Park & Dyer, 2005) and leadership self-efficacy (Astin, 1999; Dugan & Komives, 2007) were also included in this component.

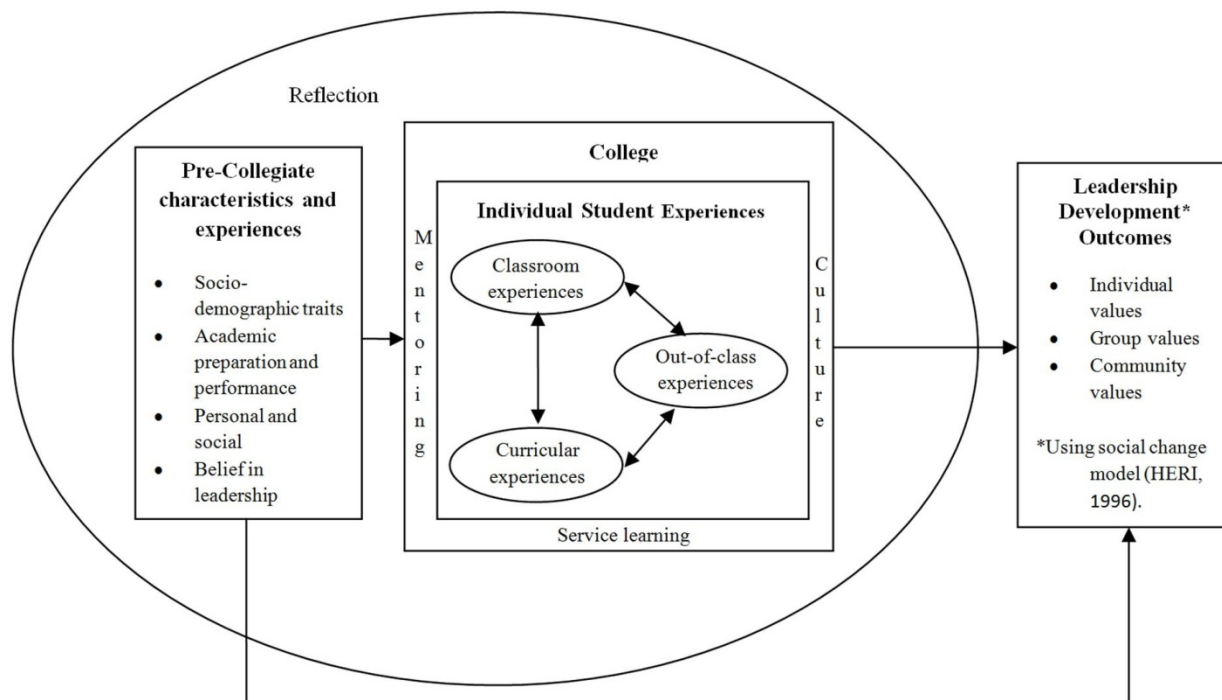


Figure 1. Collegiate leadership development model. Adapted from “Parsing the first year of college: A conceptual framework for studying college impacts” by P.T. Terenzini and R.D. Reason, 2005, paper presented at the meeting of the Association for the Study of Higher Education. Philadelphia, PA. Adapted with permission.

College Experiences

Kuh and Umbach (2004) used data from the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) and concluded that institutions should organize both in-class and out-of-class experiences to expose them to a variety of opportunities. The college experience construct included three types of individual student experiences that have been associated with leadership development: 1) classroom experiences, including subject matter, teaching and learning strategies, and peer interactions; 2) curricular experiences, including major, involvement in a departmental learning community, and internships; and 3) out-of-class-experiences.

Classroom experiences are a central part of the college experience. The pedagogy used, as well as the subject matter, contributes to student learning. Research suggests a variety of strategies, such as group assignments and tests (Coers, Williams, Duncan, 2010; Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Moore, 2010), using multimedia (Williams & McClure, 2010), asynchronous computer simulations (Boyd & Murphrey, 2002) and service learning (Montelongo, 2002; Sessa, Matos, & Hopkins, 2009) to help learners become more engaged in the learning process (Boyd and Murphrey, 2002; Cooper, Prescott, Cook, Smith, Mueck, & Cuseo, 1990), increase student learning about theory and practice and how deeply they learned the information (Sessa, Matos, & Hopkins, 2009), apply knowledge in other areas of their life (Boyd & Murphrey, 2002), and develop the skills required to be a life-long learner.

Curricular experiences referred to those experiences specific to an individual major or curriculum, including required coursework, academic advising, academic-based learning communities, internship experiences, and study abroad and can be offered as both a stand-alone curriculum or a component integrated in other curriculums. The first undergraduate major in Leadership was developed in the 1990's at the Jepson School of Leadership Studies at the University of Richmond (Dugan & Komives, 2007). Since that time additional leadership majors, minors, and certificate programs have been developed throughout the country.

Out-of-class experiences referred to college experiences that occur outside the classroom and formal curriculum (i.e., extra-curricular activities, leadership programs, Greek system, and living experiences). Astin (1999) proposed that positive outcomes of involvement are a result of both the quantitative (how much time a student spends on an activity) and qualitative (how focused the student is on the activity) aspects. Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) found that the frequency and quality of students' participation in activities was associated with high educational aspirations, enhanced self-confidence, and increased interpersonal and leadership skills.

Extracurricular experiences are often perceived as important to students' social and personal growth. However, when extracurricular activities are viewed solely as social functions, they are also seen as competing with academic work (Rubin et al., 2002). Studies have shown that participation in extracurricular activities contributes positively to interpersonal skills (Birkenholz & Schumacher, 1994; Ewing et al., 2009; Layfield et al., 2000; Moore, et al., 2008; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991; Rubin et al., 2002), academic achievement and persistence (Astin, 1999; Wang & Shively, 2009), peer-to-peer interactions (Abrahamowicz, 1988; Astin, 1996; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991), and positive faculty interactions (Abrahamowicz, 1988; Campbell & Campbell, 1997; Retallick & Pate, 2009).

Kouzes and Posner (2007) suggested that exposure to a variety of out-of-classroom experiences provides concrete experiences as students apply leadership theories and skills. Additional researchers have examined this idea and concluded that participation in extracurricular clubs and organizations contributes to positive leadership development (Birkenholz & Schumacher, 1994; Ewing et al., 2009; Layfield et al., 2000). For example, college juniors who were members of student organizations scored higher than nonmembers on educational involvement, career planning, lifestyle planning, cultural participation, and academic autonomy (Cooper et al., 1994). Montelongo (2002) concluded that personal or affective development of attitudes, values, aspirations, and personality disposition were positive outcomes associated with extracurricular participation. In addition, holding an office in an extracurricular organization can enhance the richness and magnitude of learning experiences and personal development during college years (Astin, 1984) and was related to increased leadership development (Ewing et al., 2009) and increased decision making (Rubin et al., 2002). Dugan (2006) found that undergraduate students who served as positional leaders scored higher on the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS-R2) group values scale and the SRLS-R2 societal values scale.

Most frequent leadership program activities are seminars, workshops, mentors, guest speakers, service and volunteerism (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). These programs involve a wide variety of teaching strategies, including experiential learning opportunities (Haber & Komives, 2009; Cress et al., 2001) and opportunities for service and active learning through collaboration (Cress et al., 2001).

Positive leadership outcomes have been found in a variety of studies, including improving their personal effectiveness, and aided in their professional and career development (Von Stein & Ball, 2008), and increasing their leadership ability (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Layfield, Radhakrishna, & Andresen, 2000; Posner, 2009). For example, Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt (2001) concluded that participants in leadership development programs were more likely to report growth in their commitment to civic responsibility, conflict resolution skills, ability to plan and implement programs and activities and willingness to take risks. In addition, these students were more likely to be involved in co-curricular activities and hold an office in those activities.

The location of residence while in college has been found to be a significant predictor of leadership skill development. Birkenholz and Schumacher (1994) concluded that living in a structured housing arrangement such as a residence hall, fraternity or sorority was positively related to perceived leadership skills. Students who live in campus residences also show greater gains in interpersonal self-esteem and several forms of involvement, including interaction with faculty, involvement in student government, and participation in social fraternities or sororities (Astin, 1999). Similar benefits were found with students who were a part of the Greek System (Rubin, Bommer, & Baldwin, 2002). Pike (2000) studied the social and cognitive benefits for Greek students and found a direct relationship to students' social involvement and integration of college experiences and an indirect relationship to gains in general abilities associated with cognitive development.

Leadership Development Outcomes

Leadership development was the outcome construct of this model. Many different definitions and theoretical frameworks have been used to study leadership development. For the purposes of this study, leadership is defined as an influential relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes (Rost, 1991). The Social Change Model (SCM), developed by the Higher Education Research Institute of UCLA in 1993, was used to conceptualize leadership development.

The SCM describes leadership as a purposeful, collaborative, values-driven process. Its central principles—social responsibility and change for the common good—are assessed through eight core values that describe students' level of self-awareness and ability to work with others. The model views leadership as a process, not a position, and encourages leadership development in all participants, including those who hold formal leadership positions and those who don't. The SCM promotes the values of equality, social justice, self-knowledge, personal empowerment, collaboration, citizenship, and service (Astin & Astin, 2000). The model for this study included all three elements of the SCM: individual values, group values, and community values.

The SCM is a widely cited model of student leadership in higher education (Haber & Komives, 2009). For example, the social change model of leadership development, measured by the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS-R2), is used in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL). This study, first conducted in 2006 and conducted annually since 2009, includes nearly 200 higher education institutions.

Educational reform movements have increased the attention to the importance of leadership development in higher education (Astin, et al., 2002) and provided standards for these programs (CAS, 2006). Research has identified a relationship between extra-curricular participation and leadership outcomes (Birkenholz & Schumacher, 1994; Ewing et al., 2009; Layfield et al., 2000), participation in leadership programs and leadership outcomes (Dugan, Bohle, Gebhardt, Hofert, Wilk, & Cooney, 2011; Schumacher & Swan, 1993), and the impact of college classes and leadership outcomes (Buschlen & Dvorak, 2011; Odom, Boyd, & Williams, 2012). However, a more comprehensive approach is needed to better understand the college student experience and the influences of leadership development.

Research Purpose

This study sought to add to the literature on leadership development by examining the precollegiate and collegiate experiences that contribute to students' community values of Socially Responsible Leadership. The purpose of this study was to identify the extent to which precollegiate and collegiate experiences independently and collectively contribute to college students' socially responsible leadership.

Methods

This study was a part of a larger study designed to examine the role of undergraduate extracurricular participation in leadership development. Full-time, undergraduate college students classified as seniors in the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences at Iowa State University ($N = 969$) were surveyed. Students over 24 years old were excluded to reduce outliers in the data.

Instrumentation

The researchers designed an on-line questionnaire to meet the research objective. The instrument reflected the conceptual framework and contained three sections: precollegiate characteristics and experiences, collegiate experiences, and community values of leadership.

Precollegiate characteristics and experiences were assessed using both university records and the web-based survey. Demographic and academic information were collected from university records. This information included, gender, race, and high school class rank. The researchers chose to obtain this information from official student records to reduce the length of the online survey and increase the accuracy of demographic data. Additional information about student's high school extra-curricular activities, leadership training experiences, and pre-collegiate leadership self-efficacy was collected via the web-based questionnaire.

Information concerning all three components of the collegiate leadership development model was collected using data obtained from university records and the web-based instrument. Information obtained from students' university records was used to measure classroom experiences. The amount of leadership classes a student had completed at Iowa State University was obtained. In addition cumulative grade point average was used as a measurement of academic success. Curricular experiences were measured based on student participation in a learning community and internship experiences. Students were asked to indicate whether or not they participated in a learning community and internship.

Information about out-of-classroom experiences was gathered via the web-based instrument. Subjects were asked to indicate whether or not they participated in extracurricular organizations, competitive teams, and the Greek system. Based on the responses to these questions, subjects were asked additional questions to learn more about their experiences. Subjects who were involved in these extracurricular activities were given a list of activities and organizations and asked to select the ones in which they participated. This list included college-level clubs that have a seat on the student council, judging or other competitive teams, Student Government, university-related clubs and organizations, social or recreational clubs and organizations, faith- or religious-based organizations, community-based organizations, and the Greek system. "Other" was also included to allow subjects to fill in additional organizations not included on the list. The researchers developed the list with input from current students, academic advisors, and college and university websites. Students were asked to indicate the number of years in which they participated in each activity and their highest level of participation (i.e., 1 = member to 5 = state or national leadership). In addition to extra-curricular organizations, information about leadership training during college was collected. Students were asked to indicate what leadership training activities they had participated in during college.

Community Values of the Social Change Model was the dependent variable for this study. Community Values is described as, "Believing in the process whereby an individual and/or a group become responsibly connected to the community and to society through some activity. Recognizing that members of communities are not independent, but interdependent. Recognizing individuals and groups have responsibility for the welfare of others." (Dugan & Komives, 2007, p. 10). Community Values was measured using the citizenship scale of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS-R2) (National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs, 2009).

Reliability. The reliability of the SRLS-R2 has been established by the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership, which has used the SRLS-R2 with more than 60,000 students (National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs, 2009). Reliability for the SRLS-R2 community values scale was computed for this study using Cronbach's alpha and was .896.

Validity. A panel of professionals comprised of faculty and graduate students with expertise in undergraduate outcomes, extra-curricular experiences, and leadership development reviewed the instrument for validity. Based on the purposes and objectives of the study, these experts provided feedback about the content of the questionnaire. In addition, the instrument was field tested with students similar to those in the sample to establish validity of the instrument. All students on the panel had completed between 60 and 85 credits, which equates to junior status. Based on their feedback, changes to content, question format and data collection procedures were made to improve the validity of the instrument.

Data Collection

Qualtrics (Qualtrics Labs, Inc., Provo, UT), a web-based survey program, was used to collect data because of the program's capabilities to improve the flow of the instrument. Qualtrics uses skip/display logic to customize which questions a subject receives. On the basis of initial responses, a subject was asked additional questions that related to their experiences.

The researchers modified Dillman's (2007) five-step data collection approach on the basis of suggestions from students on the expert panels. The panel suggested that undergraduates would view a pre-notice as junk mail and would be less likely to respond favorably to follow-up e-mails. Therefore, the survey link was included in the first e-mail contact, which also described the purpose of the study and included information about general consent. The distribution list obtained from the university registrar's office contained 969 subjects. Subjects were contacted via e-mail to participate in the study and were sent up to four e-mail reminders inviting them to participate in the study if they had not yet completed the questionnaire. This process resulted in 270 responses (27%), 199 of which were complete for a usable response rate of 20.5%.

Non-response error was controlled using two different methods. First, independent sample *t* tests were used to compare early and late respondents, as suggested by Lindner, Murphy, and Briers (2001). According to this analysis, differences in involvement in extracurricular activities did not exist between early and late respondents. Second, the researchers compared demographics of the population list from university records with demographics of survey respondents. Females, students who entered the university directly from high school, and students with a higher GPA were more likely to respond. Therefore, caution should be used when generalizing beyond those who responded.

Data Analysis

Qualtrics automatically recorded survey results as subjects completed the survey. E-mail addresses were used to match students' university record information with survey results. To ensure confidentiality, all identifying data were removed before developing the spreadsheet for data analysis. SPSS (Version 17) was used to analyze the data.

Hierarchical regression was the primary statistical technique. Variable blocking reflected the conceptual framework and influences from past research. Block one included demographic and precollegiate experiences. Block two consisted of college experiences, including classroom experiences, curricular experiences, and out-of-classroom experiences.

Block one variables. Gender and high school class rank were collected from university records and entered into the regression. Information from the web-based survey was used to assess high school extracurricular activity, precollegiate leadership training, and a self-perception of leadership ability when students entered college. An activity level construct was created by adding the amount of years a student had participated in each activity (i.e., 1 = 1 year, 2 = 2 years, 3 = 3 years, 4 = 4 years, 5 = 5 or more years) with a score for their highest level of involvement (i.e., 1 = member, 2 = committee member, 3 = event or committee chair, 4 = officer or team captain, 5 = state or national leadership). Precollegiate leadership training was calculated by adding together the number of leadership training experiences each subject indicated they had experienced. (i.e., 0 = no leadership training experiences, 2 = 2 leadership training experiences, and 3 = 3 leadership training experiences). Leadership self-perception was measured with a single likert-scale question that asked how students would rate their leadership when they entered college compared to their peers (i.e., 1 = well below average to 5 = well above average.)

Block two variables. Constructs in block two included individual college experiences (i.e., out-of-classroom experiences, classroom experiences, and curricular experiences).

Collegiate classroom experiences were assessed using cumulative grade point and the number of leadership classes in which a student had completed, both obtained through university records. Cumulative university grade point was entered into the regression. University records indicated how many credits of classes identified by the university as a leadership course each student had completed, which was entered into the regression.

Curricular experiences were assessed through internship experiences and learning community participation. Students were asked the number of internship experiences in which they had participated. A summative score was created (i.e., 0 = no internship experiences, 1 = 1 internship experience, 2 = 2 internship experiences, and 3 = 3 internship experiences) and entered in the regression. Learning community participation was measured by a simple dichotomous variable (i.e., 0 = no and 1 = yes).

Extracurricular experiences, leadership training, and participation in the Greek community were used to assess out-of-classroom experiences. An activity level construct was created by adding the amount of years a student had participated in each activity (i.e., 1 = 1 year, 2 = 2 years, 3 = 3 years, 4 = 4 years, 5 = 5 or more years) with a score for their highest level of involvement (i.e., 1 = member, 2 = committee member, 3 = event or committee chair, 4 = officer or team captain, 5 = state or national leadership). Collegiate leadership training was calculated by adding together the number of leadership training experiences each subject indicated they had experienced (i.e., 0 = no leadership training experiences, 2 = 2 leadership training experiences, and 3 = 3 leadership training experiences). Participation in the Greek community was measured by a dichotomous variable (i.e., 0 = no, 1 = yes).

Dependent variable. The community values of the Social Change Model was measured using the SRLS-R2 Citizenship scale. The scale consists of eight likert-type questions that measure the extent to which students believe they are connected to their community and society. In addition, the questions assess to what extent they believe that members of a community are interconnected and that individuals have responsibilities for the wellbeing of others.

Results

Ninety-one (45.7%) males and 108 (54.3%) females responded to this study. All were full-time students and classified as seniors. Ninety-six percent of the respondents indicated they were involved in an extra-curricular activity, including 21% in the Greek system, 95% in extra-curricular clubs and organizations, and 29% in competitive teams. The number of extracurricular clubs and organizations that students reported being involved in ranged from 0 – 11 ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 2.44$) extracurricular clubs and organizations. Females ($M = 3.91$, $SD = 2.29$) were involved in more clubs than males ($M = 2.82$, $SD = 2.48$, $t(197) = -3.198$, $p = .002$). Using a t-test, no differences were found on any of the leadership scales based on gender.

Diagnostic statistics

Diagnostic statistics, including collinearity tolerance, standardized residual histogram, and the normal p-plot of regression standardized residual indicate the variables meet the assumptions of regression analysis. Collinearity tolerance levels ranged from .643 - .970. Because the collinearity statistics indicate tolerance levels well above 0.2, the assumption of no collinearity is met (Field, 2009). The histogram of regression standardized residual (figure 1) indicates a normal distribution. In addition, the normal p-plot of regression standardized residual (figure 2) indicated an acceptable distribution of residuals.

Figure 1.

Regression standardized residual histogram

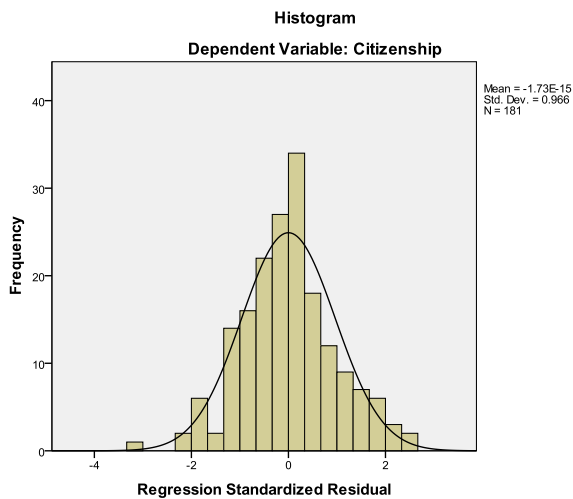
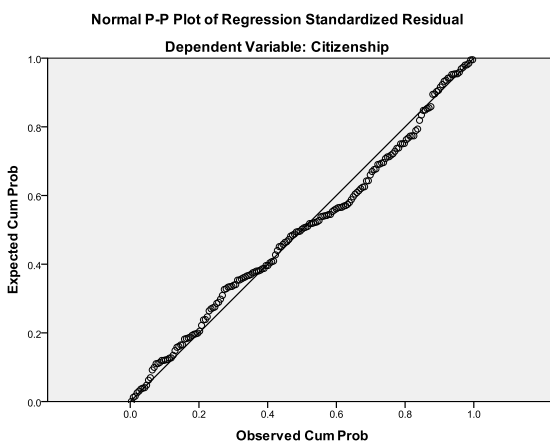


Figure 2.

Normal p-plot of regression standardized residual



Regression Modeling

The first block containing pre-collegiate characteristics and experiences (i.e., pre-collegiate extracurricular involvement, pre-collegiate leadership training, leadership self-perception, high school class rank, and gender) explained 19.8% of the variance of the dependent variable community values. The second block, containing college experiences (i.e., extracurricular involvement, leadership classes completed, leadership training, Greek participation, learning community participation, internships, and cumulative grade point average) increased the explained variance by 12%, explaining 31.8% for the model (Table 1).

Pre-collegiate extra-curricular involvement and gender were the only two significant variables in the first block, which contained pre-collegiate characteristics and experiences. When collegiate experiences were added to the regression, different variables emerged as significant (Table 2). Gender remained a significant predictor in the second model. Several pre-collegiate experiences emerged as significant in the second model (i.e., leadership training, class rank) that were not significant in the first. However, pre-collegiate extracurricular activity was significant in the first model and not in the second. In addition, collegiate experiences were significant in the second model (i.e., extracurricular involvement and Greek involvement).

Table 1

Regression model summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig F Change
1	.445 ^a	.198	.176	3.56163	.198	8.664	5	175	.000
2	.564 ^b	.318	.270	3.35231	.120	4.220	7	168	.000

Note. ^a. Predictors: (Constant), gender, precollegiate leadership training, high school class rank, leadership self-perception, precollegiate extracurricular involvement.

^b. Predictors: (Constant), gender, precollegiate leadership training, high school class rank, leadership self-perception, precollegiate extracurricular involvement, college leadership classes completed, Greek involvement, learning community involvement, internships, college leadership training, cumulative GPA, and collegiate extracurricular involvement.

Table 2

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
1 (Constant)	27.379	1.558		17.570	.000
HS extracurricular involv	.072	.021	.284	3.466	.001*
HS leadership training	.431	.262	.131	1.648	.101
Leadership self perception	.205	.328	.046	.626	.532
HS class rank	-.006	.010	-.047	-.660	.510
Gender	1.706	.541	.216	3.157	.002*

2 (Constant)	25.007	2.076		12.045	.000
HS extracurricular involv	.034	.021	.133	1.586	.115
HS leadership training	.580	.255	.176	2.277	.024*
Leadership self-perception	.181	.313	.041	.578	.564
HS class rank	-.023	.011	-.169	-2.216	.028*
Gender	1.705	.535	.215	3.189	.002*
College extracurricular involv	.071	.032	.206	2.216	.028*
College leadership training	-.278	.353	-.057	-.787	.433
College leadership classes	.506	.488	.069	1.038	.301
Greek involvement	2.160	.682	.220	3.169	.002*
Learning community	.424	.529	.054	.802	.424
Internship	-.055	.263	-.015	-.210	.834
Cumulative GPA	.955	.514	.139	1.858	.065

Note. * $p \leq .05$

Conclusions

This study revealed that both precollegiate and collegiate experiences help explain differences in community values of leadership. In addition to the model being significant, the change between model one, containing demographic and precollegiate experiences, and the second model, which added collegiate experience, was significant. The findings of this study are consistent with Dugan and Komives (2010) who concluded that college experiences were influential in each of the scales of the socially responsible leadership instrument. In addition to the importance of the significance of the overall model, several individual variables were noteworthy.

Extracurricular participation was an important predictor of the citizenship scale of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale in this study. Precollegiate extracurricular activity was the most significant predictor when only demographics and pre-collegiate experiences were analyzed. When collegiate experiences were added to the analysis, college extracurricular activities were significant and however high school extracurricular activities were not.

The involvement construct for this model included both the number of organizations a student was a member of as well as their highest level of participation, making it relevant to compare the findings of this study with previous research that has studied the impact of holding a positional leadership role. The findings of this study are consistent with other studies that concluded that students who held an office showed increased leadership development (Astin, 1984; Cooper et al., 1994; Ewing et al., 2009; Kuh, 1985; Rubin et al., 2002). Dugan (2006) found that undergraduate students who served as positional leaders scored higher on the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS-R2) group values scale and the SRLS-R2 societal values scale.

Pre-collegiate leadership training did not emerge as a significant predictor in this study in the first model that included demographics and pre-collegiate experiences. When collegiate experiences were added, college leadership training experiences were not significant. However, precollegiate leadership training did emerge as a significant predictor in the second model. Similar to Haber and Komives (2009) who found

leadership training and education were not significant in predicting individual values of social change, classroom education was not a significant predictor of leadership in this study. This is inconsistent with other studies who have reported a positive relationship between leadership training programs and leadership (Cress et al., 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Posner, 2009). In addition, Dugan and Komives (2010) reported moderate term leadership training as a significant predictor of the citizenship scale. This study did not measure the duration, content, or quality of the leadership training which may account for inconsistent findings.

Although females were more likely to respond to this study and caution should be taken in interpreting the results related to gender, gender was a significant variable in both models. Based on the multi-institutional study of leadership, Dugan and Komives (2007) found females scored higher than males on each of the scales of the socially responsible leadership scales, except change. In addition, Haber and Komives (2009) reported a similar trend. Involvement in community organizations was a significant predictor of leadership development for females.

Implications and Recommendations

A limitation of this study was that data were collected at one College of Agriculture and Life Science at a fairly homogeneous institution. In spite of this limitation, the analysis offers insights for other institutions who aspire to increase student leadership outcomes. Leadership development is an important outcome of the college student experience. Results of this study are consistent with previous research (Birkenholz & Schumacher, 1994; Ewing et al., 2009; Layfield et al., 2000) on the importance of participating in extracurricular clubs and organizations. Involvement in these activities has a strong relationship with leadership development, and institutions should include the role of extracurricular activities as they develop action plans for reaching leadership development outcomes. Additional research is recommended to identify specific characteristics or activities of extracurricular involvement that are most likely to increase leadership outcomes. This information would be very valuable as educators work with student leaders to create meaningful experiences.

A significant gap exists between leadership theory and practice (Dugan & Komives, 2007). To reduce this gap, institutions of higher education and perhaps the individual colleges within those institutions should adopt a conceptual framework for developing and assessing leadership outcomes that includes curricular, classroom, and extracurricular components. Astin's (1999) involvement theory supports the need for increased engagement both inside and outside the classroom. Astin (1984) describes an involved student as one who "devotes considerable energy to studying, spends much time on campus, participates actively in student organizations, and interacts frequently with faculty members and other students" (p. 518).

Institutions of higher education should develop and maintain a culture in which extracurricular participation is valued as more than a social function and not seen as competing with academic work. The results of this study indicate that CALS at Iowa State University has a culture that values involvement in extracurricular activities and could serve as a model for other colleges. Students who responded to this study reported a high extracurricular activity level. Ninety-six percent of respondents indicated they were involved in an extracurricular activity, including 21% in the Greek system, 95% in extracurricular clubs and organizations, and 29% in competitive teams.

Involvement in extracurricular clubs and organizations influenced the level of leadership. The findings of this study indicated that extracurricular participation was an important predictor of community values. Precollegiate extracurricular activity was the most significant predictor when only demographics and precollegiate experiences were analyzed. Therefore, extracurricular involvement at the secondary level should be encouraged because it helps prepare students for collegiate experiences. When these students arrive on campus, they should be encouraged to get involved in extracurricular activities because the findings of this study would indicate that collegiate extracurricular activities were significant at predicting leadership outcomes. Thus, the leadership skills and development that occurs during undergraduate student experiences has a significant impact on actual leadership development.

Similar to Haber and Komives (2009) who found leadership training and education were not significant in predicting individual values of social change, classroom education and collegiate leadership training did not influence leadership outcomes in this study. However, the high correlations between leadership training and other factors may be affecting their influence in the regression model of this study. For example, high school training and high school extracurricular participation were correlated ($r = .487$) as were college extracurricular participation and college leadership training ($r = .398$) and high school leadership training and college extracurricular participation ($r = .318$). Additional analysis should be completed to learn more about the relationships between these high school and college experiences and their influences on leadership development.

Although many studies have reported a positive relationship between leadership training programs and leadership outcomes (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Posner, 2009) and Dugan and Komives (2010) concluded that moderate term leadership training was a significant predictor of the citizenship scale, this study did not measure the content or quality of the leadership training. These two factors may help explain why leadership education did not influence leadership outcomes. Additional research is needed to determine the content and quality of the leadership training that is most likely to increase leadership outcomes.

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Business Without the Math: Competing Discourses and the Struggle to Develop an Undergraduate Leadership Program

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Introduction

In the last generation, U.S.-based postsecondary programs and courses designed to develop leaders and leadership skills have shown remarkable growth (Dugan & Komives, 2007). In the years following the 1992 launch of the inaugural undergraduate leadership degree in the U.S. (Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt, & Arensorf, 2006), researchers have estimated that the number of leadership programs offered in the U.S. exceeds 1000 (Scot, 2004 cited in Dugan & Komives, 2007; Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003). The International Leadership Association (ILA) website, for instance, lists over 100 leadership programs associated with U.S. universities (<http://www.ila-net.org/Resources/LPD/Index2.asp>). As a field of study, leadership cuts a broad swath through the educational landscape of the U.S. By comparison, undergraduate leadership education in the Canadian postsecondary context is fairly new and very modest in scale. In the last ten years only two undergraduate leadership degree programs have emerged within the Canadian university system. Those two early programs remain the only undergraduate leadership degree programs in Canada. Although the number of graduate degrees in leadership offered by Canadian universities is slightly higher, those numbers can still be counted in the low double digits (Henein & Morissette, 2007). While there is widespread recognition of the importance of building leadership capacity in Canada (Conference Board of Canada, 2004), the development of postsecondary leadership degree opportunities for students in Canada is still in its infancy with, at least one of the programs, struggling for survival. In the worst case scenario, at least one of the undergraduate leadership education programs in Canada runs the risk of meeting the fate of early U.S. programs, specifically “fad[ing] away” (Greenwald, 2010).

The situation facing undergraduate leadership education in Canada provides a rich opportunity to explore the factors shaping leadership education’s struggle to gain traction and credibility in a context that, on the one hand recognizes the importance of the discipline, but on the other struggles to affirm its place in postsecondary education. The current paper presents a case study of the complex array of internal and external factors that challenge the development and delivery of an undergraduate leadership program. The paper considers the role of political and economic factors, stakeholder views towards liberal arts education, and discourses of postsecondary corporatization and careerism as factors shaping opportunities and roadblocks for undergraduate leadership program development in Canada. Strategies adopted to resist roadblocks and enable survival are also presented.

Literature Review and Context

The leadership program under study was developed in, and continues to operate against, a complex backdrop of external factors, including debate regarding the viability and merits of a liberal arts education, the careerist orientation of students, the corporatization of postsecondary education, and the merits of postsecondary leadership education in general. To understand some of the challenges facing the program, the paper considers the contextual backdrop of the program.

Liberal arts education and leadership: Influence of government funding and careerism. Leadership programs are often embedded in, or associated with, liberal arts education, which by design is a strong complement to the goals of leadership development. A liberal arts education, by covering diverse topics including social factors, science, culture and contemporary issues from a number of different perspectives (Wren, Riggio, & Genovese, 2009), is designed to prepare students to actively engage in modern society in such a way that they will be sensitive to the past, but able to deal with the changing future and the more ambiguous aspects of everyday life (Barker, 2000; Wren et al., 2009). In recent years, discussions and debates have emerged regarding the place of a liberal arts education within universities. Canadian governments, for instance, have begun directing funding away from the liberal arts, and into the science, technology, engineering, and mathematics disciplines – disciplines that have more obvious utility in the workplace (Cote & Allahar, 2011).

There is evidence that governments and the public (parents, prospective students and employers) have shown increased support for applied programs, such as business, teaching, information technology, and health studies, as a path towards career specific employment (Groarke, 2009). In a 1999 study, nearly 75% of first year students suggested that their decision to go to college/university was based on the increased potential for employment and increased financial prospects. In the same survey, 68% planned to enroll in an applied (pre-professional or technical) program versus 28% that planned to enroll in a liberal arts program (Barker, 2000).

The changing focus and understanding of postsecondary education is also marked by changes in discursive practices, many of which reflect a growing careerist orientation. This shift in discourse can be seen in government priorities and university recruiting materials. In 1999, the provincial government of Ontario, led by the Progressive Conservative party under the leadership of Premier Mike Harris, opened a new session of the legislative assembly stating:

As more people seek specialized skills and knowledge, your government will work with Ontario's post-secondary institutions to plan for increased demand.....Your government believes that students deserve to graduate with the skills and the knowledge they need to get jobs. It will expand the number of college and university courses with direct job links. And it will start measuring and publishing job placement results for graduates of all college and university programs (Hansard, 1999).

A careerist orientation is also evident in university recruitment materials. On the recruitment website of the university under study, for instance, number four of the top ten reasons to attend the university is the “co-op and career centre advantage.” Through co-operative education and the career centre, students purportedly have an edge at starting their careers when they finish their degree. Potential students are also lured with the statement that our university’s “grads get jobs, with 97.7% of our recent graduates securing employment within six months after graduating, [our] employment rates are among the highest in the province.”

Corporatization of postsecondary education. The corporatization of postsecondary education has also been the focus of attention in recent years (Aronowitz, 2001; Chomsky, 2011; Clay, 2008; Steck, 2003). The adoption of corporate models of efficiency, ROI metrics, cost savings through the use of part-time and non-tenure track positions, and the increasing involvement of corporate-sponsored activities, endowments, and infrastructure projects has, in many cases, influenced the discourse within postsecondary institutions. Students as clients is just one such example.

Poor economic times have also led to changes in the discourse of Canadian universities. Canadian universities are, for the most part, public institutions funded by the government through the taxpayers. As taxes increase, incomes stagnate or decrease, and the demand for social services increases, the public expects universities to provide tangible and immediate results with the funding they receive. Pursuing ideas for the sake of the idea itself is not acceptable in a results-oriented environment in which university administration is expected to run their institution as a business. As universities are organizations, business strategies have been slowly introduced in an attempt to find greater financial and resource efficiencies. Slowly, the idea of the university as a business-like organization has been morphing towards the idea that a university is a business. More clearly, our universities are becoming corporations (Cote & Allahar, 2011).

Business, both as a field of undergraduate study and as a strategic orientation to post-secondary education, has served to influence our understanding of, and shape opportunities in, postsecondary education (Blewitt, 2010; Fairclough, 1993). Parker (2007: 2) suggests that postsecondary institutions are undergoing a “corporatisation of university structures and cultures, along with the commercialisation of their missions, objectives and strategies.” Parker (2007: 4) further suggests that, from a neo-institutional theoretical perspective, “organisations pursue legitimacy, approval and funding from their general environment and culture (social, economic, political and institutional) and from organisations and constituents key to their survival and prosperity” (Euske and Euske, 1991; Fogarty, 1996; Stone, 1991). In a parallel, if more micro way, managerialist discourses that focus on efficiency, effectiveness, goal attainment, and profitability serve to define the activities that are valued and rewarded at the individual and organizational levels (Mills & Simmons, 1999). With respect to universities, “...modern institutions of higher education have been caught in a tension between the ideals of a classical pedagogy, in which knowledge and learning are ends in themselves, and the demands of government and business for utilitarian relevance” (Cunliffe, Forray, & Knights, 2002: 490). Recent research suggests that students are also increasingly focused on the instrumental or utilitarian value of their studies. Business students, for instance, have been labeled as “careerist to the core,” driven by a quest to determine the career potential of their degrees (Galt, 2010).

It is against this contextual backdrop that the case study of the challenges and opportunities facing one undergraduate leadership program is analyzed.

Method

The analytic foundation for the current paper is discourse analysis, both descriptive and critical. Discourse analysis facilitates the exploration of the ways in which issues come to be understood, represented and co-constructed by individuals (Wood & Kroger, 2000). Discourse analysis provided a means to assess how language, both ours as well as that of institutions and broader society, was invoked to construct identities and priorities.

By incorporating a critical perspective, the analysis allows us to reveal the ways in which the language of business acts as a prevailing and overshadowing discourse in our struggle to establish a successful undergraduate leadership degree. Through our critical perspective we were able to examine how certain organizational meanings, such as the idea of a university degree as a job credential, have become privileged over others, such as the idea of a university degree as an indication of well-rounded knowledge and critical-thinking capacities. As certain meanings are privileged over others, these meanings become reified within their discourse (Hardy, 2001). Those meanings that become privileged and reified then hold power over other meanings, potentially leading to inequality and injustice. It is in our everyday use of a particular discourse that we produce and maintain that power (Mumby & Clair, 1997).

Our analysis involved reading and re-reading the texts informally, as is common in qualitative research where the text itself is in a subsidiary or complementary role (Perakyla, 2005). We analyzed the text as a representation of the discourses in which we are embedded.

Data

The data included faculty reflections and discussions about the program, as well as recommendations included in the program review report. All five faculty members of the leadership program authored a reflection of their experiences in developing, delivering, and sustaining the leadership program. Reflections ranged from 883 to 2369 words in length. The authors of this paper had much dialogue around the viability of the leadership program, as it went through its provincially-mandated seven year external review process, and as its viability was being questioned extensively by senior administration. This dialogue, some digital-audio recorded and some recorded in notes, was also analyzed. The program review included a provincially mandated external assessment of the program conducted at the seven year mark of the program. The external reviewers included faculty and senior academic members of outside institutions. The external reviewers prepared a report based on a site visit and interviews, as well as an analysis of extensive written documentation regarding the philosophy, statistics, and curriculum information regarding the program.

Analysis

Through analysis of the textual samples under review, four major themes emerged: creating a space – mandates and roadblocks; creating an identity – innovation and isomorphism; creating traction – pedagogy and pragmatism; and creating a future – sustainability and uncertainty. Each of these themes will be considered in turn. As will be shown, all phases of the leadership program's development have been shaped by the power and influence of the previously identified contextual discourses.

The program under study is an undergraduate Leadership program that has been running for eight years at the satellite campus of a comprehensive Canadian university. The satellite campus, which welcomed its first group of students in September 1999, was developed as an innovative liberal arts and interdisciplinary campus. It is located approximately 50 kilometres from the original campus, and the original campus has recently celebrated its 100th anniversary as a university.

Creating a Space: Mandates and Roadblocks.

Since the early 2000s there has been almost constant pressure on the satellite campus faculty, from all levels of the university administration, to develop new academic programs. In our particular case, the development of the leadership program was faced with both opportunities and challenges. A leadership program was deemed to be a good fit with the emerging mission of the university, “Inspiring Lives of Leadership and Purpose,” as well as the goals of the satellite campus that houses the program. At the same time, however, any new academic programs had to be developed in such a way that existing programs at the original campus were not duplicated, nor perceived to be duplicated.

According to one faculty member’s reflection, the new program’s development was marked by several mandates:

From the beginning of this initiative, we were faced with several challenges: first, the program could not encroach on other existing [original campus] programs (including the business program); then the program was to attract a large number of students in order to contribute to the growth of the [satellite] campus created only four years before (1999).... we also needed to position the program and to bring the administration on board.

According to another faculty member:

The desire for innovative programming was driven, in part, by an institutional understanding that programming at the satellite campus would not duplicate existing programming offered at the “main” campus. Protectionism and territorial stances were strongly asserted despite the fact that the main campus was well-established (it was approximately 90 years old at the time), geographically distinct from the satellite campus (approximately 55 kilometers away), and in a well-established, fairly affluent community marked by two universities and a burgeoning high tech community. In contrast, the satellite campus was started in a smaller city that was trying to emerge from economically depressed conditions that had plagued the city for more than two decades. These early years marked the beginning of an identity challenge for the program. What is it – an alternative to business or business-lite, or something else?

Evident from these excerpts and the text presented in this section is the complex mix of pedagogical, administrative, and financial factors that served as a backdrop to the development of the leadership program. One impetus for starting a leadership program had been to foster growth at the satellite campus by tapping in to the large numbers of students looking for a business education. University administration was firmly committed to rapidly growing the campus, and to do so were accepting, and thereby maintaining and promoting, the growing hegemony of the discourse of undergraduate university education as a career credential.

The external context delivered its own set of challenges. Unlike the United States, leadership as an academic program at the undergraduate level is not well established in Canada. This is despite the fact that reports such as the 2004 Conference Board of Canada report clearly noted that leadership skills were in demand. Yet our program was only the second undergraduate leadership program in Canada and the first in the province of Ontario. No new leadership undergraduate programs have been created in the intervening years.

In this context, we needed to design a program that fit the general trend of undergraduate leadership programs, tailored and marketable to Canadian high school students, and also fit the constraints imposed by our university. The leadership program development team¹ upheld the vision, based on demonstrated research, that leadership programs should be multidisciplinary by nature, and that courses from different disciplines (sociology, psychology, organizational studies, business, communication, industrial studies and so on) would be integral to its content. They believed in the importance of leadership education and hoped that, besides teaching technical skills, a liberal arts education would contribute to developing discerning citizens and leaders (Wren et al., 2009). Their main goal was to develop a program that would prepare students not only to understand the concept and practice of leadership, but also to prepare them to understand the reality of different types of organizations and develop their own leadership potential. As stated by Huber (2002: 25), “the goals of leadership education should be to provide opportunities for people to learn the skills, attitudes, and concepts necessary to become effective leaders.” From Watt (2003: 13), “educators must develop leadership studies programs that prepare students to deal with the reality of a diverse world so they are able to handle constant change as they lead in the 21st century.” Regardless of governmental policy direction or the common public perception of a liberal arts education, the vast majority of leadership theories support the importance of the relationship between the formal and informal study of a liberal arts curriculum and the growth of leadership skills (Muhlenfeld, 2009). It was clear that the founding values were consistent with a liberal arts orientation.

Many different models of leadership programs were explored. As a team responsible for designing and developing the program, we had to work from several questions similar to Hosford’s program development model (1993, cited by Watt, 2003): What will be the goals of the program? Will the program be vocational, technical, professional, or liberal arts? Who will be the clientele, and how do we target it? How do we best integrate experiential learning into the program? The most important question that interested the institution was: will the program be cost effective for the institution?

Initially, the name Organizational Leadership was chosen for the program because it was a commonly used name by leadership programs in the United States. Also, a number of conceptual similarities existed between organizational theory and leadership studies. According to Parry (2011), organizational theory represents a broad body of knowledge including strategy, power, teams, structure, innovation, context and organizational culture, and leaders should be formally constituted as part of a formal organizational structure. Among programs listed on the website of the International Leadership Association (ILA), more than half were called Organizational Leadership, and in the study by Brungardt et al. (2006), ten out of fifteen degree programs named their major Organizational Leadership. Choosing an organizational leadership framework to develop the program was also supported by the fact that leadership and organizational change are intertwined (Watt, 2003). The isomorphism of the emerging program with extant leadership programs also provided grounds for credibility in the field of leadership education.

From its launch, the identity of the leadership program was aligned – and potentially overshadowed – in stakeholders’ minds with elements of business education. This was problematic. The need for distinctiveness was marked by imperatives (e.g., “could not encroach”; “would not duplicate,” “was not to open”). The term “encroach,” with its connotation of impinging on the rights of others,

¹ One of the paper’s authors was a member of the original team.

captures the strength of the situation facing the leadership program vis a vis the business program at the “main” campus. The second excerpt ramped up the concerns over business education ownership with the strident terms “protectionism” and “territorialism.” The leadership program was driven to be innovative in its course offerings and programming, in part, by roadblocks of what it could not be. University education as a path to a job could not be seen at the satellite campus as a business program, and so administration hoped to recontextualize it as a leadership program. To do so, the leadership program needed to be distinct enough from business that it did not threaten the original campus, yet similar enough to business that it attracted students looking for a business education. This, as will be seen in a later section of analysis, became somewhat problematic.

Creating an Identity: Innovation and Isomorphism

While the program was designed in accordance with other leadership programs in the United States, there was no tradition of undergraduate leadership programs in Canada, nor were there enough alumni that could help build the recognition and reputation of the program. Defining the program to young, freshly graduated high school students was challenging. During open houses, the parents of our prospective students found the program more relatable than their university-bound offspring. This increased the pressure on the full-time faculty of the program to find ways to redefine it, increase the enrollment, and keep it alive.

Two years after its introduction, the program was not able to reach the projected recruitment targets. The average number of applications to the program was around twenty students a year, far from the fifty or more projected by the administration. This raised new sets of questions: How can we make the program more attractive to high school graduates who are more concerned with finding a job after their degree? How do we increase the applicant pool for a program that is not well established in Canada as a field of studies? What should be a reasonable size to run a viable undergraduate leadership program?

While being innovative provides opportunities for program development, it is not always an easy posture to maintain, as noted in the following excerpt:

There is also a lack of awareness about leadership undergraduate degrees in general, and [our] Leadership program in particular. Since becoming a faculty member here, every single person who has asked me where I work has responded “Leadership? What’s a Leadership degree?” And, to be honest, I don’t have a good enough answer to that question. I usually respond that it’s like a management degree, but with a greater focus on leadership and less on business. Leadership is extremely popular right now in the media, in the academic literature, and in organizations – where “being a leader” is often a qualification for getting a job. We should be capitalizing on that popularity to attract good students to our program, but no one knows that we exist.

Given how relatively new the campus was when the leadership program was launched, together with how uncommon an undergraduate leadership degree was, and continues to be in Canada, overcoming the hurdle of awareness was a significant issue for an innovative program and it presented real challenges to meeting one of the original points of the mandate – program growth. The use of the extreme case formulation “every single person who has asked me...has responded ‘Leadership? What is a leadership degree?’” emphasizes the lack of familiarity with this type of degree. Discursively positioning the leadership program with the simile of “it’s like a management

degree” demonstrates the power of the term “management degree” as a recognizable degree, but also reinforces the role of business education as a legitimizing term and a hegemonic discourse. Interestingly, when leadership program faculty compare the leadership degree to a business degree to gain legitimacy, we reinforce the hegemonic nature of the business discourse.

While students, employers and organizations may not be familiar with what a leadership degree is, there is broad familiarity with degrees in business and commerce. As a result, response to failed innovation becomes isomorphic. In attempts to gain recognition and increase enrollment numbers, the leadership program has begun more closely aligning itself with a business degree, and moving away from its liberal arts foundation. Faculty members felt the pressure of trying to run an undergraduate program amidst the struggle of two competing discourses. We understood and supported the campus-wide focus on a liberal arts education, and yet at the same time we also, as well as administration, wanted to see our program grow, and we would have liked to see our graduates move on to interesting and engaging careers. The much more powerful, hegemonic discourse of university education as job training has merits that we acknowledge, and with we struggle amongst ourselves as to which university education discourse we feel we should perpetuate.

Creating Traction: Pedagogy and Pragmatism

Decisions about pedagogy for some elements of the leadership programming were influenced and shaped by pragmatic concerns for student employment after graduation:

...are we here to provide students with a foundational education based mainly in theory and critical thinking, or are we here to prepare them for a job? It seems that students and their parents are mainly focused on a university education as a path to a good-paying job when the degree is completed, and that what is learned during the degree is of little value unless it can be put on a resume. If that’s the case, then a Leadership degree would appear to be of little value to undergraduate students, as they will not be moving from university directly into a formal, paid leadership position. What tangible job skills does our program provide?

Similarly, another faculty member noted that:

We are therefore at a point where we are thinking about injecting some ‘legitimacy’ into the program by adding in more recognizable business courses. We feel that this may not only attract more quality students but also help our students secure jobs in the marketplace.

Concerns for post-degree employment held by many external stakeholders (e.g., parents and students) creates uncertainty regarding the program’s viability. The careerism discourse establishes a tension between a leadership program with a liberal arts orientation and one with a business orientation. “Legitimacy” is tied to the presence of business education. By default, then, non-business education is in the category of “non-legitimate” programming. Pedagogy also includes concerns regarding the approach to managing the program. Should it be a large program or a boutique program? As noted in the following excerpt, these discussions are driven by growth models:

Ideally, we would like to have run this program as an elite boutique program. However, attracting top students has been a challenge and we have also had to deal with pressures from administration to grow the program.

It was becoming clear that the corporatization discourse was driving pedagogy.

Beyond faculty comments regarding pedagogy, faculty also report on student comments regarding business education in the leadership program:

The Leadership program also struggles with the fact that many of its students in fact wanted to earn a business undergrad degree but didn't have the grades to be accepted. ... students regularly identified one of the weaknesses of the leadership program as not having enough business content.

In addition, faculty members commented on pedagogy and student employability post graduation. Their comments are included in the following two excerpts:

Social work students graduate and become social workers, or at least that is the direction their academic education is designed to take them in. Education students graduate and become teachers and business students graduate to work in the business world. The latter group would presumably look for jobs in their area of specialty (i.e., accounting, marketing, economics etc.) in a similar way that the education students stream towards the primary/junior or junior/intermediate divisions. On the other hand, Leadership students graduate and become 'leaders'?

Graduates from a Leadership program, would presumably be ready to take on Leadership roles and continue to develop their Leadership skills and capacities. The problem however, is two-fold. First, few students will graduate and immediately be hired into traditional leadership positions. Second, while social work, teaching, accounting etc. are defined areas with defined job prospects, Leadership is a philosophy, an orientation or at the very least, a quality that isn't just limited to a defined area. After all, look in the job ads and there just doesn't seem to be a category for "Leadership."

Several initiatives were then taken to address the recruitment issue in an attempt to keep the program alive. In 2006/2007, the program name was changed from Organizational Leadership to Leadership. The leadership program also developed an articulation agreement with a Human Resources Management program at a local community college. Designed to give the students additional market recognized credentials, the articulation agreement in effect further aligned the leadership program with business-related credentialing and reinforces the themes of careerism and the hegemony of business and business-related education.

The change of name did not help increase the numbers, and later on we realized that the first cohort of students graduating with the name Leadership (rather than Organizational Leadership) did not like the new name as it was not "businessy" enough, to use the word of a student. These complaints from the students were the first realization for faculty that many leadership students enrolled in the program because of the university's recontextualization of the leadership degree as a 'kind of business degree' had worked, to a certain extent. The leadership program did not require high school math for entrance, nor did it require any courses in economics, finance, or accounting. The

extreme importance of math to a business degree notwithstanding, these students perceived that the word organizational in the program name gave it legitimacy as a business degree. Indeed, amongst some students and faculty, the program was commonly referred to as “business without the math.” With the removal of organizational from the name, students worried that their degree would be associated with leadership degrees in the recreation and leisure studies discipline, not business. Even though faculty in the leadership program were working to provide a quality liberal arts degree, students were coming to the program, and agitating for, as close to a business degree as they could get.

The addition of business programming available to Leadership (and other) students through an Administration Option highlights the perceived power by students and their parents of business education as a route to employment. The Administration Option included a range of business courses - all of which were offered through the business school. This meant that all course-related material (e.g., outlines, textbooks, faculty appointments) were under the control of the business school. As a result, elements of the leadership programming available to students were now becoming isomorphic with business programming. While the strategy of injecting business programming is driven by pragmatic implications, it speaks to the power of business education in shaping perceptions. The alignment of the term “legitimacy” with “business” programming implies that the non-business programming is “illegitimate.”

Creating a Future: Sustainability and Uncertainty

Seven years after the inaugural year of the program, the leadership program was still hounded by questions of sustainability and viability, questions of careerism, and questions pertaining to leadership’s relationship to business education.

The issue of sustainability in relation to the number of students, the skills transferred through these undergraduate programs so students can play a leadership role, is a key dimension to leadership education research these days. One of the questions that interests us here is, whether a student graduating from an undergraduate leadership program will acquire enough skills to be functional and work ready within an organization?

As previously mentioned, the program recently went through a mandatory full program review. The first two recommendations of the review committee pointed to the steadily increasing ties between business and leadership education. One recommendation suggested that the program become “Management and Leadership”. The other recommendation pointed to development of a Management Option. From a careerist lens, the reviewers also noted that the program should promote the “...types of jobs, careers, and postgraduate studies it can lead to.” Other comments from the reviewers helped explore new ways to make the program more appealing to high school students while at the same time reinforcing many of the contextual discourses surrounding the program. New sets of questions were raised amongst both faculty and administration:

Do we forge an alliance with the incoming business program and what would that alliance look like? Where do we see our program in the next five years? Will it be a stream or concentration in the business program? Will it be a Masters level program? Will it be an option? Will it cease to exist? We also have to deal with the enrollment issue? How can we market the program which could be characterized as “elite” as

opposed to a catchall program? Do we just lower the entrance average and let more students in even if they don't necessarily want to be here? I think that in order to address any of these questions we first need to better understand who WE want to be...

The 2010/2011 academic year was particularly tumultuous for the leadership program. Numerous discussions were held as to the immediate viability of the program. Proposals were developed for major changes to the program in the hope of attracting a greater number of students. University administration began the process of convincing the business school housed at the original campus to agree to offer its programming at the satellite campus as well. What seemed to be the imminent termination of the program was abruptly stopped as the 2011/2012 enrollment numbers reflected an increase of over 300% compared to the previous year due to the administration's decision to offer alternative offers to students who were not accepted into their program of choice.

Conclusions/Implications

As Greenwald (2010) noted, "When leadership programs were first developed and introduced on campuses 20 years ago, they were at best marginal to the college or university's mission. They were situated in centers led by charismatic personalities.. [they] tried to carve out an academic home and to make a discipline out of leadership. But they were not taken seriously by the academic community, and many faded from view." This paper attempts to identify the factors that shaped and continues to shape the life of one leadership program.

The development of the leadership program under study was, and is still, clearly confronted with the larger discourse surrounding the role of universities, academic programs, liberal arts education, and business education. Universities today are preoccupied with cost effectiveness and the desire to grow the intake of students. Under this pressure of increasing the number of students, we are exploring a better integration of the leadership program with management to respond to the work-readiness that university programs are under pressure to deliver. The market or job-driven education model that characterizes our system forces us to be proactive if we do not want to wholly succumb to the dominant discourse. As leadership educators in Canada, our role is to steer the discipline forward and to work on a long-term strategy for establishing the field of leadership studies. This role is, in part, driven by a strong belief in the wide ranging benefits of undergraduate leadership education. Research suggests that the early introduction of leadership education to first year undergrads has the potential to have a positive impact on leadership behaviours of students in their senior years of study (c.f., Posner, 2009) and potentially long-term influences on individual, organizational and community engagement and awareness (Black, Metzler, & Waldrum, 2006). Other researchers suggest that leadership programs establish the capacity for a "leadership culture in society" (Ayman, Adams, Fischer, & Hartman, 2003: 220). The demise of undergraduate leadership programs could have a notable detrimental effect on the development of leadership capacity in organizations and communities.

Identifying a strategy to realize the vision of a strong undergraduate leadership program is less clear-cut. Our original vision of the leadership program as an interdisciplinary, liberal arts degree still has proponents within our leadership faculty and is in line with the perspective of some researchers exploring leadership development models (Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003). We, as faculty members, however, are not immune to the conflicting discourses in which we find ourselves. As we make the decision in the coming months to either remain a liberal arts degree, or to align ourselves with the university's business faculty, we are aware of the role we play in the

struggle between the discourses of university education as liberal arts education versus vocational training. If we choose to align our program with the business school, we perpetuate and strengthen the hegemonic discourse, while also better situating our students for careers. If we choose to remain as a liberal arts degree, we join the resistant discourse, and risk our program being cut for lack of numbers. If the program is cut, the hegemonic discourse will have perpetuated and strengthened itself in spite of us. There is no easy answer, and both individually and as a faculty we continue to struggle with what is the best way forward for our leadership program, in terms of ourselves, our students, our university, and the greater discourse of university education. Overarching our views is the staunch belief, that as Greenwald (2010, online). recently noted, “Today’s students need leadership training like never before.”

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Student Educational Responsibility: An Emotional Case Study in Leadership Education

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Introduction/ Literature Review

For decades, researchers have necessitated the need for universities to assist students in developing skills and attitudes associated with success in an interconnected and interdependent world (Carlson & Widaman, 1988). This is especially true within the corporate sector where there seems to be a shortage of global leaders (Moore, Boyd, Rosser, & Elbert, 2009). In the corporate arena, the ability to relate to and interact with diverse cultures is often a pre-requisite for global employment (Pierce & Newstrom, 2000). Developing cross-cultural skills not only enhances one's intercultural sensitivity, or the ability to live and work with others from diverse backgrounds, but also increases their social competence within diverse societies (Harris, Moran & Moran, 2004; Landis & Bhagat, 1996). In order for universities to produce globally competitive students, they must provide international experiences that shape global and cultural understanding (Moore, Boyd, Rosser, & Elbert, 2009).

Several post-secondary institutions have addressed these concerns by implementing courses that enhance students' cross-cultural skills and global understanding (Connell, 2003; Kitsantas, 2004; Larsen, 2004). However, the facilitation of these courses differs from institution to institution. For instance, some instructors design international experiences to enhance student civic awareness through specific historic events such as the Holocaust (Clyde, 2010). Others use the opportunity to assist international communities through service-learning (Tonkin & Quiroga, 2004; Prins & Webster, 2010). Regardless of the instructional facilitation, these courses were intended to develop student cultural and interpersonal skills within an international context.

Sometimes leadership development can occur through exposure to other cultures on the domestic front. Gibson, Rimmington and Landwehr-Brown (2008) incorporated global learning into their internationally-focused course. Global learning is defined as a "...social constructivist learning activity that involves experiential and project-based learning." (p. 13). This learner-centered approach allowed participants to develop leadership skills and knowledge associated with global awareness, citizenship and culture while still remaining in their home countries.

In another example, faculty at the University of Utah developed an innovative program designed to connect students on their campus with the world (Lehman, 2009). The International Leadership Academy (ILA) integrates globalization into a class that provides students with conceptual skills and knowledge necessary to lead successfully within the global market. As part of their leadership skill development, interaction within the ILA subjects students to competing theories and concepts of international leadership, furthering their international exposure.

In general, research examining international courses supports the idea that global exposure and immersion can be an effective way for students to acquire cultural understanding and cross-cultural leadership skills (Brooks, Frick, & Bruening, 2006; Earnest, 2003; Jenkins, 2002). However, while international courses have proven to be beneficial in enhancing international leadership development, student response toward foreign environments can vary. In fact, students who are exposed to foreign cultures often exhibit visceral emotional reactions (King & Young, 1994). Depending on their experience, student reactions can range from negative to positive and vary in magnitude (Van Der Meid, 2003). Emotions, deeply woven into the human psyche, play a key role in how individuals perceive and experience new cultures (Baños, Botella, Alcañiz, Liaño, Guerrero, & Rey, 2004).

Emotions are intertwined with student learning. In some instances, positive emotions improve student cognition as explained by Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) "Flow" theory. In contrast, in the presence of fear and anxiety, emotions diminish students' cognition by limiting higher cognitive processes (Hains & Balschweid, 2008). Students who experience learner-centered pedagogy for the first time often evoke emotional responses associated with the latter as they become responsible for their own learning (Felder & Brent, 1996). This shift in responsibility can shock students who have been indoctrinated with teacher-centered instruction for most of their educational lives. Students who are accustomed to educational settings in which an expert conveys knowledge, rather than facilitates knowledge, may not appreciate or even resist this type of teaching (Estes, 2002; Felder & Brent, 1996). This resistance prevents many instructors from making the teacher-centered to learner-centered transition (Estes, 2002).

International education has also been shown to evoke emotion. Students who are immersed into foreign environments frequently express feelings of disconnect, alienation, and disengagement (Chinn, 2006). This cross-cultural adjustment varies among students depending on their cultural norms and beliefs as well as well prior experiences with diverse cultures (Harrison & Voelker, 2008). These feelings often stifle student engagement, limiting their educational potential (Baños et al., 2004).

Theoretical/Conceptual Framework

The intersect between student international experience and evoked emotion can best be explained using Scherer's (1999) appraisal theory. Appraisal theory is based on the notion that emotions are elicited from an individual's evaluation (appraisals) of events or objects (stimuli). Stimuli are evaluated using four criteria. These criteria include:

1. The extent to which the stimuli is novel or agreeable to the individual.
2. The significance of the event toward meeting the individual's needs or goals.
3. Individual ability to influence or cope with potential outcomes from stimulus interaction.
4. The compatibility of the event or stimulus in relation to social and personal norms, beliefs, and values. (Scherer, 1999).

As students interact with international events/stimuli, they place value judgments on stimuli based off their prior knowledge and perceived novelty of the stimulus. According to Scherer, Schorr, and Johnstone (2001) an individual appraises a specific stimuli based on their internal beliefs, cultural norms and ability to cope with the situation. If stimuli are perceived as aligning with their beliefs, neutral or positive emotions may be evoked. However, if stimuli challenge the individuals beliefs

often times negative emotions can be evoked. Following initial appraisal, varied reactions occur depending on the coping process available to the individual (Lazarus, 2006; Scherer et al., 2001). Within this study, emotions evoked from stimuli are a result of the student's participation in a learner-centered international experience. This theory can be visually understood through figure 1 below.

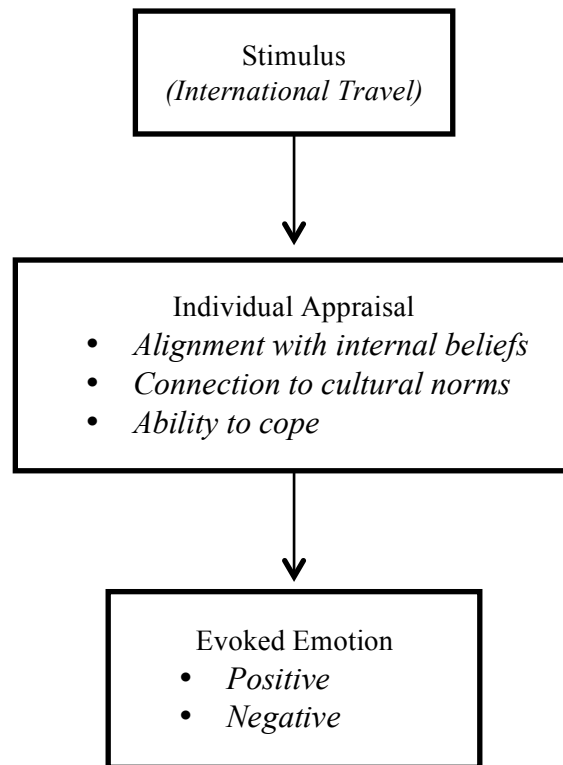


Figure 1. Appraisal of stimuli in a learner-centered international travel setting

While there have been several studies attempting to explain the impact international courses have on student development (Ogden, 2010; Rodriguez, 2011; Savicki & Cooley, 2011), few have examined specific stimuli which evoke positive and negative emotions. Noting the importance of emotions on individual development, researchers examined events that evoked student emotions within a learner-centered and international leadership course.

Purpose & Objectives

The purpose of this study was to investigate student response toward novel stimuli/experiences during a learner-centered international leadership development course. In order to examine student experiences in depth, the following questions were considered:

1. What situations/events do participating students view as novel stimuli when immersed in a learner-centered international setting?
2. How do students appraise/react toward identified stimuli within a learner-centered international setting?
3. How are the student appraisals/reactions different toward similar stimuli within a learner-centered international setting?

Methods and Procedures

Research Context

Students involved in this study were enrolled in the course *Community Development in Scotland: A Learning Journey*. The course consisted of two components. The first consisted of a pre-immersion course during their spring semester. The course was designed to weave together theoretical and experiential leadership threads using insights gained from course readings, rural Scottish community case studies, class assignments, cultural activities such as a Scottish ceilidh and Burns dinner and reflective journaling.

The second component comprised the international immersion. During this learner-centered course, students collaborated with two Scottish agricultural island communities, evaluating the influence of agrarian groups on rural communities. As part of their experience, students established local contacts, conducted interviews, observed social networks, analyzed data, presented research findings and proposed methods for community collaboration.

Research Participants

While the international team consisted of two professors, two graduate students and four undergraduate students majoring in Agricultural Education at a Southern Land Grant University, the researchers focused solely on undergraduate and graduate student experiences. Students ranged from 20 – 33 years of age. Four of the six students had prior international exposure. Finally, students were immersed in their communities for 22 days.

Data Collection

In order to obtain detailed information regarding individual assessments of international stimuli, a layered qualitative case study was established (Patton, 2002). Case studies evaluate the uniqueness or complexity of certain events, situations or phenomena (Yin, 1989). As part of their course assignment, students maintained reflective journals prior to and throughout their international experience. Kaagan (1999) viewed the reflective approach to be particularly helpful in leadership development where social interaction, definition of purpose, accomplishment of task and evaluation of results are critical. Furthermore, reflective journaling allows students to convey inner dialogue, which connects thoughts, feelings, and actions (Hubbs & Brand, 2005) aspects critical for this study.

Data Analysis

Student journals, collected after completion of the course, became a rich data source for identifying student stimulus appraisal and emotional reactions. Using Scherer's Appraisal Theory (1999) as a framework, two researchers, trained in qualitative analysis, independently coded student data. Multiple coding techniques were utilized during this process. The first technique, emotion coding, was used to identify raw student emotions from initial data (Saldaña, 2009). Next, researchers used codes associated with student emotion to identify individual stimuli that evoked the stated emotion (Saldaña, 2009). Finally, second cycle pattern coding, or axial coding, was used to examine

emergent first cycle themes for both stimuli and emotional response (Patton, 2002). First and second cycle themes were confirmed by each participant.

Limitations of Study

The study took place in a specific international setting; therefore, results only pertain to the students during the examined time and place. It is assumed students were honest in their journaling regarding their experiences. Lastly, the findings presented are solely the views expressed by participants.

Results/Findings

Students' international stimuli are presented in five thematic categories; (1) travel preparation; (2) international travel; (3) cultural immersion; (4) individual interaction; (5) role and responsibilities. Representative quotes were chosen to showcase the magnitude and variance of individual reactions. Due to page limitations, results were presented in tabular format with direct student quotes provided as evidence for emotional expression. Results from the first identified theme; travel preparation (prior to leaving) are represented in table 1.

Table 1

Primary Theme 1: Student appraisals and evoked emotions

Primary Theme 1		
Travel Preparation (prior to leaving)		
Secondary Theme	Students' Emotions	Student Evidence
How one will be perceived	Apprehension, hope, happy, uncertainty, interesting, wonder, excited, stressful, nervous	<i>"I am very excited, stressed, and nervous. How will I be perceived in Scotland/UK??"</i> <i>"I expected most people to be intimidated by us and we would be running around the island as a group and we would be mostly talking to each other."</i>
Pre-travel course	Love, happy, like, hope, fun, boring, interest, amazed, enjoyment, like	<i>"Facilitations are always interesting to me...This class brought out many aspects I hadn't thought about."</i>
Family connection	Sadness, guilt, miss,	<i>"As we were settling down for bed Sunday night it hit me full on. I probably cried for a good half hour. I know this is an amazing opportunity, but I feel massive amounts of mommy guilt."</i>
International anticipation	Excitement, amazing, uncertainty, thankful, frustration	<i>"I am so excited to go to Scotland, but the uncertainty of what all is going on & how we are being assigned is rather frustrating."</i>

Students expressed four thematic stimuli relating to international travel preparation. The first pertained to cultural perception, or how the Scots would perceive the students upon arrival.

Students professed a range of both positive and negative emotions within this category. Perceptions of cultural isolation and solitude created feelings of anxiety and uncertainty foreshadowed Chinn's (2006) conclusions of international loneliness. In contrast, students also conveyed emotions of excitement and wonder as they anticipated meeting new people and learning about Scottish culture.

The pre-travel course, the second stimuli identified by students, was received positively. Students completing the course acknowledged positive emotions toward the course overall. Several students expressed feelings toward professional empowerment and joy toward course content. This supports the assertion that domestic courses that utilize international contexts for learning can be well received by students and exposes them to different cultures (Lehman, 2009).

Finally, within the category of travel preparation, students identified leaving their families and homes and the uncertainty of the experiences as emotion provoking stimuli. Overall, students expressed emotions of excitement, however, they were torn between being excited and being sad to leave family or frustrated by the uncertainty of the future.

The following table (Table 2) encompasses the entirety of student travel. It is important to note that students were responsible for coordinating their own travel arrangements, shifting the learning process associated with international travel to the student.

Table 2

Primary Theme 2: Student appraisals and evoked emotions

Primary Theme 2 International Travel		
Secondary Theme	Students' Emotions	Student Evidence
Urban experience (London/Edinburg)	Unexcited, Pissy, Dread, interesting, frustrating, hate	<i>"I miss farms and farm animals – big cities just don't cut it for me."</i>
Travel arrangements	Frustration, surprise, amazement, unbelievable	<i>"After 5 hours I'm still sitting in this damn airport! I am so upset I just want to go home. We should have all been on the same flight!! We have no way of communicating at all and this is ridiculous."</i>
Traveling alone	Frustration, interesting, horrible, nervous, worried, scared,	<i>"This whole ordeal is frustrating. I don't want to travel alone especially with not being able to hear. I'm so mad. At this point I just don't want to go. At all."</i>
Driving	Frustration, annoyed, scared, petrified	<i>"I was petrified driving a stick shift, on the opposite of the car and on a 1 way road. Definitely quite the experience and I was so</i>

		<i>scared that I parked it and about had a mental breakdown and couldn't pick up the boys."</i>
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Data analysis revealed that international travel evoked several negative emotions. Although many of the students had traveled both domestically and internationally, few of them had traveled alone. One student's anxiety toward traveling independently was heightened due to faulty hearing aids. Others identified communication difficulty, urban culture and flight cancellations as catalysts for frustration, anger and fear. Lastly, one student could not finish her driving task due to cultural differences in travel.

Within this study stimuli associated with independent international travel diminished the students' experience by evoking a magnitude of negative emotion. This supports Hains and Balschweid's (2008) assertion that negative emotions can limit student cognitive aptitude. Furthermore, the shift in responsibility regarding travel arrangements enhanced student anxiety as it was the first time several of the students had to make arrangements on their own (Estes, 2002; Felder & Brent, 1996).

Once immersed into their rural Scottish communities, students professed six stimuli relating to their cultural interaction (Table 3).

Table 3
Primary Theme 3: Student appraisals and evoked emotions

Primary Theme 3 Cultural Immersion		
Secondary Theme	Students' Emotions	Student Evidence
Knowledge of culture (or lack thereof)	Idiotic, comfortable, careful, passion, excited, love, enjoyment	<i>"I now understand the importance of researching where you are going and who you will talk to. Not only can I be more comfortable but it shows the other people that you actually care."</i>
Connection to people in community (Scottish Community)	Amazement, unwelcomed, hilarious, charmed, interesting, love, Impressed, hopeful, touched, passionate, empathy, attached, protected	<i>"The pub that night was too much fun. The boys broke out the bongo and guitars, we closed the joint down and had them play music at the retreat. Yet again – more of an emotional attachment with the people."</i>
Social events	Amazement, fun	<i>"Last night we went to the pub...it was a lot of fun, especially since all the people there last night were relatively our age. It was a blast."</i>
Food	Wonderment, best, amazement, enjoyment	<i>"I really wanted authentic fish and chips, but my luck they had just ran out. That's okay,</i>

		<i>because I got to try some scrumdiddliumptios lamb. It was a little fatty, but amazing!”</i>
Land & Agriculture	Wonderment, surprise, moved, interesting, amazement, enjoyment, disbelief, happy	<i>“...there are a lot of wind turbines here. They were scattered over open fields, on top of hills, etc. It was wonderful.”</i> <i>“The drive out to Inverary was fun. It was nice to see things I remembered from our honeymoon.”</i>
Cultural norms	Frustration, disgust, happy, pissed off, precious, confused	<i>“Our cultural experiences here have been tremendous! The night we arrived here we had a wonderful dinner & dancing party called a Ceilidu, pronounced Ka-lee. It was so much fun.”</i> <i>“There is so much unhealthy tradition here...The political processes are cumbersome and unwelcoming.”</i>

Overall, students expressed positive to very positive emotions toward their cultural interactions. Several identified the knowledge gained in the preliminary course as being helpful in establishing relationships quickly. Students professed being pleasantly surprised by the friendliness of their communities and enjoyed adapting to Scottish cultural norms, so much so that they began feeling protected and connected to the local community (Baños, Botella, Alcañiz, Liaño, Guerrero, & Rey, 2004). In most cases, the cultural experiences were appraised as positive, therefore evoking positive emotions and heightening the student experience (Csikszetnmihalyi’s, 1990: Sherer, 1999). However, one exhibited negative emotions toward the political hierarchy identifying the political processes as cumbersome.

The next overall theme encompasses the range of perspectives toward students’ “home” (Table 4).

Table 4

Primary Theme 4: Student appraisals and evoked emotions

Primary Theme 4 Connection to Home		
Secondary Theme	Students’ Emotions	Student Evidence
Interaction within group	Isolated, difficulty, tense, impatience, bonkers, nice, weird, disconnected, frustrating, enjoyment, sorry, enjoyment, love, comfortable, safe, faith, stoked	<i>“I am already exhausted. I’m getting homesick. Our group is not meshing nearly as well as it could. I feel that I need to stay excessively positive else the whole group will get down.”</i> <i>“As for my future roomies on the island I am totally stoked!!”</i>

Home connections	Despising, broken hearted, anxious, worry, regret, homesick, miss, frantic, sad, upset, scared, needy, disappointment, pressure, stress, lonely, disconnected	<i>"I want to go home. Never in my life have I been this homesick. Sure it doesn't help that things in (home city) with my friends are falling apart for them & feel like I need to be there."</i> <i>"Wish I had better internet or cell service but I have realized that I don't have anyone I feel I must speak to via phone except dad...Not homesick and just happy here."</i>
Going Home	Hopeful, anxious, excited, heartbroken, sad, hate	<i>"They have been fantastic and so hospitable and the thought of leaving in a week breaks my heart."</i> <i>"Don't know what the state of my apartment might be in though, but at least I will be HOME! HOME HOME HOME..."</i>

Throughout data analysis an overwhelming theme emerged, the student connection to home. Over the 22-day course, students referenced their home several times. However, the context in which they referenced home differed substantially. Several students identified strained relationships within their group as a catalyst (stimulus) for being homesick. Other students, identified home as a place for which they would like to return. This is in contrast to students who identified home with family members. These stimuli evoked emotions associated with sadness and loneliness.

In stark contrast, other students identified their new communities as their home and professed their anxiety and sadness to leave. Still others did not miss their connection to [State] and believed their peers to be home for them. The following table (Table 5) showcases stimuli identified by students as they took responsibility for their educational roles within the Scottish communities.

Table 5
Primary Theme 5: Student appraisals and evoked emotions

Primary Theme 5		
Role and Responsibilities		
Secondary Theme	Students' Emotions	Student Evidence
Community interviews	Nervous, frustration, uncomfortable, unsatisfied, uninterested, concerned, happy, enjoyment	<i>"Today I got up and ready for an interview with (person)-bastard. 10am at the (name) Estate he wouldn't look at me and wouldn't have shit to do with me because I was female. I guess that was frustrating and really pissed me off because times have changed and I expect equal respect."</i> <i>"She is one of my favorite people so far to talk</i>

		<i>to. She's a dairy farmer, doesn't wear bras in the presence of company ... Plus she cusses like a sailor."</i>
Final Project	Uncertainty, concerned, anticipation, not excited, not worried, exhaustion	<i>"Many times I felt that we were overstaffed with not enough for us to reasonably feel like a part of the project." "I believe I have done a pretty good job at beginning our initial questioning and data collection. I can't wait to learn more..."</i>
Individual contribution	Fear, interest, unexcited, confusion, useless, happy, disappointment, beneficial	<i>"I feel kind of useless at this point however. This social infrastructure deal already isn't my forte and definitely not something I'm comfortable working with let alone talking to a community about." "I believe that as time goes on I will become more confident and continue to realize that I can be an important part of this team. I can't wait!"</i>

While students identified similar stimuli regarding their education development, their appraisal toward each stimuli and correlating emotions varied. Several students felt empowered and excited to be taking on their responsibilities. Others experienced situations of gender bias, evoking negative emotions toward an individual. Furthermore, some students did not feel empowered enough and that their efforts were useless, leading to feelings of disappointment and confusion.

Thinking retrospectively about their international leadership experience lead students to express a more positive outlook on international travel in general. Post-trip reflections indicated students viewed their international experiences in a more positive light, when compared with some of the negative emotions expressed in on-site journaling. This reinforces the perspective that both positive and negative emotions experienced during international educational trips can be catalysts for learning.

Conclusions/Recommendations/Implications

With increasing importance being placed on international education, global understanding gained through cultural immersion is an effective way for students to acquire this knowledge (Brooks, Frick, & Bruening, 2006; Hammer, 2008). Throughout the immersion process, all students experienced visceral reactions towards their experience, although the stimuli for which they attributed the response differed from individual to individual. With this in mind, much emphasis should be placed on the importance of the preparatory classwork. All students recognized the importance of conducting deep and insightful research on the countries to which they were traveling as is indicated in these student excerpts:

"Before I travel anywhere, I must do some homework to truly embrace the culture and the experience." (Student Reflective Journal)

“Know the history of where you’re going and its current status because you never can predict what the art of conversation will reveal.” (Student Reflective Journal)

However, students did indicate they felt more emphasis should be placed on truly learning about the specifics of the country and social situations they could be faced with.

Perhaps even more importantly, pre-trip preparatory classwork should move beyond the history and culture of the study country; there should also be ample focus on how one may be affected emotionally or cognitively throughout the experience. It is recommended that leadership educators seek to understand the student developmental process as they participate in international leadership experiences, as well as taking it into account when designing the trip. If this process is overlooked, students can often perceive their experience as negative, limiting their cultural development (King & Young, 1994). When students understand their own developmental processes, they can be prepared to think metacognitively in order to adapt and respond more quickly in novel situations. Metacognitive thinking should be elaborated on prior to departure and reinforced during the class to ensure students have the skills to cope and react accordingly while overseas.

As leadership educators explore and begin to utilize student centered teaching, it is important for them to thoroughly understand the student centered process. It is easy to recognize that students will have visceral responses to various stimuli they encounter within other cultures; it should be just as clear that the same students will demonstrate both positive and negative emotional responses. Therefore, just because students may have a negative visceral response towards a stimulus initially, that isn’t necessarily undesirable. Both negative and positive emotions can be catalysts for learning. Similarly, once educators have taken students on an international leadership experience, it may become apparent that some students were simply not ready for international travel. While this may make certain situations more aggravating, it isn’t necessarily negative. It is still learning experience for everyone involved.

Other tools that assist in making the international leadership experience more meaningful are reflective journaling and situational analysis. Both reflective journaling and analysis of situations is recommended for use in order to create a more experiential environment (Proudman, 1995; Ricketts & Morgan, 2009). In addition, by focusing on issues, experiences and situations encountered within other cultures, students are encouraged to consider their reactions to various stimuli. By reconsidering their reactions and making judgments, this could help students to improve their reactions to the same stimuli in the future. In this case study, students were able to better understand the events and situations happening around them through reflective journaling. The journals served as an emotional outlet for many of the students and helped to dissolve many problems before outbursts of emotion could occur. Students documented both professional and personal growth on the trip as can be seen from the student quote below:

“I can tell already that I have grown a bit since day 1. Slowly but surely I have gained more confidence in myself, learned to respect myself, and learned more to shut up and listen and wait for a good time/thing to say. I feel my listening skills have increased since the class we took this past semester. By utilizing this trait I believe my future will be easier seeing I can make logical statements and ideally be able to be a better conflict resolver.” (Student Reflective Journal)

For all of the aforementioned reasons, the researchers would argue that reflective journaling should be structured as a free write, instead of placing parameters around the activity. This allows students to use the journaling for their own educational purposes, and doesn't limit how the assignment is applied. The bottom line is that this encourages a richer learning experience.

Finally, even as leadership educators decide to make their international educational trips and courses more student-centered, it is still imperative to set up specific interactions, field trips and situations that allow students to experience the application of leadership within other cultures (Ricketts & Morgan, 2009). As has been illustrated throughout this study, students demonstrate a wide variety of emotional responses within stressing situations (such as international travel). Without purposeful planning, students may never think critically about the leadership skills or knowledge we want them to in international situations. Those who get caught up in the cognitive overload may need more educational scaffolding up front – so they can actively experience and think critically about desired leadership concepts within a new culture.

For future research, it is strongly recommended that this process be evaluated further in multiple international contexts, as well as being compared to international education utilizing different pedagogy in a similar setting.

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Creating Civic Leaders through Community Service Scholarship Programs for Low-Income College Students

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Introduction

Despite the importance of college access and student retention, low-income students' success rate historically falls far below their middle and upper-class counterparts. A 2005 study showed that the college graduation rate for families with household incomes \$25,000 was 52.3%, \$25,000-\$49,999 the graduation rate was 62.1%, and for those with incomes was \$50,000-\$74,999 the rate was 73% (Carroll & Chen, 2005). More alarming is that high achieving students from families with low socio-economic status (SES) graduate from college at nearly the same rate as low achieving students from families with high SES; both have about a 30% graduation rate (Roy, Allegretto, & Fungard, 2005).

One effort made to address the gap has included both publicly and privately funded scholarship programs that allow students to earn a financial award in exchange for engaging in leadership education and performing community service learning, while working toward a college degree. However we know very little about students' experiences in such programs and the ways they benefit both the student and the community. A better understanding of students' experiences in programs that financial aid in exchange for community service work and leadership development courses fills a void in an area of literature where there is significant change occurring in terms of public policy (through federal scholarship programs) and for campuses involved in civic engagement through service-learning. Practitioners in higher education, low-income non-profit organizations, and most important, low-income students and their families will benefit from the results of this study. The purpose of this study was to get an in-depth look at the experiences of low-income college students involved in community service scholarship programs; asking these specific research questions: "What are the experiences of low-income college students who are involved in community service scholarship programs? In what ways if any do they perceive such programs as enhancing their college experience? And, in what ways if any do such programs influence their perceived ongoing commitment to civic engagement and community leadership?"

Review of Literature

Low-income students arrive on college campus with both financial and cultural challenges that create barriers to graduation (Levine and Nidiffer, 1996). The theoretical framework of critical social theory (CST) helps to highlight the issues. Critical social theory is concerned with power dichotomies and the ways in which class, culture, education, gender, ideologies, and religion interact to construct a social system (Kincheloe & McLaren, 2002, p. 281).

Student engagement can be defined as activities which engage students in academic and non-academic campus experiences. Astin and Tinto's well know theories of student engagement suggest that non-traditional students must assimilate to the dominate culture to succeed (Astin, 1993; Tinto,

1993). From a CST perspective, doing this ignores the voice of low-income students and therefore must be challenged, as campuses find better ways to engage these students. New research focuses non-assimilation models of engagement and considers the needs of students from diverse ethnic, racial, economic, and geographic backgrounds. This new strand of engagement research shows that students benefit from programs that focus on social justice (Aragon & Kose, 2007; Engle, O'Brien, & Pell Inst. for the Study of Opportunity in Higher Education, Washington, DC., 2007; Giles & Eyler, 1994; Maldonado, Rhoads, & Buenavista, 2005; Ramos-Sanchez & Nichols, 2007; Rendon, L.I., Jalomo, R.E., Nora, A., 2000; Rodriguez, 2001; Tierney, 1993; Tierney, 1999; Tierney, 2000) One of the benefits of programs which engage students in programs promoting social justice and helping others is that students feel a sense of purpose on their own campus, and begin to see college success as an avenue to making change as they connect graduating with the skills needed to help resolve issues plaguing communities, often their community of origin. This idea is supported by research done which outlines how community service learning can have a positive educational impact on students of color, who are disproportionately represented amongst low-income student populations (Hoffman, Wallach, Sanchez, & Carifo, 2009; Louque, 1999).

Second, although low-income students have significantly higher unmet financial need compared to their upper-income counterparts - \$3,800 vs \$400 respectively (Fitzgerald, 2003), - research shows that as little as a \$1,000 award (the amount offered through many national service AmeriCorps programs), can increase retention by between 13%-89% depending on year in school (Wohlgemuth, Whalen, & Sullivan, 2006). When viewed through a CST perspective, a lack of financial resources only serves to perpetuate low graduation rates and even small stipends may combat this as students puzzle piece together the money needed to get through each college year.

Third, despite the widespread use of these two types of interventions (engagement and financial assistance) there still is a gap between the graduation rates of the poor and others. A look at the work of Pierre Bourdieu (1986) helps to explain the continuing gap. According to Pierre Bourdieu social capital relates to one's networks with others, and includes the idea that group affiliations or memberships offer certain entitlements that "provide each of their members with the backing of the collectively-owned capital, a credential which entitles them to credit" (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 248). Middle and upper class students arrive on campus with the social capital that is well aligned with the culture of their home communities, which helps them become engaged in campus-life and promotes higher graduation rates. Low-income students, however, do not have the same kinds of social capital that is valued on most college campuses, thus they often do not get involved in campus-life programs because they do not feel welcome, they do not have the time, or for other reasons, and thus they face more difficulty in degree completion.

When examining Bourdieu through a CST lens, new models emerge which offer alternative forms of capital that in this study may show to reverse the negative effect of low-income students' lack of traditional cultural capital. Specifically "citizenship capital", which can be defined as how students develop a sense of their own responsibility and commitment to participatory democracy, social justice, and other forms of citizenship in one's community or on one's campus (Aragon & Kose, 2007). . Citizenship capital is a fresh way to look at student engagement utilizing empowerment and social justice as new program themes, appealing to non-traditional students.

Along the same lines, Maldonado, Rhoads, and Buenavista, (2005) developed a model based on the examination of what researchers call SIRPs (Student Initiated Retention Projects). This model encourages students to be a part of peer mentoring, community service, and civic responsibility both to the campus community and the larger community. SIRPs recognize the role of students and student groups, as well as the need for institutions to diversify both in terms of student and staff populations, but also structurally (Maldonado et al., 2005). These roles include mentoring and helping their peers, suggesting a model that is reflective of the civic and communitarian models used in the community service learning literature (Etzioni, 1995; Hoppe, 2004; Jacoby, 2004).

This alternative method of considering student retention techniques is consistent with a CST framework because it takes into account the role that race, ethnicity, class, and other factors play in shaping the dominant culture's misguided beliefs and program development regarding the engagement of students from non-dominant culture populations. Further, this new framework offered by Maldonado et al., suggests that student empowerment and self-determination is a critical piece to overcoming the gap in retention rates. Despite the value of civic engagement, there is evidence (i.e. Putnam, 2006) of a decline in participation that has a detrimental effect on college student retention. Putnam (2006) argues that extracurricular activities and peer social networks are "powerful predictors of college dropout rates and college success", even holding constant pre-collegiate factors, including aspirations. (Putnam, 2000, p. 306)

Community service scholarship programs have the potential to reverse this decline and provide students with a sense of "citizenship capital" which they can use to help make meaning of their college experience. Thus community service scholarship programs not only provide needed financial aid, but also have the potential to provide low-income students with ways to use their own social capital to become more comfortable both in their communities, but also to use that knowledge to feel more comfortable on their college campus, both of which can lead to increased retention. An understanding of students' experiences in these programs thus becomes crucial.

The context for this study is an AmeriCorps funded community service scholarship programs from two Midwest colleges. One was a small, private liberal arts college in a mid-sized town and the other was a large urban research institution. The general guidelines of the programs include: (1) students must serve 300 hours in the United States at a non-profit agency, (2) they must complete their service within one year, (3) their campus has the ability to use a small percentage of the required hours for instruction about civic education and leader development, and (4) all students must be either low-income or first-generation college students.

Methodology

The literature review reveals that there is a significant amount of research on student engagement and retention, college financing, and civic engagement, however, there is a lack of research or theory related to the phenomena of how this triad of concepts interacts to affect the collegiate experiences of low-income students. Because of this void this study employed a grounded theory methodology. Strauss and Corbin give a more detailed definition and explanation of grounded theory, stating,

...grounded theory is a qualitative research design in which the inquirer generates a general explanation (a theory) of a process, action, or interaction shaped by the views of a large number of participants (Strauss & Corbin, 1998a).

Grounded theory research is a systematic way to connect various concepts and to develop a model which represents the relationships between them (Strauss & Corbin, 1998b). This study sought to connect the student experiences with both financial aid and community service learning.

Participants

Theoretical sampling was used in this study as it allows for the addition of participants based on what might be missing from those originally selected, as a way to get a deep understanding of the experiences of participants (Ragin, 1994). Participants who expressed interest had to meet a set of criteria: (1) they had to be Pell Grant eligible, (2) they had to be part of the scholarship program on their campus, and (3) they had to be available to take part in the interviews and observations. The 10 study participants included six women and four men. Seven of the participants were White, one was African-American, one was Vietnamese, and one Filipino. They represented a nearly even split between growing up in urban, suburban and rural environments. There were three participants from the small, private liberal arts college and seven from a large, urban research institution. All participants were Pell Grant recipients and six were also first-generation college students.

Data collection

There were two data sources for this study; semi-structured interviews and participant observation at the community agency sites. Semi-structured interviews were done with all of the participants. All of the interviews lasted between 45 minutes and 90 minutes. Follow-up interviews were conducted as needed to clarify answers from the first interview. Participant observation allowed the researcher to get a clear understanding of how the participants fit into the environment at their community service site. Observations were done at seven community service sites where study participants were fulfilling service hours and included public schools, health clinics for low-income families, food pantries and counseling centers. Only seven observations were done because a number of sites had more than one participant completing service with them.

Data Analysis

This research study employed the constant comparative method, the cornerstone of grounded theory research, by considering the data collected as the study progressed. As a result a “core concept” emerged and the rest of the theory was built around it. According to Strauss and Corbin, “the theory evolves during actual research, and it does this through continuous interplay between analysis and data collection” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998b, p. 158). The interviews, which were transcribed, served as the primary data source. Data from the observations were used to confirm the information from the interviews by the researcher considering if what the participant described at the site was congruent with what was observed.

The coding process done in a grounded theory study begins with open coding, where ideas, actions, observations, and statements are identified and conceptualized; this was done through a focused look at the interviews and the observations and were defined along a continuum to not only understand their definition but to also give them depth and dimension (Strauss & Corbin, 1998b). This process of open coding allowed the interviews and observation logs to be broken into approximately 1,100 data pieces which were then organized into 40 themed concepts. The identified concepts included items such as “applying coursework to service experience”, “articulating impact on the community”, “campus relations and connections” and “working while in school”.

Axial coding followed next, whereby the concepts identified during open coding were considered in terms of how they related and interacted with one another to create categories that better explain the process or the participant experience (Creswell, 2007). During axial coding sub-categories were created under three larger themes and the “core concept” developed. The core concept was the basis for a theory to explain the developmental process which low-income students go through while participating in community service scholarship programs.

Finally, selective coding was done where the core concept, “Visioning Civic Identity” was further developed around the phenomenon being investigated. This was done through the creation of a storyline that identified the core concept and then related the other categories and subcategories to it (Strauss & Corbin, 1998b). Throughout the process of open coding, axial coding, and selective coding the constant comparative method was used to find patterns, relationships, and connections. As these patterns, relationships, and connections emerged a new understanding of how participants benefited and developed as a result of a community service scholarship program.

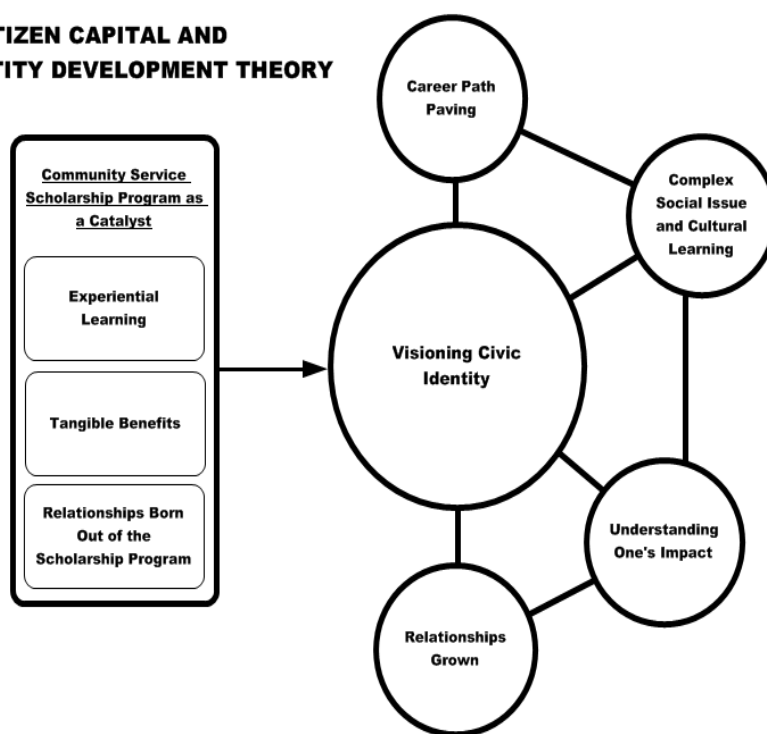
Limitations

While significant patterns emerged, the study was based only on the experiences of 10 participants at two universities in the Midwest, and that limited generalizability. Further, attitudes about community service differ in various parts of the country, so this was another limiting factor. Another important limitation is that with the exception of the observations, all of the data was self-reported.

The Findings

Although higher education professionals generally see campus staff as conduits to student retention by way of engagement, the grounded theory developed through this study suggests that a stronger connection to the campus for participants came from these students’ off-campus community service experience. The theory presented is grounded in patterns and the rich descriptions. There are four components connected to the core concept and developmental process: 1) Relationships Grown, 2) Understanding One’s Impact, 3) Career Path Paving, and 4) Complex Social Issue and Cultural Learning. The visual representation shows the developmental process study participants experienced. Each component plays the dual role of enhancing student engagement while supporting the development of a civic identity.

CITIZEN CAPITAL AND CIVIC IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT THEORY



The Core Concept: Visioning Civic Identity

The findings revealed that the participants underwent a developmental process related to their civic identity as a result of the program. Participation in the community service scholarship program increased their engagement by way of on- and off-campus networks through which they acquired a different vision of their civic identity in contrast to their perspective at the onset of the program. In addition, participants articulated experiences which led to personal gains made as a result of the community service scholarship program.

Civic identity is not only about one's sense of responsibility to a community but more precisely about ways in which one feels that they can have an impact. One's civic identity is based on actions taken to be engaged which could include voting, volunteering, working in a helping profession, advocating, community organizing, running for public office, or informally helping neighbors. Like many of the participants, Kathy described her developmental change which led to a civic identity: "...it's been beneficial for me to see a more of a giving aspect to my life...I just find myself more giving now, and more understanding to people's situations." The core concept of "Visioning Civic Identity" is integrated into each component. Further, all four components link student engagement and civic identity development.

Component One: Relationships Grown

"Relationships Grown" is defined as the meaningful relationships that participants developed with peers, site supervisors, consumers at non-profit agencies, and campus staff throughout their year

involved in the program. For example, Wendy, who was unable to make campus-based relationships prior to her involvement in the program was now able to connect to others in the program. “...I think we just can all relate to each other really well.” She adds, “ it’s easier to connect with someone when you share the same interest... we want to help the community.”

Staff at the community service site played a crucial role for students in their civic identity development. At nearly all the sites there was one professional staff person who mentored the participant(s); showed them practical workplace skills and helped them to build career confidence. For example, Paul, described his connection to the Director of the agency. “...I would consider her a mentor, and I think she would consider herself a mentor.” Often mentors showed a long-term interest in how the participant(s) would later be engaged in service through their career or through community service. These relationships (with peers, community service site staff, or campus staff) played a significant role in “Visioning Civic Identity” by the participants and in creating a better campus experience.

Component Two: Understanding One’s Impact

“Understanding One’s Impact” is defined as participants’ ability to see their role in alleviating the negative effects of particular societal dilemmas and making an emotional connection to those served in a way that helped students “feel” the difference they made in peoples’ lives. Through a long-term exposure to a community service site and a particular issue, participants were able to articulate the impact they had on the lives of others, even when the initial experience required that they overcome some challenges. Participants described scenarios where they felt energized by the impact they had on the population served, and they were able to articulate their role as a citizen in making a difference. For example, although Renee had done episodic service prior to being in the program, she did not have a real sense of having community impact until she was in the scholarship program. She offered; “ ...you realize that it does make an impact on other people, it makes you happy and it makes them happy and they really appreciate it, that you are taking time out of your life to help them.”

Component Three: Career Path Paving

The third component, “Career Path Paving” describes the influence of the community service on students’ career path. The participants felt that their community service in this study was a critical learning experience for their future careers in the helping professions. Specifically, they were more confident in terms of anticipated career satisfaction as well as their ability to understand and “do the job”. Jeff, described his struggle to choose a major and how the program allowed him to see himself working in non-profit management. I have really found the world of non-profits very interesting. I think it would be very great work to be doing... to have some kind of community organization to serve people.”

Others also described how they were deeply influenced in terms of career discernment and professional experience. The participants described how the program allowed them to “see what they were really getting themselves into.” Wendy, who was studying to be a teacher, described the confidence she gained through her relationship with a kindergarten teacher at a public, urban school

where she was completing her scholarship hours: "..., so I see how she deals with them and it makes me feel like, okay, I can do this..." Paul articulated the unique opportunity he was given to help kids through grief and how he became an empathetic listener as a result. "I pay more attention to people... an empathetic perspective. You could just say people skills, but that's a huge influence that this experience has had on me." For nearly all of the participants, these day-to-day experiences reinforced their career plans. Most intended on working in a helping profession prior to the program, however their term of service gave them a sense of the day-to-day work they would do.

Component Four: Complex Social Issue and Cultural Learning

The fourth component is one which provided students with a better understanding of cultural differences and social justice issues tackled by their community service sites. "Complex Social Issue and Cultural Learning" contains two parts. First, understanding complex social issues can be defined as a progressively heightened awareness and understanding of societal problems that non-profits combat. Second, cultural intelligence and learning can be defined as ones' understanding of cultural norms and differences, how they interact, and how they affect cross-cultural interactions when there are majority and minority groups.

All participants recognized that their own assumptions related to cultural awareness were challenged at the community service sites. Laurel for example, who came from a Filipino family, was surprised that the Latino students who were already fluent in Spanish did not necessarily excel at the bi-lingual school where she tutored. She and other participants who worked with kids took this further, and described ways in which they saw poverty impact education. Gantwan, who worked with LGBT teens, went through a learning process himself while facilitating discussions about other oppressed groups and dual-identities.

In addition to an increase in their cultural intelligence, students described the complexity of social issues and social justice at their sites, which helped them to differentiate between "serving" in general, and "serving to combat social injustice". Janice, a participant who came out of an extremely rough childhood articulated how her perspective changed regarding what it meant to be in the helping professions:

I will always be more encouraged to do volunteer work even within my practice... I want to work with non-profits specifically because I want to be accessible to people who can't afford it (therapy); and that wasn't what I thought at first. I thought I am going to go into private practice and make all this money, and now... I think there are people that can't afford that, and they should still have the access to services and I would rather be poor and be helping than to have all this money and not be helping that population.

When participants were challenged by previously held assumptions it was easier to identify their civic role because of the deeper emotional and intellectual connection to the issues. Further, they developed a greater understanding of the complexity of systems that exist related to poverty and social change.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to find out in what ways community service scholarship programs impact the experiences of low-income students, both in terms of their college-going experience and their civic-identity. The data suggests that the community service scholarship programs helped students to find a way to engage with a campus program that offered meaningful benefits such as peer-connections with like-minded students from similar backgrounds, mentors on and off-campus, and career discernment through experiential learning. Also, the programs helped the participants to be able to articulate a plan for their own future community involvement through on-going community service or a career. These findings offer valuable theoretical and practical implications.

Theoretical Implications

There are some important theoretical implications related to student and civic engagement and college success which can be derived from this study. First, when student engagement theories based on assimilation are abandoned for more critical theories, the literature suggests that Students of Color, those from low-income families, and first-generation college students have new opportunities to be engaged in ways that are more effective for these populations (Tierney, 1999). Research suggests that a “local” connection with peers from similar backgrounds provides a comfort level which then allows for the exploration and integration into the larger campus (Murguia, Padilla, & Pavel, 1991). Similarly, research that explored the impact of student organizations specifically for Students of Color at Predominately White Institutions suggested that members viewed organizations as an important vehicle to giving back to their community of origin (Guiffrida, 2003). Even these theories, however, mainly offer campus-based solutions.

The CCCID Model adds to student engagement theories to show that utilizing a community service scholarship program as an avenue to engagement can increase social and cultural capital through networks of formal and informal community and campus connections. The experiences of participants in these programs suggests that connections to community service site supervisors, consumers at non-profit agencies, and other low-income students were significant and increased their “account balance” in the areas of social, cultural, and citizen capital.

Another theoretical consideration related to student development and the CCCID Model is that which includes “self-authorship”. Self-authorship is defined as “the ability to reflect on one’s beliefs, organize one’s thoughts and feelings in the context of but not separate from, the thoughts and feelings of others, and literally make-up one’s own mind” (Baxter Magolda, 1999). This model leans on the concept of self-authorship as it promotes student critical thinking and meaning-making about their experiences at community service sites. There is little research on campus based community service scholarship programs, especially those for low-income students. Einfeld and Collins (2008) conducted a study that looked at another university operated AmeriCorps program that included a service-learning component. Although the participants in this study were not exclusively low-income college students, the findings are worth noting in relation to the current study. This 2008 study found that while participants expressed an ongoing commitment to being civically engaged, it did not

explore the impact on low-income students as a population, in terms of their civic identity or engagement on campus (Einfeld & Collins, 2008). This current study adds to our existing theoretical understanding of the impact of such programs on a college campus. In both studies there was participant engagement in self-authorship as a pathway to one's own civic role and identity. Self-authorship works hand-in-hand with student development as it suggests that student learning is a result of experiences. The experiences participants had at their community service sites challenged their thinking and led them to defining their own civic identity and heightened their understanding of cultural issues.

Practical Implications

In practice, student engagement programs generally look solely to higher education's faculty, advisors, and campus life staff as the providers of meaningful engagement with students. For many low-income students this is not their lived experience; rather, they feel isolated and unsupported through campus programs (Aronson, 2008; Fischer, 2007; Gupton, Castelo-Rodriguez, Martinez, & Quintanar, 2009; Tierney, 1999; Watson et al., 2002). According to Rendon (1993) campus involvement has two characteristics: (1) students are expected to do involvement by their own initiative, and, (2) the campus role is passive, just providing the mechanism, not actually facilitating involvement. Rendon explains that participants in her study suggested that what made a difference for them in feeling as though they could succeed in college was when someone spent time with them, encouraged them, or in some other way "took an interest" in them (Rendon, L.I., Jalomo, R.E., Nora, A., 2000).

Data from this current study suggests that looking toward the community service site supervisors (teachers at schools, hospital and medical clinic staff, social workers, and others) may help low-income students succeed in college. This expands upon the ideas put forth in Rendon's (1993) Validation Model, as participants described those at the community service sites as mentors, teachers, and friends who had a genuine interest in their academics, personal well-being, and career success. In this regard student affairs professionals should look to community service site supervisors to play a role in college student success both off-campus and perhaps on campus as well. This supports findings in a study done of college nursing students that looked at the relationship these students had with community mentors at clinical site placements (Gray & Smith, 2000). Gray and Smith (2000) found that nursing students could develop meaningful and helpful relationships with community mentors that had significant impacts on the students' nursing school experience. Good mentors were described by participants in Gray and Smith's (2000) study as being approachable, knowledgeable, caring, and patient.

In addition to implications for practice on campus related to student engagement there are implications for practice for others. Specifically, administrators at the Corporation for National and Community Service should look at developing a well-funded program that can serve as a bridge between young adults from low-income families who are interested in going to college and the national service movement. Similarly, elected officials should continue their bi-partisan support for national service program, which they have shown in recent decades. Currently, however, such programs are still competitive and not available to every low-income college student in America.

Specifically, more funds from the Corporation for National and Community Service budget should be allocated to programs that allow people to be enrolled in school while simultaneously doing national service. This would serve as a step in the right direction in terms of campus / community engagement as well as in experiential and service learning, which research has shown to be valuable.

Recommendations for Future Research

There are a number of new questions that this research raises. One area for future research may relate to the impact of engaging students who are more diverse in terms of race and economic backgrounds on the populations served. In other words, does having college students who are from low-income backgrounds, or from an ethnic or racial minority, provide a greater service to community agencies and urban school districts than students from a traditional college student demographic?

Another area for future research would be to do a longitudinal study with participants from this study to see if participation in the program truly did have an impact on their level of civic identity. Because college is usually a time of transition, it is difficult to know if when students move to other communities or begin their careers, if they maintain a commitment to the civic identity they developed while participating in the scholarship program. It would be interesting to look at these participants in seven years to see if they are in the helping professions, if they volunteer in their communities, and how, if looking back, did their term of service in the scholarship program truly impact their long-term commitment to civic engagement.

Finally, the most significant and interesting area for future research lies in an examination of how and why the community service site staff were able to have such a significant impact on the college student participants. Were they good mentors because of the nature of those working in the helping professions? In what ways could student development professionals who work in engagement and retention learn from those working in the helping professions or bring them in as partners in student development?

Conclusion

In conclusion, the Citizen Capital and Civic Identity Development Theory moves students through a developmental process by providing tangible benefits, experiential learning, and meaningful connections. Year-long interaction with a site or population led students to a deeper understanding of complex social issues. This is critical to how such programs help students evolve into their civic identity; they allow for an emotional connection to the agency, issue and staff at the sites, but also lead to a greater understanding of the systems surrounding them. Participants in many ways redefined the relationship between themselves, community, and leadership as a result of the program. The data in this study suggests that participants were impacted and developed a sense of their civic identity while they also increased their own social, cultural, and citizen capital. This is a common goal of civic identity education, encouraging one to see how they fit into the larger community and the role one plays in making change.

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Using *Lost* to Create Case Analysis Opportunities for Undergraduate Leadership Skills Classes

Marianne Lorensen, University of Nebraska

Introduction

Several years ago, the television series *Lost* (Abrams, 2004) gained popularity in collegiate leadership classrooms, particularly with regard to its ability to provide examples of leadership theory. Now that the series is off the air, it is possible that classroom instructors have moved on to other popular culture examples and references that they deem to be more relevant and resonant. For those who had been using *Lost*, or who might be considering using it, there are two lingering questions. First, is *Lost* still relevant? Second, is *Lost* useful as an illustration of leadership concepts aside from straight theory? The answer to both questions is, “yes”.

Leadership educators on college campuses no doubt recognize the value of using popular culture examples to illustrate leadership practices and principles to their students. These examples have long included popular films and television programs, and they may be utilized in a variety of ways, including quick media clips to serve as discussion starters, partial or entire TV episodes as case studies, and even entire movies used for deeper critical analysis and reflection as a capstone assignment.

Many academic leadership programs at the collegiate level have at least one course that focuses on leadership theory. Northouse’s (2010) *Leadership: Theory and Practice* is a popular text for such courses. When the television program *Lost* was airing, many leadership educators in undergraduate theory courses recognized its potential to show leadership theories in action and, thus, added it to the repertoire of popular culture teaching tools. Sudbrack and Trombley (2007) even provided a “how to” guide of sorts in their article, “Lost: A Survival Guide to Leadership Theory”. In it, they thoroughly (though not exhaustively) examined connections between specific episodes of the popular television series and the leadership theories presented in the Northouse text.

During the first several seasons of *Lost*, I was teaching multiple sections of the course, Introduction to Leadership Studies, at a large land-grant institution in the Midwest. Our textbook, for all sections, was Northouse’s *Leadership: Theory and Practice* (various editions). I chose to use the series in my classroom, both in the form of short clips and vignettes (for quick examples) and partial or full episodes as graded, credit-bearing case analyses. While I did not refer specifically to the examples provided by Sudbrack and Trombley (2007), it was helpful to know that my pedagogical choices were not without precedent. If ever a need arose to explain these instructional and assessment strategies to colleagues or a department head, the ability to reference current literature would have no doubt come in handy.

Recently, I began teaching at a new institution—another large Midwestern land-grant university. In addition to teaching a basic leadership theory course, I also teach an introductory course called Interpersonal Skills for Leadership. Though grounded in theory, this 100-level course is designed specifically to help students learn about—and develop—skills necessary for effective leadership. I did not initially approach this course with *Lost* in mind. However, as we proceeded through the first semester, and I continued to seek ways to keep my students engaged in the material, I found myself reflecting on my use of *Lost* at my previous institution. My students had been very receptive and even excited about it, and many of them decided to watch the show on their own after having been introduced to it in class. One former student and undergraduate teaching assistant commented, “*Lost* was perfect for a visual learner (and) created excellent conversations in class.” Seeking that same kind of enthusiasm from the students in my skills-based class, I began to consider how I might implement *Lost* for them in a way that was consistent with, and supportive of, the material being covered. This proposal will explain my use of the television series to create multiple case analysis opportunities for my skills-based classes, recommendations for creating case studies with *Lost*, and a brief discussion of student feedback and performance relative to *Lost* case studies.

Background

As mentioned previously, there is precedent for the use of *Lost* in the collegiate leadership classroom (Sudbrack & Trombley, 2007). Additionally, using case analyses as a teaching and learning tool has significant precedent in a wide variety of fields (Doh, 2003; McDade, 1995). Furthermore, in his recent search for signature pedagogy among leadership educators, Jenkins (2012) found that, of the leadership educators he surveyed, case studies appeared to be a relatively common strategy (ranking 10th on a list of 24 frequently used instructional strategies).

According to McDade (1995), a case study is “the use of. . . a written description of a problem or situation (which) present(s) a problem for analysis” (p. 9). Case studies are vehicles of pedagogy, in contrast to discussions, which are the process of the pedagogy. In other words, discussion can—and does—spring from a variety of pedagogical vehicles, including case studies; but case studies and discussions are not the same thing. As teaching tools, case studies are deliberately designed to promote application, decision-making, and critical thinking. Whether the analysis occurs in oral or written form, the instructor must prepare questions which facilitate reflection and allow for the aforementioned opportunities of applying course concepts, making decisions, and thinking critically. Critical thinking, according to McDade (1995) is the primary outcome from the case analysis pedagogy.

With particular regard to teaching leadership, Doh (2003) interviewed leadership educators at business schools in the United States. In response to the question, “How can leadership be taught?” many of the educators touched on the need for pedagogy to be practical and accessible. Case studies were referenced as a pedagogy that could promote strategic thinking. While it is certainly not the only pedagogy, and all of those interviewed by Doh concurred that practice is essential when it comes to the development of leadership skills, the critical analysis of real (or realistic) examples is believed to have significant value.

Description of the Practice

Over the course of a typical semester in Interpersonal Skills for Leadership, approximately 15 different skills and concepts related to leadership are covered. Most of the topics (approx. 12-13), are decided upon by the students during the course of the first one or two class sessions. Many of the student-selected topics have corresponding chapters from the textbook (Fritz, Brown, Lunde & Banset, 2005) which are then assigned as reading in preparation for the class(es) during which that topic will be covered. For those topics not addressed in the standard textbook, the instructor selects external readings to share with the students. Interpersonal Skills for Leadership is a course that fulfills a general education requirement for oral and written communication. Therefore, presentations and written assessments are a regular part of the class. Over the course of the semester, students must complete ten “big idea papers”. These are brief (approx. 1 page) writing assignments where students discuss the key concepts (aka “big ideas”), discuss why those concepts are important to leadership, and reflect on how the information can be applied in their own lives.

Since case analyses were not originally included in the syllabus during the first semester (Fall, 2011), they were introduced as an alternate assignment to some of the big idea papers. Students were informed, in advance of the class where the topic would be discussed, that a case study would be examined in class. They were advised that this assignment would take the place of a big idea paper. (Those who did a big idea paper in addition to the case study had the possibility of earning bonus credit for the additional work. This was helpful in situations where students may have been working ahead or put time into a big idea paper without realizing it wasn’t required. Also, students who were absent on the day of the case were still expected to do a big idea paper.) This approach was also useful in that it provided some flexibility for the instructor to decide when or whether to implement a case analysis. Consequently, the decision was made to use a similar approach the following semester (Spring, 2012).

Similar to the case study provided here (Appendices A & B), all cases provide general background knowledge, instructions for the case, a series of case analysis questions, and a character identification sheet(s). (The character identification sheet is omitted in the attached example for the sake of space.) This information clarifies the expectation of the assignment and helps familiarize students with the premise of the case (in the event that they are not already familiar with the show or have missed prior case studies). Each case contains 10-12 questions that ask students to use appropriate terminology from their readings, apply concepts from their readings and related class discussion to the story in the case, and draw conclusions about the characters and/or the situation based in their knowledge of the topic(s) being applied to the case. Some cases make use of entire episodes of *Lost*, while others may be comprised of partial episodes. Ultimately, this determination is made by the instructor and is based on the topic(s) being addressed and the time available in class.

Students are given the case information and questions prior to the start of the episode. They are allowed time to review the assignment and ask any clarifying questions. They are also encouraged to use their textbooks, external readings, and any other relevant course material

that may assist them in addressing the questions laid out in the case. At the conclusion of the episode, students have the opportunity to ask additional questions, continue working on the case in class (as time allows), and are sometimes able to take the case home if they would prefer to have additional time outside of class to complete the assignment. All of these options are dependent upon the time available, the needs of the students, and the prerogative of the instructor. At the conclusion of the case, it the instructor works with the students to review the questions and process their analyses. In cases where the assignment is graded, this may occur at a subsequent class meeting; although it is also possible, if time allows, to process the case as a large group in class immediately after the conclusion of the case.

Please see Appendices A & B for examples of case studies (each using the pilot episode) on the topics of Communication and Relationship Building.

Experience and Lessons to Date

Overall, experiences with *Lost* case analyses to date have been very positive. Students seem to appreciate the variety in assignments and what they perceive as a reprieve from writing papers. A current student provided the following written feedback: “I wouldn’t want a case analysis every week, but I enjoyed (it) because it was different than the weekly Big Idea Paper. The use of *Lost* was a great visual of leadership principles and helped me apply the topics to a more ‘real-world’ setting.”

Although *Lost* is no longer airing, the story itself is not time-bound with regard to leadership lessons. While most students will not encounter situations in real life where they are stranded on an island and must navigate the crisis with strangers, the character experiences with regard to community building, cultural diversity, challenges, shared goals, and interpersonal skills resonate with students—particularly when delivered visually, as opposed to written form. When *Lost* was on air, many students were familiar with the show. This did not seem to impact, positively or negatively, students’ responsiveness to its use in a leadership theory course. Now that the series has concluded (and some time has elapsed since its conclusion), fewer students seem to have been regular viewers of the show. In some ways, this is advantageous to their engagement in the cases, because they don’t always know what will happen in advance.

As far as grades are concerned, they are likely to vary on these assignments as they would on others. Some students will receive comparable grades on both assignments (case analyses and big idea papers), and some students will find that they perform better on one assignment over the other. This may depend, in part, on their learning styles and preferences. From an instructor perspective, students seem to do better at applying course content in case analyses than they do on other writing assignments. This is likely due to the fact that the questions on the case studies provide more structure with regard to application (as opposed to an open-ended question like, “How does this concept apply to your own life?”).

One potential drawback to this particular pedagogy is the amount of time and energy required to prepare the case study. On the one hand, having a video case does not require the instructor to create a story on his/her own, and it also delivers the case in a dynamic way that keeps the students engaged. However, selecting and previewing the right case does take significant time, as does the construction of questions designed to align with course content, allow for application, and promote critical thinking. Another potential drawback, in classes where students select the topics being covered (as in the case of Interpersonal Skills for Leadership), is that a case study created for one class may not be useful in subsequent semesters or may need to be altered in order to match the content of the class in a future term.

Recommendations

As mentioned previously, the *Lost* case analyses provide interesting variety when included among other assignments. Unless the class is entirely case-based or centers around the use of *Lost*, the instructor should consider using the case in moderation. This will ease the amount of preparation required of the instructor, and it will also prevent this particular pedagogy from becoming less interesting or meaningful in the eyes of the students. In Interpersonal Skills for Leadership, *Lost* case analyses have been utilized 3-4 times during the course of the semester.

It is also suggested that, regardless of topic, the instructor find a way to use the pilot episode(s) of the series as a case—particularly if s/he wishes to use *Lost* multiple times during the course of the semester. Anecdotally speaking, this is believed to increase student interest/engagement by allowing them to participate in the story from the very beginning rather than coming into the story already in progress. Similarly, it is helpful to use the series chronologically for the same reasons. Even though not every episode is viewed by the class, the overall story may be easier to follow if it can be viewed in sequence. Feedback from a former student supports this belief: “*Lost*, in general, can be quite confusing if you don’t know what’s going on, (so) watching random episodes does not help.”

Finally, it may be useful to conduct additional research which explores student impressions of, and satisfaction with, *Lost* case analyses and to further assess the impact of the assignment(s) on engagement, grades, and retention of course concepts. This can be done fairly easily by any leadership instructor with regard to his/her own class(es), and it could assist individual instructors in determining the usefulness of the assignment and influencing its use (or not) in a particular class.

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Appendix A

ALEC 102 Case Analysis: Communication (Active Listening, Non-Verbal, Levels) Case – Lost, Pilot 1 & 2 (Season 1)

Background

Oceanic 815, a flight from Sydney to Los Angeles, crashes on an island in the middle of the ocean. While some familial relationships exist among the passengers, they are strangers for the most part. In the first two episodes of the series, the survivors try to figure out where they are and how they can be rescued. Various types and levels of communication become critical to their cooperation and survival. (See character identification under separate cover.)

Instructions

While viewing the episodes, consider the communication among the stranded passengers. Be aware of when and why messages are being conveyed, as well as how the characters are connecting with each other (or not). In what ways are active listening and non-verbal communication occurring? On what levels are the characters communicating with one another? What purpose(s) does communication among the survivors serve? What situational factors contribute to the effective and ineffective communication seen throughout the episodes?

Respond to the following questions, using terminology and concepts from your textbook (Chapters 2, 3 & 10) where possible.

Case Analysis Questions

1. What skills or characteristics does Jack possess that cause him to emerge as the potential leader of this group? Why are people following his direction?
2. Once on the beach, Jack is busy assessing the situation, helping people when he can, and giving instructions to others who want to be helpful. Why is the directive style of communication, which Jack is using, appropriate in this situation?
3. What reason does Jack have to self-disclose to Kate about his patient? What degree of self-disclosure is occurring?
4. In telling the story about his patients, what message is Jack trying to convey to Kate?
5. Boone offers Shannon some food. Based on the way Shannon communicates, what kind of mood do you think she's in? On what do you base this conclusion?

(SKIP: Jack, Kate and Charlie search for the cockpit and the pilot. They find the pilot. He shows them where the transceiver is and tells them the plane was 1,000 miles off-course when it crashed. The pilot is then brutally killed by something that will come to be known as the Black Smoke or the Smoke Monster. Kate and Charlie manage to escape, but they lose track of Jack after he rescues Charlie. Eventually, they find Jack.)

6. When looking for Walt, Michael approaches Sun and Jin. He is unaware that they speak only Korean. Jin says something to Sun, which Michael is unable to translate. So why does he apologize to Sun?
7. Sayid and Sawyer get into a physical altercation. Thinking back to the chapter we read on perception (Ch. 4), what could be some of the perception errors at the root of this conflict?
8. After the altercation, Hurley approaches Sayid in an attempt to make a connection. What does he use to connect with Sayid? What level of communication is occurring?
9. Kate does not understand Sun, because she doesn't speak Korean. However, they seem to communicate non-verbally. How?
10. Shannon is shaken by a recollection of something that happened before the flight. Boone finds her in tears, and she tries to explain to him why she is upset. What level of communication is occurring?
11. They end up arguing. Do you think Boone was actively listening to Shannon? How can you tell?
12. Hurley tells Jack, "I'm not so good around blood." Given his eventual reaction, and the message he is likely trying to convey, what else could/should he have said to Jack in order to get his point across?

Appendix B

ALEC 102 Case Analysis: Building Relationships (Empathy & Trust) Case – Lost, Pilot 1 & 2 (Season 1)

Background

Oceanic 815, a flight from Sydney to Los Angeles, crashes on an island in the middle of the ocean. While some familial relationships exist among the passengers, they are strangers for the most part. In the first two episodes of the series, the survivors try to figure out where they are and how they can be rescued. As part of this process, they must interact with one another. Bonds and tensions emerge among the members of the group. Issues of emotion and trust are highlighted as relationships are formed. (See character identification under separate cover.)

Instructions

While viewing the episodes, consider the relationships among the stranded passengers. Be aware of the emotions you perceive and also how the characters are connecting with each other (or not). In what ways is trust, or lack of trust, a factor? In what ways do the characters sympathize and empathize with one another? What is the state of relationships that existed prior to the crash? How, and between whom, are relationships formed after the crash? What situational factors contribute to the emotions, tensions, and bonds that are seen throughout the episodes?

Respond to the following questions, using terminology and concepts from your textbook (Chapters 11 & 14) where possible.

Case Analysis Questions

1. What skills or characteristics does Jack possess that cause him to emerge as the potential leader of this group? Why are people following his direction?
2. What persuasion techniques (refer to text) does Jack use to convince Kate to stitch up his wound?
3. What tactics or components of trust/trust-building (refer to text) are used by Jack and Kate as they establish a relationship?
4. Why do you think Jack self-discloses to Kate about his patient?
5. Put yourself in the position of these crash victims. How would you feel?
6. Does Jin trust the other passengers? How do you know?

(SKIP: Jack, Kate and Charlie search for the cockpit and the pilot. They find the pilot. He shows them where the transceiver is and tells them the plane was 1,000 miles off-course when it crashed. The pilot is then brutally killed by something that will come to be known as the Black Smoke or the Smoke Monster. Kate and Charlie manage to escape, but they lose track of Jack after he rescues Charlie. Eventually, they find Jack.)

7. Hurley approaches Sayid after the fight between Sayid and Sawyer. He makes some negative remarks about Sawyer. Is this an attempt to sympathize or empathize with Sayid? Why do you think so?
8. Kate does not understand Sun, because she doesn't speak Korean. However, they seem to communicate non-verbally. How?
9. Michael and Walt seem to have a strained relationship. How can you tell? What feelings or emotions do you perceive from them or between them?

10. Shannon and Boone have reacted differently to the crash. Boone accuses Shannon of being self-absorbed, and Shannon does not think Boone can empathize with her. Which one of them is right?
11. A group sets out to locate a signal for the transceiver. The group consists of Sayid, Kate, Charlie, Shannon, and Sawyer. Do you believe this group of individuals has established trust between them? Why/not? If they do have trust among them, on what is it based?
12. When Walt tells John that his mother died recently, John replies, "You're having a bad month." This acknowledgment is a form of _____ empathizing.
13. Why doesn't Sawyer trust Sayid?

Utilizing *The Office* to Teach Leadership Concepts

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Introduction

Today's generation of college students have grown up believing that "education is supposed to be entertaining, easy, and fun" (Taylor, 2006, p. 50). Educators must find ways to teach their students while also keeping them engaged in the curriculum (Graham, Ackermann, & Maxwell, 2004, p. 48). One way that can be accomplished is through integrating new technologies and teaching methods. Integrating technologies in the classroom can "enrich and enhance teaching and learning activities" (Duhaney, 2000, p.69).

Williams, Townsend, & Linder (2005) stated, "one of the important factors in a successful leadership education program is integrated and structured activities" (p. 64). There are a multitude of possibilities for integration of activities to teach leadership theories and concepts. One of the most utilized pedagogical methods is the use of movies and other multi-media resources (Callahan & Rosser, 2007; Williams, 2006).

The use of film and television shows has been shown to be a powerful medium for educating students in and about leadership (Callahan & Rosser, 2007; Gioia & Brass, 1985; Huczynski & Buchanan, 2004). Students want to be entertained and using films and television shows offer an avenue to do so while also teaching leadership (Graham, Sincoff, Baker, & Ackermann, 2003).

This practice paper will outline the integration of a television program into two leadership courses as a tool to connect leadership theories and concepts to real-world application. The learning objectives for each of the episodes was different, but the overarching objective was for students to recognize, apply, and connect leadership theories/concepts from the course to the episode and vice versa. The specific questions asked to the class for each episode are found in the Appendix in Tables 3 and 4.

Background

Leadership education is based in the belief that leadership can be taught (Bennis, 1994; Brungardt, 1996). By utilizing proper teaching methods and allowing for experiential learning students can learn leadership skills. Brunk (1997) maintains that courses aimed at teaching leadership should also include activities to imitate leadership scenarios. It is difficult to provide actual leadership situations, but the use of simulations can serve as mock scenarios in which the students can learn leadership skills (Williams, Townsend, & Linder, 2005, p. 64).

Utilizing new and creative ways to teach leadership is needed to help students apply leadership concepts (Brungardt, 1996; Callahan & Rosser, 2007; Mello, 2006). One technique that can be used is to observe the leadership concept and connect it in a "real" context (e.g. television show) (Callahan & Rosser, 2007).

Callahan & Rosser (2007) wrote of the benefits of popular cultural artifacts (PCA) when teaching leadership theories and concepts. They wrote that using PCA does require more time

preparing the lesson and it is not a substitute for good teaching. Callahan & Rosser (2007) offer advice of how to use PCA in the leadership class. The first step is how to integrate the PCA into the existing curriculum. Next, you must choose how much of the PCA to use. For example, showing the entire film or just a few scenes will change how the lesson is designed. The final step is deciding to use the PCA as an “inductive or deductive learning tool” (p. 273). When the PCA is shown, relative to when the leadership theory or concept is taught, will determine if it is inductive or deductive.

Another method for utilizing movies in the classroom was outlined by Clemens and Wolff (1999). They suggest a four step process beginning with students taking notes as they watch the film, then pairing up with other students and sharing notes, constructing leadership knowledge from the movie, and finally applying that knowledge to their lives.

The process involved in choosing and showing a film is key to making the use of popular culture in the classroom an effective learning tool. Graham, Sincoff, Baker, & Ackermann (2003) state “the facilitator must be conversant with the film and guide the discussion to strengthen the connection between film and workplace application” (p. 43). It is critical that the teacher proactively plan how to integrate the film in the leadership course.

Graham, Sincoff, Baker, & Ackerman (2003) used movie clips to illustrate the five practices essential for effective leadership outlined in Kouzes and Posner’s (2002) book, *The Leadership Challenge*. Graham et al. (2003) followed a three-step approach when using movies to illustrate the concepts in *The Leadership Challenge*. The three steps were; setting up the clip, showing the clip, and debriefing after the clip. They offered suggestions for leadership educators to follow when using movies and movie clips to teach leadership concepts. Among their suggestions was the need for the facilitator to be well versed in the film in order to guide discussion and help students make the connection between the movie and the leadership application.

Another study outlined the steps to use when viewing movies to teach emotional intelligence. (Graham, Ackermann, & Maxwell, 2004). They also provided several examples of movies that could be used to educate students about emotional intelligence. They concluded that viewers should be able to construct personal meaning by watching characters deal with their own issues and emotions.

Williams & McClure (2010) compared the rate of knowledge between students who were taught a leadership concept using one of three different pedagogical methods; lecture, experiential learning, or public pedagogy. They used Kolb’s Experiential Learning Model (1984) as a component of their theoretical framework. They found the students who were taught using public pedagogy had the highest retention rate. Those students who were taught with only lecture had the lowest knowledge gain and retention rate for the leadership concept of interest.

Theoretical Framework

Kolb’s Experiential Learning Model (1984) was used as the theoretical framework for this learning activity. This model encourages teachers to use a variety of teaching techniques to help students learn. The model is designed as a cycle. Svinicki & Dixon (1987) described the model.

The cycle begins with the learner's personal involvement in a specific experience. The learner reflects on this experience from many viewpoints, seeking to find its meaning. Out of this reflection the learner draws logical conclusions and may add to his or her own conclusions the theoretical constructs of others. These conclusions and constructs guide decisions and actions that lead to new concrete experiences (p. 141).

The four stages of the cycle include: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation (Kolb, 1984).

Description of the Practice

Utilization of *The Office* (Silverman, Daniels, Gervais, & Merchant, 2005-2009) episodes has been used in the leadership classes that the author teaches at Texas Tech University for the past three years. The classes are: Agricultural Leadership Principles (AGSC 3301) and Personal Leadership Development in Agriculture and Natural Resources (AGED 3315). The two classes are taught in the fall semester each year. AGSC 3301 is taught twice a week for 80 minutes each class period and AGED 3315 is taught three times a week for 50 minutes each class period.

The Office is a television program that has been on NBC since 2005. It is a documentary-style half-hour comedy series set in a Scranton, Pennsylvania paper supply company, Dunder Mifflin. It revolves around the workers who spend their day in "the office" ("About The Office," n.d.).

There are many workers (characters) at Dunder Mifflin, but several are regulars and key to the discussion of leadership. The characters' job role may have changed from the beginning of the series to the current episode shown on television, but their roles for the episodes shown for this project are found in Table 1.

Table 1

The Office Characters

Name	Position	Name	Position
Michael Scott	Manager	Oscar Martinez	Accounting
Jim Halpert	Sales	Angela Martin	Accounting
Dwight Schrute	Sales	Kevin Malone	Accounting
Andy Bernard	Sales	Meredith Palmer	Product Oversight
Stanley Hudson	Sales	Creed Bratton	Product Oversight
Phyllis Vance	Sales	David Wallace	Chief Financial Officer
Pam Beesly	Reception	Jan Levenson	Vice President of Sales

Note: A complete list of the characters can be found on IMDB.com (“The Office,” n.d.).

The episodes used in Agricultural Leadership Principles (AGSC 3301) are outlined in Table 3. The episodes used in Personal Leadership Development (AGED 3315) are outlined in Table 4. Both tables are located in the appendix.

Each episode was selected based on its ability to illustrate the leadership theory or topic that is being discussed in the course for a specific class period. Before showing the video to the students, it was viewed and questions were created to help guide students when they view the episode. Students actively watched the episode and recorded their response to the questions. After the episode was finished the class discussed their responses to the episode and its connection to the leadership theory.

The process for viewing and discussing the episodes was similar to the process outlined by Graham, Sincoff, Baker, & Ackermann (2003). Before the students viewed the episode, the instructor took the time to provide any pertinent background information. Character names and relationships should be provided to students when using a television program that may be unfamiliar to them. After the brief introduction the episode was shown. After the episode was shown, time was devoted for a debriefing session. Students were asked to share their response to specific questions and their overall thoughts from the episode.

The viewing and critiquing of *The Office* episodes served as a tool to utilize three of the four stages in Kolb’s Experiential Learning Model (1984). Concrete experience was achieved by allowing students to watch the episode. Students were asked to write down their thoughts while they watched the episode which qualified as reflective observation. Finally, abstract conceptualization was accomplished through lecture and helping students connect the episode to leadership theories and concepts.

Episodes Used

The following is a list of the episodes used in the two courses, the leadership theory or concept which was targeted in the episode, and example discussion items from the episode.

Episode: Office Olympics

Leadership Theory/Concept: Personality Theory

Example discussion items:

This episode was used to introduce the trait theory. Specific examples from the episode were utilized when teaching the theory. It also illustrates that the “manager” may not always be the leader in a situation. Michael asks Pam to keep the other office employees working. He is a little mean to her and Dwight during the episode, but tries to be funny. Dwight displays honesty and knowledge, especially when buying a house. Jim is an organizer, motivator, creator, and sociable person. He also works to reward people and include everyone in the office Olympics. Pam displays drive and creativity when designing games to play.

Episode: Halloween**Leadership Theory/Concept: Power and Influence****Example discussion items:**

This episode illustrated power bases and influence tactics in the workplace. The episode involves a situation in which an employee needs to be fired. Legitimate and reward power is held by Michael as the official manager and he has the power to fire the employees. Ingratiation is demonstrated by Pam when she attempts to suck up to Michael by complimenting his costume. Dwight uses pressure on Michael by naming everyone in the office, but “not Dwight” to be fired. Michael uses consultation by going to the accounting department and asking them to “find the money.”

Inspirational tactic is used by Jim to a caller inquiring about Dwight. Dwight attempts to use legitimizing tactics on Stanley, but Stanley does not respond. Pam uses rational persuasion with Jim when talking to him about taking another job offer. Michael uses coalition tactics when using Dwight to help him identify who to fire and again when practicing firing Creed with Jim. Dwight uses personal appeal to Michael about the job. Creed uses coercive and rational power and utilizes the personal appeal and pressure tactics on Michael to convince him to fire someone else. Michael should not have involved the entire office in the decision and that can be addressed during the debrief session.

Episode: Sabre**Leadership Theory/Concept: Change****Example discussion items:**

This episode illustrated the difficulties and challenges that can arise when change occurs in the workplace. Dunder Mifflin has been bought by a new company, Sabre. The employees demonstrated fear, confusion, and enthusiasm. Resistance to change was illustrated by Michael not wanting to accept all of the changes.

Episode: Conflict Resolution**Leadership Theory/Concept: Conflict Management****Example discussion items:**

The episode allowed for an introduction into the methods to be used in conflict management. This episode revolved around people’s issues and the attempts to solve all of the conflicts in the office. The conflict started with Oscar and Angela arguing about a poster hanging in her cubicle. Michael attempts to provide solutions and eventually a compromise is made. Pam avoids conflict with Angela by giving her a Save the Date card. Michael and Toby argue about how to handle the conflict issues and Toby eventually gives into Michael and provides him with the box full of complaints. Pam becomes upset about a complaint and decides to confront Angela. Jim and Dwight have multiple conflicts. Toby’s method of handling complaints was to listen to their complaints, “eventually they will forget the problem and they will move on.”

Episode: Business Ethics**Leadership Theory/Concept: Ethics/Values****Example discussion items:**

This episode illustrated the issues that can arise in a business in terms of ethical behavior. The ethical dilemma in the episode is very extreme, but it still allowed for a conversation on ethics. There are five principles to ethics; respect, service, justice, honesty, community. The major ethical issue involved an employee sleeping with a supplier for a discount. Michael tries to cover it up and protect his employee. Dwight’s ethical issue is that he does not waste time.

Episode: Health Care**Leadership Theory: Leadership Behaviors****Example discussion items:**

The five main leadership behaviors can be identified in this episode. Supportive behaviors are illustrated by Michael who states that he cares for his employees; he gives them money and is on their side. Directive behaviors are exhibited by Jan when she tells Michael to pick a health care plan. Dwight also uses directive leadership by choosing the health care plan and telling the others to, “live with it.” Michael utilizes participative leadership by asking Dwight to help him choose the health care plan. Dwight also asks the other employees for their involvement with the process. Michael uses reward behavior by inventing a prize to motivate his employees to work together. Dwight uses punishment by threatening no health care. Michael tries to display charismatic behaviors throughout the episode.

Episode: New Boss**Leadership Theory/Concept: Directive/Supportive Leadership****Example discussion items:**

This episode was used to demonstrate directive and supportive leadership behaviors. The New Boss demonstrated directive leadership by telling workers exactly what they are supposed to do. He also did not find Jim’s tux funny. He was very honest about the prospect of downsizing. He told Michael that he reports directly to David Wallace (the CEO of Dunder Mifflin). He spends a lot of energy watching the employees, especially Jim. The New Boss also was very directive in his communication to Michael and others. Michael Scott displayed supportive leadership behaviors by allowing workers to do overtime. He tells Oscar that he is proud of him. Michael attempts to get to know his new boss and welcome him into the office.

Episode: Dundies**Leadership Theory/Concept: Reward and Punishment Leadership****Example discussion items:**

This episode was used to illustrate reward and punishment behaviors. Reward behaviors are demonstrated by Michael Scott with his creation of the “Dundies.” He wants to reward, “the best in every one of us.” Dwight used punishment behavior by threatening to punish the girls for what was written in the ladies room. He communicated, “wants repercussions for peoples behaviors.” He then threatened to take away the ladies room until the guilty party was punished. Pam rewards Michael by thanking him for hosting and Dwight for running sound. This episode also illustrated that rewards are not always supported by the organization and not all employees appreciate the same rewards.

Episode: The Negotiation**Leadership Theory/Concept: Boundary Spanning (Negotiation)****Example discussion items:**

This episode helped students realize the intricacies involved in negotiating for a raise. It also illustrates what not to do. Michael is preparing to deal with an employee, Darryl, who intends to ask for a raise. Michael goes online to find a list of tips to use when negotiating. Darryl comes to the negotiation with facts and makes a good argument for receiving a raise. Darryl eventually teaches Michael how to negotiate and encourages him to go to corporate to ask for a raise.

Episode: The Promotion

Leadership Theory/Concept: Fairness/Ethics

Example discussion items:

This episode can be used to illustrate the difficulty of being “fair” in a work environment. The episode involves the process of deciding who gets a raise. There are two bosses in the office for this episode, Jim and Michael, which could be questioned as to its fairness. The bosses try to keep the possibility of a raise quiet from the rest of the office. Jim tries to spread the raises out to everyone in a fair manner and to avoid favoritism. They eventually try to use another method similar to merit raises which is not a perfect system (they use beans).

Episode: Diversity Day

Leadership Theory/Concept: Diversity

Example discussion items:

This episode allowed the viewer to see how to ineffectively and inappropriately handle diversity in the workplace. Dunder Mifflin sends a speaker to train the office employees how to be more culturally sensitive. Michael doesn’t appreciate the guest and proceeds to take over the training. Michael states he is interested in diversity and believes it is important. He said, “wish everyday was diversity day.” After the speaker, Mr. Brown, finishes the training it becomes clear that he was there only to get Michael to sign a form apologizing for inappropriate jokes. Michael tries to have his own diversity training by bringing forward all of the stereotypes for specific groups.

Experience with Project/Results

Utilization of *The Office* in the two leadership classes has been met with successful student evaluations. The ability to pull “real life” examples into a theory based class has helped students relate the leadership theories and concepts to their own lives.

At the conclusion of the Fall 2011 semester an instrument was administered to the two courses to gauge their satisfaction with using *The Office* clips in the leadership classes.

Thirty-four students completed the end of course evaluation, which used a Likert-type scale to rate students’ perceptions and reactions to viewing episodes of *The Office*, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree*. The results are displayed in Table 2. Students most positively felt “watching the show was a nice change of pace from lecture” ($M = 4.68, SD = 0.68$), was “relevant to the course content” ($M = 4.62, SD = 0.60$), and was “enjoyable” ($M = 4.50, SD = 0.62$). The next three scores were also high for the following statements: “making the concepts discussed in class more ‘real world’” ($M = 4.18, SD = .76$), “enhanced my learning” ($M = 4.09, SD = .83$) and “helped me understand difficult concepts” ($M = 3.94, SD = .92$). Students felt very strongly that the episodes were not “distracting” ($M = 1.71, SD = 0.76$), “stupid” ($M = 1.65, SD = 0.77$), or “boring” ($M = 1.59, SD = 0.96$).

Table 2

Students’ Perceived Satisfaction Level Towards Viewing Episodes of The Office (n = 34)

The episodes ...	Mean	Standard Deviation
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were a nice change of pace from lecture	4.68	0.68
were relevant to course content	4.62	0.60
were enjoyable	4.50	0.62
were creative	4.41	0.70
were funny	4.29	0.72
were clever	4.24	0.74
make the concepts discussed in class seem more “real world”	4.18	0.76
enhanced my learning	4.09	0.83
helped me understand difficult concepts	3.94	0.92
were distracting	1.71	0.76
were stupid	1.65	0.77
were boring	1.59	0.96

Note: Based on Likert-type scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree

When asked if the students would recommend the use of *The Office* for future classes, an overwhelming majority of the class answered yes ($n = 32$). Two students did not enjoy watching the episodes and did not recommend using them in future classes.

Students were asked to respond to an open-ended question in relation to their satisfaction with watching *The Office* episodes in the leadership classes. The following are a few of their responses:

- *They were a good learning tool.*
- *I enjoyed and looked forward to them.*
- *Funny, yet effective way to teach leadership.*
- *Good examples of leadership concepts.*
- *More episodes throughout the semester.*
- *It was a nice change from just a normal day in class. The episodes were funny.*
- *Great tool to use. Don't stop.*
- *Doing the lecture before watching helps apply what we learn.*

Two students commented on ways to improve the activity.

- *Listing the characters for those who don't watch it regularly.*
- *I would pick a different show. The humor is too dry.*

Conclusion

From prior course evaluations and the instrument that was administered at the conclusion of the Fall 2011 semester, it can be concluded that students enjoy watching episodes of *The Office*. Students reported that the episodes provided a nice change of pace from lecture and the episodes were relevant to course content. This could be a reflection of their wanting to be entertained as they learn (Taylor, 2006).

Students were able to work through three of the four stages in Kolb's Experiential Learning Model (1984). Students were able to recognize leadership concepts illustrated in *The Office* which fulfilled the concrete experience stage of Kolb's model. Reflective observation was accomplished by allowing students to reflect on their observations. They were given the opportunity to say what they would have done differently if they were the leader in the situation. Leadership concepts were clearly explained and connected to the episodes by the instructor to achieve abstract conceptualization.

Although the final stage in Kolb's Model was not accomplished by this pedagogical method, the students were able to watch the characters actively experiment in the way they used the leadership concepts.

Graham, Sincoff, Baker, & Ackermann (2003) advocate the use of movies to teach leadership, "Using movies to teach leadership is a winning strategy" (p. 37). The use of television programs is also a valid mechanism to introduce and supplement leadership curriculum.

Recommendations/Implications

Several recommendations are garnered from the integration of television episodes or clips into leadership courses. First, it is recommended that the episode/clip be watched prior to showing it to the class. This gives the teacher an opportunity to guarantee that the concepts are illustrated in the manner expected. Also, questions can be developed to help guide discussion of the episode. As with any time technology will be used, it is recommended that the available technology be tested prior to using it with students.

The characters in *The Office* do not always display the behaviors of effective leadership. It is vital the instructor identify those negative behaviors and inform the students of their inaccuracies.

Research should be conducted to measure student's learning of targeted objectives through the use of popular culture artifacts. Also, more research on Kolb's Experiential Learning Model in leadership education should be performed.

Callahan and Rosser (2007) advocate the use of popular culture artifacts (e.g. movies, television, etc) in the leadership curriculum. The author recommends watching other television programs in an effort to find more shows that could be used in the leadership class.

"Movies, television, fiction and nonfiction books are easily obtained, widely recognized, and more readily understood forms of popular culture (Callahan & Rosser, 2007, p. 285). Students could be asked to keep a PCA journal where they capture their thoughts and reflections when watching television programs and movies (Callahan & Rosser, 2007), both in and outside the classroom.

Utilization of Clemens and Wolff's (1999) four-step process of teaching with films would be of interest. The basics are the same as the practice outlined in this paper, with the main difference being the addition of students pairing up and discussing their notes.

"Using movies to teach leadership works; however, significant planning is required to incorporate movies successfully into leadership education" (Graham, Sincoff, Baker, & Ackermann, 2003, p. 43). The same can be said when incorporating television episodes. The use of television episodes

can serve as a valuable and creative tool when teaching students leadership theories and concepts. Best practices should be created and shared with leadership practitioners.

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Appendix

Table 3				
<i>Episodes Used in Agricultural Leadership Principles (AGSC 3301)</i>				
Lesson Title	Episode Name	Season	Episode Number	Question Asked
Personality Theory	Office Olympics	2	3	Write down the leaders in the episode. What leadership traits do they possess/exhibit? Who exhibits ineffective leadership traits? What are they?
Power and Influence	Halloween	2	6	Write down the bases of power that leaders exhibit. What influence tactics were illustrated in the episode? (Include who was involved in the influence process.)
Change	Sabre	6	15	What is the change and how is it implemented? How are the characters responding to the change?
Conflict Management	Conflict Resolution	2	21	Write down examples of conflict and conflict management. How does the leader handle the conflict (methods, directions, etc)?
Ethics/Values	Business Ethics	5	2	What was the ethical issue? Which principles of ethical leadership were illustrated or broken?

Table 4				
<i>Episodes Used in Personal Leadership Development (AGED 3315)</i>				
Lesson Title	Episode Name	Season	Episode Number	Question Asked
Leadership Behaviors	Health Care	1	3	Write down who is exhibiting leadership behaviors and which behavior it is.
Directive	New Boss	5	18	Write down the types of directive leadership behaviors, skills, and traits that are exhibited. Also, write down supportive behaviors.
Reward and Punishment	Dundies	2	1	What are the reward and/or punishment behaviors being illustrated? What is the reaction of the followers?
Boundary Spanning	The Negotiation	3	19	What negotiation skills/techniques are used in the episode? Are they effective? (Write down positive and negative examples)
Fairness	The Promotion	6	3	What are examples of fairness/unfairness? How does the leader(s) exhibit fair and ethical behavior? What are examples of social exchange behaviors?
Ethics & Diversity	Diversity Day	1	2	How does the leader encourage diversity? What concepts related to diversity were exhibited? (prejudice, stereotypes, ethnocentrism, etc)

Growing Beyond Pleasing: Leadership, Authority and Identity issues in Developing Women Leaders

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Introduction

Women of all ages and education levels often regulate their responses in difficult conversations through observable behavior patterns, verbal and nonverbal, in ways that even they deem ineffective. A drive to please is a popular example cited in our programs, both undergraduate and mid-career. It is often misconstrued as a mandate for politeness, which gives way to careful navigation or avoidance of speaking to an issue of import via deference, diminished agency, or mitigated speech. This paper highlights a stable issue across leadership development programs in the Batten Leadership Institute and beyond. A fishbowl game, in combination with mirrored mentoring process groups, energizes cultural expectations of self reflection, curiosity, feedback and capacity for continuous growth as part of leading well.

Program participants will develop an understanding of the connection between values, loyalties, and subsequent relationships with authority. How we relate to authority deeply informs how we deploy our own authority. An experiential method resembling a modified counseling training technique called Fishbowling, offers a unique twist to deconstructing and reformulating behavior in a two party conflict. Participants of this practice program will join in a fishbowl demonstration to understand how to challenge expressed attitudes and behaviors to more effectively diagnose and approach a core issue. Using the VitalSmarts model for Crucial Confrontations (Patterson, Grenny, Maxfield, McMillan, & Switzler, 2004) and Heifetz' Adaptive Leadership theory (Heifetz & Linsky, 2002) as a foundation, the group will assist the person in the "hotseat" to shift how they deploy themselves during conflict.

Background

The Batten Leadership Institute is grounded in the philosophy that to lead others well, we must first lead our own lives well. To develop this intrapersonally-based leadership capacity, our emphasis is on self-reflection, skill development, and systemic thinking. Unique in both design and delivery, this high-impact leadership curriculum attempts to bring into the present moment, feedback on students' interpersonal communication as perceived by peers and facilitators.

Although transformational programs sound ideal, it is often a challenge to identify and then teach key vital behaviors (Patterson, Grenny, Maxfield, McMillan, & Switzler, 2008) that will render attitudinal and behavioral shifts. We believe that wisdom rarely emanates from lectures and that experiential opportunities are required for optimal integration and sustained development. Bringing a practice to life where at least some of the problematic behavioral indicators can be replicated is a key component driving change in participants. Even more noteworthy is the notion of making a communication failure public. Heifetz (2009) addresses the importance of properly diagnosing the real or adaptive issue and taking full, public ownership of one's own contribution to the problem. In similar vein, Patterson et al., (2004), address the hazards of the fundamental attribution error and suggest *mastering your story* to abandon your belief that you grasp others' intentions behind their actions. Both authors and their models espouse becoming curious about the pressures on the

stakeholders within their systems and trying on ways to address the conversation in a non-defensive manner.

Students doing this work learn to expect resistance as they lead change and are not easily swayed once they have established their confidence by trying out new ways of being and proving to themselves they can live through the embarrassment of struggle and failure. They bolster their resilience while expanding their capacity to better deploy themselves in a way that is more about the issue at hand than a role they assume by default (Heifetz, 2009).

Description of the Practice

Through an excavation process of driving values, termed VABES (Values, Assumptions, Beliefs, Expectations) by Clawson (2009), students learn the impact of their foundational paradigms on the lens they have on the world and their place in it. Implicit and explicit messages formed how they engage with authority figures, beginning with their primary caregivers. What we find is that many students are still working hard to please mom or dad and that tendency plays out in their scholastic and professional efforts and communications. They decide what pieces of their values are most constraining and in need of tweaking how they have channeled their beliefs about themselves and others into harmful or ineffective behaviors.

In our first 101, Leadership Skills class, students gain an understanding of leadership research and theory coupled with experiential work around conflict and negotiation. Fishbowl is one component of this course that lasts for up to 8 weeks and acts as a lab. Two participants in a circle are surrounded by faculty and peers – standing up in order to create a holding environment or container (Heifetz, 2009) for the work. Only one student will undertake the burden to initiate the dialogue, while the partner in the circle acts as badly as one might in real life until authentically moved to respond differently. Working with the entire group to properly diagnose the problem according to the model, the participant in the middle identifies the problem and a single sentence about what she wants. The caveat is that what she wants can't be dependent upon the other person changing, because she can't go in with an agenda to change anyone else. She can decide how to thoughtfully deploy herself in a new way that is more aligned with her goal.

Typically lasting 30 to 45 minutes, weekly for several sessions, fishbowl exercises allow for one or two people to assume the “hot seat” in order to work their goal. In a game-like fashion, students standing on the perimeter of the circle buzz in and stop the action to give feedback on any behavior, verbal or non-verbal, that will help move the speaker forward. Many stops and starts are difficult to receive and part of the work is helping the speaker move away from her desire to “get it right” and be competent in favor of leaning in to not always knowing or wanting to please (Heifetz, Grashow & Linsky, 2009; Heifetz & Linsky, 2002). Working in a space of productive disequilibrium to address an adaptive challenge is experienced as heated tension in this method (Heifetz & Linsky, 2002).

Results/Experience with Lesson to Date

Specific student learning outcomes are reflected in faculty and peer observation around progression towards goals set by students within the individual classes and more broadly, over the three year program. Faculty, self and peer report on specific areas of communication such as

improved listening, conflict management, accepting feedback without defensive posturing, embracing a mindset of curiosity and a willingness to complexify understanding around any issue, are examples of expected outcomes. As needed or desired, individual coaching and 360 degree in-house assessment allows for others in the student's life to offer comments that allow for patterns to emerge as goals are selected for refinement in their final year. Informal supplemental meetings between BLI faculty members and individual students are invited as needed at all levels of the program, based on self-referral or a staff request. Additionally, despite all members of the faculty having core training and degrees as psychotherapists, boundaries are strictly adhered, with deep therapy needs addressed privately as issues emerge and referrals for counseling are made. Finally, familial and employer feedback to the program is valuable, particularly with local employers who purposefully seek students from the program for internships and jobs post-graduation. One student addressed this benefit in the following way:

Like sitting up straight, it is difficult to be reminded of my shortcomings, but necessary for improvement. The Batten Leadership Institute straightens the spine. Outside of class, I have utilized the strength and discoveries made through BLI to better myself. In a recent interview with xxx, I was honest about my feelings...I did not concede entirely to the opposition despite coming from a place of understanding...I was honest. And I was hired. Not only was I hired, I was brought onto a growing team as an overseer of the position I applied for... In being open and honest about my opinions and beliefs, I was empowered and received recognition for passion usually hidden under politically structured rhetoric.BLI has demonstrated that I not only need to grow, but it is a platform for experimentation of the ideas I wish to incorporate into my personal communication and emotional maintenance in and outside of my professional environments. (Georden)

Some students recall insights and growth following the struggle of being in the heat of the classroom or a process group, describing how they emerged with a stronger sense of themselves and their relationship to larger systems. Although jarring at times, it can also be freeing, as much goes unspoken when one's sense of loyalty is tapped by a need to please. Excerpts from student journals and papers point to the development that unfolds in the first year.

Being sweet, kind, and quiet has worked for me. People will tend to like me and if I need help they will usually help me. People who know me will usually attempt to include me in the discussion, when they see that I have something to say. They can usually tell because I start fidgeting. So often by acting sweet and kind, someone will ask me a question or let me enter a conversation, so I don't have to actually try to do it myself.

I tend to worry when I speak that I won't say the right thing. I don't trust myself that what I'm saying is proper or kind or being said the right way. Even when something is the truth, I may stop myself from saying because I fear hurting the other person's feelings.... This is one place I am stuck, because when I don't say anything, like I learned in the skills group, it's not helping anyone else either because I might have something to say that is valuable and relevant to what is happening in the discussion, but no one will ever hear it if I don't say it. (Molly)

I believe that I am a different person from when I started Batten. This class help me realized some things about myself, face my fears and shed some light on some behavior patterns I have. I was out of my comfort zone, and I was accepted by some and felt shut

down by others. The rejection hurt but I didn't die. I didn't let that stop me and I didn't return guarded when I was rejected. It felt like I made a discovery about myself that I wasn't afraid to share.

My hunger is something that the class brought to light and it helped me realize that you can't please everybody there will always be some casualties. Trying to please everyone will only leave you with more disappointment than you bargained for. There will always be someone who isn't happy with what you're doing and it will take them some time to get on board or understand. Why trade in the happiness or betterment for yourself and others just for one person? *Fearing a no or a disappointment, you will always live in fear and will always be overworked in your journey to find joy.* (Maharia)

When they become aware of how others perceive them, how their current ways of interacting are keep them from excelling—their attitudes shift, followed by their previously problematic behavior. It is productive disequilibrium at its best, in that context.

As one of our Horizon (non-traditional aged) students commented, *"Don't take Batten classes unless you really want to find out who you are."*

Another student commented in her journal, *"I probably would have lived my whole life making up bad stories and feeling disconnected if not for this class. This is exactly the kind of supportive atmosphere and productive self-reflection I'd hoped to get here."*

As feedback is a mainstay throughout the time, much vicarious learning is reported to take place even from those who were not in the middle of the circle. Time and again, students remark how hard it is. Tears are common, frustration guaranteed. Pride in taking meaningful risks occurs in a way that boosts self-efficacy and forges connections within the group. It is also gratifying when they return with reports on how they engaged differently and with better results with a roommate, their spouse, a boss, colleague, or family member.

Elevating self work and mentoring as an accepted precursor to effective leadership development has grown over the ten year lifespan of the ever-evolving culture of the Institute. But not everyone is ready to work in the heat. We can want it for them but they will need to want it for themselves in order to make progress. Occasionally, a parent will demand their student take the first class. It is typical that a student who began as parent-referred (a few in each first year class) decides on her own at the end of the term to pursue the 20 hour certificate. Our numbers are growing thanks to the students' hard work and the reputation they lend the program.

Beginning with 12 students in 2002 for the 3 year program that was initially co-curricular, this year, course enrollment is at 115 with 112 graduates to date. Students increasingly report that the Batten Leadership Institute was a key factor in their decision to attend Hollins University. We retain approximately 75% of eligible students from the introductory course and 95% from the 2nd course forward. The interclass mentoring component, the collaboration among BLI faculty throughout the courses, and internal advising of students pursuing the certificate all serve to support retention.

Recommendations/Implications

Expanding experiential opportunities with a wellness counseling backdrop and a leadership framework, provides a fascinating environment for changes in attitudes and behaviors, of self and others. Broadening one's lens and letting go of long-held loyalties and roles, such as pleasing tendencies, allows for other new possibilities to emerge. The results can be a powerful talking point to forge allies across institutions, where leadership programs are seeking acceptance and integration.

As for crafting a culture, the students get excited about sporting merchandise that challenges others to take classes in BLI and go where they have been, boasting their "Can You Stand the Heat?" t-shirts. And when they talk about heat, negotiation and fishbowl clinics rise to the top of that list. This branding aspect creates a space for belonging that also carries a culture of challenge and pride reflective of the level of risk and work embodied in the change and growth process.

Appendix A

Fishbowl starter: Roommate Conflict using Crucial Confrontations Model (VitalSmarts, 2004)

Scenario 2: Neat Nelly and Messy Martha

You are living in a double with a student who is very different from you. You started out the semester being good friends but now that you are living together, realize you have extremely different tastes, styles, religious and political views and you are at the point where you can't take anymore of her. The following laundry list illustrates your complaints. You were going to just request a room change or mediation with Housing and Residence Life, but have decided to address it yourself first. You can always leave.

Roommate Conflict Details

Nelly's Complaints: She's messy—awful! She has dates over WAY too much. She leaves clothes and food everywhere. She stays up too late on computer or phone. She parties in the room when I'm trying to study. She found out that I made a comment on Facebook and has started bashing me publicly. That loser is going nowhere in life. I hate her!

Messy Martha's Complaints:

She is too uptight! She turns off lights at 10pm. She is critical of me and my friends. I feel like I can't do anything- can't breathe around her. She has been leaving nasty notes around the room about what she cleaned or picked up each day—stupid passive aggressive behavior. She posted an embarrassing message about me on Face book last week. Oh yeah, I *did* bash her on Facebook too. Why wouldn't I? I hate her! I'm ready for a room change.

Okay, so in this scenario- like in real life, you have a side of the story as well and a host of complaints that are inevitably going to be fired back at you from her perspective. To succeed, you must back down from your stubborn stance and begin to talk.

Choose What and IF (Should you bring it up?) To decide this, you must work on yourself first. Have you told yourself an ugly story about this person and why they did what they did? Did you think about what you really want (for yourself, her and your relationship?) and decide that your intentions and motivations are honorable--(i.e., - you are not just trying to hurt her or put her in her place with your comments)?

Unbundle the Issues –CPR-(is it a content issue, a pattern issue or a relationship issue? Hang where you diagnosed even when the other person jumps back to content.)

(Identify the What) Construct a one-sentence problem statement (that reflects the core issue of what you *really* want):

Master My Stories Remember that you are asking why a reasonable, rational, decent person would act like this. You are also acknowledging that there may be ability barriers or motivation barriers (or both) and that others, including yourself, might be contributing to the problem. (Like with Adaptive Leadership (Appendix C), always acknowledge your piece of the mess--first).

Describe the Gap--Start with Safety:

- 1) Share your good intentions and look for common ground.
- 2) Share what you expected vs. what you observed
- 3) End with a question:

With this you want to clarify that the other person agrees about the problem (there is one and identify the source if possible)

Make it Motivating

Don't start with power (i.e. - don't threaten punitive action or throw out ultimatums).

Clarify natural consequences (if you are dealing with bad ideas, talk about the consequences to them and those around them).

Make the invisible visible (remember here you need to link to their existing pain).

What might be some things you would say to this person given the situation? What would you want to hear if you were receiving the information?

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From Theory to Practice: Facilitating Innovative Experiential Leadership Theory-Based Role Play Activities

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Introduction

Students in leadership education are taught that leadership can be learned through practice, which stresses learning by doing (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007). Eison and Bonwell (1991) echoed this sentiment in their affirmation of active learning, defined as involving students in doing things and thinking about the things they are doing. “Doing” refers to activities such as debates, simulations, guided design, group problem solving, and case studies. Thinking refers to reflections about the meaning of what students learn or about the learning process itself (Fink, 2003). This would suggest that many active and experiential teaching techniques are currently used in leadership education pedagogy because these types of activities stress the application of theory to practice. Yet, recent research, such as Jenkins’ (2012) study of instructional strategy use in undergraduate leadership education, suggests that highly active skill building activities, such as role playing, simulation, and games are used far less frequently than once thought. In fact, among the 24 instructional strategies surveyed in Jenkins’ study, role play activities and simulation were the second and third least used instructional strategies by 303 undergraduate leadership educators teaching face-to-face academic credit-bearing courses.

Consequently, Jenkins (2012) argues that there ought to be workshops on best practices in leadership education. He proposed that while simulation, games and role play were used quite infrequently by the instructors surveyed in his study, perhaps they value them but do not know how to use them effectively. Furthermore, Allen and Hartman (2009) propositioned that college instructors often considered the use of skill building strategies (role play activities, simulation, and games) medium-to high-risk teaching techniques because they felt a loss of control, lacked the necessary skills to facilitate the activity, or might be criticized for teaching in unorthodox way. Therefore, workshops that expose leadership educators to best practices may prove extremely beneficial in the discipline (Jenkins, 2012). For example, using lesson plans, facilitating mock activities, and demonstrating how to effectively assess student learning may reduce instructor discomfort with these highly active instructional strategies.

Background

Workshops that explore best practices related to the use of critical reflection and experiential learning may greatly benefit leadership education (Jenkins & Cutchens, 2011). Many scholars have suggested that these activities engage and mobilize students to act on new ideas and challenge their conventional thinking in both theory and practice (Jones, Simonetti, & Vielhaber-Hermon, 2000; Reynolds, 1999). More specifically, role-playing activities emphasize experiential learning techniques that influence reflective judgment because they allow students to apply leadership theories learned in class to “real” situations. They are defined as activities in which students act out a set of defined role behaviors or positions with a view to acquire desired experiences (Allen & Hartman, 2009). A role-playing scenario could be mimicking, demonstrative or illustrative of

specific concepts, problems or situations (Sogurno, 2003). These kinds of learning activities both: a) can improve leadership skills by forcing students to use a combination of their acquired knowledge, skills and attitudes and b) prompt students to examine their own beliefs and actions. For example, Sogurno (2003) suggests that role-playing focuses on active participation, rather than memorization or discussion, and introduces learners to new roles and behaviors; therefore, students better retain information and engage in stronger meaning-making and more permanent learning.

Perhaps these activities are effective because they also promote transformational learning. This concept, introduced by Mezirow (2000), is a stark contrast to the traditional idea of informational learning, which Kegan (as cited in Baumgartner, 2003) defines as adding on to what we already know. This is a learning process with which undergraduate students may be more familiar and comfortable. Conversely, Clark (as cited in Baumgartner, 2003) describes transformational learning as a life-changing experience or matured understanding that changes the way individuals see themselves in everyday life or thought. Baumgartner (2003) implies this type of learning best takes place in environments that allow for participation, collaboration, exploration, critical reflection, and feedback. However, students may be hesitant to participate in such learning because it may push them outside of what they would typically consider a comfortable cognitive environment. More specifically, activities like role-play, which encourage experiential learning and critical reflection, may force students to work through the unknown or unexplored areas of their epistemological process. Students who only participate in preferred learning environments, like those that promote informational learning, may limit their leadership skill development (Allen & Hartman, 2009). In contrast, students who engage in more transformational learning, such as taking on the role of a leader who shares their opposing view in a debate, may exhibit improved reflective judgment and increased cognitive dissonance, which can lead to more mature understanding. Indeed, Allen and Hartman (2009) suggest students who role-play and take the position of disagreeing to better understand a method of thinking or behaving may improve their leadership skills.

Description of the Practice

Appendices A and B include complete lesson plans for each role play activity.

Observed Experiences with Activities

Role Play Activity 1: Transformational vs. Transactional Leadership

Students immediately began working on the project with high energy and creativity. They were attentive to the elected leader, as the group recognized and accepted this leader who they elected. Leadership styles varied based upon the original assigned task. Typically, those who led groups to create a universal bottle opener and a new mascot took a relational leadership approach, focusing on input from others (inclusion) and delegating tasks to those who gave insight (empowerment). Other leaders, such as those who led groups to create the Center for Ants, used more of a servant-leader approach, advocating for what they “believed” and generally working with their followers to complete the task. By contrast, those who led groups to create the Lazy Boy Chair took more of a positional leadership role. They directed followers and were somewhat removed from the group. Whereas those leaders who were assigned the task of building a Center for Ants became involved

in the process, those who were asked to create the Lazy Boy Chair were generally more detached from the group's feelings, ideas, or accomplishments.

Once new leaders were appointed to the groups, the atmosphere changed briefly from relatively productive to confused. The group dynamics shifted as new leaders forced the group to re-enter the beginning stages of group development, such as "forming" and "storming." Groups who previously seemed to enjoy relational leadership styles now faced a transactional leadership approach that focused on reward power. In many cases, creativity decreased and competition increased. Conversely, those who previously approached the task from a servant-leadership style (the center for ants) continued into the norming stage after a brief hesitation.

Finally, more often than not, groups originally given the task of creating the Lazy Boy Chair encountered a brief period of confusion followed by discussion and the accomplishment. In this situation, the new leader, who is typically played by a female, is given the choice to become a transformational or transactional leader. Most often, the leader choose transformational. As a result, the group enters a period of confusion because the previous leadership style was not reciprocal in any way and did not require the group members' input. Therefore, the group tends to be hesitant, but shortly re-establishes roles and begins to work together to accomplish the task.

Following the conclusion of the activity, the class discussion ranges from satisfaction with the group task to frustration with it. Interestingly, groups that originally began as productive and cohesive ended as slightly frustrated. At times, students stated they felt as though they could not complete the task to their fullest extent. However, those who began as more oppressive usually ended as more cohesive and understanding groups. These group members expressed that they had a more creative and complete assignment. These groups were also those whose new leaders took a more transformational approach.

Finally, the class discussed how new leadership styles affect the group dynamic, usually relating the activity to a personal experience in a student organization or student government. Interestingly, the students proposed two general options for the groups' reaction to the new leader: a) the new leader cannot establish his or her own true style until the old leader vacates the group or b) the old leader remains, relinquishes power to the new leader, and learns how to improve his or her own leadership skills based on the new leader's style.

Lesson to Date. This activity was refined over a period of six semesters. Challenges in the early stages of facilitation included student group members' allegiance to their group's original leader; we changed the activity the following semester to where the original leader in each group was redistributed to other groups with relinquished legitimate power. A second challenge arose from students' understanding of the key terminology and differentiation between transactional and transformational leadership. This was rectified through additional readings (i.e., Bass, 1990; Burns, 1995), reflective journaling on transactional and transformational leadership supplemented by a leadership theories textbook including discussion on these topics, and interactive discussion prior to the activity. Further, we updated the handouts to include more directive and detailed interpretations of the desired behaviors of the new leaders once they assumed their positions. It is preferred and highly recommended that a structured briefing period occurs with the new leaders/role players while the remaining students are engaged in the introductory activity (in this

activity students should be working on the planning and beginning stages of their objectives with their groups). Feel free to meet students in a secluded area of the classroom or just outside the door. Students should be informed of their roles and allowed to ask questions. Give students a few minutes to get into their roles and then escort them to their new groups.

Role Play Activity 2: Leadership Styles & *Jamba Juice*: Task-Related and Relationship-Oriented Attitudes & Behaviors

Students not assigned as role players were highly engaged in the Leadership Style Questionnaire as the day's curriculum had introduced the topic of the Style Approach to leadership and included discussion, question and answer, and a student presentation. Accordingly, students welcomed the self-assessment of their own leadership styles. While students completed the questionnaire, the assigned role players were briefed on their roles of Jamba Jammer and Head Juicers #1 and #2. Head Juicer role players were encouraged to exaggerate their character's style portrayal of task-related and relationship-oriented attitudes and behaviors. This discussion went smoothly as classroom discussion earlier in the period emphasized the strong behavior correlation of the Style Approach and how a leader's style is what he or she does and how they act.

Student role players entered the classroom with high energy and excitement, eager to put on a show. They immediately took the "stage" at the center of the classroom, using a pair of chairs and an extra desk as props. The Jamba Juicer (JJ) borrowed a few beverages from students that had brought them to class and used them as additional props. The first scene began with the JJ mixing a smoothie and greeting an imaginary customer. They were then interrupted by Head Juicer #1 (HJ1), our task-oriented leader, where the interaction became an intervention. The discussion between the two role players was fiercely autocratic, impersonal, and task-oriented in nature and rhetoric. HJ1 followed Handout 2 closely, stressing direction, guidance, and asking tough questions. The conversation was centered around sales, marketing opportunities, and results. The HJ1 focused on giving direct actions for the JJ and was not open to their input. The conversation concluded with a review of the HJ1's suggestions and the steps to implementation. After the "end scene," the JJ replicated the beginning of the first interaction and awaited the interaction with Head Juicer #2 (HJ2), our relationship-oriented leader. Conversely, this interaction was far more personal, emphasized an inclusive style of communication, and focused on balancing the JJ's needs versus the needs of the company. For example, HJ2 asked about the JJ's family where HJ1 cut immediately to the business aspects of the meeting. HJ2 went all out showering the JJ with praise, emotional support, and encouragement. The HJ2 also did a good job of connecting these tenets to the principles and values of Jamba Juice, sometimes even using it as a scapegoat so that directive and task-related rhetoric would not interfere with the relational tone of the conversation. The HJ2 focused on ways they could support the JJ in turning around the sales and the conversation concluded with a few goals of how to do just that.

The ensuing discussion supported by the discussion questions is as or more important a learning experience as the role play. It is here where the processing brought about clear connection between theory and practice. For example, students referred to HJ2 as a pushover. This observation blossomed into a full blown discussion concerning the balance between task- and relationship-oriented leader behaviors. Students stressed that the relational aspects of leadership were important

as long as they did not interfere with organizational goals or defined tasks. Discussion then evolved to the behaviors of the JJ and whether they would prefer to be led in more of a task- or relationship-oriented style. As a facilitator, it is important to stress this component of the conversation about the Style Approach.

Finally, the class discussed how task-related behaviors are more appropriate in some contexts whereas relationship-oriented behaviors are better suited for others. Students grasped and articulated the leader variable in this equation in picking the right style for either the situation or the follower. It was evident that the role play had showcased the precise components of the Style Approach.

Lesson to Date. This activity was refined over a period of three semesters and was honestly created hours before a class that needed a shot of experiential learning to move along the day's learning agenda. A *Jamba Juice* had just opened in our student union, which made the activity fresh, relevant, and easily relatable to students. Challenges in this activity were surmounted mainly in the selection of the role players. It is highly recommended that facilitators ask for students with improvisational theatre experience or select students whom which you are familiar with their extraverted skillsets. Like the Transactional vs. Transformational activity, it is preferred and highly recommended that a structured briefing period occurs with the role players while the remaining students are engaged in the introductory activity (in this case, the questionnaire). Students should be informed of their roles and allowed to ask questions. Give students a few minutes to get into their roles and then invite them to perform once they are comfortable. A suggested variation might be to focus the role of the Jamba Juicer with either a task- or relationship-oriented follower mentality. This would encourage additional conversation and discussion within the realm of the Style Approach.

Recommendations/Implications

While there is little debate that role play activities combine high risk with high reward in the classroom, it is imperative that leadership educators increase their comfort level with this highly experiential and effective pedagogy. Further, it is here that we can utilize role play to bridge theory—like Transformational Leadership—with practice. Moreover, leadership educators can use role play activities to facilitate higher participant motivation and satisfaction (Allen & Hartman, 2009). For, arguably, it is the application of leadership skills by students—in addition to other high-level learning goals along learning taxonomies—that are often the most difficult to assess (Bloom, 1956; Fink, 2003).

Furthermore, a structured and well thought out debrief of a role play can and should result in highly structured peer or instructor feedback on their performance (McEnrue, 2002), sensitization of learners to new roles and behaviors to real-life situations thereby making sense of learning, facilitation of the retention of information and enhancing new and a more permanent learning (Sogurno, 2003), and an effective active learning process that challenges students to modify their personal theories of leadership (Wisniewski, 2010). In essence, role playing activities emphasize the critical reflection piece that is so important to leadership education. For example, leadership educators might facilitate these outcomes through focused phases of debriefing structured around six specific questions: a) How do you feel? b) What happened? c) What did you learn? d) How

does this relate to the real world? e) What if? and f) What next (www.thiagi.com)? Like any experiential learning opportunity, the focus must land equally on the experience and the learning. In the same way, workshops focused on bringing attention to the components of effective role play facilitation provide great value for leadership educators.

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The Bird's the Word: The Use of Twitter in the Leadership Classroom

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Introduction

Today's society is being shaped by technology, and now more than ever, we are starting to see it shape the lives of today's students (Prensky, 2001a). This is especially true for Millennials and pertains to how they think, learn, retain, and desire information relevant to real world circumstances (Wisniewski, 2010). Millennials are comprised of individuals born between 1981-1994 (Oblinger & Oblinger, 2005). Because of social media, society is changing and it is important for organizations and higher education alike to change with it (Qualman, 2009). Organizations started realizing this phenomenon; therefore, started incorporating social media avenues in their marketing schemes to promote products and services as a means to have an active, online community interested and willing to provide feedback (Mangold & Faulds, 2009). Employers are realizing the importance of attracting and retaining Millennials because of their skills in utilizing Web technologies, especially because members of the current workforce, comprised of the Veteran and Baby Boomer generations, are retiring (Schooley, 2005). With Web users actively engaging in social media avenues of organizations, educators are realizing the importance of incorporating and even teaching about social media avenues in today's classroom (Kupetz, 2010).

Today's classroom consists mainly of individuals from the Millennial generation who desire an interactive, engaging environment of learning (Galagan, 2010). If these students do not feel engaged in the learning process, the class is viewed as boring and the students begin diverting their attention to other, more interesting things such as Facebook or texting (Galagan, 2010). Students also feel that in classes where instructors read directly from textbooks or PowerPoints, they do not retain class material once the class is completed (Wisniewski, 2010). Educators should strongly consider utilizing social media as a way to support the "always on" learning styles of students (Baird & Fisher, 2005). Gifford (2010) implemented blogging assignments, which also focuses on critical thinking and has seen positive results. Furthermore, Junco, Heiberger, and Loken (2010) utilized Twitter in educational settings and as a result have witnessed increased student engagement and improved grades. Additionally, librarians at Penn State saw an increase in students asking for assistance with research because of incorporating social media as a source of question and answer (Mack, Behler, Roberts, & Rimland, 2007). While several studies have had positive results when incorporating social media in education, Roblyer, McDaniel, Webb, Herman, and Witty (2010) found instructors are more likely to agree Facebook is not for education. Therefore, educators should be open to utilizing new methods of instruction, such as social media, but should evaluate these methods to determine if they are effective in the classroom (Williams & McClure, 2010).

It is important for educators to understand and realize what is happening in the real world and currently social media is playing a huge role (Kupetz, 2010). Today's students are technology savvy and crave for the learning environment to include technology where they can collaborate with others and then apply it to the real world (Wisniewski, 2010). Carla Williamson said,

The students in our schools today have had this technology [focused on information and communication skills, thinking and reasoning skills, and personal and workplace skills] through most of their lives if not all of their lives. This is how they learn. This is their world; this is how they take in information. When we bring them into a school setting – which is based on pen and paper and chalk on a board – this is not authentic to them, that is putting them into our world (Karlin, 2007, p. 8).

It is important for teachers to adapt teaching methods and styles to those that are cognitive to today's students, especially when these methods are being used in the real world in which teachers are preparing their students to endeavor into upon graduation (Kupetz, 2010).

Current literature suggests there is a need for instructors to provide an engaging learning environment for students. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to describe innovative teaching techniques specifically geared toward the Millennial generation. These techniques were integrated in an undergraduate leadership course, intertwining leadership theory and concepts with the use of Twitter.

Background

Millennials

The current generation of college students have been given various names including Generation Y, Net Generation (Net Gen), Millennials (Oblinger & Oblinger, 2005), Neomillennial (Baird & Fisher, 2005), and Digital Natives (Prensky, 2001a). Regardless of which name you prefer, the common thread among this generation is the technological aspect this generation has over previous ones. Pew Research Center found 72% of online 18-29 year-olds use social networking sites at a rate almost equal to teens, and substantially higher than 30 year-olds and older who use it at a rate of 39% (Lenhart, Purcell, Smith, & Zickhur, 2010).

Additionally, other technologies readily available to Millennials include cell phones and computers. In a recent study conducted by Lenhart et al. (2010), it was found 75% of teens 12- 17 years-old and 93% of adults 18-29 years-old have a cell phone. Of the teen cell phone users, 27% reported utilizing their cell phone to access the Internet, as compared to 55% of young adults 18-29. On the same token, 58% of 12 year-olds have a cell phone as compared to 18% in 2004. Furthermore, 69% of 12-17 year-olds have a computer, slightly higher than the 66% of 18- 29 year-olds who own a computer. The study also found teens ages 12-17 years-old and adults, ages 18-29 years-old, go online at an identical rate of 93%.

Today's students learn much differently than their predecessors and realize they have tools and resources readily available to them through the use of technology (Wisniewski, 2010). Millennials prefer learning through the constructivist education/teaching paradigm – student-centered learning which builds upon previous knowledge – as compared to previous generations who were taught through the behaviorist teaching/learning paradigm – instruction of facts and memorization (Wisniewski, 2010).

Classroom Learning

Millennials have grown up in a society of multiliteracies where computers, cell phones, PDAs, the Internet, and Web 2.0 applications (wikis, blogs, and other social networking sites) have played a role in the nature of textbooks and how people use and interact with them (Borsheim, Merrit, & Reed, 2008). The researchers have developed a figure to help visually explain this concept (see Figure 1). Instructors should integrate a multiliteracies pedagogy which facilitates a constructivist-education model while still supporting traditional curriculum objectives. For example, a traditional research paper is common in curriculum, but online databases and the Internet are replacing library and reference books (Borsheim et al, 2008).

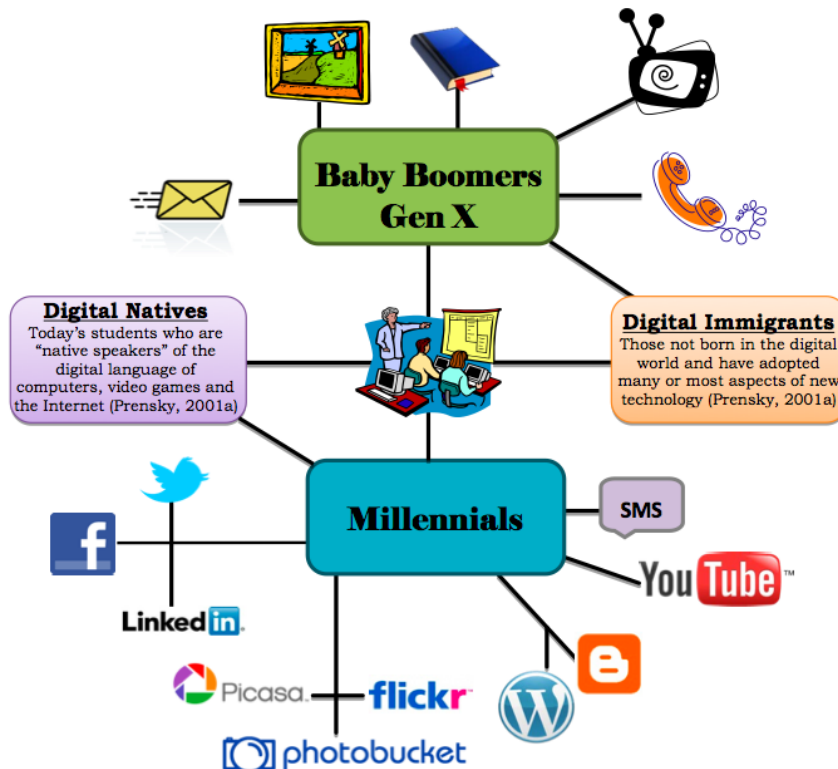


Figure 1. Incorporating Social Media into the Classroom. This figure visually illustrates the differences in the Millennial and previous generations' culture of learning and communicating.

This pedagogy model concurs with Baird and Fisher (2005) who believe Millennial students need flexible, self-paced, customizable content that is interactive and engaging because they are “hardwired” to utilize multiple technologies simultaneously. This type of pedagogy requires faculty to be flexible and understand today’s students’ learning methods. Linda Stone, former Apple and Microsoft executive coined the phrase “continuous partial attention” (Kupetz, 2010, p. 48). This phrase describes students today and instead of fighting their need to multitask, Kupetz (2010) says,

I use social media to extend the time I’m engaged with them, even when they’re not in class. I want to have their partial attention throughout the whole day since it is all but impossible to have their undivided attention for even a few hours (p. 48).

On the other hand, there are still professors who want students' full attention. For example, a Syracuse professor classified as more traditional in his teaching methods ends his class and walks out if he catches a student texting (Galagan, 2010). In the same article, Allison Rossett, a professor at San Diego State University is more understanding of the students and says, "Students want, and expect, their lessons to be lively, vivid, meaningful and engaging. When they are, they're with you. When they are not, they're on Facebook or eBay" (Galagan, 2010, p. 27).

This supports the findings of Wisniewski (2010) and the question of *What about your current school experience is not effective for you as a learner?* Almost 20% of those surveyed claimed the teaching technique of professors reading off of a PowerPoint presentation or out of a book does not stimulate learning; long lectures (17.6%) and memorizations (15%) were also included as ineffective. Students pointed out the following, "we simply read, take notes, take a quiz, listen to PowerPoint lecture, and repeat each week. It makes it hard to keep engaged. It makes it difficult to take the situations and make them real" (Wisniewski, 2010, p. 61). "Certain professors...have just such old-fashioned teaching methods that I just do not follow, and that causes my learning to be very ineffective. It also causes me to learn something, and then never think about it again after the test" (Wisniewski, 2010, p. 61). Another question in the same study *If you could design the school of the future that would be perfect for the way you learn best, what would it be like* resulted in these findings, "Every professor would be required to incorporate a teaching style that included visuals, hands-on activities, lecture, examples, group work, and discussion" (Wisniewski, 2010, p. 61). "Teach real-life ideas and ways to handle things. Do not focus so much on events that happened many years ago, but rather on events that have happened recently or on events that are in the making" (Wisniewski, 2010, p. 61).

This corresponds to Williams and McClure's (2010) findings of which knowledge retention was highest and most consistent when students in a leadership course received information via public pedagogy. On the same token, Wisniewski (2010) found

Twenty-first century learners thrive on active learning in interactive settings. They are adaptive multi-taskers who are accustomed to technological innovations. Their educational and social environments are expansive. They use their existing knowledge, technological expertise, and social networks to construct and create new knowledge (p.67).

Today's students crave interactive learning environments, which include constructivist-based learning activities (Baird & Fisher, 2005). There is a vast difference between the educational needs of students in the 20th century when compared to the educational needs of students in the 21st century (see Figure 2). Faculty members play a direct role in the learning of their students; therefore, faculty need to be willing to adjust their teaching methods (Williams & McClure, 2010).

20 th Century Classroom	21 st Century Classroom
Time-based	Outcome-based
Focus on memorization of discrete facts	Focus on what students know and can do
Lessons focus on the lower levels of Bloom's taxonomy – knowledge, comprehension and application	Lessons emphasize upper levels of Bloom's taxonomy – synthesis, analysis and evaluation
Textbook-driven	Research-driven
Passive learning	Active learning
Learners work in isolation	Learners work collaboratively with classmates and others around the world
Teacher-centered: teacher is center of attention and provider of information	Student-centered: teacher is facilitator/coach
Fragmented curriculum	Integrated and interdisciplinary curriculum
Teacher is judge. No one else sees student work.	Self, peer and authentic assessments
Curriculum/School is irrelevant and meaningless to the students.	Curriculum is connected to students' interests, experiences, talents and the real world.
Print is the primary vehicle of learning and assessment.	Performances, projects and multiple forms of media are used for learning and assessment
Literacy is the 3 R's – reading, writing and math	Multiple literacies of the 21 st century – aligned to living and working in a globalized new millennium.

Figure 2. 20th Century versus 21st Century Education (Wisniewski, 2010, p. 57)

Social media avenues can enable faculty to amplify their teaching methods and incorporate technologies today's students are already utilizing or are familiar with. It would be hard to imagine professors or students not using technologies through the week (Blakenship, 2011). Colleges and universities are now promoting the utilization of Internet and Web based learning in undergraduate and graduate education (Gupta & Meglich, 2008). Because of the changing educational environment, a skill that has been lacking and is important to incorporate is critical thinking (Stedman, 2009). Stedman (2009) defined critical thinking as being "comprised of skill and disposition" (p. 202) of which skill is malleable, but critical thinking "is one's naturally occurring attitude or preference" (p. 202).

Description of Practices

Students enrolled in an undergraduate leadership course were asked to use Twitter throughout the

semester. Twitter is a micro blogging site, meaning a user can send a short message to multiple readers through various devices, quickly (Solomon & Schrum, 2010). Twitter allows the user to create statuses of up to 140 characters called a tweet, which are then posted in real-time, meaning they can be viewed instantly (“About Twitter,” 2011). Additionally, Twitter allows users to provide links to articles, videos, and photos.

During the semester, two basic Twitter assignments were implemented (see Appendix A and Appendix B). These assignments were designed to engage students in discussion outside of the leadership classroom. They also reinforced leadership theory and concepts through real world applications by utilizing critical thinking skills.

The first Twitter assignment, Tweet! Tweet!, was assigned early in the semester (week two of classes). When introducing the assignment, the instructor discovered all of the students enrolled in the course owned smartphones. Therefore, students were able to download the Twitter app to allow access to Twitter feeds at any time of the day. As a result, each student had easy access to the information needed for the Tweet! Tweet! assignment (see Appendix A). This assignment had students create a Twitter account, or use an existing Twitter account if desired, and make two posts each week. Students were required to tag postings using a specified class hashtag, making it easy for students to keep up with each other’s postings. Students also were encouraged to ask the instructor questions using Twitter as well as discuss class concepts, assignments, and projects with other classmates.

The second Twitter assignment (see Appendix B) involved students analyzing the leadership personality of a famous leader using the Big Five Personality Factors as defined by Goldberg (1990). Each student selected a famous leader who maintained a Twitter account. The student followed the leader on Twitter for a two week period. Each student was responsible for reading the leader’s tweets as well as reading any linked articles and viewing any videos or pictures posted via the leader’s Twitter feed. At the end of the two week period, students classified their selected leader as one of the Big Five personalities based on the data collected from Twitter and wrote a paper justifying the classification of their leader into one of the Big Five personality categories. Additionally, students were divided into groups, based on their leader’s personality, for group discussion on effective leadership and the relationship to the Big Five personalities. Small group discussion was focused on the following questions:

- Why is this individual a leader?
- Why did you classify your leader as this personality? You should be able to justify your answer with specific statements from the Twitter feed of your leader or provide supporting artifacts (articles, videos, pictures, etc.) from your leader’s Twitter feed.
- What are some of the strengths to this type of leadership personality?
- What are some of the weaknesses to this type of leadership personality?
- How does this type of personality interact with other types of personalities?
- Would you classify your leader as an effective leader? Why or why not? Provide specific examples.

Results to Date

Both Twitter assignments were successful in generating extra student interaction outside of the classroom. The Tweet! Tweet! assignment encouraged students to find applications to leadership

theories and concepts in their everyday lives. At the beginning of the semester students made posts on Twitter because they were required to post at least two times per week. However, as the semester evolved students became more comfortable with tweeting and the number of student tweets increased. Students began to tweet about current events and relate them back to class topics; find leadership applications in pop culture such as television shows, movies, music, and commercials; and even tweet community events that would help illustrate class concepts. Additionally, as the semester progressed students began to retweet or comment on their classmates posts. While the majority of the feedback for the Tweet! Tweet! assignment was positive, a few students thought the assignment was too time consuming. Specifically, one student stated, “I did not like being forced to have a Twitter account.” Additionally, only a handful of students tweeted questions to the instructor. However, many students tagged the instructor in tweets throughout the semester.

The second Twitter assignment provided a different way to analyze leadership. Several students enjoyed using Twitter to collect data. Moreover, students were very engaged with the assignment: the small group discussions were lively and the majority of students brought artifacts to class to support their findings. Ironically, some students were even “busted” while following their selected leader’s Twitter feed during class. A variety of leaders were analyzed including Barack Obama, Oprah Winfrey, Mitt Romney, Ree Drummond, and Lance Armstrong. Fortunately, there were no duplicate leaders among the students. Still, a sign-up sheet might be considered for larger classes to avoid redundancy. Some minor complications occurred with this assignment. For some students it took a long time for them to identify a leader who maintained an active Twitter feed and some students found Twitter feeds that were not authentic: in other words, an imposter was posing as a famous individual.

Recommendations

In future leadership classes, additional ways to utilize Twitter and potentially other social media outlets should be considered. Not only do students enjoy the use of Twitter, but experience with social media can assist students in their future careers. Employers are looking for candidates who are skilled to deal with the real world and undergraduate education has to accommodate this demand (Stedman, 2009). If the end goal of the faculty is to give students the skill sets needed for the real world, then they need to understand businesses are utilizing social media (Kupetz, 2010).

Additionally, the use of social media assignments should be implemented because these assignments follow the constructivist education/teaching paradigm and encourage students to engage in critical thinking. Faculty must find ways to incorporate reflection and critical thinking, but in a manner comfortable for today’s students (Prensky, 2001b). One student in Guthrie’s (2009) study said,

As a student, I think using technology in class has huge implications. We are putting things up on YouTube, blogging, using Facebook anyway and by using it in class just integrates classroom learning with the rest of our lives. Kind of like meeting us where we already are hanging out (p. 134).

Meeting students “where they are already hanging out” by using social media might just be the next innovative teaching tool for the Millennial generation as well as generations to come.

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Appendix A

Tweet! Tweet!

Assignment:

1. Go to Twitter (www.twitter.com) and create a Twitter account, if you don't already have one.
2. Upload a photo or avatar
3. Write a brief (160 characters or less) biography about yourself.
4. Tag all tweets related to the class with the following hashtag: #(University)Leadership
5. Make your profile public. (If you have a Twitter account already and it's private, create a new account to use for this class.)
6. Post an introductory tweet using the class hashtag so other students in the class can find and follow you.
7. Each week post at least 2 tweets pertaining to current events or people and what leadership concepts, theories, and examples you observe.
8. You are welcome to utilize Twitter to ask questions, group discussion of class projects/assignments, and anything else pertaining to the class.
9. Questions may be addressed to the instructor using the following hashtag #(University)dr(professor_name)
10. Check Twitter postings of your classmates on a regular basis. Information from Twitter postings will be used in class discussion and potentially class quizzes.

Grading: Students will be graded on the number of tweets posted and the quality of the tweets (well thought out, provided links to further enhance the tweet, stimulates others thinking). Weekly tweets will count for 5% of the overall grade for the class.

Due Dates: Tweets must be posted prior to class.

***Please note, for the purpose of this presentation the hashtag names have been changed to ensure the paper's authors are unidentifiable.**

Appendix B

Bringing the Big Five to Life: Leadership Analysis with Twitter

Background: This week in class we have been studying the Big Five personality traits and effective leadership as established by Goldberg (1990). The Big Five personalities include neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. According to a study by Judge, Bono, and Gerhardt (2002), it was determined that certain personality traits are associated with effective leadership. (For a refresher of this concept, go back and read chapter 2 in the Northouse book.)

Assignment: Identify a famous leader who has a presence on Twitter. The leader you identify should post daily tweets on Twitter; a wise student would identify a leader who tweets multiple times each day. Over the next two weeks, you will follow your leader's Twitter feed. Be sure to read articles, view videos, follow links, and review any pictures your leader posts to their Twitter

account. All of these “extras” will count as artifacts and provide additional insight about your selected leader.

After collecting your Twitter data, you should analyze your data and assign your leader to one of the Big Five personalities based on examples from your leader’s Twitter feed. Once you determine your leader’s personality classification based off specific examples, you are to craft your paper and be prepared to participate in small group discussion. Be sure to bring your specific examples to class in order to assist you in small group discussion

SPECIFICATIONS:

Paper: Once you have determined your leader’s personality, you are to write a 2 page (double spaced, 12 pt Times New Roman or Calibri font, 1 inch margins) paper. In this paper, you should:

1. Give a brief overview of your selected leader
2. Give a brief description of the Big Five personality your selected leader represents,
3. Provide specific examples of why you believe the leader is classified as the designated personality, and
4. Specify if you would classify your selected leader as an effective leader with supporting statements.

Proper APA citations inside the paper AND reference pages are required.

Small Group Discussion:

In addition to the paper, each student will be divided into small discussion groups. Small group discussion will focused on the following questions:

- Why is this individual a leader?
- Why did you classify your leader as this personality? You should be able to justify your answer with specific statements from the Twitter feed of your leader or provide supporting artifacts (articles, videos, pictures, etc.) from your leader’s Twitter feed.
- What are some of the strengths to this type of leadership personality?
- What are some of the weaknesses to this type of leadership personality?
- How does this type of personality interact with other types of personalities?
- Would you classify your leader as an effective leader? Why or why not? Provide specific examples.

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The Use of Concept Maps to Facilitate Reflection in Adult Leadership Programs

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Introduction

Concept maps are “graphical tools for organizing and representing knowledge” (Novak & Canas, 2008, p. 1). Concepts are enclosed in circles or boxes and relationships between the concepts are indicated through series of lines. McAleese (1998), states concept maps are used by researchers and practitioners to “diagnose misunderstandings, improve study methods, and glimpse at how learners come to know” (p. 1). They also provide the tool to assess where learners are (Novak & Gowin, 1984) and an indication of how individuals construct their understanding from past knowledge and experiences (Blackwell & Williams, 2007). According to McAleese (1998), concept mapping leads to reflection and provides a learner the opportunity to process complex ideas. These learning processes can be beneficial in multiple settings and organizers of leadership programs can also use concept mapping to facilitate the process of learning complex ideas, such as leadership, as an assessment tool and to stimulate reflection with its participants.

In agricultural leadership programs, adult leaders study issues facing their industries and prepare themselves for leadership roles (Diem & Nikola, 2005). The purpose of these programs is to develop leaders with an increased understanding of the economic, political and social issues confronting the United States and rural society (Miller, 1976). To develop these leaders, these programs have been established in 39 states, provinces and countries around the world (Lindquist, 2010) and use a variety of teaching methods (Strickland & Carter, 2007) to develop leadership abilities and raise issue awareness and understanding (Carter & Rudd, 2000; Abington-Cooper, 2005). Roberts’s (2006) experiential learning model provides agricultural leadership programs with model for the facilitation of leadership training that can be applied to various learning environments (Strickland, 2010).

As part of experiential learning, learners construct meaning from their experiences (Roberts, 2006). Through the reflective process, information is analyzed, interpreted, and transformed through intention, which allows the learner to internalize the experience. This reflection process allows the learner to make generalizations, which can then be tested through experimentation. Integrating reflection in leadership development programs allows individuals the opportunity to evaluate the significant outcomes of their experiences and gain an understanding of how to perceive and interpret their observations (Densten & Gray, 2001). Reflection can also provide potential leaders “insights into how to frame problems differently, to look at situations from multiple perspectives or to better understand followers” (p. 120). Adult learners can add richness to the reflection process since learning relates back to an adult learner’s experiences, their occupation, community or voluntary roles, and their personal interests and needs (Newton, 1977). Additionally, experienced learners often bring more knowledge to the problem (Sternberg and Horvath, 1995) and this experience allows these learners to reflect, view, and solve problems at a deeper level (Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007).

The purpose of this practice paper is to provide adult leadership program facilitators with the opportunity and instruction on the use of concept mapping as a tool of reflection their programs. The practice has been piloted within an agricultural leadership program located in a southern state. The paper provides outlined

instructions on how to distribute instruction to participants and for facilitators to analyze concept maps at the individual level and at the group level. The learner objectives for concept mapping are:

1. To reflect on personal definitions of leadership and how they are constructed;
2. Understand the process of concept mapping and the benefits of its use in future application;
3. Understand how different concepts can relate to personal definitions of leadership; and
4. Understand the types of mapping and the benefits of each type as outlined by Kinchin, Hay and Adams (2000).

Background/ Theoretical Framework

Constructivism

In the creation and understanding of concept mapping, researchers have relied on the learning theory of constructivism to provide its theoretical framework (McAleese, 1994). Through constructivism, the individual learner constructs meaning based on the socially defined nature of the knowledge they have obtained (Doolittle & Camp, 1999). Learners take responsibility for their own learning and construct meaning and their own knowledge through experience (Doolittle & Camp, 1999; Densten & Gray, 2001; Kolb, 1984 & Roberts, 2006) and through the integration of new ideas and previous experiences cognitive structures in one's mind can be changed. According to Doolittle and Camp (1999) through constructivism, reality is defined by the learner.

Constructivism is concerned with the process of how we construct knowledge and a concept map comes about as a physical result of engaging in or constructing understandings (McAleese, 1998).

Through constructivism, the knowledge learners acquire is constantly going through reconstruction and transformation. Therefore, under the premise of constructivism, knowledge is created, rather than discovered (Kinchin, Hay & Adams, 2000). Concept mapping can aid in constructivism by having facilitators reconstruct knowledge leading to meaningful learning and reveal to the learner connections among concepts that may not have been recognized earlier. In sum, learners and facilitators "constructing concept maps often remark that they recognize new relationships and hence new meanings or at least meanings they did not consciously hold before making the map" (Novak and Gowin, 1984, p. 17).

According to Roberts (2006), experiential learning can align itself with constructivism which contents that learns construct meaning from their experiences. Constructivism can be applied to experiential learning through the process of connecting new experiences and knowledge to a learner's pre-existing personal knowledge.

Experiential Learning

John Dewey (1938) stated that "amid all uncertainties there is one permanent frame of reference, namely the organic connection between education and personal experience" (p. 25). Experiential learning suggests that learners construct meaning from their experiences (Roberts, 2006).

Additionally, through the study of experiential education, we have determined that learning can be a process and not only a product (Roberts, 2006 & Kolb, 1984). The theory suggests that through this process a learner can construct meaning through their experiences.

The theory of experiential learning "begins with the initial focus of the learner" (Kolb, 1984, p. 22). Followed by focusing on the leader, experiential learning follows the process through initial

experience, reflection, and generalization (Roberts, 2006). Once concepts are generalized, learners then move throughout the cycle to test and retest those generalizations in other learning opportunities. This process continues and builds upon prior experience and knowledge (Beard & Wilson, 2006). Through the processes of experience and reflection, information is transformed through intention, which allows the learner to internalize the experience. This reflection process allows the learner to make generalizations, which can then be tested through experimentation.

Strickland (2011) indicates the importance of outside influences and demographic variables on the experiential learning cycle. These are often brought forth in the reflective process of the cycle of learning. Reflection holds as much weight as the experience as reflection allows participants to develop an understanding of themselves and the experience (Roberts, 2006).

Integrating reflection into programs allows individuals the opportunity to evaluate the significant outcomes of their experiences and gain an understanding of how to perceive and interpret their observations (Densten & Gray, 2001). Reflection can also provide potential leaders “insights into how to frame problems differently, to look at situations from multiple perspectives or to better understand followers” (Densten & Gray, 2001, p. 120). In the formal classroom, this can be displayed through the discussion and summation associated with the lesson and theoretical framework. In the non-formal learning environment, reflection can also be incorporated into the curriculum in forms of reflective questions, surveys or group discussions on decisions and implications of the field work they have participated in.

McAleese (1998) suggests that reflection is the process of the learning experiences that is under the learner’s control. The process of reflection involves “a commitment to questioning assumptions are taken for granted embodied in both theory and professional practice” (Densten & Gray, 2001, p. 119). The ability to reflect relates to how effectively individuals can learn from their personal experiences and the process provides a meaningful way for leaders to gain genuine understanding. According to Densten & Gray (2001), the objective of integrating reflection in leadership development programs is provide opportunity for individuals to evaluate their experiences in the context of leadership. Through reflection they gain understanding and are given insight into framing issues, examining situations from multiple perspectives, and through analysis are given greater understanding of their followers (Densten & Gray, 2001). To aid in the construction of meaning and connecting concepts into complex structures concept maps can be implemented. Concept maps can physically show how new ideas become meaningful as they are linked to existing concepts and are organized (Lawless, Smee & O’Shea, 1998).

Concept Maps

There is a considerable amount of literature on concept mapping (Blackwell & Williams, 2007; Lawless, 1994; McAllese, 1998, Novak & Canas, 2008). The distinctive feature of the use of concept mapping is the emphasis on relationships between concepts and the visual display of these relationships (Lawless, 1994). The “concept maps create strong visuals of how students’ mental models of leadership are arranged and then how their mental models might change after exposure to the class curriculum and to the collaborative learning environment of the class” (Blackwell & Williams, 2007, p. 1). Concept maps are not snapshots of just what is known; but also allow an unloading of information and act as a display knowledge construction (McAllese, 1998). They are not only used to evaluate thinking but also engage learners in thinking (Lawless, Smee & O’Shea,

1998). Because of this, concept maps are process oriented in which they can be continually modified and added to. So they are not just representative of what is already known, but how one organizes their knowledge (McAleese, 1998).

The exercise of concept mapping can be implemented in three different situations including; the reclassification of previous knowledge with the addition of new material, the recording of ideas as a result of learning a new concept, and the consideration of context on a known idea (McAleese, 1998). In education, maps can be used as an instructional display, an evaluation tool, a curriculum organizer and as a method of understanding participants learning (Lawless, 1994). Through these practices, these maps can assess and evaluate learning (Lawless, 1994; Lawless, Smee & O'Shea, 1998; McAleese, 1998).

The underlying philosophy behind concept mapping influences the way concept maps are analyzed (Kinchin, Hay & Adams, 2000). Through previous research, not only have different theatrical frameworks been used to describe concept mapping, but various methods of analysis have been offered as well, both quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative research bases data on hierarchies, numbers, and hierarchical structure (Novak, 1981; Smith & Dwyer, 1995; Novak and Gowin, 1984). Qualitative methodology has been incorporated in various studies as well including Roth (1994), Wallace and Mintzes (1990) and Kinchin, Hay and Adams (2000). To justify qualitative analysis as opposed to the quantitative data collection, Wallace and Mintzes (1990) stated that qualitative analysis “can offer rich and detailed insights into the extent of meaningful learning resulting from classroom instruction” (p. 1039). In addition, Kinchin, Hay and Adams (2000) contended that quantitative methodology had the ability to fail to recognize all links within concept maps (for lack of hierarchical structure) so the full perspective of the student would not be obtained. The authors argued what was seen as invalid links may reveal much about the thought processes of the learner. For this reason, a qualitative approach to research has been adopted for the results to date of this research.

Concept map creation entails multiple steps (McAleese, 1998). This includes the creation of a main concept, which is referred to as a seed node. Following the creation of a main concept, the learner creates associated concepts to the seed node. Following this, learners can create clusters of nodes and then join them through a series of arcs. According to Kinchin, Hay and Adams (2000) through qualitative analysis, concept maps can be grouped into three structural types; spoke, chain and net (Figure 1). As part of their research the authors described was originally recognized when reviewing reproduction in flowering plants with a group of students. They used this topic and the students' work to provide examples for their research. A spoke structure indicates a radial structure where all related concepts of the topic are considered the second set of nodes and are related to the core concept or seed node but not to each other. The chain structure is a linear sequence of concepts in which each concept is only linked to two other concepts (above and beneath). The net structure is a highly integrated network of secondary nodes and arcs. This structure demonstrates a deep understanding of seed node or core concept (Kinchin, Hay & Adams, 2000).

In their methodology, Kinchin, Hay and Adams (2000) contended that these three structures differentiate concept maps in degrees of complexity, ability to accommodate additions to the map, the use of context, and the creator's acknowledgement of a wider viewpoint. With this, the authors

of this methodology imply that the structure of the framework help learners by serving as a mechanism for further learning. In the spoke framework, learners focus on the simple association without focusing on processes and interactions. Concepts can be added to the map without consequences or change to other nodes within the structure, and an additional concept or link has little effect on the overall view of the main concept. Within the chain structure there is only a consecutive sequence of terms without interaction. Additions cannot be made to the structure, particularly near the beginning of the sequence which indicates isolated understanding of the main concept. Loss of a link can lose meaning of the whole chain. The net structure is a mix of interactions through various levels of the map. There is room for additional knowledge and adding one or more concepts to the map has few consequences on the other nodes. This indicates a larger ‘world view’ because more knowledge can be added to the existing structure (Kinchin, Hay & Adams, 2000).

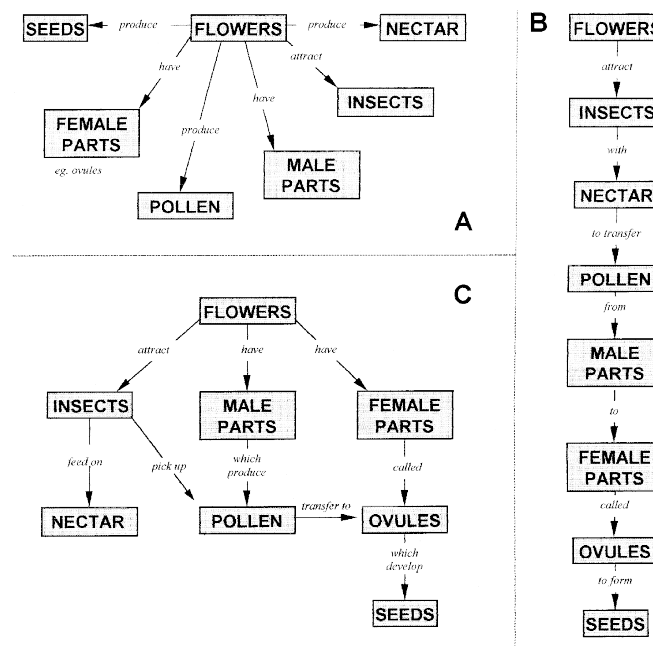


Figure 1. Examples of concept maps using the spoke structure (Map A), the chain structure (Map B) and the net structure (Map C). Adapted from “How a Qualitative Approach to Concept Map Analysis can be used to aid Learning by Illustrating Patterns of Conceptual Development,” by I. M. Kinchin and D. B. Hay and A. Adams, 2000, *Educational Research*, 42(1), p. 47.

Description of the Practice

Concept mapping can be used as a tool of reflection within adult leadership programming. As facilitators within an adult agricultural leadership program in a southern state, a concept mapping activity was implemented within the inaugural seminar of a two-year leadership development program and at the midpoint of the two year program. In the inaugural seminar, participants ($N = 30$) were asked to submit concept maps for analysis after facilitators had described the program objectives and research guiding the theoretical framework of the [LEADERSHIP PROGRAM]. The concept maps would answer the question “What is Leadership?” Concept mapping was explained and images of concept maps were provided through a short PowerPoint presentation

(Appendix A), but the types of maps (spoke, chain and net) were not explained. The participants were instructed that “leadership” should be the word in the seed node. Participants were given 20 minutes to prepare their individual maps.

For the second round of data collection, participants were asked to submit a concept map to the program at the midpoint of the program. Instructions were provided before a travel seminar and participants were allowed to email concept maps to the program coordinator or they could submit their concept maps at the beginning of the travel seminar. The concept maps would once again answer the question “What is Leadership?” A handout (Appendix B) was provided in a packet of information that was mailed to them before the seminar. The term “leadership” was once again the seed node. Unlike the first seminar, participants were not given a set time to work on these concept maps since they would be on their own before the seminar. However, participants were asked to please complete the assignment in one sitting and were asked not to revise their work or submit multiple drafts.

Results to Date

Both sets of concept maps were analyzed for type as outlined by Kinchin, Hay and Adams (2000). In addition to type, a content analysis was conducted on the maps to draw out themes of leadership offered by the class as a whole. Glaser’s constant comparative method (Glaser, 1965) was used in the analysis. The research sought to find information on the use of concept maps and changes in both concept map type (which indicated through process) and changes in themes of leadership as a result of participation in the [LEADERSHIP PROGRAM].

For the first round of concept maps, data was collected during the first seminar of the leadership program. Results from the first round of concept maps included all three structures; spoke, chain and net with spoke being the structure the majority of the participants utilized. Multiple maps utilized two different methods of construction. For example, some maps began as a spoke with the seed and secondary nodes. From the secondary nodes, chains were formed to display terminology related to the secondary nodes. Other maps utilized both the spoke and net structures. The secondary concepts were only related to the seed nodes and not each other, but then lines were drawn between the following concepts that supported the secondary nodes.

Using the constant comparative method (Glaser, 1965), four main themes emerged from the first round of concept maps: *teamwork*, *goal setting and vision*, *inspiring and motivating*, and *communication and listening*. *Teamwork* was displayed as teamwork and working with others. *Goal setting and vision* was displayed as the quality of visionary leader, having goals and guidelines, forward thinking, knowledge building, and organizing. The *inspiring and motivating* construct was displayed through the concepts of inspirational, motivates others, gives guidance, and humble. *Communication and listening* were displayed in concepts such as good listener, effective communicator, and understanding.

For the second round of concept maps, data was collected at the mid-point of the program. Results from the second round displayed that more concepts were used within the maps. Larger maps were submitted which could be results from time devoted to the project, a deeper understanding of concept maps and also a richer and deeper pool of concepts and terms related to leadership as a

result of the program. In terms of concept map structure, participants chose the spoke structure of concept maps for the most part. However, in this second round, more individuals moved from chain structures to spoke structures and there were more participants that used the net structure to define leadership. Some maps submitted provided examples of leaders (as in specific people), types of leaders such as adaptors and innovators, how leadership is either born or made, described the presence and absence of leadership and perceptions of leadership. For the most part, individuals outlined the attributes of leadership. There were also structures related to what leadership takes into consideration such as context and followers.

The second round of concept maps also indicated richer themes of leadership which were also assessed using the Constant Comparative Method (Glaser, 1965). Results from the constant comparative method indicated a greater number of themes from the concepts in the maps. Seven themes emerged from the second set of concept maps: *teamwork*; *goals, vision, and commitment*; *personality and qualities of leaders*; *leaders are resourceful and proactive*; *critical thinking*; *organization and responsibility*; and *leaders have integrity and values*. *Teamwork* was displayed within concepts such as common purpose, team oriented, empowering, and good communicator. *Goals vision and commitment* was displayed in terms such as strategic, long term outlook, and community involvement. *Personality and qualities of leadership* was displayed in the concepts of passion, leadership based on personality type, motivating, dynamic, and memorable. The theme of *resourceful and proactive* was displayed through terms like decisive, tenacious, trail blazing, risk taking, and problem solving. *Critical thinking* included concepts such as teachable, experienced, informed, and reflective. *Organization and responsibility* was displayed through terms describing leaders such as planned, detailed, responsible, and disciplined. Lastly *leaders have integrity and values* which was seen in concepts as honesty, respectful, developing trust, humble, and credible.

Definitions of leadership were expanded and showed greater depth and detail. For the second round of maps as opposed the first round, *teamwork* and *communication* were combined into one theme. Additionally, the category showed growth beyond visualizing the team as a group of individuals to a group of individuals that needed to be empowered, recognized, and supported. *Goal setting and vision* was expanded to display the importance of commitment to the task in mind. Participants went beyond describing leaders as *inspiring and motivating* to also including the importance of understanding ones personality to be effective as a leader. Qualities of leadership also expanded to include reference to concepts taught in the leadership program curriculum. Terms such as opinion leaders, adaptors and innovators, problem solving, conflict resolution, building consensus and reflection were apparent in the categories of *goals, vision and commitment*; *personality and qualities of leadership*; *resourceful and proactive*; and *critical thinking*. This indicates that participants will use what is learned in leadership programming to refine their definitions of leadership.

Analysis of the two rounds of concept mapping indicated change and expansion in the definition and conceptualization of leadership. The variety of concept maps indicated that leadership is thought of not only as a definition, but also something that can be observed in its presence and absence. Participants also indicated where they themselves are leaders which indicated the importance of context in leadership (Densten & Gray, 2001) and in the construction of concept maps (Kinchin, Hay and Adams, 2000 & McAleese, 1998). Changes in concept map structures from chain to spoke and spoke to net indicated a greater influence of leadership and its

relationships in different situations and interactions. In the analysis of themes, it was shown that program participants will use concepts taught as part of the curriculum in the leadership programs. By the expansion of leadership definitions and the utilization of concept terms, it is indicated that participants will use what is learned in leadership programming to refine their definitions of leadership.

Recommendations

Future plans include implementing this activity at the conclusion of the program to assess changes in concept map types and definitions of leadership. Through both types of analysis, program administration will be able to examine how individuals define leadership, how perceptions have changed as a result of programming, and identify major themes of leadership among representatives of the industry. They will also be given an indication of how context will play a role in evolving definitions of leadership. Blackwell and Williams (2007) examined concept maps over time and noticed relationships among leadership concepts. By assessing early on in their class than then later in the year, they were able to assess how perceptions had changed and were able to assess knowledge growth.

Previous research indicates that analysis of concept maps “not only allowed the instructors to see which concepts were integrated and how they were integrated, they are also a useful tool in the assessment and revision of the course in the future” (Williams & Blackwell, 2001). As reflection is a part of experiential learning which provides the framework for agricultural leadership programs, program directors should not only implement this concept as an activity, but also be able to relate it to the objectives within agricultural leadership programs. Objectives from this leadership program related to reflection can include the analysis of complex issues facing the class member within agriculture and natural resources and the application of interpersonal skills to develop a better understanding of others ([Leadership Program], 2011).

Opportunities for future research include mapping concepts other than ‘leadership’ such as current issues or skill development processes, examining concept maps through different methods of analysis, and studying the relationships of the structures and process of concept mapping and other leadership assessments. By allowing participants to use concept maps to analyze current issues such as agricultural or water regulation, connections can be made between concepts and increase understanding of those complex ideas. The examination of concept maps through methods of analysis like those proposed by Novak (1981), Smith & Dwyer (1995), Novak and Gowin (1984) and Roth (1994) could provide insight on hierarchical structure, numbers, and connection. Qualitative methods proposed by Roth (1994) and Wallace and Mintzes (1990) can provide further insights into the learning process. Lastly, analyzing the types of concept map structure in relation to personality types and other assessments may provide understanding of personality, problem solving preferences, or learning styles. Over the course of the leadership program, participants are given assessments measuring problem solving styles, motivation and self-regulated learning and personality profiles. A study of the relationship between these assessments and concept mapping processes may provide understanding to thought processes and influence the delivery of learning material.

Conclusion

The study of leadership is a “discipline that is learned only through the higher level thinking processes of application and synthesis” (Blackwell & Williams, 2007). The purpose of this practice paper is to provide adult leadership program facilitators with instruction on how to use concept mapping as a tool of reflection in their programs. Program administrators of leadership development programs find reward in observing the growth of their learners (Blackwell & Williams, 2007). Concept mapping provides an opportunity to evaluate that growth for administrators, but it also provides opportunity for reflection and continuance of the learning process for the students of leadership development. Through this reflection, leaders can gain a greater understating of their environment and acquire knowledge and skills to make better judgments and lead effectively (Densten & Gray, 2001).

A learner’s experiences, occupation, community or voluntary roles, and their personal interests and needs can influence learning outcomes (Newton, 1977). Learning material, the context of learning and prior experience will continue to influence the definition of leadership held by the learner which is continually evolving. Additionally, these lessons are part of the larger process of experiential learning. By building on the preexisting knowledge through moving participants through the cycles of experiential learning, we build more into the knowledge base so they can create deeper conceptualizations and generalizations (Roberts, 2006). Concept maps provide a graphical way for individuals to display how well they understand a concept. The primary benefit of concept maps “accrues to the person who constructs the maps” (Novak, 1990, p. 37) by how they associate concept with their experiences or memory. These new concepts formed “become meaningful when they are linked in memory to existing concepts and are organized into a structure” (Lawless, Smee & O’Shea, 1998, p. 228). Through programs using concept maps to enhance understanding of current issues and leadership development processes, leaders can become stronger and more knowledgeable for their respective communities and state, and the agricultural industry as a whole.

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CONCEPT MAPS

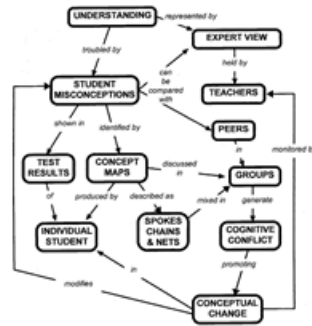
CONCEPT MAPS

- Concept Maps are “graphical tools for organizing and representing knowledge” (Novak & Canas, 2008, p. 1).
- Concepts are enclosed in circles or boxes and relationships between the concepts are indicated through series of lines.
- Provide the tool to assess learning (Novak & Gowin, 1984)
- Give indication of how individuals construct their understanding from past knowledge and experiences (Blackwell & Williams, 2007).

Adapted from "Constructing a Concept Map of the Characteristics of Life"
Retrieved November 6, 2010 from:
<http://www.biologycorner.com/worksheets/conceptmap-life.html>



Adapted from "How a Qualitative Approach to Concept Map Analysis can be used to aid learning by illustrating patterns of conceptual development," by I. M. Kinchin and D. B. Hay and A. Adams, 2000, Educational Research, 42(1), p. 47.



CREATING YOUR OWN CONCEPT MAP

1. **Creation of a main concept- seed node**
 - "What is Leadership?"
2. **Creation of associated concepts to the seed node**
 - Terms related to leadership
3. **Creation of Clusters of nodes join together through a series of lines and arcs.**

You have 20 minutes to complete your concept map

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APPENDIX B

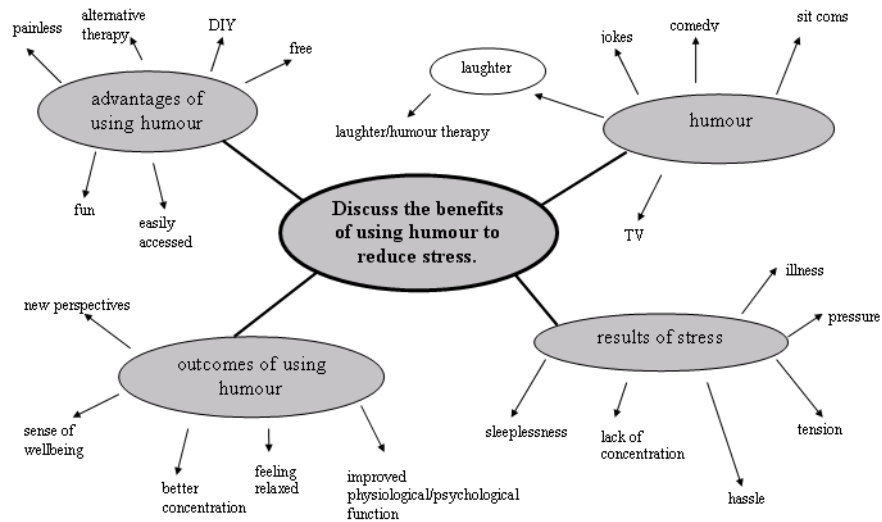
Concept Mapping Activity II

A concept map is a diagram specifying relationships among concepts or terms. The idea is to brainstorm and come up with as many connected ideas as possible. Concept maps are analyzed to discern patterns or regularities within your reflection of a term, observation, or lesson.

During the first seminar of the [LEADERSHIP PROGRAM] you were asked to provide a concept map answering the question, “What is Leadership?” As an activity at the mid-point of this program, please provide another concept map answering the question “What is Leadership?”

The objectives of the activity are to define leadership and also familiarize you to concept mapping. The objective of the activity is to see how your definitions may have stayed constant or changed. You will not need to refer to your original write-ups for this activity.

On a blank sheet of paper, please begin by writing the word leadership. You may use as many terms, boxes/circles, and arrows as you wish, but please limit your map to one page. **This is not to be something that is worked on over time, but at one sitting.** It also does not need to be edited, revisited, or proofread. Please submit your concept map to me in paper form, or a scanned digital copy, on the first day of our national trip.



From Concept Map to Logic Model: Implications for Program Evaluation and the Practice of Leadership Development

Larry Van De Valk, Cornell University

Introduction

This paper outlines the processes used by one *leadership development program* (LDP) to develop a program theory and logic model to guide their leadership development work. Two distinct but inter-related processes were employed: *concept mapping* (CM) and *logic modeling* (LM). This manuscript represents the first published attempt using proprietary software² to link both CM and LM methodologies in the field of adult leadership development. Other practitioners should find these methods easy to replicate in their own settings. Such efforts are an important contribution to the field of leadership development as they can serve as a useful guide for program design, evaluation, refinement and reporting.

Background

The lack of a cogent theory base has long been a criticism of traditional leadership development programs. For example, based on a review of 55 LDP evaluation studies, Russon and Reinelt (2004) concluded that many LDPs lack an explicit program theory that describes how and why a set of activities are expected to lead to certain outcomes. Day (2000) also concluded that there was a disconnect (i.e. theory-practice gap) between the practice of leadership development and its scientific foundation. Though some LDP practitioners undoubtedly design and implement programs based on *implicit* theories of how their programs should work, these are often informal and poorly articulated. Parry (1998) suggested that if applied rigorously, grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) is a methodological approach that can help to overcome the deficiencies of mainstream leadership research. Concept mapping can be thought of as one such rigorous application of grounded theory (Dumont, 1989). Concept mapping provides an attractive method for the generation of the conceptual framework of leadership development because it “expresses the conceptual framework in the language of the participants rather than in terms of ...the language of social science theorizing” (Trochim, 1989, pp. 15-16).

At the same time, logic modeling has achieved widespread adoption over the past 15 years, particularly within the extension system (Braverman & Engle, 2009). “Today, the logic model forms the basis of the federal planning and reporting system and is widely used and adapted

² Concept mapping was facilitated by the use of Concept Systems[®] software; www.ConceptSystemsGlobal.com, and logic modeling was facilitated by the use of The Netway[®]; www.evaluationnetway.com

by Extension organizations for program planning, evaluation, reporting, and grant-writing purposes” (Taylor-Powell & Boyd, 2008, p. 65). Like concept maps, logic models are visual representations of a program. Logic models can take many different forms, but many are of a format that includes the categories *Resources (or Inputs)*, *Activities*, *Outputs*, *Outcomes* and *Impacts* that are presented in such a way as to show the relationships between these categories as well as their temporal precedence (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2004). Numerous resources exist to aid those interested in developing their own program logic models (e.g. University of Wisconsin-Extension, 2012; W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2004).

Description of the Practice

The program in this case is a statewide, two-year LDP for adult professionals in the food, agricultural and natural resource industries. It has operated continuously since 1985 as an extension program at a major land-grant university. Each cohort consists of 25 – 30 individuals, and meets monthly from October through April each year, for a total of about 50 days. Meetings generally consist of a mix of speakers, panel presentations, workshops, tours, case studies, class member practice and reflection exercises. Similar programs exist in approximately 35 states and several foreign countries. All alumni at the time this study was conducted (N=333) were invited to participate, as were the 18 members of the program’s board of directors. A total of 138 different individuals participated in one or more phases of this project.

Concept mapping is a structured conceptualization method (Caracelli, 1989) that can be used to help a group describe its ideas on a topic (Trochim, 1989) and represent these ideas visually in the form of a map. The process typically requires participants to brainstorm a large set of statements relevant to the topic of interest, individually sort these statements into piles of similar ones, rate each statement on one or more scales (e.g. importance and feasibility), and interpret the maps that result from the data analyses. The analyses include a two-dimensional multidimensional scaling (MDS) of the unstructured sort data. These statements are then clustered using a hierarchical cluster analysis of the MDS coordinates, with the computation of average ratings for each statement and cluster of statements. The resulting maps show statements or clusters whose proximity in space is based on their similarity.

Concept Mapping Procedure³

Brainstorming. During the brainstorming step, participants generated statements using a brainstorming process guided by a specific focus prompt. Participants wrote down as many statements as they could think of on their own, followed by a process of verbal sharing and

³ The CM portion of this project was completed by the author as part of a doctoral dissertation. For a more thorough description of the research methodology, population, sample, results and analyses, please contact the author.

recording of each statement designed to stimulate further thinking and additional statements.

Statement Synthesis. Following four brainstorming sessions, all statements ($n = 296$) were compiled and edited for clarity and grammar, then reduced to a smaller set of similar statements ($n = 117$) for sorting using a manual form of text abstraction.

Sorting and rating. These statements were sorted by board members and alumni ($n = 28$) via a paper-and-pencil instrument in three face-to-face meetings. Participants individually sorted cards containing these statements into piles that made sense to them, avoiding singular or "miscellaneous" groups, and then named and recorded the contents of these groups. All available alumni ($N = 333$) were then invited to participate in a subsequent process of rating each statement on each of two, five-point Likert-type response scales for importance and feasibility.

Representation of Statements. Data analysis began with construction of an $N \times N$ similarity matrix T_{ij} composed of values representing the number of people placing i, j pairs of statements in the same pile. This matrix was then analyzed using non-metric multidimensional scaling (MDS) analysis with a two-dimensional solution, yielding a two-dimensional (x, y) configuration of the set of statements as a point map, with their proximity related to their frequency of being grouped together. A computed "stress" value indicating how well this two-dimensional figure represents the original similarity matrix was within the acceptable range based on meta-analytic studies of past concept mapping projects (Kruskal & Wish, 1978).

This x, y configuration was the input for a hierarchical cluster analysis utilizing Ward's algorithm (Everitt, 1980) as the basis for defining a cluster. For this project, the researcher determined that an eight cluster solution yielded sufficient specificity in the data while providing interpretable results for easy use by the board.

Interpretation of the Concept Maps. A meeting to review and interpret results with board members was conducted, including point maps, cluster maps, and rating information. This process had three purposes: first, to perform a qualitative interpretation of the cluster groupings of statements; second, to label the resulting clusters in ways that best described their statements; and third, to determine if these clusters fit within broader groupings or "regions". Participants concurred that the clusters could be grouped within three regions (knowledge/awareness, skills, and reflection) represented by the ovals as shown in Figure 1. Just as in labeling the clusters, the group arrived at a consensus label for each of the identified regions.

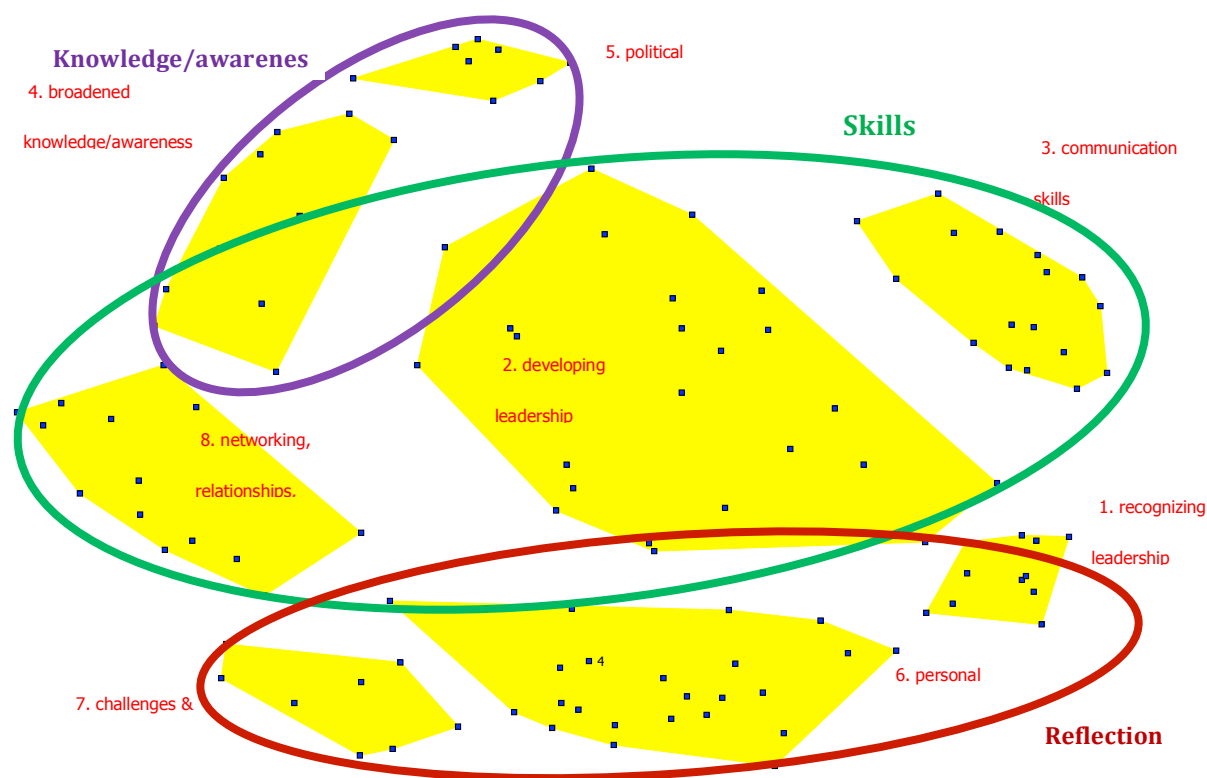


Figure 1 Cluster map with cluster labels and regions identified⁴

Logic Modeling Procedure

Logic models may be developed by program managers, but are often more valuable when they are developed through group processes (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2004). Involving program staff, board members, alumni and other stakeholders often leads to shared understanding of the circumstances surrounding a program, its activities, and outcomes. Input from a variety of stakeholders also ensures that multiple perspectives are considered in the development of the model. Groups can also check each other's interpretation of the model, and discuss assumptions embedded within the model.

The process used in the development of this logic model was generally similar to those suggested by the Taylor-Powell and Henert (2008) and the W.K. Kellogg Foundation (2004). The model was developed by the program board of directors (the majority of whom are also program alumni) at a half-day meeting with the assistance of two outside facilitators

⁴Dots in the concept map (Figure 1) represent individual outcome statements (n=117) generated during the concept mapping activity. Readers interested in this statement list can contact the author.

experienced in logic model development. The model was further refined by the program executive director, and reviewed by the board at a subsequent meeting.

After some instruction by the facilitators on the basics of logic modeling, the board began a structured process to construct the basic logic model. First, they identified several assumptions and contextual factors affecting the program. Next, they began to identify program outcomes and impacts. As they did so, these items were organized into short-, intermediate- and long-term categories⁵. Participants then identified program outputs – tangible deliverables of program operations (e.g. newsletters, class member projects). Program activities that lead to these outputs and outcomes were then identified. The group then listed inputs (i.e. resources) that were necessary to operate the program (e.g. money, staff time, speaker expertise).

The final activity the board engaged in was essentially a matching activity. They examined individual elements of the program concept map – developed several months prior – and compared those to elements of the logic model. Several analytical questions were asked, including: Were all of the specific elements of the concept map accounted for in the logic model? Were those elements placed in the correct location in the logic model; i.e. were short-term outcomes from the concept map placed in the short-term outcomes section of the logic model, and so on? They also looked at the relationship between the two models in reverse order; i.e. they examined the logic model and looked “back” to the concept map to see if any discrepancies existed.

Due to time limitations at the board meeting, the executive director was tasked with “cleaning up” the logic model (editing and proofreading) and adding the pathway links (i.e. the linkages between various elements of the model). For example, if a specific activity was thought to result in a specific outcome, a link was added between those two elements of the model. The final model⁶ was then brought back to the board for their final review and approval (see Figure 2).

⁵ Some authors (e.g. Braverman & Engel, 2009) suggest that short-term outcomes equate to *knowledge* gains, mid-term outcomes equate to *behavior* change, and long-term outcomes equate to *impact* (organizational, societal, etc.).

⁶ In the interest of readability, a simplified version of the logic model is presented in Figure 2. Embedded within each heading presented is a nested description of the specific components of that item. For example, the activity heading “monthly seminars” includes a detailed description of all activities that might take place at a monthly seminar. The Netway[®] software allows the user to hover a cursor over that item to see a full description; that is not possible in this manuscript. You may contact the author for a full description of the items.

Input:	Activities:	Outputs:	Short-Term Outcomes:	Mid-Term Outcomes:	Long-Term Outcomes:
Social Capital - Extensive Industry Network; Contacts and Experience (25+ years of knowing where to go, who to speak to, what works, etc.), Financial Capital - tuition, grants, gifts, CALS support, endowment income, etc. Human Capital - Director (w/ experience in adult education, leadership development, industry issues, etc.), Administrative Assistant, Class Members, Board Members, Presenters, Volunteers, Alumni, etc. Physical Capital - in-kind support from CALS (e.g. office space), food, materials, use of facilities, access to resources, etc. Political Capital - Contacts and supporters with influence in key industry positions	Recruitment, application and interview process	Graduates/Leaders	Networking, Relationship and Teambuilding Skills	Broader Networks, Better Relationships and Diverse Teams	Enhanced Social Capital in the Industry and Communities
	Logistics and planning	Class member projects	Communications Skills	Better Communicators	Improved Public Perception of the Industry
	Assessments	NYS Ag Society Annual Forum	Self-Awareness	Authentic Leaders	Values-Driven Leadership
	Monthly seminars	Continuing Education for Alumni	Broader Knowledge of Issues	Better Informed Leaders	Wiser Decisions
	Between seminar work	Workshops for non-LEAD audiences	Other Leadership Skills	Competent Leaders	Institutionalized Processes
	Evaluations	Publications	Recognizing Leadership	Developing Leadership in Others	Developing a Culture of Leadership
	Mentoring program		Political Awareness	Politically Savvy Leaders	Civically Engaged Leaders
	Fundraising		Managing Expectations	Balanced Leaders	Sustained Leadership
	Communications				
	Facilitation and training services				
	Hosting other groups				
	Board meetings				
	Staff professional development				

Figure 2 Program Logic Model

Results

The concept mapping phase of this project resulted in the identification of 117 specific program outcomes, organized into eight clusters and three regions (see Figure 1). Each of these clusters and regions serve to help us identify underlying theoretical constructs operationalized in this specific context. Furthermore, these data allow us to analyze the importance and interrelatedness of both specific outcomes and clusters of outcomes. A brief summary of each of the clusters follows, organized in descending order of importance.

Networking, relationships, and teams. Cluster #8 emerged as the most important cluster (average importance rating = 3.83), and included such outcomes as teambuilding, improved interpersonal skills, and developing personal and professional networks (Granovetter, 1973). The relatively high bridging values of individual statements within this cluster suggest that it is tied to several other clusters in the overall concept map. During the interpretation session, several board members noted that cultivating networks, managing relationships and building teams can all be thought of as leadership *skills*, thus this cluster was identified with the “skills” region of the overall map.

Communication Skills. Another cluster (cluster #3) within the skill region, and second most important in rank (average importance rating = 3.78), was the cluster containing communications skills, such as public speaking and listening. Like cluster #8, this cluster’s statements also had high bridging values, suggesting that these outcomes were tied to outcomes in other clusters as well.

Broadened knowledge/awareness (of food and agriculture system). Cluster #4 was tied in importance (average importance rating = 3.72) with cluster #6. As one board member put it “this cluster describes the ‘playing field’; the environment in which our leaders must operate and issues they must understand”. Together with cluster #5 (political awareness) this cluster makes up the knowledge/awareness region identified during the interpretation session. Several statements in the upper-left area of this cluster (e.g. “developing a better understanding of the ‘big picture’ of the food and agricultural system...”) served as anchors for this cluster, while most others had high bridging values, linking them to surrounding clusters.

Personal development. The average importance rating was also 3.72 for cluster #6. There were several anchoring statements (e.g. #28 “a significant level of personal growth...”) in this cluster (generally in the center and lower areas of the cluster), with statements nearest the other clusters having higher bridging values. This cluster formed the core of the reflection region, a group of three clusters that identify more introspective outcomes of participation in the LDP.

Developing leadership skills. Centrally located in the overall cluster map, nearly every statement in cluster #2 had high bridging values, suggesting that this cluster (average importance rating = 3.67) is connected to every other cluster around it. Also part of the skills region - but unlike the communication skills and networking, relationships and teams clusters (which identify skills in more specific domains) - this cluster was identified by one board member as the “miscellaneous” skills cluster.

Recognizing leadership styles. Though outwardly directed (i.e. considering how other people lead), cluster #1 (average importance rating = 3.55) is still identified with the reflection

region, because board members felt that outcomes within this cluster were really reflective considerations of how others lead, and what might be learned (e.g. #50 “realizing that you can learn from everyone...”) from those various leadership styles. All statements in this cluster had high bridging values.

Political awareness. Cluster #5, combined with cluster #4, made up the knowledge/awareness region. Like its companion cluster, this cluster identified a knowledge domain, but this one was specific to the legislative process and political environment that leaders must operate in. Unlike cluster #4, however, this cluster was relatively unimportant (average importance rating = 3.45). With the exception of statement #71, most of the outcomes in this cluster were anchors, not bridges. In other words, few of the outcomes in this cluster were tied to other outcomes or other clusters, suggesting they were very specific in nature.

Challenges and expectations. Cluster #7 was ranked as the least important cluster (average importance rating = 3.34). During the statement generation process, a few participants identified a small number of potentially negative outcomes of participation in an LDP (e.g. “difficulties in balancing time away from home, family, etc.”). This cluster is where several of those negative outcomes were sorted. These were not only relatively unimportant, but participants also rated them low on the feasibility scale, indicating that participants did not necessarily feel that the LDP could be held responsible for these outcomes if they did occur.

Careful examination of the logic model presented in Figure 2 shows that most of these major cluster themes do indeed appear in the final logic model. For example, the concept map cluster labeled “networking, relationship and teams” clearly appears in the logic model as “networking, relationship and teambuilding skills” (short-term outcomes), “broader networks, better relationships, and diverse teams” (mid-term outcome) and “enhanced social capital in the industry and communities” (long-term outcome). Likewise, individual outcomes identified in the logic model (e.g. improved self-awareness) also appear in the concept map (e.g. improved self-awareness, in the “personal development” cluster). Numerous parallels exist throughout the two models.

Logic models go further than concept maps in that they often show temporal precedence of events (i.e. training activities usually precede learning outcomes) and may also suggest causal pathways between elements of the model. Figure 3 presents a comprehensive view of the linkages between various elements of this program’s logic model. White boxes with rounded edges represent program activities. Orange boxes represent program outputs. Short-, intermediate- and long-term outcomes are represented by violet, blue and green boxes, respectively. Arrows suggest causal linkages between the various elements. Of course, complex programs consisting of numerous activities that yield a multitude of outcomes will result in a very complicated pathways model, as it has in Figure 3.

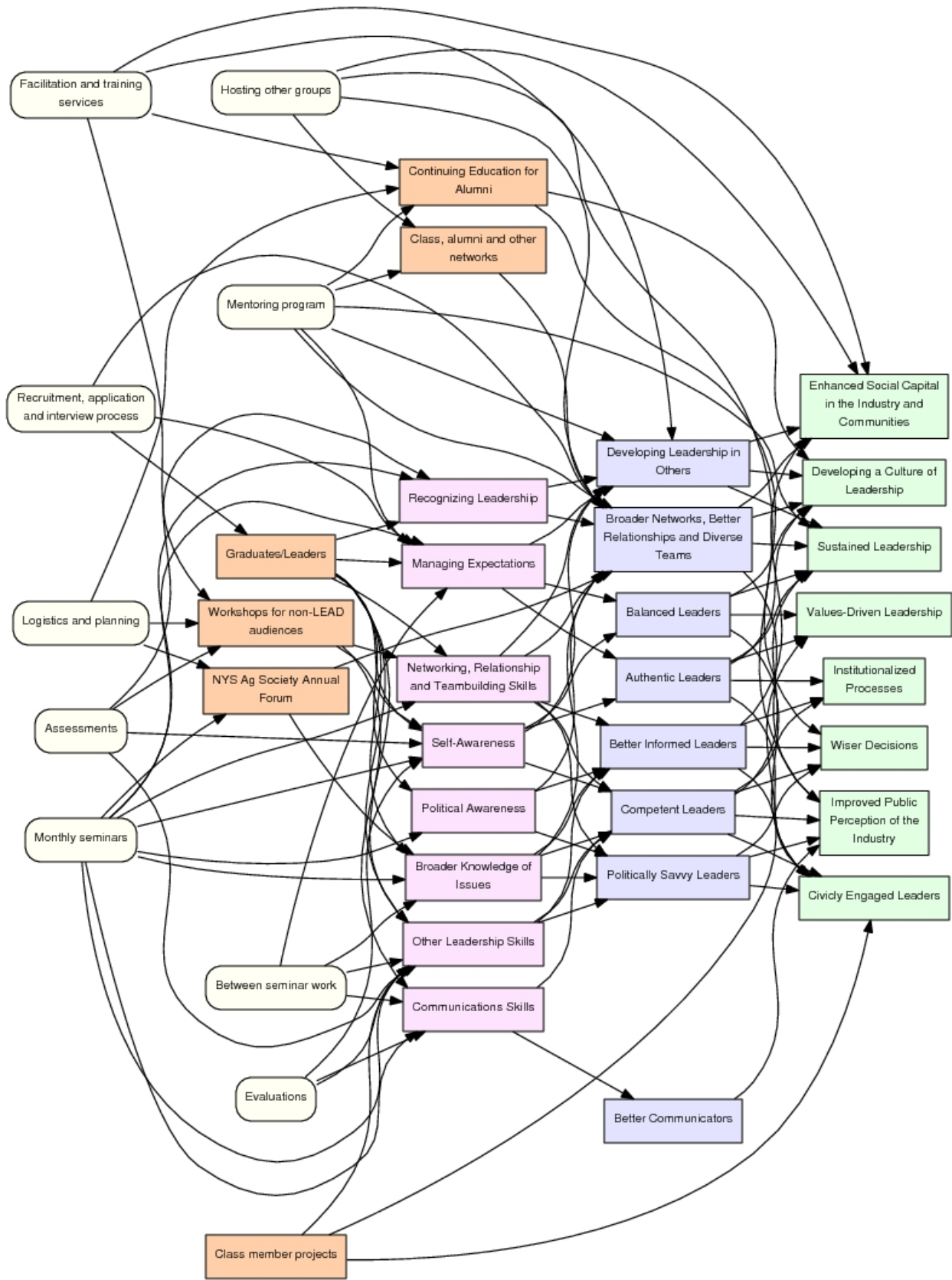


Figure 3 Program Logic Model Pathways

Fortunately, such a complicated pathways model can be deconstructed to show only those elements that are related to a specific activity or outcome, depending on what one wishes to analyze. For example, let us say that we are interested in learning what activities might lead to improved communication skills (a short-term outcome), and how improved communication skills might contribute to other mid- and long-term outcomes. As we see in Figure 4, “monthly seminars” (including several public speaking workshops conducted at various seminars), “between seminar work” (e.g. preparation for class presentations) and “evaluations” (i.e. reflective writing exercises) are all activities believed to enhance participants’ communication skills. Subsequently, “better communication skills” are thought to lead to “better communicators” and “competent leaders” (both mid-term outcomes). Finally, these mid-term outcomes are thought to contribute to the long-term outcomes: “improved public perception of the industry”, “civically engaged leaders”, “institutionalized processes”, “sustained leadership” and “wiser decisions”.

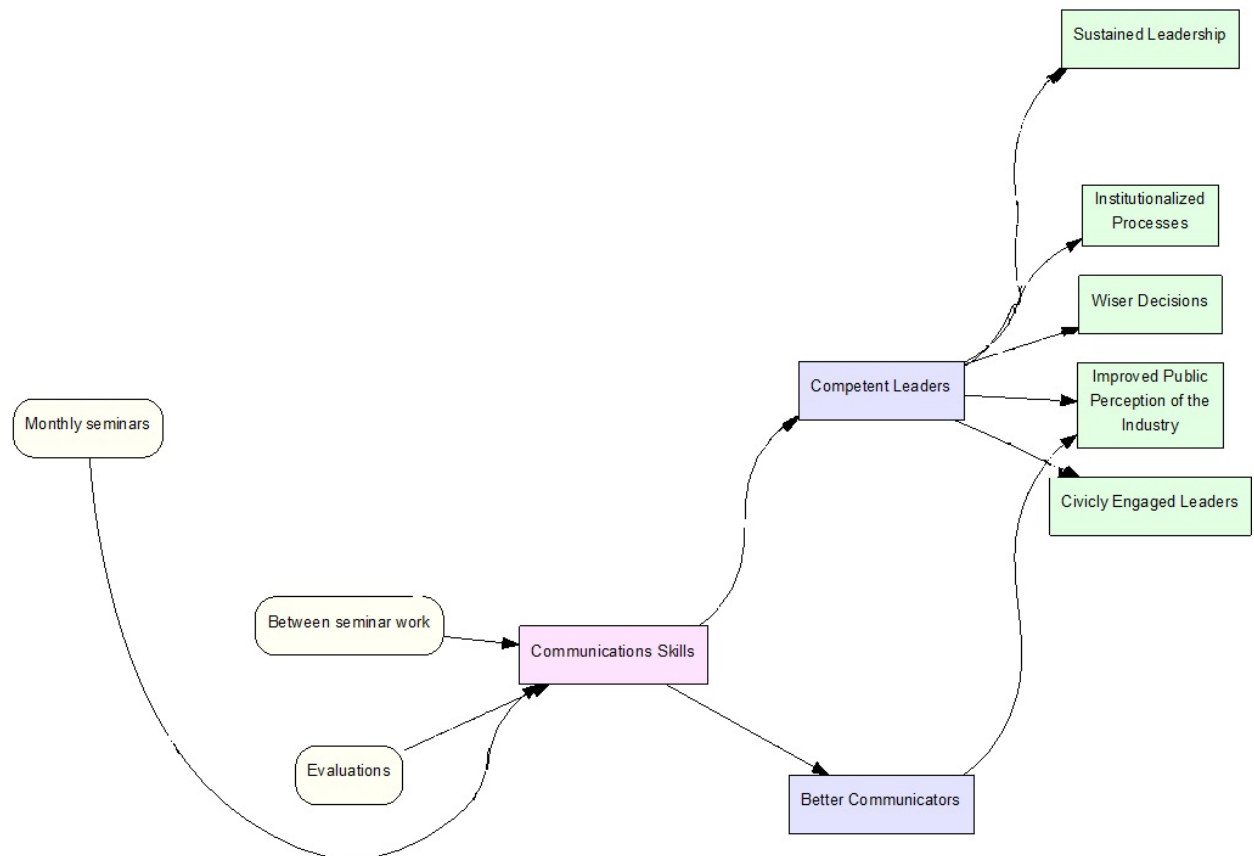


Figure 4 Communications Skills Pathways

Implications

Billsberry (2009) suggested that we should think of leadership as a complicated set of contested constructs, and concept mapping is offered here as one tool to help practitioners identify and understand the constructs involved in their own programs for program planning and evaluation purposes (Kane & Trochim, 2007). Concept mapping has limitations in its usefulness, however. As it was used in this project, concept mapping did not differentiate between short-, intermediate- and long-term outcomes, for example. Nor does the concept map show temporal precedence; i.e. we do not know, based solely on the concept map, if one activity, output or outcome necessarily precedes another. Nor does the concept map explicitly identify assumptions, contextual issues, and resources (or inputs) necessary to achieve the desired outcomes. This is why logic modeling is a natural progression of the concept mapping activity; it allows us to overcome some of the shortcomings of concept mapping used in isolation. Used in conjunction with a logic modeling exercise, as it was here, one process enhances the validity of the other.

The beauty of logic models lie in their intuitive simplicity. Input A allows you to do Activity B, which provides Output C, which in turn results in Outcome D, and so on. Not only is a temporal precedence implied, but we can see a logical progression from activity through outcome(s). If linkages between elements are added to the model, as they are here, we can also begin to see multiple, potential causal pathways emerge. Of course, the simple construction of such a model does not provide warrant for valid causal inference. Rather, the causal connections offered by well-constructed logic models are “reasonable, not definitive conclusions or absolute proof” (Patton, 1997, p. 217). These assumed causal connections do assist evaluators in knowing what to look for, and may suggest strategies for program evaluation.

It may be wise for program evaluators to deconstruct the causal pathways suggested by the model for such a complex program as this one. In other words, rather than attempting to evaluate all of the outcomes identified in this model simultaneously, it may be more feasible to evaluate a certain subset of outcomes. For example, if it is not practicable to conduct a longitudinal evaluation of the program, then it might be wise for the evaluator to focus solely on short-term program outcomes. Or, if resources prevent the evaluation of outcomes at organizational or institutional levels of impact, then the evaluator could select those outcomes that accrue to the individual participant (e.g. improved public speaking skills). Or, an evaluator could choose to focus their efforts on just one causal pathway, from beginning to end. For example, in this program an evaluator might be interested in the linkages between workshop activities related to politics and government and how those activities result in

political awareness (a short-term outcome), politically savvy leaders (mid-term) and civically engaged leaders (long-term).

It should also be noted that depending on the purposes of the logic modeling activity, it may not be necessary for program managers to conduct new empirical studies to defend causal linkages shown in their logic models. For example, a program manager may wish to show that an assessment tool (e.g. the Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator) and a related activity result in a desired outcome (e.g. heightened self-awareness). If ample evidence can be found in the literature to suggest that the tool in question is indeed effective at bringing about the desired outcome, then there may be no need for the evaluator to conduct an empirical study of their own to prove that assertion. Especially in the case of promoting the program or defending program design to certain stakeholders, simply citing credible work from the literature may be sufficient.

Aside from the obvious evaluation benefits provided by concept mapping and logic modeling activities, other practical benefits exist. As noted at the beginning of this manuscript, a common criticism of leadership development programs is that they often operate without an explicit program theory in place to guide their work. Indeed, lack of a cogent program theory to guide the work of so many leadership development programs prompted Sobeck and Agius (2007) to go so far as to accuse some practitioners of operating their programs “haphazardly”. Concept mapping and logic modeling, as presented here, offer practitioners a thorough, systematic approach to developing comprehensive program theories. In turn, these theories help us explain what we do to stakeholders; they help us justify the use of resources; they help us understand how our work might lead to a set of desired outcomes; they may guide better evaluation efforts; and they might help us improve the practice of leadership development.

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The Impact of Opinion Leaders' Cognitive Relationships on Agenda Setting: Innovations in Adult Leadership Programming

Hannah S. Carter, University of Florida

Alexa J. Lamm, University of Florida

Introduction

Research has been focusing on the influences of cognitive styles in formal and non-formal leadership education settings for quite some time (Witkin, Moore, Goodenough, & Cox, 1977). In fact, leadership educators are rapidly increasing the amount of research and education focused on understanding and utilizing cognitive function in an attempt to improve educational efforts (Boone, 1990; Cano, 1993; Parr & Edwards, 2004). Keefe (1979) defined cognitive styles as a learner's preferred way of organizing and retaining information. Problem solving has been recurrently identified as a cognitive style necessary for leaders in the 21st century and crucial for individuals to be able to take on leadership roles and deal with decisions faced every day (Myers & Dyer, 2006; Torres & Cano, 1995).

One programming area that would benefit from improved educational efforts based on problem solving style are leadership programs targeting adults within agriculture and natural resources. These programs are derived from a pilot program, the Kellogg Farmers Study Program, introduced by the W.K. Kellogg Foundation in the 1960s. Faculty at Michigan State University developed an agricultural leadership program as they recognized the need for effective rural leadership and that this need could be met with a concentrated effort directed towards key individuals (Miller, 1976). The two major objectives of this program were "(a) to create a better understanding of the economic, political, and social framework of American society and (b) to apply this understanding of the complex problems and unique concerns of agriculture and rural communities" (Miller, 1976, p. 6).

Howell, et al. (1982) examined four agricultural leadership programs derived from the original pilot program on the following four characteristics which were deemed essential:

- 1) An educational program design with "intensive" and "extensive" dimensions that emphasized the analysis of public issues,
- 2) Participants who had leadership potential and a concern for agricultural and/or public affairs, and
- 3) Staff and involved institutions that had a strong commitment to the attainment of program goals (Howell, Weir, & Cook, 1982, p. 51).

Today, there are 37 agriculturally based leadership programs in the United States (Strickland, 2011). While each program has its own unique characteristics, they share similarities in their goals and structure. The structure of these programs include study/travel seminars which expose participants to the economic, political and social issues at local, state, national and often the international levels (Mathews & Carter, 2008). Each program selects a certain number of individuals to participate. While the size of these classes differs from program to program, the

original thought of selecting key individuals remains the same. These key individuals are considered opinion leaders of their communities, organizations and industries (Chiarelli, Stedman, Carter, & Telg, 2010).

Opinion leaders within the agriculture and natural resources industry face many challenges. One of them is how to work on the issues critical to the viability of the industry in each state. How will opinion leaders build and set the agendas that will influence policy makers at the local, state, national and international levels?

The [Name] Leadership Institute is one of the 37 agriculturally based leadership programs in the U.S. This program was created in the late 1980s, when administrators within a land-grant institution saw the need to develop the next generation of leaders within the state's agriculture and natural resource industries (Carter, 1999). The goal of this program is:

To develop and refine the leadership capabilities of young leaders who, in turn, will be prepared to become increasingly involved in policy formation—be it policy that directly applies to all segments of [State] agriculture and natural resources, or public policy that will affect the future of [State] agriculture and natural resources in a direct or indirect manner ([Program Website], para 1, 2012).

The innovative approach outlined in this proposal was implemented by the [Name] Leadership Institute as part of the current class going through the program and was guided by the following objectives:

1. Determine participants' problem solving styles.
2. Enhance knowledge about how problem solving styles impacts opinion leadership, specifically when building agendas.
3. Engage participants in an agenda building exercise using homogenous and heterogeneous problem solving style groups.
4. Evaluate participant feedback on the impact problem solving styles had on opinion leadership while building agendas.

Background

Developing applied problem solving experiences is a current best practice in agricultural leadership programming due to its numerous benefits (Boone, 1990; Cano & Martinez, 1991; Phipps, Osborne, Dyer, & Ball, 2008). Skills associated with problem solving are highly sought, especially when related to developing opinion leaders that lead or manage groups (Gokhale, 1995; Lamm, Rhodes, Snyder, Irani, Roberts, and Brendemuhl, 2011). During leadership education, collaborative group problem solving allows participants to tackle different interpretations and solutions as perceived by diverse group members, further developing an enhancing a myriad of skills (Bruner, 1985; Heller & Hollabaugh, 1992; Vygotsky, 1978). Success that most groups experience is heavily dependent upon how well the group functions and is largely established by the group makeup (Heller et al., 1992; Lamm, Shoulders, Roberts, Irani, Unruh Snyder, & Brendemuhl, 2012). Well-formed groups allow participants to “share their conceptual and procedural knowledge in the joint construction of a problem solution, so that all are actively engaged in the problem-solving process and differences of opinion are resolved in a reasonable manner” (Heller et al., 1992, p. 637). While research shows that individual characteristics impacts

how a group performs, very little research has been conducted on the effects of the formation of groups in agricultural leadership settings according to problem-solving style (Gokhale, 1995; Kirton, 2003).

Kirton's (2003) Adaption-Innovation Theory (A-I Theory) has developed an understanding of individual problem solving style. According to Kirton (1976) individual problem solving ability is influenced by potential capacity and learned levels of problem solving. However, A-I Theory is only related to the influence of cognitive style, specifically examining how individuals prefer to solve problems (Kirton, 2003). A-I theory states that individuals' fall on a continuum between adaption and innovation when solving problems. The scale of adaption-innovation is a continuous range. An individuals' cognitive style, measured by the KAI inventory, can be anywhere between the two. Individuals exhibiting an adaptive tendency prefer more structure when solving problems. Adversely, individuals falling on the innovative end of the range appreciate less structure when working through the problem solving process (Kirton, 2003). It is expected that when dealing with an issue, such as agenda setting with a group, adult learners will be impacted by their problem solving style.

McCombs & Shaw (1974) proposed the original hypothesis of agenda setting, which was the emphasis the media placed on an event influenced how the audience evaluated the event. Subsequently, most of the research on agenda setting has occurred in mass communication and has focused on the effects of media on the agendas of decision makers and the public (Brosius & Weimann, 1996). This research could be applied to opinion leaders and the emphasis they place on issues related to agriculture and natural resources and how policy makers will then evaluate those issues.

Opinion leaders are different than the general public because of "social position or status or by virtue of their greater interest in the topic at hand" (Robinson, 1976, p. 307). Burt (1999) described opinion leaders as individuals who are able to make ideas transferable to those who they come in contact. In regards to agricultural leadership programs, the concept of participants being opinion leaders is best defined by Rogers (2003) as "the degree to which an individual is able to influence other individuals' attitudes or overt behavior informally in a desired way with relative frequency" (p. 27). Windham (2009) hypothesized that agricultural opinion leaders are unique in their opinions versus metropolitan leaders due to unique experiences. These experiences could be working within the complex issues that impact their communities, organizations and industries.

The [Name] Leadership Institute is leadership development program which targets individuals 25-45 years of age who are the leaders of [State] agriculture and natural resource industries. Currently, the program is on its eighth class of 30 individuals. Each class of the program participants in 11 study/travel seminars that comprise 55 days of programming. There are eight three to five day seminars are held at various locations around the state, a 10 day national trip that takes place in Washington, D.C. and two other states and a 18 day international trip that occurs in three countries ([Program Website], 2012).

Description of the practice

This practice was part of the fifth seminar of the [Name] Leadership Institute and comprised one day of programming.

Prior to the seminar:

1. KAI was sent to participants with a self addressed stamped envelope. All 30 participants completed and returned. KAI was scored prior to the seminar.

Day of the seminar

2. Agenda building explanation began the day (1 hour).
3. Homogenous policy tool group work (2 hours). Six groups of five will be created using KAI scores, there were three Innovator groups and three Adaptor groups.
 - a. The three innovator groups were each assigned a policy initiative/issue which was identified prior to the seminar.
 - b. The three adaptor groups were each assigned a policy initiative/issue which was identified prior to the seminar.
 - c. Each group was given an activity/worksheet (Appendix A) designed to get the group thinking about creating a policy tool they can use when they go to Washington based on their assigned policy initiative/issue.
4. Heterogeneous policy tool group work (1 hour). The two groups working on the same policy initiative/issue (one adaptor/one innovator) were brought together to come to consensus on their policy tool creation. (10 people in three groups).
 - a. The groups were asked to collaborate together to create a 15 minute presentation that highlighted how they planned to approach decision makers when in Washington regarding their assigned policy initiative/issue.
5. Groups were asked to give their presentations (1 hour).
6. Presentations were collected to create policy tools that were distributed prior to their national seminar in Washington, D.C.
7. Each of the three groups participated in a reflective session/focus group on problem solving and teamwork simultaneously (1 hour). See Appendix B for the Moderator's Guide.
8. Participants were then debriefed on the KAI including speed reading who you are dealing with to relate it to working with decision makers (45 minutes).

After the Session

9. Three policy tools were created from the presentations that were sent to all participants for their use while in Washington, D.C. during their national seminar.

Results

An evaluation was conducted at the conclusion of this seminar. A Likert-type scale from one (being low satisfaction) and five (being high satisfaction) was utilized. The group work on the policy initiative/issue received a score of 4.6, which indicates a high level of satisfaction. The debrief on the KAI received a score of 4.4, which again, indicates a high level of satisfaction. Several participants also wrote comments about this exercise:

“The KAI experience was awesome. I thoroughly enjoyed it and felt like I learned a ton.”

“Very important to our future seminars and becoming a better opinion leader.”

“I see a clear and immediate benefit to improving my leadership skills.”

It was evident from the focus groups that participants understood the connection between problem solving styles and how it influenced how opinion leaders work together to form agendas. Several comments emerged from the focus groups that support this:

“...but we really have to go through the process of learning and experience it and putting it to use and building on it.”

“...It seems that once we got started the gates were opened and we took off running. But with a smaller group, there is less personalities and it seemed like our personality really clicked and seemed that the information continued to flow. But when the groups got bigger, you throw in different personalities or ideas or backgrounds or anything, as someone mentioned, if we are all from the same place it would come out very specific, and we could knock the thing out. We definitely saw once we got to the bigger group everybody kinda had different ideas different experiences...”

The class of participants traveled to Washington, D.C. for their next seminar. While there, they were able to meet with their legislators and other policy makers on the issues that were important to their organizations and industries. Many of the participants felt that they were better equipped than previous classes for these meetings because of the practice outlined. In addition, many are replicating components of this practice within their own industry groups as they begin to establish future agendas on policy initiatives and issues.

Recommendations/Implications

Examining the impact of problem solving on group interaction is a fairly new area of study in leadership education and has major implications for the ways leadership educators can be innovative in their educational efforts. Recommendations for future research would include implementing this practice earlier in the program so it can be utilized on different issues and in different levels of programming (local, state, and/or national). Research also needs to be conducted on the policy makers that these opinion leaders contacted about their agendas—did these agendas influence policy decisions? If these opinion leaders are building and setting agendas in their industries, what impact is that having on policy decisions? In addition, research could be used to determine specific program objectives which would then increase the evaluation capacity

of these programs, which historically have had little rigorous evaluation conducted on their impacts and if they are meeting their objectives.

These programs have the goal of increasing the leadership capacity of individuals involved in agriculture, but many do not have a framework in place to accomplish this goal. Or, if there is a framework, it is not based on a theoretical framework. Not only is this practice based on theory, it is easily applied to leadership programs with similar goals, not only those within an agriculture context.

In addition, this practice increases the leadership skills and abilities of individuals through an increased awareness that the problem solving styles differed among individuals and that leaders need to be aware of these differences as they attempt to work together to solve the complex problems that face their organizations, communities and industries.

The practices outlined could be used in other leadership development programs as well that serve different audiences and contexts. There are many programs related to healthcare, business, education, community development, etc. that could benefit from participants obtaining this knowledge and increasing their awareness on problem solving styles and agenda setting.

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Appendix A

Making Your Visits with Policy Makers Matter

Policy Tool Worksheet

As a group, using the information supplied and your own knowledge of the issues, please define (as precisely as possible) what this issue is to your group:

What is it about this issue that will most likely resonate with policy makers?

What points can you make that will have the most influence in regards to this issue?

How will you draw a policy maker's attention to this issue? What will you say?

What specific tactics will you use to get your point across in regards to this issue?

What do you intend to do/say when a policy maker is open to your position on this issue?

What do you intend to say when a policy maker opposes your position on this issue?

What do you intend to say when a policy maker is neutral in regards to this issue?

Appendix B

Problem Solving & Teamwork Focus Group

Moderator Guide and Questioning Route

Moderator reads: Hello and welcome to our session today. Thank you for taking the time to join our discussion about your experiences solving problems and working as a team during the program you just participated in.

Before we begin, let me share some things that will make our discussion easier. There are no right or wrong answers, but rather differing points of view. Please feel free to share your point of view even if it differs from what others have said. Please speak up and only one person should talk at a time. We're recording the session because we don't want to miss any of your comments. We'll be on a first name basis, and in our later reports there will not be any names attached to comments. You may be assured of confidentiality.

My role here is to ask questions and listen. I won't be participating in the conversation, but I want you to feel free to talk to one another. I'll be asking around 15 questions, and I'll be moving the discussion from one item to the next. There is a tendency in these discussions for some people to talk a lot and some people not to say much. But it is important for us to hear from each of you today because you have different experiences. So if one of you is sharing a lot, I may ask you to let others respond. And if you aren't saying much, I may ask for your opinion.

Our session will last about an hour. You have all had plenty of time to get to know each other, so let's get started.

Problem Solving

Moderator reads:

- What did you think about the agenda building session you were just engaged in?
 - Probe: As you were working through this process, did you face any problems?
 - ✓ Can you describe them?
 - ✓ How did you go about solving the problem you were faced with?
 - ✓ Why did you approach it that way?
 - Probe: Did you find you were calling on any personal strengths while engaged in this process?
 - ✓ What were they and why?
 - ✓ Do you think you used anything besides your strengths?
 - ✓ How about skill areas you did not feel were your strengths?

- Do you think you improved your problem solving skills while working on this project?
 - Probe: How might this experience change the way you approach future projects?

Working in Teams

Moderator reads: Next, think about how your first smaller team worked together building your agenda.

- What did you think about working as a member of this team while creating your agenda?
- Describe the approach your team used to identify how you were going to go about building your agenda?
 - Probe: Did team members approach things differently?
 - ✓ Can you describe the different approaches?
 - ✓ Did these differences create challenges and/or assist your team in reaching its goal, and if so, can you describe why?
- Describe the approach your team used to actually build your agenda?
 - Probe: Can you give me an example?
 - Probe: Why did you approach it that way?
 - Probe: Did team members approach solving the problem differently?
 - ✓ Can you describe the different approaches?
 - ✓ Did these differences create challenges and/or assist your team in reaching its goal, and if so, can you describe why?

Moderator reads: Now, think about how your second, larger team worked to bring your ideas together, build consensus, and create a presentation.

- How was working on this larger team different than working within the smaller team?
- Describe the approach your team used to identify how you were going to go about reaching consensus?
 - Probe: Did team members approach things differently?
 - ✓ Can you describe the different approaches?
 - ✓ Did these differences create challenges and/or assist your team in reaching its goal, and if so, can you describe why?
- Describe the approach your team used to establish what you wanted to present?
 - Probe: Can you give me an example?
 - Probe: Why did you approach it that way?
 - Probe: Did team members approach solving the problem differently?
 - ✓ Can you describe the different approaches?
 - ✓ Did these differences create challenges and/or assist your team in reaching its goal, and if so, can you describe why?
- Overall, how do you feel differences between individuals affect how a team works together?
 - Probe: Can you provide an example?
 - Probe: What personal strengths did you use when working with others?
 - Probe: Do you think you used anything besides your own personal strengths?
- How do you think you can improve your own ability to work with others?

- As a group, did you access any resources when you were putting your agenda together?

Concluding Discussion

As we've talked today:

- Have we missed anything or are there any other comments?

Moderator reads: As was explained at the beginning of the session, the purpose of this focus group was to discuss how you experienced working as part of a team during this agenda building program. Your comments today will aid in further developing this program for years to come and assist us in further understanding how adults solve problems and relate to one another. Thank you for taking time today to share your opinions and thoughts. Your participation is greatly appreciated and has provided valuable information.

Using SWOT Analysis as a Teaching and Learning Tool to Enhance Students' Self-Awareness

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Introduction

"The highlight of this course was the SWOT analysis. I learned more about myself that I did not realize before." Student₆

Self-awareness of skills, personality, and values has contributed to strengthening of self-confidence and a focus on self-improvement among college student leaders (Komives, et al., 2005). Odom, Boyd and Williams (2011) pointed out that "Deepening self-awareness involves moving from having a vague sense of self to affirming your strengths, weaknesses, and roles in which you thrive" (p. 2). Self-awareness is an important component of self-development, which consists of "deepening self-awareness, building self-confidence, establishing interpersonal efficacy, applying new skills, and expanding motivations" (Komives et al., 2005, p. 599).

Waitley (2010) articulated that self-awareness is "the process of paying attention to your-self, your thoughts, feelings, attitudes, motivations, and actions. Self-awareness comes from stepping back and taking a good honest look at yourself and how you relate to the world around you.... When you are self-aware, you can make choices that are right for you." SWOT (Strength, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) analysis can be used to help students become aware of their own strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats as it relates to specific personal, life, business, and career goals. Moreover, SWOT analysis would enable students to systematically identify, analyze and determine those situations/scenarios that they have control over; and those they don't have control over providing clarity for strategies and action to capitalize on strengths; to invest in opportunities; and to improve upon weaknesses; and monitor and manage threats.

This paper discusses a process of using SWOT analysis as a tool to deepen students' self-awareness of their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats; and stimulate/inspire action for improvement and growth in an undergraduate leadership course.

Background

Having clarity on what is internally controlled verses what is externally controlled may influence a person's perceptions, attitude, confidence, motivation and action. Attribution theorist, Weiner (1992) identified ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck as the most important achievement attributions; and classified these into three causal dimensions: locus of control, stability, and controllability. The locus of control dimension is strongly linked to affective reactions; for example, attributing success to an internal cause boosts one's pride or self-esteem, but attributing the same success to an external cause enhances one's gratitude. On the contrary, attributing failure to internal causes brings a sense of shame; but attributing the same failure to external causes may lead to anger. SWOT analysis, not only helps identify strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats; but most importantly, it provides a clear picture as to what is internally

controlled and what is not. SWOT analysis provides necessary information to inform and guide development and implementation of appropriate strategies by clearly identifying what is internal and what is external. Previous studies indicate that how people interpret their own performance informs and alters their self-beliefs and their environments which inform future or subsequent performance. Bandura (1986) presented a view of human behavior in which the beliefs that people have about themselves are key elements in the exercise of control and personal agency and in which individuals are viewed both as products and as producers of their own environments and of their social systems.

Through the process of self-reflection, individuals are able to evaluate their experiences and thought processes (Bandura (1986); Dewey, 1933). According to this view, what people know or are aware of, the skills they possess, or what they have previously accomplished are not always good indicators of subsequent achievements because the beliefs they hold about their capabilities strongly influence their actions and outcomes. The SWOT analysis tool provides a systematic approach to assess an individual's perceived abilities, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats at a point in time to make adjustments in beliefs and actions based on the analysis and findings. This means that self-reflection may lead to certain types of self-perceptions of capability, which in turn may determine what individuals do with the capabilities/skills/knowledge they possess.

SWOT analysis is used to analyze the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats in a variety of settings like business organizations (Dyson, 2004), educational institutions (Rund, 2008) and also at an individual level for students (Nicholls et al.). SWOT analysis is useful in formulating strategies (Dyson). Techniques like resource-based planning, competency-based planning and scenario planning have roots in SWOT analysis (Dyson).

Instructors are looking for ways to help meet students' learning needs. One way to meeting students' needs is to facilitate conditions that help them become self-directed learners, as learning is a life-long process extending beyond the confines of the classroom. Self-directed learning leads to a deeper level of learning that lasts a long time (Knowles, 1975). Knowles stated that the capacity for self-directed learning should be nurtured as quickly as possible, indicating the importance of designing the teaching and learning process at college/university level in a way they promote self-directed learning. Coleman (1999); Litzinger, Wise, and Lee (2005); Yuan et al. (2011) pointed out the utility of self-directed learning to undergraduate students. Of the strategies available to facilitate self-directed learning, SWOT analysis is a simple yet powerful tool. Nicholls, Thoburn, Crecy, and Smart (2008) stated that engaging students in SWOT analysis will help facilitate self-directed learning.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the SWOT analysis tool and how it has been implemented in an undergraduate leadership course to increase students' self-awareness of their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats; and the teaching/learning outcomes observed over several semesters.

Description of the Practice

The Institutional Review Board at the ["university"] approved this study. All students who take a junior level agricultural leadership course complete the SWOT analysis as part of their course requirements. Although over 60 students take this course and complete this assignment each

semester, spring 2011 semester ($n=50$) served as the research sample. The SWOT analysis process was explained in classes and at least two examples of SWOT analysis were conducted in class with students' active participation before students take their own individual SWOT analysis process. The best video record examples of SWOT analysis presentations of previous classes were made available online for students to view and review as further reference at their own convenience to make sure that they have a full grasp on the SWOT analysis process.

Each student was required to pick his/her own career goal, business idea or project and conduct a SWOT analysis and prepare a PowerPoint presentation. Then, students were randomly assigned to groups that consist of 5 to 6 students. The group meets outside of classroom at a time and location that works best for the members. At one point, each member presents to his/her group and receives feedback both on analysis and presentation to ensure that the SWOT analysis was done correctly and each student is prepared for the class presentation. Students then incorporate the feedback they receive into their presentation including group photo. These students were asked to use SWOT analysis as a tool and identify their perceived strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats regarding their future business or career goals. Each student conducted his/her SWOT analysis on his/her career/business goals and orally presented to the rest of the class.

Each presentation was video recorded and scrupulously analyzed. Further content analysis was conducted on students responses to one of the final reflection questions to cross examine students overall impression and perceived value of SWOT analysis tool when compared to other assignments/ projects in this class. Content analysis is a suitable analytical tool to analyze recorded information (Colorado State University, 2011). The video tapes were watched for frequently occurring concepts (Colorado State University). The data were fed into MS Excel Spread Sheet and analyzed by frequencies. Content analysis method is used to analyze written, verbal or visual communication messages (Cole 1988); as a systematic and objective means of describing and quantifying phenomena (Krippendorff 1980, Downe-Wamboldt 1992, Sandelowski 1995). Through the content analysis method, it is possible to filter words into fewer content categories; and when organized and classified into the same categories, words, phrases and other content share the same meaning (Cavanagh 1997). The content analysis research method is used to make replicable and valid inferences from data to their context, with the purpose of providing knowledge, new insights, a representation of facts and a practical guide to action (Krippendorff 1980).

Results/Experience with the Project/Lessons to Date

Although over one hundred students over four semesters participated in the SWOT analysis project, content analysis was done on only fifty students' presentations and reflection data. Of the 50 participants, 66% were male. Seventy percent were at junior level of their undergraduate education followed by 22% seniors and an equal number of freshmen (4%) and sophomores (4%). All participants were in the age group of 19 to 23 years. Students identified 62 strengths, 58 weaknesses, 45 opportunities and 36 threats. The most commonly identified strengths included: farm experience (40%), their education background (36%), internship experience (28%), and hard working nature (22%); whereas the most commonly perceived weaknesses included: procrastination (24%), distractions (20%), financial problems (16%), lack of technical knowledge (12%), and difficulties in decision making (10%). For opportunities, these students

identified: networking (34%), family farms (26%), internships (22%), education at the [‘university’] (16%), and availability of jobs upon graduation (16%), whereas for threats they identified competition from peers for jobs (44%), economic problems (36%), market costs to start a new business (22%), and competition from farmers (18%) as threats to achieving their future career goals.

Additional content analysis on student’s final course reflection assignment indicated that these students really liked the SWOT analysis process and learned from that process. The content analysis in this case was focused on the following two questions: *What were the highlights of the course for you? Where have you seen the most improvement?* These two questions were part of a set of six reflection questions provided to students to help guide their overall course reflections. The content analysis of student responses to these two questions revealed that the SWOT analysis experience was the highlight of this course for 28% of the students, closely followed by personal growth project (26%), and presentations by 26% of the students. The remaining 20% of the students identified miscellaneous leadership concepts and class activities as the highlights of this course for them. Here are some statements these students made in their final course reflections regarding the benefits of the SWOT analysis project:

The project that I took the most was the SWOT analysis project. This was my first time using SWOT analysis and I found it very useful and eye opening. Before doing SWOT, I had never really given thought to all of my opportunities and strengths.

My SWOT analysis project really made me think about what actions I need to take to get where I want to be in life and I did not realize that until after the project was over.

The SWOT let me examine the strengths that I have, the weaknesses that I need to work on, the opportunities that come to me, and the threats that I need to be aware of.

I found out the importance of using my strengths and working on my weaknesses to turn them into strengths. ... It took me a long time to come up with my SWOT analysis because I had overlooked my weaknesses for such a long time that I never thought of them as weaknesses. It was like I had trained my mind to ignore them and only know my strengths, which is the wrong thing to do.

The SWOT analysis was incredibly helpful. Many times I would see a leadership opportunity and rush into it with little thought to my time schedule. After learning of the SWOT analysis, I have become able to effectively manage my time and make good decisions about upcoming opportunities. By looking at the situation, I can make an educated decision and better manage my time.

Overall, the results were in line with Nicholls et al. (2008) who stated that in a SWOT analysis, strengths and weaknesses relate to internal or personal factors whereas opportunities and threats relate to external or extraneous factors. Students from this study followed this trend by identifying factors such as their personal experiences, hard working nature, and their education as strengths, and procrastination, distractions, lack of technical knowledge as weaknesses.

Further, they adhered to this trend by identifying external factors such as networking, family farm, and jobs as opportunities, and peer competition for jobs, and economic problems as threats. The SWOT analysis project was identified as the highlight of this course experience by nearly 30% of the students indicating that SWOT worked as a good teaching and learning tool.

Recommendations/Implications

Two conclusions were drawn based on the findings. First, the SWOT analysis exercise seems to have stimulated students' thought processes, and helped assess and analyze their own situations in a systematic way. Secondly, SWOT analysis appears to have facilitated self-directed learning in students. Students' self-awareness of their own strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats were believed to have increased based on the large number of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats identified by the participants in this study. Awareness of strengths and opportunities provides a boost to their confidence while awareness of weaknesses and threats highlights areas that they need to improve upon, and monitor and manage.

This study has implications for both students and instructors. At the students' level, SWOT analysis helps promote self-directed learning as they analyze their own situations, and make strategic decisions to achieve their career/business/life goals. Peer and instructor feedback can strengthen/deepen student analysis; therefore, students should be encouraged to interact and discuss with their peers and consult instructors for further feedback as they conduct their SWOT exercise. These SWOT analysis results were presented and discussed in class. By implementing such an exercise, instructors may gain an overall understanding of their students' backgrounds, interests and skill levels; and design their teaching and learning projects/activities to meet specific needs and help facilitate self-directed learning.

The results from this study also have implications for career and financial counseling services at colleges/universities as some of the identified weaknesses and threats are related to financial concerns and jobs that can be best addressed by these services rather than course instructors. The identified strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats will be developed into a systematic questionnaire to collect data from a larger undergraduate population to gain more insights that would inform teaching, learning and advising processes. Similar studies should be conducted with undergraduate students from other majors and colleges for further comparisons and application.

The findings/experiences indicate that the SWOT tool facilitates a deeper and an individualized analysis of various goals/projects and advances meaningful self-directed learning. SWOT analysis not only helps in identifying strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, but it also inspires a student to act upon his/her discoveries by triggering internal motivation caused by the new self-awareness. The SWOT tool is both relatively easy to understand and implement in a leadership course; and if implemented right, it *could* offer rewarding teaching and learning experiences for both instructors and students.

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Leadership Soliloquies: Turning Leadership Analysis Into an Experiential Activity

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Introduction

Turning leadership education into leader development requires students to take the leadership philosophies, models, and theories learned in the classroom and apply them in different contexts. Kouzes and Posner (2002) state leadership development occurs when a person looks outward and finds leaders he/she wants to model, looks inward to discover personal leadership philosophies and values, and then moves on by combining the two. For students to begin this process, an assignment was created which asked the students to choose a leader they saw as influential and read their biography/autobiography. Leader analysis has long been used as a pedagogical method of leadership education, but as the adage says: in order to truly understand someone, you must walk a mile in his shoes. In order for students to gain a holistic and profound understanding of a leader, dramaturgical learning was coupled with reading and analyzing the leader biography to give students a unique learning experience.

Background

One of the important factors in a successful leadership education program is integrated and structured activities. Flaum (2002) notes, “a true practice of leadership is demonstrated most authentically in the leadership moment.” Although most leadership education courses cannot provide the student with an actual leadership “moment,” the use of active learning techniques can imitate leadership moments.

One way to create simulated leadership moments is through the use of dramaturgical learning. Dramaturgical learning is defined as a critical way of thinking and learning through the eyes and actions of another individual. This type of learning occurs as the student is participating in dramatizing (role playing or acting out) a situation. The process of dramaturgical learning helps students find the meaning of leaders’ actions in analyzing the manner in which they conduct themselves as leaders (Goffman, 1959). Through this unique style of learning, the individual giving the presentation is forced to learn more about the individual because he/she will present the information AS the leader.

In order to gauge the effectiveness of these simulated leadership moments, we must look to other studies of simulated experiences. Popular computer-based simulations, such as Second Life, have been used within the collegiate education field to create a different learning environment for students. Simulations are very practical in the context of the director, or professor, being in complete control of the learning environment. Simulations can essentially transform experiences as outlined by the educator into new practical

knowledge (Rosie, 2010). It was noted that while simple simulations gave somewhat imprecise results, they did improve the overall learning outcomes of communication and interpersonal skills.

The use of dramaturgical learning is described as the most student-centered assignment available in the realm of leadership education. (Barbutto, 2006; Leberman & Martin, 2005). This style of learning asks students to take a more critical thinking approach to analyzing leader behavior. This is because of the performance aspect of the method (Schwandt, 2005; Tchaicha & Davis, 2005). When a student focuses on major and minor details about the leader, they see a holistic view of who the leader is and how his/her actions impact leadership effectiveness.

There are four phases of dramaturgical learning: framing, scripting, staging, and performing (Gardner & Avolio, 1998). Framing is where students are given the instructions and parameters of the assignment. For this example, they receive their assignment sheet, which discusses the paper and the presentation. Scripting is an extension of the framing process but this portion of dramaturgy is “intended to coordinate and integrate activities” (p. 41). For this assignment, scripting occurred during the leader analysis and paper writing. Staging “entails logistical matters...including the development and manipulation of symbols, including physical appearances, settings, props and other types of displays” (p. 43). Students complete the staging phase as they prepare for their presentation. Learning mannerisms and gathering props and costumes for their leader occur also. The last phase is performing where the student actively engages their audience and performs their leader soliloquy.

The Practice

As part of the (leadership program) at (university), students are enrolled in a three-hour, upper level course in advanced experiential leadership. This course uses outside speakers as well as service learning and experiential activities and assignments to increase leadership development of the participants. One experiential activity and assignment is the leadership soliloquy.

At the beginning of the semester, students are asked to choose a leader who they view as influential in their own personal view of leadership or one who intrigues them. After they submit their top three choices, they are then told they need to find a biography or autobiography about a leader on their list. The first part of the activity is reading the book and completing a paper analyzing the leader’s journey to becoming a leader, leadership philosophy, and leadership lessons learned.

Dramaturgical learning is key in the second part of the activity. Instead of giving a traditional oral report on their analysis, students are asked to deliver their findings as their leader. Using costumes, makeup, props, verbal, and non-verbal idiosyncrasies of the leader, the students are challenged with giving a 10-15 minutes presentation detailing the leader’s

development, leadership philosophy, and key leadership lessons learned. This presentation is to be given as a soliloquy, or monolog.

No formal rubric or assignment sheet is given to the students. Complete creative license is encouraged, and rubrics have been known to squash creativity. Students are strongly encouraged to begin the process early, so they have plenty of time to reflect on the information in the biography/autobiography and analyze the leadership philosophies, models, and theories present in the material.

Results

Students have embraced this assignment and produced graduate-school level analysis papers and given presentations that are above and beyond the expectations of the instructor. The written part of the assignment shows the depth of understanding and application students have for leadership philosophies, models, and theories. Students have analyzed and found Jesse James (motorcycle ex-husband of Sandra Bullock) a true hedonist, Leigh Anne Touhy a modern servant leader, Roy Disney the Theory Y leader to Walt's Theory X, and Bill Clinton as a substantive charismatic leader.

As part of a larger research study, students were asked to reflect on their experience with the leader soliloquy assignment. Selected responses from four of the questions asked are below.

Describe your experience with the "Leadership Soliloquy" assignment:

- "I had to reflect more on the leader's philosophy"
- "I went through an entire process of choosing a leader. Overall I had fun with this assignment!"
- "I wouldn't have researched this leader unless for the assignment. Doing so, I learned about the what and why of my leader's actions"
- "It forced me to learn all aspects of my leader. It was a privilege to be able to contact the Walt Disney archives and talk to an Archivist."

What impact did having to perform as your leader have on your learning?

- "My learning was enhanced because I had to truly know my leader's character to portray the leader correctly to the audience."
- "I will remember more for a longer period of time than just doing a paper"
- "It was easy to become the leader after reading the biography. I WAS my particular leader."
- "I learned how to better empathize and understand people"
- "It was challenging for me because my leader is a public speaker. This made me a little intimidated and I really wanted my presentation to come off as a speech."

How was your experience different than if you were tasked with doing a written analysis of a leader?

- “If we were asked to do a written analysis of a leader it would have left little to no impact on me as a person.”
- “Becoming my chosen leader allowed for the creative side to really shine through.”
- “It was a more intimate assignment”
- “In a written analysis, I feel like I would have just been regurgitating information, I was able to really engage myself in the information and not just memorize it, but live it”

What part of your leader’s leadership philosophy was most surprising?

- “If I had to choose a surprising part, it would be how incredibly driven my leader was. He never let up and always pushed to reach the next set goal”
- “I was surprised at how much she stuck to her values, not matter how known she became”
- “I learned that he was incredibly humble and modest”
- “She doesn’t just talk the talk, she walks the walk of what she preaches”
- “What surprised me was that she always took a moment to look at where she has come from. This characteristic/habit transpired into a philanthropic heart. She is a servant leader”

Student reactions are consistent with the findings of Schwandt (2005) and Tchaicha and Davis (2005) who found dramaturgical learning encouraged critical thinking.

Within the presentations, students were able to articulate the leadership philosophy of their chosen leader. After each presentation, the instructor as well as other students asked the presenter questions. Through these questions, the presenter drew even more correlations between course material (leadership philosophies, models, and theories in this case) and the lived leadership experience of their chosen leader.

Recommendations

This activity has been used in an advanced experiential leadership course, but could be modified to fit the objectives of any leadership course. In our experience, it is beneficial for students to choose the biography they read, analyze, and perform. By choosing their leader biography, they are more likely to engage in the process earlier. Also, students seem more motivated to read if they are analyzing someone they are truly interested in.

For students to connect the leader biography with course content, it is recommended this activity take place toward the end of the semester. Not only are students able to see a more holistic view of course content, they are comfortable with each other. Dressing up and

acting like a known leader challenges many students. They are more likely to give an engaging soliloquy performance when the classroom atmosphere is familiar and accepting.

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The Development of Moral Compasses

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Introduction

When discussing how our moral compasses form, students are quick to identify parents and peers as influential factors. They do not realize the complexities of moral development. While some moral theorists would argue of our innate capabilities to discern right from wrong and good from bad, the majority of moral development theorists would argue we are socialized into our dominate moral philosophy (Pojman & Fiser, 2009).

To aid students in their self-discovery of moral development, an activity was developed which asks them to look for an example of how morals are introduced, perpetuated, or reinforced. The objectives for the activity are:

1. identify an artifact which introduces, perpetuates, or reinforces moral ideals
2. research the origin of the artifact
3. analyze the application of the artifact in terms of socialized moral development

The aim of this assignment is for students to see “the dialogue between cognitive structure and the complexity presented by the environment” (Kohlberg & Hersh, 1977, p. 57). Students are asked to reflect on their experiences as well as look to other cultures to find their examples. In this regard, they are using their existing cognitive structures in regards to morality and seeing how the artifact interacts with the culture (environment). By utilizing diverse artifacts, and then presenting said artifacts to the rest of the class, students begin to acknowledge the complexities of moral development (or acknowledging how complex it is to build a moral compass).

Background

In the current neo-charismatic leadership paradigm, morality is a central issue in leader development. The link between morality and leadership goes beyond authenticity and values based leadership. Studies link moral development with leadership traits and show how personality dichotomies can be used in diagnosing moral developmental levels (Narvaez, Lapsley, Hagele, & Lasky, 2006). Studies of the associations between morality and motivation as well as leader behavior and morality have shown correlations (Narvaez & Lapsley, 2009). Because of this, morality and leadership are exceedingly intertwined. It is imperative for students to understand not only how the two concepts coincide but also how each are developed.

Moral development as defined by Piaget and enhanced by the research of Kohlberg, “represents the transformations [morality] that occur in a person’s form or structure of thought” (Kohlberg

& Hersh, 1977, p. 54). Kohlberg's three stages of moral development; preconventional, conventional, and postconventional, occur in a sequence with movement forward through the stages. Kohlberg and other theorists have proven a correlation between moral development and Piaget's model of child development. Other theorists have drawn from social identity theory to describe moral development. This idea of moral identity "can be organized around traits associated with moral behavior" (Reynolds & Ceranic, 2007, p. 1611). Thus, ethical relativism has a direct impact on moral development. "Frequent and consistent experiences with a specific domain of social behavior" (p. 968) has a direct correlation with subscribed moral actions (Narvaez, Lapsley, Hagele, & Lasky, 2006). For this reason, it is essential for students to understand the role of context and culture in morality. Looking at artifacts is one way to understand this level of culture.

Using an activity which asks students to use their higher-order thinking skills to examine moral development will not only increase their knowledge of moral development but will also enhance their moral development. Synthesis, application, and active participation are important in using higher-order thinking skills in exercises in leadership and morality (Williams & Coers, 2009). Mayhew, Seifert, Pascarella, Laird, and Blaich (2012) found the use of this type of pedagogical methodology increases moral reasoning among college students.

The Assignment

The origins of this assignment can be traced back to a children's book. While reading *The Berenstain Bears and the Golden Rule*, (name) realized how many of her child's books truly have "a moral" to the story. (name) then began to look at how other non-traditional teaching methods are utilized to socialize moral development. After finding connection after connection between moral development socialization, and cultural relativism, (name) thought her students would benefit from such an analysis. Thus, an activity for moral development was developed.

This assignment asks students to identify an artifact that introduces, perpetuates, or reinforces moral ideals of a culture. They are challenged to look reflexively at their own upbringing as well as to diverse cultures to find examples.

Because of the impact of relativism in the development of moral identity, it is important for students look at moral development through the lense of organizational culture. Schein (2004) notes when looking at organizations, the first level of analysis includes artifacts. After artifacts are identified, students can then begin discussing the underlying values and beliefs of the culture. Artifacts are the phenomena one sees, hears, and feels" (p. 25) when diagnosing culture. Artifacts can also include "physical environment, language, technology, artistic creations, style as embodied in clothing, manners of address, emotional displays, and myths and stories told" (pp. 25-26). This was the inspiration of the assignment.

The activity is introduced by reading *The Berenstain Bears and the Golden Rule* to the students. At first, they laugh and then they begin to remember those books they read as children and young adults which had an impact on their development. A facilitated discussion follows giving other examples (commercials for after school specials are shown along with a cartoon version of Aesop's Fables) in which students can begin a dialog about how moral compasses develop.

In groups, students are given time in class to brainstorm artifacts. There are a couple we have told them were "too easy" and not let them use for their final paper and presentation. Those include the (university) code of honor statement, religious texts, and any item we have discussed during class. They are then handed the assignment sheet (Appendix A). Groups are given a week to find their artifact and complete the assignment.

The assignment manifests into a presentation that asks the groups to:

- Introduce their artifact
- Explain how their artifact either introduces, perpetuates, or reinforces either morality or ethics
- Research the underlying theory (ex: who came up with the golden rule for Sister Bear)
- Explain the social ramifications of their artifact

The presentations are five to ten minutes long with time for questions at the end. Students are encouraged to bring in examples of their artifact (if applicable) or present in an "edutainment" manner (enhanced creativity and active learning by the participants). Students also submit an outline of their information with proper references.

Results

By asking the students to identify, analyze, and apply their artifact to the socialized moral development of a culture, they are engaging in higher-order thinking which, as Mayhew et. Al (2012) found increases the moral identity development of the student. Students also are quick to identify the cultural relativism which exists within each artifact and how it is used to introduce, perpetuate, or reinforce morality.

This activity has been used in four semesters of "Leadership and Ethics." Each semester has given diverse but always interesting artifacts. One group identified fortune cookies as an ethical artifact. They researched and found the original fortune cookies relied on Confusion ethical statements as their statements. They brought cookies for the class and had them open and read the fortune inside and then compare it to moral philosophy. Another group showed clips from TV show from the 50s-present day displaying the relationships between women and men. They showed how we have gone from a married couple not being able to share a bed on television to 16 year olds having children and their own reality show. They related it back to not only leadership movements but also political movements. The Foundation for a Better Life has been used two semesters as an artifact. The students researched and found the foundation's

commercials, displaying values and moral behavior, are specifically run during certain times of the day as well as during specific shows to target behavior.

Recommendations

While this activity is used in an undergraduate course focusing on moral/ethical theories and their application to leadership, it could be incorporated into a course where there is a component of ethics.

If the activity is used in an ethics course where theory is learned, it is recommended to complete this activity toward the beginning of the course. Beginning the course discussion how we develop moral philosophies serves as an effective starting point. Students discussing how they view morality and where they learned right from wrong and good from bad lets them discuss their similarities and differences in cognitive structure. Having students discuss artifacts before the constraints of learning moral theory will allow them to think creatively.

It is also recommended to refer back to the artifacts as the semester progresses. For every moral theory discussed, there is usually at least one artifact, which displays that moral theory. For example, corporal punishment is a good example of social contract theory. At the end of the semester, students can look back on their artifacts and reflect on the impact each holds in introducing, perpetuating, or reinforcing moral ideals.

The activity has been completed with and without discussion of Kohlberg's developmental stages. If Kohlberg has been discussed, students can categorize their artifact as preconventional, conventional, or postconventional. By having the students categorize, they use higher-order thinking skills.

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Appendix A

Ethical Development Artifact

Knowing the differences between “right” and “wrong” or “good” and “bad” is not an innate phenomenon. Social contract morality (as well as personal experience) teaches us the differences between things we ought and things we ought not do. How is it, then, that we are socialized into a specific morality?

History has proven that this socialization comes in many forms. You (as a team) must find one example of how we introduce, perpetuate, or reinforce moral theories or personal ethics. The examples in class of after school specials, Aesop’s Fables, or children’s books are a place for you to BEGIN your brainstorming. You may not use these examples in your presentation. Look to other cultures as well as history to guide your creativity.

For your presentation, you will:

- Introduce your artifact
- Explain how your artifact either introduces, perpetuates, or reinforces either morality or ethics
- Research the underlying theory (ex: who came up with the golden rule for Sister Bear)
- Explain the social ramifications of your artifact

This presentation should be 5-10 minutes.

Grading:

Artifact	10 points	_____
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Explanation of how
your artifact i, p, or r's
morality

15 points

Explanation of social
Ramification

15 points

Creativity of artifact
and presentation

10 points

Appreciative Inquiry: A Tool for Organizational, Programmatic, and Project-Focused Change

*Kerry Priest, Virginia Tech
Eric Kaufman, Virginia Tech
Kelsey Brunton, Virginia Tech
Megan Seibel, Virginia Tech*

*“There is no power for change greater than a community discovering what it cares about.” - Margaret Wheatley (2002), *Turning to One Another**

Change is often a central focus in the study of leaders and leadership; indeed, dealing with change is a core task of a leader. Kotter (1996) paints a picture of significant change that is happening within organizations, and emphasizes the role of the leader in the success or failure of transformational change processes. Heifetz, Grashow, and Linsky (2009) describe change driven by adaptive challenges—problems that cannot be clearly defined or addressed through known solutions and standard operating procedures. Instead, such challenges often require significant shifts in thinking and practice across the organization. Pink (2006) echoes a societal shift in thinking from logical to conceptual—from specific, task-oriented thinking to inventive, big-picture thinking capabilities. Adaptive leaders are needed to respond to complex change through culture-shaping efforts that help organizations thrive, give people enough challenge to approach change without fear, and to develop leadership capacity (Heifetz et al., 2009). Klein, Rice, and Schermer (2009) emphasize an urgent need for a restorative response to rapid global change, asserting that “the place to begin is with those who exercise the most power, authority, and influence, namely our leaders” (p. 1). Leaders must do more than just respond to and managing change; they must engage and facilitate transformational efforts at multiple organizational levels. At the heart of the Social Change Model (SCM) of leadership is the goal of creating change to benefit the common good (HERI, 1996).

The higher education institution is tasked with multiple missions, including the preparation of leaders who can engage the complex challenges of a changing world. Ayman et al. (2003) suggest that, “As our universities stretch beyond traditional academic subjects to focus on leadership, personal growth and development, and even values, higher education is positioned to play a more pivotal role in the development of a leadership culture in our society” (Ayman et al., 2003, p. 220). Transformative educational practices are needed to “equip learners to engage in dialogue, to see difference as a source of learning ... and to engage critically with local or global issues” (Androetti, 2010, p. 245).

Ironically, the organizational systems within these institutions are often resistant to transformative change. Leaders in administrative and academic roles can easily fall into patterns of technical problem solving approaches towards adaptive challenges, as opposed to mobilizing new patterns of thinking and working. Strategic planning efforts are common in higher education, and often times occur around times of transition in leadership, or in response to program assessment. In order to best serve the changing

needs of faculty, students, and stakeholders, higher education leaders need strategic planning tools that encourage transformative change. Appreciative inquiry (AI) has emerged as such a tool, offering not only a set of strategies for planning, but also a guiding philosophy for organizational development.

IAI is an especially useful tool for leadership educators, as its' foundation in social constructionist philosophy aligns with contemporary leadership and learning theories. Leadership educators are uniquely positioned to serve academic communities as facilitators of change, bridging theory and practice in pursuit of new ways of knowing and working together.

The purpose of this paper is to describe how leadership education faculty and students at one university have facilitated change through the use of appreciative inquiry (AI) at the departmental level, program level, and project-level. Specifically the authors will:

1. Describe the philosophy of appreciative inquiry as it applies to organizational development;
2. Describe the AI practices associated with a five-stage model; and,
3. Highlight three in-process case examples that can be used as models for leading change in a variety of organizational situations.

Background

Appreciative inquiry (AI) emerged in the late 1980's as an iteration of the action-research approach to organizational development (Cooperrider & Srivasa, 1987). Cooperrider & Srivasa (1987) suggested that the problem-oriented worldview of traditional action-research methodology limited its' generative capacity—that is, the potential ability to help social systems evolve, adapt, and creatively alter patterns over time. Inspired by the potential of uniting theory and practice for the purpose of social change, they proposed that an appreciative approach was a more suitable mode of inquiry in a post-industrial society. AI has evolved into an organizational development approach to change management, understood most commonly as a process-based method that supports organizational transformation (Cooperrider, Whitney, & Stravos, 2008).

Rooted in social constructionist philosophy, AI is “more than a method or technique” ... it “is a way of living with, being with, and directly participating in the varieties of social organizations we are compelled to study” (Cooperrider & Srivasa, 1987, p. 131). The theoretical underpinnings of AI are expressed through five key principles:

- First is the *constructionist principle* which emphasizes the connection between social knowledge and organizational destiny (Cooperrider et al., 2008). For leaders to be change agents, they must be able to overcome conventional or habitual ways of thinking, and “unleash the imagination” of individuals and groups in order to conceive and construct the future (Cooperrider et al., p. 8).
- The *principle of simultaneity* recognizes that “inquiry is intervention” (Cooperrider et al, 2008, p. 9). The process of inquiry is part of the change process itself. It is essential for the change agent to articulate questions that set the

stage for what is discovered, resulting in stories out of which the future is constructed (Cooperrider et al.).

- *The poetic principle* is a metaphor for understanding human organizations. Thinking of organizations as an “open book” allows for their stories to continually be co-authored (Cooperrider et al., 2008, p. 9). Therefore, there are endless choices for the focus of inquiry.
- The *anticipatory principle* suggests that an organization’s image of the future is a powerful mobilizing agent of current behavior (Cooperrider et al., 2008). Organizations exist because their leaders share a common discourse or imagination of who they are, how they function, and what they will become. Therefore, this collective imagination is an important resource for generating constructive organizational change (Cooperrider et al.).
- Finally, the *positive principle* suggests that human organizations are affirmative systems—they respond best to positive thought and knowledge (Cooperrider et al., 2008). The momentum for lasting and effective change comes from positive affect through the use of affirmative guiding questions that promote group building (Cooperrider et al.).

Together, these five principles “clarify that it is the positive image that results in the positive action”, and that, “the organization must make the affirmative decision to focus on the positive to lead the inquiry” (Cooperrider et al., 2008, p. 10). The principles provide the necessary foundation for understanding the *practice* of AI, as described through a stage based cycle, referred to as the 5-D model (Donnan, 2005). Figure one illustrates a representation of the model and emphasizes key questions associated with each phase.

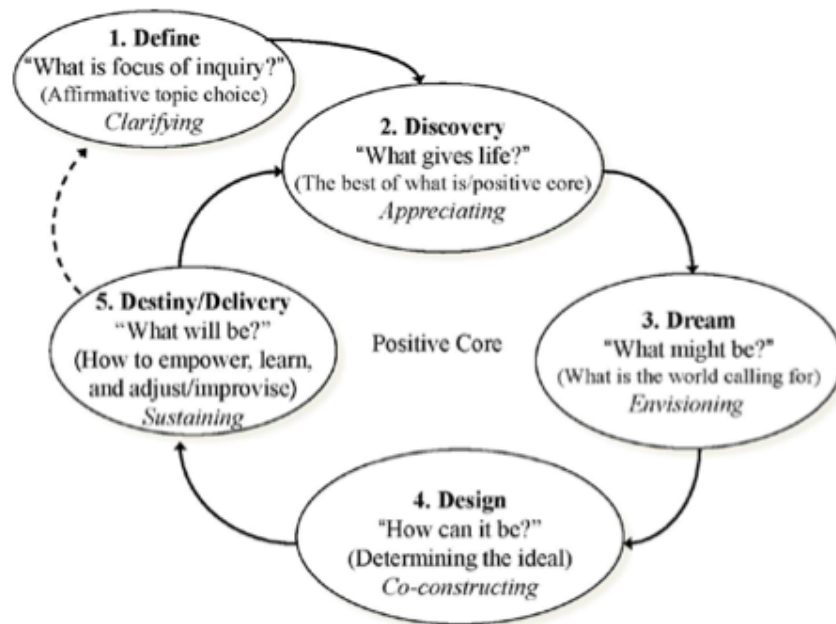


Figure 1: The appreciative inquiry 5-D cycle. See Cooperrider et al., 2008; Donnan, 2005.

The 5-D cycle is a series of coordinated phases by which the AI practitioner guides an organization towards a vision and desired goals centered around a positive core (Cooperrider, et al., 2008). *Defining* the affirmative topic choice is considered the first step in the AI process. Critical to this stage is choosing and clarifying the focus of inquiry. This initiates the *discovery* phase, in which participants identify and appreciate the positive core through sharing “life- giving” stories (Cooperrider, et al.). As the organization discovers its’ potential and higher purpose, it moves into the *dream* phase, where the participants create a clear, results-oriented vision that enhances the positive core. In the *design* phase, participants create bold statements of possibility for the ideal organization, creating structures to enact the positive core. The final stage, called the *delivery* or *destiny* stage – is where implantation happens. In this stage, new ways of thinking and new actions not only increase productivity, efficiency, and performance, but result in organizations that operate with an “appreciative eye” (Cooperrider, et al, 2008, p. 47). This process is meant to be ongoing, resulting in new affirmative topics that guide further inquiry. There are a variety of ways that inquiry interventions can be structured. It is important to note that 5-D model is a more contemporary version of the model; many sources depict only the four primary stages, beginning with the *discovery* stage. Stratton-Berkessel (2010) clarifies the purpose, task, and deliverables (or outcomes) of the four primary stages, which is helpful for practitioners as they navigate the inquiry process (see Table 1).

Table 1: Purpose, task, and outcomes of the AI process (see Stratton-Berkessell, 2010, p. 33 & 34).

Stage	Purpose	Task	Outcomes
Discovery	Discover and appreciate personal and organizational “high point” stories and experiences.	Gathering stories and key ideas that identify the organization’s “positive core”.	Stories as evidence of values and best practices; greater sense of openness and listening skills, builds trust, generates positive energy.
Dream	Co-create a desired future from collective, imaginative and innovative capacity of the group.	Co-create visions of all the elements participants want to introduce into communities or workplaces.	Clear statements and images of members “idealized” organization; increased creativity; amplifies voices of hope.
Design	Choose the design elements that will support and develop the organization structures to bring dream to life.	Participants identify which projects they want to be a part of to make the dream happen.	Begin to submit basic project plans for consideration and refinement; begin to see shifts in behavior and mindset; increased empowerment.
Destiny (Deliver)	Sustain momentum in organization, build capacity of participants to continue the process themselves.	Continued learning and adapting, consider new iterations of the cycle, engage in possibility thinking and looking for “opportunities” vs. problems.	Participants become “appreciative leaders” who champion self-sustaining change; cultural shift towards strength-based appreciative practices.

Busche and Kassam (2005) suggest that AI’s transformative potential comes from focusing on changing how people think rather than what they do. Rather than emphasizing action-plans, AI supports self-organizing change processes that flow from new ideas (Busche & Kassam). The outcomes that distinguish AI from other organizational development interventions is that AI results in new knowledge, models, and/or theories that are co-constructed by participants, and also that AI results in a “generative metaphor”—provocative statements that create new possibilities and compel new action (Busche & Kassam).

Schall et al. (2004) argue that appreciative inquiry can help us more effectively understand leadership. “Given the roots of appreciative inquiry in constructionism, and an emerging trend to see leadership as a social construct, appreciative inquiry emerges as one of the most appropriate methodological frameworks to pursue empirical work on leadership” (Schall et al., p. 148). Modern conceptions of leadership emphasize relational perspectives and the process of leaders and followers working together to create positive change (Drath, 2001; Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2005; Rost, 1993). Fairhurst and Grant (2010) speak to the convergence of social constructionism and leadership, resulting in an approach that places increased emphasis on the ability of both leader and follower

to co-constructed reality through the processes and outcomes of social practices. Drath & Palus (1994) proposed that leadership is primarily a meaning-making process within social communities. Meaning-making happens when members develop psychologically, when new forms of practice are created, and as structures evolve which provide new ways of bringing the community into membership with each other at large (Drath & Palus, p. 22). From a relational perspective, leadership is not merely a possession of a leader, but an aspect of the community (or organization); a communal capacity and achievement (Drath, 2001). Of interest is the question, “How do people working together in teams, organizations, and communities bring leadership into being?” (Drath, p. xvi).

After studying a variety of leadership education programs, Eich (2008) found that high quality leadership programs engage in “research-grounded continuous program development” (p. 184). In particular, the use of a systems-thinking approach allows programs to act on research about learning, program development, and leaders. This happens when: a) program development utilizes current leadership and learning models, and b) practitioners and students engage in program improvement together using a variety of assessment and feedback tools (Eich). These actions help students and faculty gain a scholarly, research-grounded perspective that they can apply in their own practice (Eich).

Middlebrooks and Allen (2008) emphasize the need to help students make connections between models and theories of leadership and the activity and practice of leadership. As leadership programs employ the appreciative inquiry model, we create moments of learning for administrators, faculty, staff, and students. There is an opportunity to not only learn about the theory involved, but to also experience the theory in practice. Throughout the AI process, educators and students are generating new theories and knowledge to guide new practices within our own communities. This bridge between theory and practice influences the development of identities as members of our department, program, or project. As Eich (2008) explains, “students’ self-concept and leadership identity development is advanced through program alignment with the students’ development and program standards to uphold” (p. 184). The change is not just programmatic, it involves the transformation of identities of all who are involved. Through AI, we are not just changing structures, but constructing new patterns of thinking that promote adaptability in our response to complex challenges.

Description of Practice

The leadership education faculty at Virginia Tech are utilizing AI in on-going strategic planning/organization development projects at three levels of the organization. The following cases examples overview the context and goal of each strategic planning project, and describe how facilitators and participants engaged in the AI process.

Organizational/Department Strategic Planning

During the 2011-12 academic year, two different academic departments at Virginia Tech approached the authors of this paper for guidance on facilitating departmental retreats. Both had recently completed formal departmental reviews and were considering where to

focus their efforts to move forward. The retreats were scheduled to include both faculty and staff, and there was a conscious desire to approach the retreat in a way that would improve the sense of community in the department. Perceived boundaries between faculty and staff members can sometimes inhibit communication, so the approach needed to include an increased emphasis on open communication. The World Café Method was identified as a potential tool for promoting and facilitating open communication. World Café is an educational strategy that facilitates collaboration and shared meaning-making through interactive dialogue. The use of powerful questions focuses inquiry, surfaces assumptions and biases, and opens up new possibilities for ideas and meaning (Brown et al., 2005). According to World Café Community Foundation (n.d.), World Café can take a variety of forms, but generally include the following components:

- **Setting:** Creating a hospitable place, usually “cafe style” round tables with at least four chairs at each table. Flipcharts or butcher block paper and markers are set at each table, with the invitation to doodle, draw, and create.
- **Welcome and Introduction:** The facilitator or host opens with a welcome and introduces the World Café process (and in this case, also the AI process). Setting the context gives purpose that helps focus both the content and provides support to the process of the dialogue (Brown et al., 2005).
- **Small Group Rounds:** Conversation takes at each table during multiple timed rounds (10- 20 minutes each, depending on the context and purpose). At the end of each round, group members will move to different tables, creating a “cross pollination” effect as participants develop new connections and relationships (Brown et al., 2005). Usually one person stays at the table as a “host” for the next round, welcoming the new group and providing a brief recap of the previous round.
- **Questions:** A signature aspect of the World Café is an exploration of “questions that matter” (Brown et al., 2005. p. 78). Each round of dialogue is prefaced with a question (or series of questions) designed for the specific context and desired purpose of the session. This is of particular importance in AI, as the questions set the stage for what is discovered. A single question may be used for more than one round, or questions can be sequenced to provide a guide for discussion.
- **Harvest:** At various intervals (usually after the small group rounds) individuals are invited to share insights or other results from their conversations with the rest of the large group. The emerging collective understanding is often captured graphically and/or textually on flip charts at the front of the room. (World Café Community Foundation, n.d.)

In the *design* stage, the facilitator and key administrative faculty identified the affirmative topic as, “Defining signature work for growth and distinction” within their respective departments.

The World Café Method was used to facilitate both the *discovery* and *dream* stages of appreciative inquiry (Appendix A) during the department retreats. The *discovery* stage was guided by the following prompts:

- Best Experience: “Share about the best times that you have had with the department. Looking at your entire experience, recall a time when you felt most alive, most involved, or most excited about your involvement. What made it an exciting experience? What helped to make it possible? Describe the event in detail.”
- Interpretation: “What is it about this department – its structure, systems, processes, policies, staff, leaders, strategy – that create conditions where success can flourish?”

The *dream* stage was guided by the following prompts:

- Achievements: “It is 2016, and you are preparing for the next [external] review. What are you highlighting as the department’s achievements?”
- Wishes: “If you had three wishes for the department, what would they be?”

Both stages were completed during morning sessions, totaling less than three hours. The retreats continued with afternoon sessions focused on the *design* stage of appreciative inquiry, guided by an action planning worksheet (Appendix B). Participants volunteered to serve in smaller work- groups to set goals and design vision-based strategies to guide departmental practices.

Program-Level Strategic Planning

In spring 2011, four undergraduate honors students conducted an informal program assessment of a Leadership Living-Learning Community program at Virginia Tech, utilizing the Council for the Advancement of Standards (CAS) self-study for Student Leadership Programs (CAS, 2009). The finding they reported implied that the mission, values, and learning objectives of the community were not clearly stated, and did not fully express students’ experience in the program, and did not encompass the overall impact on their leadership development. The learning community has had three director transitions over the past four years, and there was a general confusion among stakeholders over what the program *was* and *was for*. The interim director and undergraduate academic coordinator initiated a strategic visioning process to reconsider the mission statement, create a vision statement, and identify core values and learning outcomes to guide the program into its’ next stage of life. The appreciate approach seemed most appropriate to be able to encompass and honor historical perspectives, while encouraging the generation of new possibilities that express and expand the program’s value within the Virginia Tech campus and the Department of Agriculture and Extension Education.

A faculty member who was not directly involved in the program served as the facilitator, so the program’s leaders could engage as full participants in the dialogue. However, the *design* phase was initiated by the interim director, residential director, academic coordinator, and faculty facilitator. Through several meetings, they determined the focus of the inquiry would be “The future of the Residential Leadership Community”. The first two-hour visioning session, held in Spring 2012, also utilized a World Café format and

focused on the *dream* and *discovery* phases. A total of 20 individuals from multiple stakeholder groups participated, including university alumni, faculty/instructors, administrators, residence life staff, current students, and program student leaders. As outlined in Appendix C, the *discovery* stage began by discussing, “What gives our community life?” The following questions served as a discussion guide:

- What were your best experiences related to each of our core areas?
- What do we do well in each of our core areas? What works?
- What do you value most about each of these core areas? (Why are they important components of the program)

Transitioning into the *dream* stage, participants envisioned, “What might be?” The following questions guided discussion:

- What are our hope and aspirations for students who participate in the RLC?
- What does full engagement in each of these areas look like?
- What other elements could add to/enhance the RLC experience?

Data was captured through observations and by participants during each World Café round on flip charts and later summarized into a Word document. A smaller group of volunteers (including some of the initial group, as well as other key program stakeholders) were recruited to form a work group to review the data and begin the next phase, which is *design*. The goal is to craft a vision statement, goals, and learning objectives to guide the program for the next three to five years.

Project-Level Planning

A signature component of an introductory, freshman-level leadership course at Virginia Tech is student-led service experiences. During the fall 2011 semester, students worked in small groups to identify a campus or community organization with whom they could partner for at least four hours of direct service. While students found this to be an overall valuable experience, feedback showed that the process itself was confusing and at times frustrating for students, peer leader (teaching assistants), and faculty. The director desired to do a more in-depth assessment of the experience to create recommendations for revisions. She recruited two peer leaders (sophomores) and an intern (junior) who had been part of the service project experience to assist in an appreciative inquiry process. Through their participation, the peer leaders would also receive honors credit.

The team decided that focus groups would be the most effective method of inquiry, because they are more efficient than individual interviews, and create a social context for dialogue and interaction. They could also tailor questions specifically toward each specific group (identified as students, faculty, peer leaders, and program staff). The director and the students met several times to discuss the objectives and review concepts of appreciative inquiry. They worked through the *design* phase together, identifying the guiding topic of inquiry as, “The successful integration of service learning in [leadership class].” A basic focus group protocol was scripted to engage participants in a combined

dream and *discovery* phase (Appendix D). They followed a prescribed flow of questions, including a) opening questions to set the tone and energy, b) topical questions related to the affirmative statement, and c) closing questions focused on a positive future vision (Cooperrider et al., 2008). Appendix D outlines the protocol for the student focus group; however, additional questions were tailored for each specific group.

Experiences & Lessons to Date

An important consideration of appreciative inquiry is that it is an on-going process. These AI cases were initiated in the past six months, and long-term results may not be fully realized for quite some time. However, we are able to discuss the experiences and preliminary outcomes of the initial stages of the process.

In each example, the *design* phase was initiated by the facilitator and key administrative leaders. We found this to be most efficient and useful in recruiting participants because we could clearly articulate the topic of the discussion. Rather than taking up retreat and/or meeting time determining the focus of inquiry, we were able to spend more time explaining the philosophy setting context and clarifying the higher purpose behind the AI process.

In all of our examples, we found that the *discovery* and *dream* phases paired well. There are a variety of methods that can be used to gather stories and envision the future; however we feel that the World Café and focus groups were effective strategies to include a lot of people in a relatively short amount of time. As a result of creating contexts in which participants were given a voice in the visioning process, we were able to generate a greater sense of connection, openness, and trust in the various groups.

The program and project level inquiries are just now entering the *design* phase; however, the departmental level AI process is now well into this stage. After one departmental retreat, participants followed up on the creation of targeted goals with weekly lunch-and-learn style work-group meetings to encourage continuous collaboration. This simple act of weekly meetings is an example of changed behavior as a result of the AI process. The potential for long-term success is due to the fact that this was participant-initiated, not an administrative mandate. As participants are empowered to create and carry on the work of the organization with a strengths-oriented perspective and appreciative practice, they themselves become “appreciative leaders” (Schiller, Holland, & Riley, 2001).

Recommendations & Implications

Appreciative inquiry is a useful solution for organizations that desire to break out of the problem-oriented mindset and embrace a strengths-based philosophy. The value of appreciative inquiry lies in both its’ philosophy and practice. We believe leadership educators are uniquely positioned to bridge theory and practice through the use of AI models, influencing our ability to effectively train and develop students and also influence positive change in our organizations. We offer the following implications:

- Because appreciative inquiry pushes against the grain of traditional problem-solving approaches that dominate organizational development, practitioners may encounter resistance to the approach. For example, participants may be eager to skip over early stages to “get to the solutions”. Educating participants on the philosophy and value of the process is important in changing mindsets and creating an openness in dialogue, which is necessary for the co-construction of new possibilities.
- While an outside facilitator may be a helpful resource for the initial stages of the AI cycle, it really becomes the job of the leader to sustain positive change. AI may itself be considered a transformational process, as it promotes changes in how people think and what they do (Bushe & Kassam, 2005). Within leadership education, AI could be a force for transformational leadership development. For example, as participants engage together in the work of leadership (dealing with change), they may develop higher levels of motivation and performance.
- Through AI, we can gain insight into the social construction of leadership, in particular how groups make-meaning of their experiences in social communities and enact change practices. AI is poised to emerge as an important methodology for leadership research (Schall et al., 2004)
- Finally, there is the potential to explore AI as an identity formation process. As AI shapes organizational identity, participants’ sense of self, belonging, and view of their role within the organization is also shaped through the construction and alignment of the shared vision, goals, and standards. In the process of constructing what could be, participants are also “becoming” leaders who are able to enact that preferred future.

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Appendix A: Departmental Level Planning Retreat “Defining Signature Work for Growth & Distinction”

This is an outline for a strategy development session that draws upon the principles of appreciative inquiry and makes use of the World Café format. Many components are similar to other outlines for a strategy development workshop. Some of the activities will be adapted from “Introduction to Appreciative Inquiry: Training Manual.”

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| 9:00-9:15 | Introduction to Appreciative Inquiry & World Café |
| 9:15-9:20 | Defining the Focus: Signature Work |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reference [External] Review Report • Frame signature areas beyond content areas |
| 9:20-10:00 | <i>Discovery</i> World Café |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Three rounds of 10 minutes each • Document through notes & pictures • Best Experience: “Share about the best times that you have had with the department. Looking at your entire experience, recall a time when you felt most alive, most involved, or most excited about your involvement. What made it an exciting experience? What helped to make it possible? Describe the event in detail.” • Interpretation: “What is it about this department – its structure, systems, processes, policies, staff, leaders, strategy – that create conditions where success can flourish?” |
| 10:00-10:20 | Identifying & Analyzing Themes |
| 10:20-10:35 | Break |
| 10:35-11:15 | <i>Dream</i> World Café |

- Two rounds of 15 minutes each
 - Achievements: “It is 2016, and you are preparing for the next external review. What are you highlighting as the department’s achievements?”
 - Wishes: “If you had three wishes for the department, what would they be?”
- 11:15-11:45 Writing Provocative Proposition/Possibility Statements
- Connect Discovery Themes with Dreams
 - Explain the qualities and values that contributed to the department’s success
 - Deliver in the form of a 30-second award acceptance speech or a 60-word entry for campus news
- 11:45-12:00 Discussion of Next Steps
- Design & Delivery Stages of Appreciative Inquiry
- 12:00-1:00 Lunch & Open Discussion

Appendix B: Worksheet

Appreciative Inquiry Action Planning Worksheet					
Desired Result	Action Needed	Resources Needed	Source of Resources	Responsibility (Who will do what?)	Target Date(s) for Completion

Appendix C: Program Level
Strategic Visioning – Session 1
“The Future of the Residential Leadership Community”

Today begins a multi-phase strategic visioning process for the RLC, which will result in a vision to guide planning and program growth for the next 3-5 years. Participation in the earliest phases is not only exciting; it lays the foundation for what is to come! Through a process referred to as Appreciative Inquiry, we will identify the best of what the RLC stands for and the best attributes by which it is referred. Our end goal is creating a vision for the RLC centered on a descriptive affirmative statement.

You have been provided a thinking document that introduces the appreciative inquiry “5-D” model (Cooperrider, et al., 2003; Watkins & Mohr, 2001; Whitney & Trosten-Bloom, 2003, and the AI Commons website). We will guide the discussion through the first 2 phases of the model, Discovery and Dream, using a World Café approach of small group brainstorming, dialog, and sharing.

Definition of Topic: The Residential Leadership Community is a *leadership-themed, living- learning community*. Academic and co-curricular experiences engage students through individual and integrated aspects of three core areas: classroom/academic, residence life, and community events.

Timeline for Session 1

1:00 - 1:15	Introduction to Appreciative Inquiry and World Café; <i>Defining the Focus</i>
1:15 - 1:45	Discovery Stage - In this phase we will appreciate the best of who we are by discussing, “What gives our community life?” We will work to answer the questions: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What were your best experiences related to each of our core areas?• What do we do well in each of our core areas? What works?• What do you value most about each of these core areas? (Why are they important components of the program)
1:45 – 2:15	Dream Stage - In this phase, we will envision what could be by discussing, “What might be?” We will imagine answers to these questions: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What are our hope and aspirations for students who participate in the RLC?• What does full engagement in each of these areas look like?• What other elements could add to/enhance the RLC experience?
2:15 – 3:00	Identifying and Drafting the Vision

Appendix D: Project Level
“Service-Learning Integration in a First Year Leadership Course”

Student-Led Focus Group Interview Protocol
Focus: Discovery and Dream Stages

Topic of Discussion: The successful integration of service learning in LDRS 1015.

Guiding Question of Inquiry:

How do we create a meaningful and realistic service project experience as part of LDRS 1015?

Opening Questions (*sets the tone, energy, and direction*):

- Let's start by talking about the larger purpose of the RLC – to develop leadership in students. What do you value or appreciate most about the opportunity to learn leadership as part of the RLC?
- In LDRS 1015 we have discussed a lot about leadership for social change. A key assumption of the social change model is that leadership is most often learned best through service. In what ways have you seen service as a vehicle for leadership?

Topical Questions (*relates to affirmative topic*):

- Now, let's talk a little bit more about the service project experiences in the LDRS 1015 class. Likely there were highs and lows in the project. Please share a story of something that went really well (a high-point) during this project planning or event that made you feel really alive, challenged, or effective?
- Now, beyond the story, let's imagine you are having a conversation with a friend or family member about what made that moment so great. What were the three best qualities or characteristics you saw in yourself or others that led to success?
- As you continue to seek to develop yourself as a leader and potentially engage in future service opportunities, would you be willing to share the practices (strategies) that you found were most helpful, that you will continue to use?
- We know that freshman students are very busy making an adjustment to school and with involvement in RLC events and activities. As you consider the service learning experience, what is the ideal type or level of service you think students should be involved in?
- Describe an example of a service experience that was particularly meaningful? Or, what would be an ideal experience?
- What did/would you do and how involved were you/would you be in the process? Why do you think this would be effective?
- What are some wishes that you have to further enhance the service project experience for other students?

Concluding Question:

- It's a year from today and you are talking to the new freshman class about their project experiences. What do you hope they tell you about the experience?

Contextual Intelligence: Reframing Leadership by Learning to Think in Three Dimensions

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"The greatest danger in times of turbulence is not the turbulence; it is to act with yesterday's logic."

— Peter Drucker

Today's world is fluid, dynamic, and unpredictable. New realities, unforeseen problems, or unexpected opportunities seem to appear overnight. To further complicate things, the economic, social, cultural, and personal variables that influence us and our surroundings are multidimensional. Additionally, the number of stakeholders and the diversity between their values is growing. This is forcing the rapid evolution and enhancement of leadership skills. Today's leaders, managers, and professionals must be able to recognize and diagnose the values stakeholder's have; then quickly adapt (i.e., *proactive-reactivity*) to that momentary reality or risk becoming obsolete or irrelevant. To flourish in this kind of context and to sustain one's influence requires the ability to respond and adapt quickly. In order to respond in a volatile environment the ability to be able to recognize many of the variables that have an impact on us and others increases dramatically.

Failure to correctly diagnose the issues that influence the environment puts one at a disadvantage. The inability to accurately diagnose the context hinders a smooth transition during times of change and robs one of needed flexibility. However, being able to accurately assess what is influencing the context is an advantage. Two factors that may hinder the perception of the environment are:

1. the rate and pace of change
2. the complexity of the variables that influence the environment

The rate of change is accelerating. No other time in history has so much changed so quickly. What used to take weeks, months, or years is now done in seconds, minutes, or hours. Furthermore, the complexity and sheer number of the variables that influence people's actions, their beliefs, and society are growing exponentially. Never before have people been required to consider so many viewpoints and perspectives as they do now.

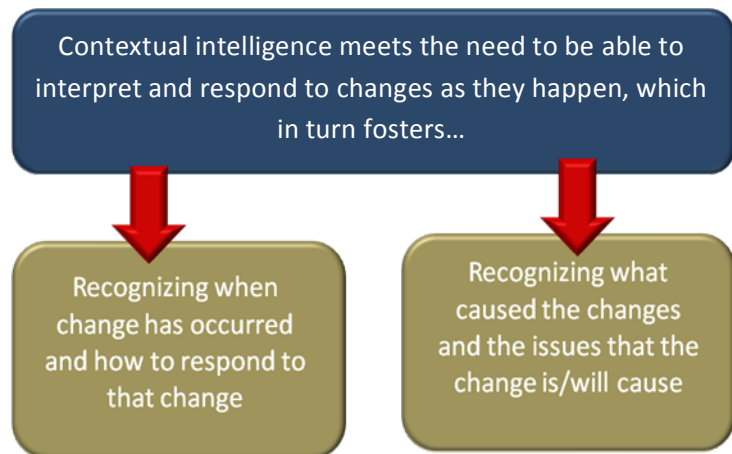
Established systems and past success often create incredible obstacles to adapting to changing contexts.⁵ Analytic models and rational plans do not work well in rapidly changing contexts. Therefore, traditional behavior and "business as usual" can be a hindrance in dynamic

organizational or social contexts where innovation, creativity, and change are needed. Therefore, there arises a new commitment to intentionally be alert to what informs the behaviors and attitudes of self, others, and society, which requires a shift in the current way of thinking, classifying and solving problems, and using information. This will require the combining of unique skills and perspectives. The ability to do this is called **contextual intelligence**.

The Concept of Contextual Intelligence

Correctly understanding the benefits and applications of contextual intelligence requires a brief overview of several familiar concepts, such as context, intelligence, intuition, experience, and learning. In general these concepts are easily recognizable. However, to fully appreciate contextual intelligence it is necessary to reframe some of these ideas. It is also necessary to

introduce the idea of “thinking in 3D” as well as 12 contextually intelligent behaviors. Before we reframe and introduce these concepts I will define contextual intelligence.



Contextual Intelligence is the ability to intuitively recognize and diagnose the variables inherent in an event or circumstance, which results in the intentional adjustment of behavior(s) in order to create or sustain influence.

Use of Intuition

The aspect of *intuitive recognition* is important to contextual intelligence and is an important facet that delineates it from other leadership models. Researchers have noted that formalized procedures hinder quick and effective intuitive-based decisions needed in times of rapid change.^{3,7} Therefore, having “intuitive-based” decision models are growing in importance. Contextual intelligence offers an intuitive-based model that is reinforced by sound logic.

Intuition (i.e., arriving at knowledge without rational thinking) often forms the basis for advanced intellectual exercises.⁶ “Intuition is an innate ability to synthesize information quickly and effectively.”³ An intuitive person can easily reconcile and apply experiences from past events with the current context.

Intuition is especially useful in turbulent environments.⁷ Ironically, in turbulent times the accuracy of decisions decreases as more time is taken to decide; therefore, scholars suggest that using intuition is a way to reduce mistakes.³ It is the expert-level practitioner who is most adept

at using intuition.² Achieving expert status requires being able to extract practical wisdom (i.e., learn) from several seemingly isolated situations. The most successful people repeatedly demonstrate the ability to connect apparently unrelated events, ideas, or set backs from a variety of disciplines and experiences.

The contextually intelligent practitioner is knowledgeable about *how to do* something (i.e., has technical knowledge about their industry, but more importantly is intelligent enough to know *what to do*. Knowing *what* to do, as opposed to knowing *how* to do something enables an individual to act appropriately in a context of uncertainty and ambiguity where cause and effect are not easily predictable.⁴ The contextually intelligent practitioner must always view their current context through the three lenses of past experience (i.e., history and precedent), the present situation, and the preferred future (i.e., vision and goals). Meaning, present experiences, as they occur, regardless of the context they occur in, should all be intentionally retained for use and application now and in the future.

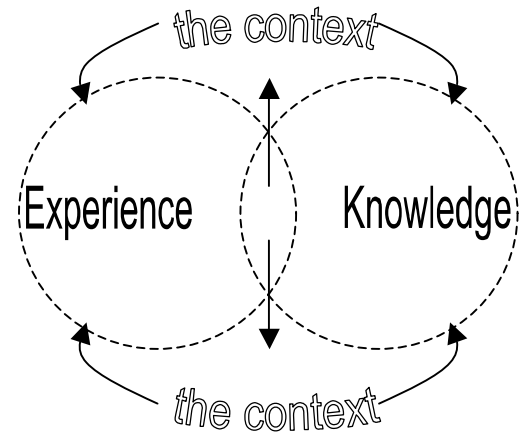


Figure 2 Contextual Intelligence Convergences

Context and Intelligence

Context consists of all the interactions between external, internal, inter-, and intra-personal dimensions of the individual and the world around them. The origin of the word context means to join or weave together, which implies there is a complex combination of variables often associated within an event. Context is the behind the scene information that can help make sense of what is going on right now.

Intelligence is the ability to transform data and information into useable knowledge. That means intelligence is the *process of transforming* data into applicable knowledge. It is not the remembering or repeating of data and facts. That knowledge is then needed to help change irrelevant or unproductive behavior.

Contextual intelligence ultimately becomes a leadership construct that when used can be helpful in any situation. This in turn enables an individual to behave more appropriately in all the different places he or she finds themselves or when there are unexpected changes. Therefore, this skill set has implications for decision making, using influence, and leading. Figure 2 is an illustration of how one's surroundings (i.e., context) can influence one's knowledge and experience, but when those two converge they can influence or change the original surroundings.

Contextual intelligence requires two skill sets that need to be practiced simultaneously. The two skill sets are:

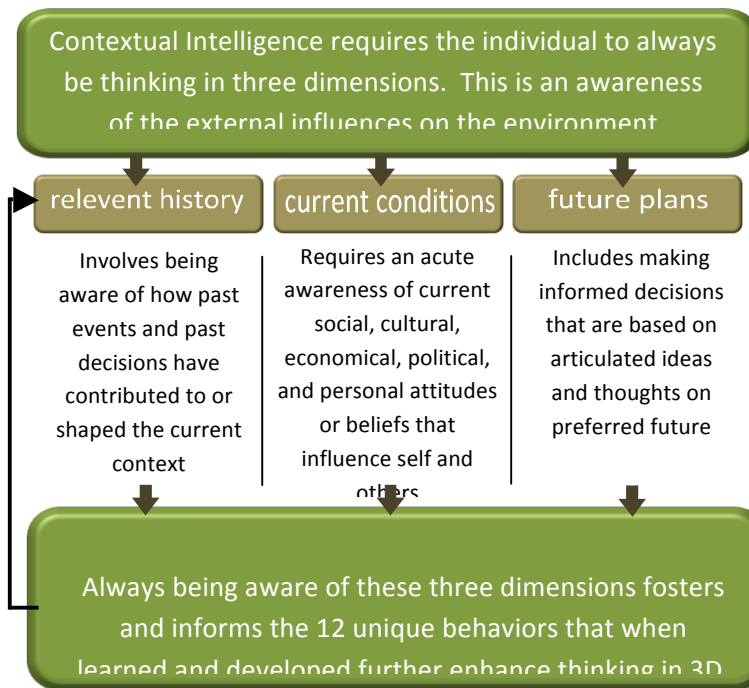
1. Learning to think in three dimensions
2. Learning to practice 12 unique behaviors

“Thinking in 3D” requires simultaneous integration of hindsight, insight, and foresight or stated another way consistently considering the past, present, and future when making decisions. Practicing the 12 behaviors requires learning new behaviors, how to integrate them, and to accurately assess your influence in light of the 12 behaviors.

Thinking in 3D

Thinking in 3D (Figure 3) is the foundation to demonstrating the 12 contextually intelligent behaviors. Thinking in 3D includes having an:

1. Intuitive grasp of relevant past events (Hindsight).



2. Acute awareness of present contextual variables (Insight).
3. Awareness of the preferred future (Foresight).

When the 12 behaviors of contextual intelligence are practiced (Table 1) in conjunction with “thinking in 3D” contextual intelligence is the outcome.

At this point it is important to ask, are their predictors of an individual’s capacity for contextual intelligence? Are there specific skills needed to practice contextual intelligence? Yes and yes.

Figure 3: Thinking in 3D

There are at least 12 behaviors that contextually intelligent people practice. Those behaviors are listed and described in Table 1. These 12 behaviors are assessed on two levels. The first is the degree (or level) to which each behavior is present in an individual; and the second is the symmetry (or how equally present) the 12 behaviors are. This as well as how well someone engages in “thinking in 3D” can be measured with the Contextual Intelligence Scorecard™.

The Concept of Context in Learning

The science of hermeneutics teaches us that knowing the specific context is imperative to the correct interpretation of an event. As one “reads” their environment in light of the context

learning takes place. Learning is not an isolated event, learning is social. In other words learning requires many different experiences and many interactions with people. Often time's lessons learned are used only in the context they were taught. For example, lessons about business are used only in business settings. However, there are many lessons that can be applied to multiple settings. Contextually intelligent individuals use their experiences as an opportunity to learn and intentionally apply what was learned into many different situations.

Therefore, context can be real and perceived, psychological, social, physical, and metaphysical and is influenced by geography, gender, industry, job role or title, attitudes, faith, values, politics, cultures, symbols, organizational climate, the past, the desired future, and ethics. Adding to the difficulty of determining the context is the need to recognize these variables in ourselves as well as in others. This makes each context unique, unpredictable, and subject to rapid change.

When one considers all these variables (the ones in self, in others, and in the culture) their combination is called the *contextual ethos*. In other words, contextual ethos is the social or group atmosphere that is created when the attitudes, beliefs, experiences, and emotions that different people bring with them are mixed in a given situation. To add further complexity these variables also should be considered in light of political, economic, social, cultural, and organizational events and realities. Identifying the variables and to what level they influence the contextual ethos is central to behaving correctly "in that moment." Therefore, being able to determine the variables within a given contextual ethos is a skill that is useful to anyone anywhere.

Contextual intelligence does not challenge the idea that there are context-specific leadership behaviors in certain industries or jobs. However, it does imply that there are "difference-making" leadership skills that can be used effectively in any role or industry. Therefore, for people who are contextually intelligent transferring between roles or even industries may not be as difficult as previously thought. If nothing else contextual intelligence can help people adapt to new surroundings more quickly.

The mindset required for contextual intelligence is one of intentional learning from the environment. When context is approached with the intent to learn about what influences it, the knowledge taken away is easier to transfer to new situations.

Reframing Experience and Learning

To appreciate contextual intelligence requires that the typical understanding of "experience" be reframed. The foundation of experience is rooted in intelligence. The origin of intelligence is hotly debated. Intelligence is traditionally believed to happen one of two ways. One way is that it is something that grows in an individual as a result of experience and learning. The other way is that it is "something" other than what accumulates from experience and knowledge.^{8,9} Obviously, this second notion is very vague. However, this second notion supposes that

intelligence is natural in everyone and can be separated from what one would gradually accumulate over time and through experience.

Therefore, experience is measured by the capacity to meaningfully contribute. This means that experience is not necessarily based doing the same thing over and over or for a long period of time. For that reason, gaining experience in an unpredictable environment requires the looking

for wisdom from the many different experiences one has and then applying that wisdom to new situations and events.

Table 1: List of behaviors, skills, and brief descriptors associated with contextual intelligence.

Future-minded

Has a forward-looking mentality and sense of direction and concern for where to be in the future.

Influencer

Uses interpersonal skills to non-coercively affect the actions and decisions of others.

Ensures an awareness of mission

Understands and communicates how the individual performance of others influences the perception of how the mission is being accomplished.

Socially responsible

Expresses concern about social trends and issues and volunteers in social and community activities.

Cultural sensitivity

Promotes diversity in multiple contexts and provides opportunities for diverse members to interact in non-discriminatory manner.

Multicultural Leadership

Can influence and affect the behaviors and attitudes of others in an ethnically diverse context.

Diagnoses Context

Knows how to appropriately interpret and react to changing and volatile circumstances.

Experience happens when preconceived notions and expectations are challenged, refined, or disconfirmed by the actual situation.² In other words; experience is the result of correctly responding to the unexpected. Therefore; demonstrating appropriate behavior is the best indicator of experienced-based intelligence and not the accumulation of several similar or redundant behaviors, activities, or duties.

It is common knowledge that similar experiences result in different behaviors by different people. In other words, two people can experience the same thing

and learn two totally different lessons. Basically, the schools of thought about learning can be summed up as either, intelligence is a result of the accumulation and recall of some external stimuli (and therefore people in similar circumstances should come to similar conclusions) or intelligence is a form of internal awareness and coding which, all other things being equal, are

often interpreted differently by individuals. It is this second idea of intelligence that is required to accurately understand contextual intelligence.

Discovering the correct answer is not always linear. In an uncertain and contextually rich world $A+B$ does not always $= C$. What you know and how you came about learning it is much less important than the ability to learn.⁴ Scholars agree that while there is ample evidence that cognitive factors do play some role in intelligence, none of these [cognitive] factors is generally accepted as the only cause of intelligence.^{2,10} In other words, intelligence is more than what can be observed or rationalized and goes beyond the ability to “parrot” back information and facts.

Aristotle wrote that the “defect” of not having wisdom is from “living at the beck and call of passion.”¹ In other words, people who are unwise do what they want when they want without considering consequences. The implication is that maturity is not a result of physical or chronological age, but is the wisdom to deny one’s passions. Maturity (or in our case experience) is then synonymous with discipline. Therefore, wisdom is not necessarily a direct result of years of experience or age but is a result of being able to control one’s self in any environment.

Furthermore, because “experience” is so unique and individualized it is difficult to use it as an outcome of learning or ability with any kind of predictive strength.⁴ For example, someone with five years of experience may be more “unwise” and less able to contribute than someone with one year of experience. That one year could be significantly bolstered by a number of meaningful experiences. Based on how well one can extract wisdom (i.e., learn) from a single experience one-year may be equivalent to four or five years. That phenomenon is what I refer to as “experience in dog-years.” Therefore, “experience” should be evaluated in light of significant contributions made. Given this, experience can be accelerated if one can learn to effectively use history in making decisions. A contextually intelligent person will often use the experiences and observations of others. The value of that experience is then determined by the individual’s capacity to leverage that knowledge by being able to contribute early and often in a new environment and influence others regardless of their role.

Implications

The concept of contextual intelligence has far reaching implications for individuals and organizations. It may help to explain what happens (or what is missing) when, in one environment an individual flourishes, but then fails in another. Contextual intelligence can serve to reduce this phenomenon. Furthermore, learning to *think in 3D* may reduce conflict, increase awareness of other’s values and ideas, foster empathy, and increase influence when making decisions and initiating change. Finally, contextual intelligence can help the individual better respond to and profit from unexpected or complicated change.

Organizationally, contextual intelligence may increase team cohesion and ultimately reduce the risk of team failure; as well as decrease resistance to change. Furthermore, it may accelerate an individual’s ability to contribute in a new context or role. Additionally, learning contextual

intelligence can help employees and teams better understand and appreciate the many different values stakeholders bring; as well as grasp and appreciate external and internal influences on the organization.

Summary

Contextual intelligence provides a framework of skills that aids transitioning into new and unfamiliar roles. Most importantly, contextual intelligence is the ability to converge cognitive and intuitive input, while simultaneously recognizing past and current events in light of the preferred future. Contextually intelligent individuals can rapidly identify the contextual ethos and think and act appropriately when the context changes. They tend to intentionally lead by always scanning the horizon for knowledge that can be used instantly and in the future. Finally, contextually intelligent people “think in 3D” and routinely go outside of their existing context to acquire useful information about the world they live in and integrate that information into their decision-making.

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Making Space for Wellbeing: Using Guided Meditation in Leadership Education

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Introduction

For leaders, the pace and demands are both constant and constantly increasing. Meister & Willyard (2010) refer to this phenomenon as accelerated leadership. Accelerated leadership refers to the ability to lead a hyperconnected, global workforce that is increasingly diverse, mobile and connected to one another. In this type of environment, the demands for leaders include the need to balance work and home, the ability to be digitally confident, foster collaboration amongst diverse followers and achieve goals (Meister & Willyard, 2010). In this challenging environment with all of the seemingly disparate demands, many leaders fail to foster not only their own wellbeing, but that of their employees as well.

Since the mid-20th century, Gallup scientists have sought to identify the components of a life well lived (Rath & Harter, 2010a). The concept of wellbeing captures these components. Wellbeing is a combination of “...our love for what we do each day, the quality of our relationships, the security of our finances, the vibrancy of our physical health, and the pride we take in what we have contributed to our communities” (Rath & Harter, 2010a, p. 4). The five components of wellbeing are: career wellbeing (the extent to which daily work is enjoyed); social wellbeing (having and maintaining strong relationships and love in life); financial wellbeing (the extent to which economic life is effectively managed) physical wellbeing (having good health and ample energy to complete daily activities); and community wellbeing (the level of engagement and involvement with the area where one lives).

These five elements of wellbeing are interdependent. Consequently, the presence or absence of each element is cumulative. An individual with low levels of career wellbeing and financial wellbeing will show greater signs of struggle than an individual who reports low levels in just one of those two elements.

Harter, Schmidt, Killham and Agrawal (2009) found that employees who report that their leaders care about them as a person are more likely to be top performers, produce higher quality work, have fewer sick days, and remain committed to the organization. These employees considered themselves to be engaged in and enjoying their work (career wellbeing) and were twice as likely to be thriving in all the elements of wellbeing

compared to employees who reported that they were not engaged in their work. Further evidence suggested that employees struggling in one or more areas of wellbeing, but career and physical wellbeing in particular, have distinct economic impacts. For instance, individuals who score in the overall lower levels of wellbeing cost an organization \$3,384.00 in lost annual productivity due sick days (Rath and Harter, 2010b). On the opposite end of the scale, individuals scoring in the upper levels of wellbeing cost an organization an average of \$840 in lost annual productivity due to sick days (Rath and Harter, 2010b). This difference is also realized in the costs associated with new disease burdens, where individuals scoring in the lower levels of overall wellbeing have two-times higher medical costs per year compared to those on the upper end of the wellbeing scale. This research suggests that the effects of both high and low levels of wellbeing are realized in economic, physical and organizational impacts.

Leading a life that balances and fosters wellbeing in all five areas of wellbeing is key to successful leadership. Swanson (2000) argued that successful leaders will create a balance of mind, body and spirit. In an MBA course, Delbecq (2000) found that meditation allowed students to integrate personal leadership development with organizational challenges and the complexities of leading people.

This practice paper describes a guided meditation practice that begins with relaxation and guides learners to a reflective place of self-awareness. In leadership education, this methodology seeks to guide learners to a safe inner space of reflection and self-awareness. By allowing learners the safe space to reflect, holistically, upon all aspects of their wellbeing, the intended result is that the learner is more aware of their own authentic wellbeing and how their wellbeing affects followers, peers and the organization as a whole.

The objectives of this leadership education practice are:

- develop an appreciation for time to quiet and calm the mind.
- develop self-awareness through the inner examination of experiences and/or situations through guided meditation.
- foster growth in one or more areas of wellbeing through self-awareness.

Background

Generations have practiced and found great value in meditation. Recently, meditation has gained even more widespread acceptance. The purpose of meditation is to assist a person to quiet the mind, to seek to calm one's center and to come into a state of awareness of the present (Boorstein, 1996; McDonald, 1984; Hahn, 1976; Smith, 1998; Suzuki, 1970). McLean (2001) reports educational institutions are finding the value of meditation to maintain cognitive, social and affective development. Business organizations are also beginning to discover the value of meditation (Allen, 2009;

Biberman & Tischler, 2008; Brackman & Jaffe, 2008; Khalsa, 2002; Traversi, 2007). Some evidence has suggested that meditation has long-term positive psychological effects (e.g., increased focus, better concentration) (Benson, 2001). Using a guided meditation approach allows leaders to focus their meditation on specific areas of need or challenges which may increase the likelihood of immediate and positive outcomes of the meditation.

Guided meditation is a type of meditation that begins with relaxation and then guides the person toward specific inner experiences (e.g., imaginative situations, and thought processes). Over the years the authors have created experiential exercises using guided meditation for organizational behavior and leadership courses. By adding a guided meditation/self-reflective/self-awareness phase into the classroom, learners have been given the opportunity to be better able to visualize their past, present and/or future, and to gain a better understanding of what they want to learn and ask concerning a variety of leadership challenges. Guided meditation can help leaders face the future with less anxiety - leading to a more productive personal and professional work life and increased levels of overall wellbeing.

One additional benefit of meditation is gaining self-awareness. Whetten and Cameron (2007) claim that self-awareness is a key component of and a prerequisite for successful leadership and is a particularly important function of a CEO.

Description of the Practice

The authors have developed a number of different experiential exercises using guided meditation. One example includes using guided meditation to develop learning objectives for adult learners. In this exercise participants are lead through a series of meditation questions such as: asking the participants to “remember a specific situation that was a major learning experience for you, and imagine yourself fully in the scene. What was the situation? What exactly happened? Who were you with? What was said? What was the context? Why was the situation such a powerful learning experience? What did you learn? What was important? How did you feel? What did you decide to do?

Other experiential exercises using guided meditation developed by the authors include exercises to help improve one’s emotional intelligence – by helping the participant become more self-aware. Another exercise was devoted to conflict resolution and stress reduction. In this exercise, the participants were led through a series of questions where they had to examine a situation that was causing them much conflict, and to visualize the situation with less conflict. Lastly, the authors have used on a number of occasions an exercise to help improve communication. Again the same model of guided meditation – examine the past, and develop a plan for the future – was used.

Each exercise begins with a progressive relaxation exercise. Once the participant is relaxed we then begin by having them imagine a situation in the past, present and/or future. Participants are asked to spend some time in this state noting such things as feelings, sights, smells and sounds.

This process will put the participant in a relaxed mental state with few distractions, so their mind and imagination can roam more freely. The exercise is followed with a series of reflection questions to consider. At the end of the meditation/journaling process we often close with an open discussion allowing participants to comment on what came up for them. By hearing each other's experiences participants learn from each other, gain confidence, and find some solutions to help them with similar situations in the future.

The guided meditation process takes about 40 minutes to complete. The guided meditation itself takes about 15-20 minutes. Writing answers on the questionnaire takes about ten minutes. The discussion ranges vary for each exercise. We try to have as many participants involved in the verbal discussion as possible, thus, giving them the time to learn from one another and to engage in peer coaching.

A comprehensive sample of one particular exercise using guided meditation can be found in Appendix A.

Results to Date

Guided meditation processes have been presented both in the classroom and at various academic conferences. In 2008, a guided medication session was presented to the Eastern Academy of Management Conference in Washington, D.C. This session was devoted to using guided meditation in a mentoring situation. The purpose of this was to assist the student protégé in becoming more self-reflective and to become more aware of their inner needs, wants and desires. At the conclusion of the workshop participants gave the authors strong support and feedback for such method. This particular method has also been used in the classroom as well.

Learners have found great value in guided meditation. The exercise typically concludes with a journal writing phase and discussion. It is in this phase of the exercise that we begin to see and hear reactions. Whether it comes to helping a leader raise their self-awareness to become more emotionally intelligent, or to help them deal with a difficult stressful situation at work or helping them plan for a meeting with their mentor, most will say guided meditation helped them feel better prepared for these life events. One of the most rewarding comments we hear from students is when they come back to tell us they have found success in an issue they were facing. A sample of the comments we often hear are reports that meditation helps "clear their mind" and to focus better. Students also often report feeling more relaxed and calm after the guided meditation. "Confident" is a word we often hear students use in describing the effects of meditation. Recently,

one student reported to us that with all the busyness of day to day life in school, the guided meditation gave him a chance to think about the future. Finally, some students will tell us they plan to continue to meditate on their own after our training.

Recommendations and Implications

In any given day, leaders are pulled in seemingly disparate directions and are simultaneously expected to build and maintain positive relationships with followers. The moments where leaders can stop, clear the mind and process are seldom and fleeting. Rath and Harter (2010a) contend that because of these demands, leaders have lost a holistic view of their life, and this leads to a detriment for the organization. Creating a safe space and the necessary time to examine one's level of wellbeing on all five of the elements of wellbeing is critical to leadership success and to having a life well-lived.

Recommendations

For leadership educators, being explicit about the importance and necessity of reflection and introspection creates awareness for learners. Leadership classes and development opportunities should integrate time for introspection and reflection. It may be the case the educators focus too much time on delivering content while being face-to-face with students and less time on reflection opportunities. However, as educators model the importance and utility of reflection and introspection, the likelihood that leaders will practice this important behavior in the course of daily events should increase.

Prior to engaging in a meditation exercise, it is important for leadership educators to prepare learners to fully engage in the activity. If a learner is new to meditation, challenge the learner to try a new activity in a safe space. Describing the opportunity to reflect, and the resulting outcomes of increased self-awareness and increased overall wellbeing, creates buy-in. In addition, fully describing the activity before taking the learners through the meditation experience aids in calming nerves and reducing any negative stigma or preconceived notion associated with meditation.

Leadership educators may find the environment to be an important component of this activity. It is recommended that educators create an environment that is conducive to the comfort necessary to this deep introspection. This may include lowering the lights, allowing learners to move from chairs and encouraging wearing comfortable clothing. Special consideration should be given to the atmosphere prior to engaging in this activity.

Implications

Guided meditation creates a state where learners have fewer mental distractions and are able to more purposefully reflect on specific leadership situations. Perhaps the most important effect of this activity is the opportunity for educators to encourage reflection

and introspection. With the number of demands and distractions that pull leaders in different directions, time for quiet reflection is often lost. Using guided meditation in formal learning environment sets the tone for utilizing this activity in practice.

Reflection itself is important in creating more balanced and self-aware leaders (Badaracco, 2002). Initial results of the guided meditation practice suggest that leaders who make time for introspection are better able to consider their wellbeing in a more holistic way. Guided meditation can be used to guide learners through reflective situations in each one of the five areas of wellbeing. This focus on each of the five facets of wellbeing creates increased self-awareness and the ability to self-correct. Increased self-awareness and the ability to self-correct may prevent burnout and allow leaders to live a more healthy, happy and productive life.

Badaracco (2002) argued that when a leader engaged in quiet and reflective activities, this behavior had a trickle-down effect in the organization. Leaders can create an organizational culture where reflection leads to increased self-awareness. Fostering a culture of reflection and self-awareness in an organization can then be framed in the five aspects of wellbeing. Ultimately, organizations and employees within organizations may experience positive results including increased economic prosperity, improved physical wellness and more positive and effective relationships.

Adopting guided meditation as a leadership education practice allows educators and trainers to effectively create a safe space for learners to practice reflection and introspection with the focus on improving self-awareness and, ultimately, wellbeing.

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Posters

- **Transformational Leadership in the Life and Works of C.S. Lewis**

Crystal Hurd, East Tennessee State University

Jasmine Renner, East Tennessee State University

Transformational leadership served as the theoretical and conceptual framework for the descriptive explanatory qualitative research design. Essentially the study analyzed the primary works of Lewis and subsequent scholarship through the lens of transformational leadership. Data collected included document review, interviews with Lewis scholars, and observations from Belfast, Northern Ireland and Oxford, England. Synthesis of the data revealed that Lewis possessed the 4 qualities of transformational leadership established by Bass (1985). Derived from a blended evaluation of scholarship, observational data, and interview responses, findings indicated that Lewis (and Aslan) exhibited the 4 qualities of transformational leadership: Idealized influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration.

- **A Qualitative Historical Single Case Study on Workplace Bullying**

Richard M. Bame, MBA, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

Little knowledge exists about workplace bullying and during the last four years, 37% of American workers have experienced workplace bullying. The purpose of the qualitative historical single case study research was to explore, identify, and document personal strategies used by employees to cope with workplace bullying. Research data were transcribed and analyzed from HR law cases and archival documents from the Jacksonville Florida Public library, Duval County Clerk of Courts, and the University of North Florida using the LexisNexis database. The study using the NVivo 9.0 qualitative computer software program seeks to identify major themes, which indicate how workers cope with workplace bullying. Organizations can use these coping mechanisms to establish training programs that can provide significant financial savings for organizations because of less HR issues.

- **Teacher's Lived Experiences or Beliefs of Learned Helplessness in Remedial Tracked, Academic Groups**

Eileen Kicmal, College Professor & 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.

- **Do the Attitudes and Expectations of the Teacher Affect the Science Achievement of Middle School Girls?**

Kathleen M. Winters, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

This quantitative study will look at what effects the 7th grade science teachers' attitudes have on the science achievement of 7th grade girls. A survey will be conducted to determine the attitudes, expectations, educations and experience in science of the teachers and compare that to the Iowa Test of Basic Skills Science achievement portion to determine if there is a correlation.

- **Leadership in the Swamp**

Jackie Bruce, Ph.D., Faculty, North Carolina State University

Leadership education is no different than any other academic discipline; reflection is commonly found in the course syllabi. But how are we using reflection? In this case, the instructor challenged the students to go a step further and use classroom reflection to become a more reflective practitioner and leader.

- **Eat, Grow, Lead 4-H Club: Leadership Students and Faculty Create a Lab where Theory becomes Practice**

Penny Pennington Weeks, Associate Professor, Oklahoma State University

William G. Weeks, Professor, Oklahoma State University

Eat, Grow, Lead 4-H Club provides leadership students the opportunity to practice leadership concepts learned in the classroom in a "lab" environment closely guided by leadership faculty. Student volunteers are responsible for all aspects of club meetings: mentoring Club members, developing and delivering weekly lessons, and planning service projects.

- **Transformational learning twisted together with the social change model to examine leadership growth following a tornado clean up**

Dr. Eric Buschlen, Assistant Professor, Central Michigan University

This poster exposes a phenomenological research project that followed six students that spent six days working in a home in Pulaski, Virginia following a 2011 tornado. The data is based on personal narratives, photos, and video footage acquired from participants.

- **An Application of Theory**

Dr. Julia Christina Mason, University of Phoenix

Bloom's Taxonomy, Gardner's Multiple Intelligence, and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs are presented as a theoretical and conceptional framework necessary to the instruction of students who are at-risk of not graduating from high school. Additionally, the framework may be applied to any academic and social environment that addresses the need of students attending k-12 institutions, both public and private. The focus of the paper is the perceptions of parents, teachers and administrators on the condition of the marginalized student.

- **Perceptions of Leader Attributes In Practice: Research-based ways to turn ideas into action**

Dr. Michelle Lee Manganaro, Faculty, University of Phoenix

Dr. Manganaro's 2009 research results included noteworthy weight proportions wherein directors' views on leader efficacy were more favorable than subordinates' views. Data-driven findings will be used to compare perceptions of educators who feel incompetent and emotionality to those who have job satisfaction, motivation, and momentum.

- **The OSU Hunger Project: A Case Study in Grassroots Leadership**

Megan McCool, Graduate Student, Oklahoma State University

Penny Pennington Weeks, Associate Professor, Oklahoma State University

The OSU Hunger Project is a student-driven initiative to build partnerships, raise awareness, and implement activities to help stop childhood hunger in the local and surrounding areas. Partner organizations were identified and empowered to create projects in their area to be completed during the 2012 Global Youth Service Day. This project focused on examining the six components of grassroots leadership throughout the project and how that was utilized to make lasting impacts in local childhood hunger issues.

- **Building Leaders and Teamwork through Alternative Spring Break Programs**

David Jones, North Carolina State University

In March 2010, sixteen (*university*) college students and one adviser headed to the Central American Country of Belize. The group was traveling to the village of San Jose in Southern Belize to spend a week working side by side Belize natives to construct Cacao fermentation bins and a Cacao drying facility. Not only did the group succeed in their primary goal of assisting the Belize villagers, they also found that the week led to friendships that will last a lifetime, built bonds of trust, loyalty and compassion between participants as well as offered wonderful and memorable life changing experiences.

- **Using Second Life to Experience Myers-Briggs**

Jennifer Williams, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

Using Second Life as a teaching tool is a new teaching pedagogy in leadership education. With the influx of distance-learning programs, online trainings, and global teams, leadership educators need to begin to explore the uses of Second Life. This poster will discuss the use of Second Life in a graduate leadership theory course to teach and experience Myers-Briggs personality and its effect on team development.

- **Leadership in a Graduate Student Organization: An Application of Path-Goal Theory**

Jerald H. Walz, Doctoral Student, Virginia Tech

Dr. Eric Kaufman, Assistant Professor, Virginia Tech

Path Goal theory suggests a leader's effectiveness relates to defining goals, clarifying tasks, removing obstacles, and providing support. A leader in a graduate student association utilized a membership survey to clarify tasks and identify obstacles, especially regarding members' participation in the organization's activities. The poster reports results and recommendations.

- **Creating Your Leadership Avatar: Connecting Your Personal Leadership Style and Future Career**

Kinya Meineke, Graduate Student, Oklahoma State University
Penny Pennington Weeks, Associate Professor, Oklahoma State University

As part of the capstone course at [State University] for leadership majors, students explore career interests and opportunities. Leadership Avatar curriculum was developed that sought to connect the students' knowledge of their own personal leadership style (based on leadership assessments and personality instruments) with their career decisions.

- **Veterans' Perceptions of Current Leadership Education and Suggestions for the Future at a Land-Grant University**

M'Randa R. Sandlin, M.S., Graduate Student, Texas A & M University
Summer F. Odom, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Texas A & M University
Landry L. Lockett, ED.D., Texas A&M University
April Place, M.S., Texas A&M University

Major military involvement in Afghanistan and Iraq will soon be ending and universities are preparing for an influx of veteran students. The Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communications at Texas A&M University is engaging current veteran students studying leadership to gain their perspective and suggestions to better serve veterans, Corps of Cadets members that will deploy, and all leadership students.

- **Team Learning and Leadership: An Undergraduate's Insider View**

Jessica Benson, Undergraduate Student, Texas A&M University
Jennifer Williams, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

Leadership educators are always seeking new and innovative ways to actively engage their students in a variety of leadership courses. Conducting team-based learning activities has become a popular and effective way for these educators to accomplish this goal. This poster focuses on an insider's view of the implementation of a team based service-learning project, and the effects team learning has on leader development.

- **Predicting Transformational Leadership Through Leadership Efficacy and Motivation To Lead: Investigating the Differences Between Leadership Studies Courses or Team-Based Project Courses**

Dr. David M. Rosch, Assistant Professor, University of Illinois
Daniel Collier, Graduate Student, University of Illinois

A sample of first-year undergraduate engineering students (n=165) were enrolled in either a leadership studies course or a team-based project development course. Students were tested prior to enrollment on measures of transformational leadership practices, leadership efficacy, and motivation to lead, and compared to a control group of first-year engineering students matched on race and gender (n=39). Students enrolled in the leadership course scored higher than the other groups on transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and motivations to lead tied to their self-identity as a leader and their sense of responsibility to groups to which they belong. Leader self-identity was the strongest predictor of transformational leadership practice for these students. For students who were not studying leadership, a sense of responsibility to others was the strongest predictor of these practices.

- **Project Y.E.S! Building a Youth Development Model through Critical Reflection and 360-degree Evaluation**

James C. Johnson, Director, Project Youth Extension Service, North Carolina State University

Myra G. Moses, Coordinator for Curriculum Development & Technology Integration, North Carolina State University

This poster will present an overview of a Cooperative Extension college internship model where college interns are trained to implement youth leadership and life skills programs to a variety of Yellow Ribbon and other military family centric programs across the United States. The poster will highlight findings collected from a 360-degree evaluation of the program and will share the resulting best practices that are being used to implement and refine the program.

- **A National Profile of Leadership Capacities and Involvement in College: Agricultural Students Compared To Peers**

Dr. David M. Rosch, Assistant Professor, University of Illinois

Natalie Coers, Program Coordinator University of Florida

Using survey data from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership, our research represents a snapshot of how students who report an “agriculture-related” major compare to non-agricultural students regarding personal social identity, co-curricular involvement, and leadership competencies. Join us in discussing how we can engage students across disciplines in meaningful involvement and leadership competency building.

- **Come Monday, We’re Gonna Change Your Attitude & Take Another Road**

Jackie Bruce, PhD, Assistant Professor, North Carolina University

Sara B. Brierton, EdD, North Carolina University

There is no shortage of multimedia stimulation and distraction for today’s student. So how do you get a students to put down the gadgets long enough to learn some stodgy leadership theory? These answer these instructors have found, lies with a simple *son of a son of a sailor*.

- **Academic Advisor = Servant Leader?**

Sarah Ho, Texas A & M University

The purpose of this poster is to introduce the need for studying academic advising from the advisor’s viewpoint to illustrate the relationship between advising and servant leadership.

- **A Comparison of Self-Perceived Leadership Growth Levels since Entering College between Members of Fraternal Organizations and a Military Leadership Training Program**

Juan E. Garza, Graduate Student, Texas A&M University

Kevin B. Andrews, Graduate Student, Texas A&M University

Gary J. Wingenbach, Professor, Texas A&M University

Leadership skills can be improved by the college experience, but how effective are specific types of organizational experiences? We surveyed members of fraternal organizations and a military

leadership training program to examine the differences in the types of skills developed in each.

- **Leader Emergence in Small Teams**

Eric K. Kaufman, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Virginia Tech

Richard J. Rateau, Instructor, Virginia Tech

Working in teams is common in today's classroom and is an effective teaching and learning strategy to enhance student skills. Team leaders play an important role to enhance the productivity of the team; therefore, it is important to understand what traits team members look for in a leader and to better understand how leaders emerge in small teams.

- **The Importance of Leadership Education for Academic Administrators: Investigating Department Chairpersons through the Lens of Action Assembly Theory**

Lisa A. Ambrose, Doctoral Student, Rutgers University

The proposed study will apply Action Assembly Theory to the department chairpersons to determine if a lack of procedural records upon which to call might affect performance in that position's capacity. Positive results yield the development of leadership orientation programs for new faculty in the role of department chair.

- **Defining the Field of Leadership Education: Helping Students Make Meaning of Their Leadership Degree**

Summer F. Odom, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

Lori L. Moore, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

April Place, M.S., Academic Advisor, Texas A&M University

This poster explores an assignment given to students in an introductory leadership course designed to help students develop their view of what it means to be a leadership major. Through this assignment, students are able to construct meaning of their degree which can help them make decisions about whether this degree is appropriate for them, help them communicate what their degree is to employers, future students, and other stakeholders, and reap the most benefit out of their degree.

- **Peer Recruiters: Transforming Leadership Theory into Practice**

April D. Place, Academic Advisor II, Texas A&M University

Jessica Benson, Undergraduate Student, Texas A&M University

Cassidy Peek, Graduate Student, Texas A&M University

Transformational leadership has shown to be an effective form of leadership in recruitment practices. This poster focuses on the direct relationship between transformational leadership within peer recruiters and the increase in recruitment numbers, as well as the transformational leadership cycle created between our leadership department, peer recruiters and prospective students.

- **Leadership Development and Essential Skills: An Innovative Approach**

Kellie A. Strawn, Leadership Academy Director, Oregon State University

Jonathan J. Velez, Bradshaw Leadership Academy Professor, Oregon State University

This poster details the rationale for the creation and development of a one-year leadership intensive undergraduate leadership development program. Program organization and design is discussed and future plans and projected costs are detailed.

- **Faculty Mentors: Recruiting and Retaining Faculty to Serve as Undergraduate Leadership Mentors**

Kellie A. Strawn, Leadership Academy Director, Oregon State University

Jonathan J. Velez, Bradshaw Leadership Academy Professor, Oregon State University

This poster details the recruitment and training of faculty members to serve as undergraduate leadership mentors. Twenty-six faculty mentors volunteered to serve as mentors over the duration of one academic year. Mentors were provided training and support for the entire year and those who served indicated having primarily positive interactions with undergraduates.

- **Letters From Leaders: Reflecting on the Past and Writing for the Future**

Dr. Lori L. Moore, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

April D. Place, Academic Advisor II, Texas A&M University

In Henry Dormann's compilation, *Letters from Leaders*, current leaders in today's society write personal letters of advice for success to tomorrow's leaders. Believing students can also provide leadership insight, we implemented assignments in two undergraduate courses where students studying leadership write letters of advice to their successors.

- **Using Involvement Theory to examine the relationship between extracurricular participation and leadership development of undergraduate students**

Elizabeth Foreman, Doctoral Student, Iowa University

Michael S. Retallick, Assistant Professor, Iowa University

Traditional-age undergraduate college students who were classified as seniors in the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences at [Midwestern State University] (N=969) were sampled to examine the undergraduate students' relationship between extracurricular involvement and leadership outcomes. A threshold of involvement was identified that suggests when involvement (i.e., number of clubs and leadership positions) exceed a desirable limit, the quality of the involvement is less and therefore the positive outcomes are

- **Taking It to the Streets: Service Learning and Leadership in Action**

Bethany A. Harris, Undergraduate Student, University of Georgia

Samuel Law, Undergraduate Student, University of Georgia

K. Jill Rucker, Assistant Professor, University of Georgia

The purpose of this poster proposal is to describe a service learning project completed in an undergraduate leadership course through the personal experiences of two undergraduate student participants. The concept of service learning and Kolb's (1976) experiential learning model are illustrated through the students' experience volunteering at a community soup kitchen. Additionally, the undergraduate students share the positive outcomes of the service learning project which include service projects beyond the scope of the original assignment: a campus-wide canned food drive, collection of money to donate to the soup kitchen, collection

of winter coats for soup kitchen patrons, and the establishment of a university recognized student organization to continue service projects that impact the local community.

- **Undergraduate Students Perceived Communication Competencies as They Relate to Involvement in Extra-Curricular Activities**

Sarah Kane Nerswick, Graduate Teaching Assistant at University of Georgia

Dr. Dennis Duncan, Associate Professor/Interim Department Head at University of Georgia

This research project included a randomly selected sample of 122 undergraduate students at the University of Georgia. The participants were given an instrument encompassing multiple constructs related to communication competencies. The second construct (extra-curricular activities) was used for this conference submission. The data collected identifies if participants believed their leadership positions in extra-curricular activities had a positive effect on their perceived communication skill competencies.

- **An Inclusive Pedagogy of Strategic Planning Leadership and Praxis: Implementation of Comprehensive Learning Outcomes Analysis from Logic Models to Data-Driven Excellence in Higher Education**

Robb Flowers, J.D., Vice President for Student Affairs, Hobart & William Smith Colleges

Jeff VanLone, Ph.D., Assistant Vice President for Student Affairs, Hobart & William Smith Colleges

Brian J. Mistler, Ph.D., Director of Counseling & Student Wellness, Hobart & William Smith Colleges

Leading strategic planning using inclusive pedagogy involves a common language and a range of stakeholders. We outline the benefits of a comprehensive data-driven approach, share guidelines for praxis, the results of facilitating inclusive data collection and analysis, and assessment instruments attendees can use on their own campus.

- **Teaching Mindfulness and Meditation as Keys to Better Leadership**

Lisa Jenice Scheeler, Associate Director & Academic Advisor, McDonough School of Business at Georgetown University

An overview of the class Mind-Body Connections: An Experiential Introduction that is offered to undergraduate students at Georgetown University (GU). Developed out of the Mind-Body Medicine class offered by the GU Medical School, this course provides students with tools to develop their emotional stability and core self-evaluations leadership traits. Through the teaching of mindfulness and meditation techniques students learn about stress-management and self-care for present and future utilization.

- **Student Perceptions of Intense Anger Triggers: An Exploratory Study of Anger Emotion as It Relates to Leadership**

Awoke D. Dollisso, Assistant Professor, Iowa State University

Samuel J. Vigue, Iowa State University

The findings clearly indicated that these students are affected by many anger triggers. Self-reflection supported with the data and a good discussion activity could serve as a learning tool and process that may enhance students' emotional self-awareness and help them self-regulate their emotions when they encounter those anger triggers.

- **Group Cohesion in Student Organizations: Revisiting Task and Relationship**

William Weeks, Professor, Oklahoma State University

Researchers examined the group cohesion in sixteen collegiate student organizations using the Group Environment Questionnaire. Wide variation in cohesion was found among organizations, but no notable differences were found between organizations that functioned as competitive teams and subject matter organizations.

- **Litton Leadership Scholars**

Jon C. Simonsen, Assistant Professor, University of Missouri

Kabel Oaks, Graduate Teaching Assistant, University of Missouri

The Litton Leadership Scholars Program was designed to honor the legacy of the late Honorable Jerry Litton. The year-long leadership experience challenges students to become exemplary leaders on campus and in their future career fields.

- **Perceptions of Leadership: The Reality of Developing Leadership Skills in Youth**

John L. Hall, Ph.D, Teacher, Martinez Middle School

Dallas Jackson, Ed.D, Principal, Martinez Middle School

Perception is reality. Unfortunately, many youth do not perceive themselves as leaders. This research will identify leadership perceptions of youth and will provide a valuable starting point to help reach today's future leaders.

- **A Qualitative Analysis of the Motivations of 4-H Volunteer Leaders and Extension Educators**

Jessalyn Schrock, Master's Student, Oklahoma State University

Penny Pennington Weeks, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Oklahoma State University

This research examines the motivations of 4-H Volunteer Leaders and Extension Educators. The researchers sought to gain a deeper understanding of the individual motivations of both groups. The use of qualitative research allowed for the experiences of volunteers and Extension Educators to be described deeper richer understanding of motivations.

- **A Multi-case Study: Hispanic Women Small Business Owners in Virginia Beach**

Mirian Castro-Wyche, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

This purpose of this study is to perform a qualitative case study with an exploratory design centering on how Hispanic women small business owners thrive in Virginia Beach, Virginia. The fastest growing sector of the small business community is women business owners. The problem is one group, Hispanic women small business owners face a number of challenges and little data is available on best practices.

- **Is a sea of change on the horizon for women leaders?**

Deborah N. Smith, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Kennesaw State University

Women's views about successful leadership and who/what strategies have most helped or hindered them from developing their own leadership potential are examined in this study. Two themes emerged; 1) US women leaders value action over vision, and 2) they seek to be leaders in all areas of their lives. The authors discuss how the findings can be used to strengthen women's leadership development programs.

- **Leadership Knowledge Transfer through Generations of Dissertation Advisors**

Leo A. Mallette, Ed.D., University of Phoenix – School of Advanced Studies

There are many modes of information flow in the sciences: books, journals, conferences, research and development, acquisition of companies, co-workers, students, and professors in schools of higher learning. In the sciences, dissertation students learn from their dissertation advisor (or chairperson or mentor) and the other dissertation committee members and vice-versa; the committee members learn from the student. The students learn technical knowledge and discipline from their advisors. They learn to be researchers so they can be leaders of projects, industry, academia, but do they learn how to discipline another generation of doctoral students? This paper is focused on the academic genealogy (the line of descent) of dissertation students, their advisor(s), and sibling students; using the author's dissertation advisor, Chester Hayden McCall Jr., as an example. This paper asks the question: How is specific leadership knowledge being transferred? And continues by suggesting possible answers.

- **Perceptive Leadership: Understanding your Environment with SPELIT[®]**

June Schmieder-Ramirez, Ph.D., Pepperdine University

Leo A. Mallette, Ed.D., Adjunct Faculty, Pepperdine University

SPELIT[®] is a framework that emphasizes that it is necessary to know oneself and one's environment or organization's environment (Figure 1) from the social, political, economic, legal, intercultural and technical perspectives. This paper discusses the use of the SPELIT methodology, and provides many examples of use, in a doctoral level curriculum in organizational leadership.

- **Know, See, Plan, Do – An innovative and cutting edge methodology for designing and evaluating leadership education**

Scott J. Allen, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Management, John Carroll University

Despite the thousands of leadership development programs, very few models of leadership learning exist. The "know, see, plan, do" conceptual model was developed as a way to plan for and evaluate levels of understanding. This poster is an opportunity to dialogue about an innovative model used in the classroom.

- **Ethical Sourcing Theory: A Hypothetical Model of the 21st Century**

Gina V. Deschamps, Doctoral Student, University of Phoenix

The primary purpose of this poster is to establish an understanding of Ethical Sourcing Theory and how this theory could be applied to business in a global fashion. The second goal of this poster is to discuss how Ethical Sourcing Theory could be implemented and monitored by an independent agency. It is important to note that this application of theory is purely hypothetical. It is also important to note that every attempt will be made to ground this theory in historically established theory that is empirically accepted and understood.

- **Celebrities and Leadership: Engaging Undergraduates in an Experiential Analysis**

M. Reid Stavinocha, Doctoral Student, Texas A&M University

Megan M. McClure, Doctoral Student, Texas A&M University

Jennifer Williams, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

When asking undergraduate students to name an effective leader, they often identify people who are classified as celebrities. When the follow-up question of “why” is asked, students seem to have a difficult time producing an answer. This activity will help students articulate why or why they do not believe celebrities are leaders.

- **Epic Fail: Using “Bad” Leaders for “Good” Classroom Discussion**

K. Jill Rucker, Assistant Professor, University of Georgia

Jennifer Williams, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

Often, leadership educators use examples of great leaders when discussing leadership philosophies (Mother Teresa as a servant leader), models (Martin Luther King, Jr. as a charismatic leader), and theories (Walt Disney as a Theory X, and Roy Disney as Theory Y leaders). What if the converse occurred: using leaders who have crashed and burned (or epically failed) to show the validity of leadership philosophies, models, and theories?

- **Using Aha! Moments to Understand Leadership Theory**

Lori L. Moore, Assistant Professor, Texas A & M University

Lauren J. Lewis, Graduate Assistant & Instructor, Texas A & M University

This poster explores the Leadership Aha! Moment assignment used in an undergraduate leadership theory course to help students explore the relationship between leadership and their daily lives. While a formal evaluation has not been conducted, students seem to enjoy completing the assignment and it appears to help them connect theory with practice.

- **A Great Leadership Teacher = Increased Student Success in a Leadership Classroom**

Kristi Bockorny, Doctoral Student, Bellevue University

This poster session will focus on a suggested model that emphasizes seven internal characteristics of a teacher combined with four external characteristics to create a great teacher. This model shows if the internal factors and external factors are present, the teacher will see an increase in student success in the classroom.

- **Analyzing the Effectiveness of Multi-Source Feedback as a Leadership Development Tool for College Students**

David M. Rosch, Assistant Professor, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

James C. Anderson, Assistant Professor, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Shannon N. Jordan, Coordinator of University Housing, Appalachian State University

Undergraduate students (n=144) completed the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS), which measures leadership capacity within the framework of the Social Change Model (SCM) of Leadership Development. Observers (n=374) who knew the students from a variety of contexts completed observer-report versions of the SRLS. Mean observer scores were higher than self-reported scores. Significant differences between self and observer inter-scale correlations and a high degree of subscale responses, where a universal one-factor structure emerged, suggesting observers make little distinction among separate leadership capacities in those they observe. Implications for leadership development and education programs are discussed.

Emerging Scholars

Symposium for Emerging Research

- **World leaders on Facebook: Personal lives made public or just business?**

Kati Ingerson, Graduate Student/Assistant, North Carolina State University

Dr. Jackie Bruce, Assistant Professor, North Carolina State University

With millions of people on Facebook, is it a surprise that global leaders have also become active participants of the website? Investigating how world leaders are utilizing this quick connection to their peers, voters, and constituents, we are able to get a look into their lives and leadership styles.

- **An Exploratory Look at the Impact of Membership in Youth Leadership Organizations**

Kristen Baughman, Graduate Student, North Carolina State University

Dr. Jacklyn Bruce, Assistant Professor, North Carolina State University

A study of high ranking government officials is proposed using semi-structured interviews to discover their tie in to FFA and 4-H in order to further paint the picture of the impact of youth leadership programs. The findings may influence future programming by youth leadership organizations.

- **Leading Social Change: Building an Educational Model that Works**

Caroline Yopp, Undergraduate Student, North Carolina State University

Dr. Jacklyn Bruce, Assistant Professor, North Carolina State University

While many have studied “servant-leadership”, a standardized educational model has not been developed to equip young people with the tools to lead social change. This research proposes to use successful change organizations as templates to craft a working model to promote the ideas of social change in youth.

- **There she is, Miss Leadership...**

Katie Elizabeth Mills, Graduate Student, North Carolina University

Dr. Jacklyn A. Bruce, Assistant Professor, North Carolina University

Not just content to be beautiful any longer, Miss America titleholders need to confidently take their place as a leader and role model in a challenging society. Assessing where these young women stand give them an opportunity to grow as leaders and people, and gives the Miss America Organization an opportunity to help young women follow their dream of becoming Miss America and conquering the world beyond!

- **Analysis of Methodologies Used in Organizational Development: SWOT Analysis and Appreciative Inquiry**

Kelsey Church Brunton, Graduate Research Assistant, Virginia Tech

Dr. Eric K. Kaufman, Assistant Professor, Virginia Tech

The purpose of this study is to evaluate two methods of organizational development, SWOT and AI based on participant perceptions of vision clarity and organizational commitment as a result of the intervention. Both methods may aid leaders in decision-making and inspiring a shared vision.

- **Model Development "Surge" for Team Building Efforts in Higher Education**

Charlotte Clay Johnson, Faculty Member & Doctoral Candidate, University of Phoenix

The purpose of this study incorporates key elements needed to build teams by using a newly develop model, SURGE as a means of successful team building. The model illustrates a systematic guide to create effective teams throughout its life cycle and implications for leaders to modify the model as the organization decides to change its strategic planning.

- **Generational Differences in Work Motivation of Healthcare Workers**

Rose M Leavitt, Doctoral Student, University of Nebraska Lincoln

As another generation enters the workforce, the widening age demographic among generations will compel employers to consider generational differences as both opportunities and challenges to performance and productivity. The purpose of this study is to examine the motivational differences across the generations and the cusps between Veterans and Baby Boomers, between Baby Boomers and Generation X and between Generation X and Generation Y.

- **Assessing Engineering Student Perception and Performance of Leadership Skills through an Introductory Leadership Course**

Carmen R. Zafft, Doctoral Candidate, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Evan T. Curtis, Student Services Coordinator, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

David Williams, Director of Retention, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Engineering educators and employers are calling for students to develop leadership skills that will enhance their technical abilities. The purpose of this study is to identify the leadership skill needs of engineering students who are participating in an introductory level leadership course. The results will provide insight into the leadership needs of engineering students and leadership content that should be integrated into courses of engineering programs.

- **Women of Color in Sororities' Communal Leadership: A Leadership Development Study**

Sade A. Dawson, Master's Student, Texas A&M University

Dr. Chanda Elbert, Associate Professor, Texas A&M University

The purpose of this study is to identify the leadership methods of women of color in sororities and examine what leadership development techniques have been most effective for their organizations. Through a qualitative evaluation, this study could influence the participation in communal leadership roles by Greek organizations and provide understanding of the infrastructures of sororities.

- **Discussion Facilitators as Leaders in Training**

Sara B. Brierton, Ed.D., North Carolina State University
Dr. Jackie Bruce, Assistant Professor, North Carolina State University
Kati Ingerson, Graduate Student, North Carolina State University

The face of the modern workplace is changing. For the first time in history, four generations are merging together in one dynamic workforce. Participants in this roundtable will describe and characterize the four working generations. Discussion will focus on the strengths and challenges of each generation, potential ramifications for the workplace, and most importantly implications for those in teaching positions preparing future leaders for a multi-generational work environment.

- **Are School Principals Influenced by Collegiate-Level Leadership Experiences when Hiring Early Education Teachers?**

Kamle Pennington, Undergraduate Student, Oklahoma State University
Penny Weeks, Associate Professor, Oklahoma State University

Faculty and advisors often encourage students to be involved as campus leaders, but does investing time and energy as a student leader positively influence potential employers? As an Early Childhood Education major, I am interested to know if collegiate-level leadership experiences influence hiring decisions of school principals.

- **The Role of Immigration-How it Accelerates the Development of Authentic Global Leaders**

Helen Abdali Soosan Fagan, MA, Doctoral student & Graduate Teaching Assistant, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Immigrants have an inherent understanding of cultural differences and language nuances, though they may have never cognitively processed the impact and outcome of shifting between cultures. This is where Authentic Leadership Development, Positive Psychological Capital and Intercultural Development Model can play a critical role in raising up a population of global leaders that America has not fully tapped into before.

- **Capturing the Knowledge of a Sage: A Phenomenological Perspective**

Jenni Frumer, MEd, LCSW, Associate Executive Director, Alpert Jewish Family & Children's Service

This phenomenological inquiry focuses on the sudden death of a CEO and presents an exploration of knowledge management and knowledge sharing by participants, who discussed how to capture the knowledge of a well-respected, innovative, strategic, visionary leader and the implications for the outcomes of the organization. The successor CEO has a different leadership style and shares additional unique perspectives of how to transfer knowledge within the organization and how to lead change into the 21st Century.

- **The Marriage Index as a Measurement of Marital Stability among HBCU Alumni: A Descriptive Study**

Andrea Little Mason, Doctoral Candidate, University of Phoenix

Studies show that higher education influences African American marriage stability. The purpose of this study is to investigate the marriage stability of the alumni of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU) through an online survey. The quantitative descriptive research study is intended to provide data to determine the Marriage Index of HBCU alumni based on leading marriage indicators.

- **ACE Program: Using a Citizen Science Project to Improve Leadership and Life Skills Development**

Milton G. Newberry, III, Graduate Teaching Assistant, University of Georgia

Nicholas E. Fuhrman, Assistant Professor, University of Georgia

Chris Morgan, Assistant Professor, University of Georgia

This article proposes an example of life skill development through participation in a citizen science project. The ACE Program was created with the intent to strengthen the interest of high school students toward careers in natural resources. One outcome of participation was the development of *problem solving, self-efficacy, teamwork, and communication* skills in high school students.

- **Using Horses to Teach Authentic Leadership Skills to At-Risk Youth**

Brittany L. Adams, Graduate Student, University of Florida

Nicole L. P. Stedman, Ph.D., Associate Professor, University of Florida

Rosemary V. Barnett, Associate Professor, University of Florida

Bill George (2007) stated “The problem isn’t the lack of potential leaders, however, but a wrongheaded notion of what exactly a leader is.” This study strives to develop a new, interesting, and effective way to teach at-risk youth, authentic leadership skills. The purpose of this study is to determine if horses are an effective vehicle for teaching authentic leadership skills to at-risk youth.

- **The Impact Of CAOC, LMX Differtation & Moderating Effects of group efficiacy on team performance during organizational change**

Juan E. Garza, Doctoral Student, Texas A & M University

The study seeks to examine how Team Performance is impacted by differences in Leadership-Member relationships, Organizational Cynicism and Group Efficacy. Three theoretical constructs of organizational cynicism toward organizational change and LMX and Group Efficacy are examined. A survey instrument was developed to analyze the interaction of these constructs on an organizational unit.

- **The Health of [State] Agricultural Education Programs as Perceived by Teachers and State Leaders**

Marcus S. Pollard, Graduate Assistant, University of Georgia

Dennis W. Duncan, Ph. D., Interim Department Head, University of Georgia

Building on prior research of Parson, this research attempts to test the Parsonian Social Systems Theory by assessing organizational health for state agricultural education programs. Wayne K. Hoy designed an instrument to test Parson’s theory in secondary education schools. This study

attempts to manipulate that instrument to fit the state program of agriculture education. The instrument measures academic emphasis, consideration, initiating structure, institutional integrity, and morale construct perceptions by agriculture education teachers to give an overall score of organizational health. This study is conducted with the intent to strengthen leader decision-making within state agriculture education programs when confronted with challenges concerning meeting the agriculture education program's instrumental and expressive needs as an organization

- **Leadership Structure of Disaster Relief Organizations**

Joshua P. Walker, Undergraduate student, Texas A&M University

When leaders inevitably face crisis, it seems appropriate to study leadership style and structure of organizations designed for such situations, disaster relief organizations. This research analyzes the structures of current disaster relief organizations to determine what leadership theories and structures they utilize to operate successfully in chaotic and uncertain environments.

- **Effects of Leadership Practices on Educators' Adoption of Blogging in Leadership Classrooms**

Rebekah D. Bowen, Graduate Student, University of Tennessee

Dr. Carrie Ann Stephens, Associate Professor, University of Tennessee

In today's rapidly changing society, it is essential that leadership educators learn to effectively utilize innovative classroom technologies to foster learning among students. One way in which this can be done is through utilizing social media services such as blogging, Facebook, Twitter, podcasts and self-produced videos. This study looks at how the five practices of exemplary leadership effect educators' adoption of one of these new social media technologies in their leadership classrooms.

- **The Role of Power Structures at Farmers' Markets in Food Safety Implementation**

Matthew G. Agle, Graduate Student, North Carolina State University

Cooperative Extension professionals and food safety regulators require a clear understanding of the leadership and power structures of their target audiences. Food borne disease outbreaks could be reduced if these change agents are able to defuse the concept of food safety culture.

- **Captivating the Herd: A Synthesis of Literature on Equine Facilitated Experiential Learning as an Innovative Method of Leadership Education**

Jennifer Johnson, Graduate Assistant, University of Georgia

This poster is a synthesis of literature on equine facilitated experiential learning. This review includes the origin of leadership, beginning with Xenophon and moving to Jim Collin's Level 5 leadership and Kolb's model of experiential learning, proposing the emergence of qualitative and quantitative research to serve as testament to the quality of equine facilitated experiential learning.

- **Social Capital Positively Impacts Intellectual Capital – Effective Ways to Teach Leadership in an Online Learning Environment**

Kristi Bockorny, Doctoral Student, Bellevue University

This emerging research topic will focus on how increasing social capital in an online learning environment in a leadership course will consequently increase the learner's intellectual capital.

Case Studies

- **Poor Performers in Early Education Schools: To be expected?!**

Michelle Lee Manganaro, Faculty, Massasoit College

Dr. Manganaro's case study involves a small early education school need for change in employee behavior. It considers termination and staff development and accountability. The case gives instructors a tool for considering school leadership and the influence of human behavior and personality on the organizational outcomes.

- **Respect in the Leadership Classroom**

Sara P. Ho, Doctoral Student, Texas A&M University

This case study evaluates respect as the underlying value to leadership. The classroom scenario illustrates a professor's responses to a social justice issue. Students decide a course of action to the problem supported by their knowledge of social justice, power bases, value alignment, and emotional intelligence.

- **Theoretical Contextual Application Case Study: Path-Goal Leadership and The Skills Approach**

Holly Cain, Graduate Student, University of Florida

Janna Magette, Graduate Student, University of Florida

YMAA is a premier advertising agency for commodity check off programs. One of their most popular campaigns is "Beef, It's What's for Dinner". Recently, commodity check off programs have been accused of violating the first amendment of agricultural producers. The president and vice president of YMAA must determine a strategy for sustaining their company in the face of adversity.

- **Barboursville Winery: A Leader in Virginia Wine Production**

Blake Balderson, Undergraduate Student, Virginia Tech University

Lara Edwards, Undergraduate Student, Virginia Tech University

Mary Elmer, Undergraduate Student, Virginia Tech University

Andrew Heizer, Undergraduate Student, Virginia Tech University

Patrick Hileary, Undergraduate Student, Virginia Tech University

Whitnew Perkins, Undergraduate Student, Virginia Tech University

Luca Paschina has become an innovator in the field of Agri-Tourism in Virginia because of his understanding of human behavior and vision. As the Virginia wine industry, as a whole, has expanded in the past four decades, so has Barboursville Winery. This winery is unique to other wineries because they are passionate about making wine an experience.

- **A Leadership Case Study of Social Identity Theory and Faultline Theory**

Chaney Mosley, Graduate Student, Virginia Tech University

The purpose of this case study is to facilitate an understanding of social identity theory and how social identity can lead to faultlines in organizations, while highlighting the importance of understanding social identity as a leader. Through participation in this case study, participants will better understand how culture influences leadership style.

- **The Pat Tillman Case**

Karu Anto, Graduate Student, Virginia Tech University
Ashley Drake, Graduate Student, Virginia Tech University
Lauren Howard, Graduate Student, Virginia Tech University
Rachel McDonnell, Graduate Student, Virginia Tech University
Jason Scott, Graduate Student, Virginia Tech University
Santhosh Veda, Graduate Student, Virginia Tech University
Danny White, Graduate Student, Virginia Tech University

Initial government reports indicated that former NFL star, CPL Pat Tillman, died courageously in Afghanistan while protecting fellow Army Rangers. However, Tillman's family led a massive investigation and discovered a cover-up of reports indicating that their son was killed by friendly fire. This case study highlights leadership lessons learned through the investigation.

Roundtables

- **University-Based Leadership and Economic Development Centers:
Alternative Strategies and their Relative Advantages**

Dr. Ann Farris, Associate Professor, Texas A&M – Central Texas

Dr. Barbara W. Altman, Assistant Professor/Management & Online Programs

Coordinator, Texas A&M – Central Texas

Bobbie J. Eddins, Associate Professor, Texas A&M – Central Texas

The purpose of this roundtable is to facilitate a discussion of the roles, structures, and advantages of University-based Leadership and Economic Development Centers. The results of exploratory research on the breadth of Centers will be presented. Participants will dialogue and debate the relative merits of different University centers' structures and focus, and the rationale and relative value of focusing such centers inwardly versus externally. Innovative uses of the Center concept will be highlighted.

- **Leadership Education: A Candid Conversation Among Undergraduate Students, Graduate Students, and Faculty Members**

Chelsey A. Ahrens, Doctoral Student & Research Assistant, Texas Tech University

Andrew L. Ross, Master's Student & Graduate Assistant, University of Georgia

Sarah Gervais, Undergraduate Student, Texas A&M University

K. Jill Rucker, Assistant Professor, University of Georgia

Researchers have conducted studies to compare and contrast leadership education programs, practitioners have described the process of and rationale behind creating a leadership major and leadership courses, and educators have determined best teaching practices and the ideal content to include in leadership education programs, all written from the viewpoint of faculty members. This roundtable is specifically targeted towards student and faculty participants to encourage candid conversation to discuss the best and innovative practices in leadership education from the student perspective.

- **Intentional Assessment: Connecting Programmatic Framework to Outcomes and Assessment**

Natalie Coers, Program Coordinator, College of Agricultural & Life Sciences, University of Florida

As leadership educators, focus can easily be directed on the content and delivery of a course or program. Join this discussion as we tackle the question of how do we become more intentional about assessment in leadership education and programming.

- **An Invitation to Innovation in Leadership Program Assessment**

Kerry Priest, Interim Director, Virginia Tech

Dr. Curt Friedel, Assistant Professor, Virginia Tech

*Dr. Irma O'Dell, Senior Associate Director for Administration/Associate Professor,
Kansas State University School of Leadership Studies*

Assessment is a critical component for leadership program relevance and credibility. It is widely agreed that a broad range of measures are needed to provide a fuller account of leadership development. In this session, participants will dialogue around key questions that invite new possibilities for innovative thinking and practice around leadership program assessment.

- **Infusing Culture into Leadership Education**

M'Randa R. Sandlin, M.S., Doctoral Student, Texas A&M University

Lori L. Moore, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

Robert Strong, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

James R. Lindner, Ph.D., Professor, Texas A&M University

Researchers in the Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communications at Texas A&M University are infusing culture into the leadership curriculum. The facilitators will share ongoing infusion efforts and collaborate with participants on the infusion of culture into leadership courses using eight elements of orientation in a new culture.

- **A Global Mindset: Developing Faculty Members' International Currency**

Kathryn Hollywood, Ph.D., Associate Professor & Leadership Department Chair, Concordia University, Chicago

Donna A. Blaess, Ph.D., Associate Professor & Doctoral Faculty, Leadership Department, Concordia University, Chicago

Cynthia Grant, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Research, Director of Research, Division of Research & Doctoral Programs, Concordia University Chicago

This roundtable focuses on the need for the development of a 'global mindset' and the *international currency* of leadership educators. Topics to be discussed include: (a) exploring the components of a global mindset, (b) *international currency* and intercultural leadership competencies, (c) changing the global culture of higher education, (d) creating a culture of evidence (Anderson, 2008), and (e) proposing professional development activities to enhance the global mindset and competencies of faculty members.

- **Changes in Attitudes: Promoting the Value of Leadership Majors, Minors, and Classes**

K. Jill Rucker, Assistant Professor, University of Georgia

Jennifer Williams, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

Recent studies have shown employers are satisfied with the level of discipline knowledge colleges students have upon graduation, but they find these students lack the "soft skills" needed to be successful. Leadership programs provide these skills, but often find it difficult to achieve support from university constituencies. The objective of this roundtable discussion will be to generate discussion to determine the best practices for promoting leadership education to stakeholders including employers, faculty, and students.

- **Use of Innovative Social Media Tools in Leadership Courses**

Summer F. Odom, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

M'Randa R. Sandlin, M.S., Doctoral Student, Texas A&M University
Tony Andenoro, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Gonzaga University
Robert Strong, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

Individuals experienced with innovative social media use in the classroom will share ideas that have worked well and those that have not within their courses. Participants in this roundtable will identify best practices for incorporation of social media into leadership classes and explore how social media is used to engage students in dialogue.

- **Walking the Talk of Leadership Education: Faculty Modeling Behaviors for Students**

*Dr. Christie Brungardt, Assistant Professor of Leadership Studies,
Fort Hays State University*

*Dr. Curt Brungardt, Director, Center for Civic Leadership &
Voss Distinguished Professor of Leadership Studies, Fort Hays State University*

This interactive roundtable discussion will focus on the important role of faculty members “living the discipline of leadership.” Born out of a personal tragedy, the presenters will discuss their own community engagement and their efforts to model civic leadership behaviors for their students to emulate.

- **Ethical Leadership in 21st Century Education and Politics: How Do We Establish and Maintain It?**

Jon A. Perrott, Doctoral Student & Extension Program Specialist, Texas A&M University
Dr. Chanda Elbert, Associate Professor, Texas A&M University

This interactive session provides participants the opportunity to discuss the criticality of establishing an ethical foundation in the leaders of tomorrow. Participants will gain a greater awareness of the consequences of unethical leadership and will offer alternatives to current leadership education strategies with a goal of positively impacting the field.

- **Changing Attitudes about Teamwork through Education and Role Definition**

Jessica Jarrell Poore, M.S., Lecturer, ALEC, University of Tennessee
Dr. Carrie Stephens, Professor, University of Tennessee

ALEC 103 works to help students understand how to function as members and leaders in small groups and teams. Students are prescribed typical team roles to fill each class period. Intentions are to help recreate similar exercises or activities to facilitate small group and team development and to encourage change in attitude toward team and group work from leaders and students.

- **Learning Leadership: Study vs. Practice?**

Robert E. Colvin, Ph.D., Dean, College of Social Sciences, Christopher Newport University

In university-based programs, what is the appropriate balance between the study of leadership and experientially developing skills? Participants at this roundtable will engage in a discussion of the relative strengths and weaknesses of differently designed leadership programs at the college level. A summary of the session will be provided to all participants